

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA  
SCHOOL OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL  
SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL AND  
ADMINISTRATIVE STUDIES

An Evaluation of the Impact of the Community Policing Strategy in Zambia: A  
Case Study of Lusaka Urban District.

BY

VWAMBANJI MUSAMBA

SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA IN PARTIAL  
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER  
OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

COMPUTER NUMBER: 58000561

## **Dedication**

To My Wife Elizabeth Ngimu Musamba, My Daughter Nalwamba Namusamba, My Mother Esther Nalwamba Musamba and My Late Father John Luo Musamba.

**By**

**MR. VWAMBANJI MUSAMBA**

**Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement of the Degree of Master  
of Arts in Public Administration at the University of Zambia.**

## **Declaration**

I declare that this research topic has not been submitted for a Degree in this or any other University.

## APPROVAL BY EXAMINERS

NAME.....

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

NAME.....

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

NAME.....

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

## SUPERVISOR

NAME.....

SIGNATURE.....

DATE.....

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

### Contents

#### Page

<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b> .....	<b>v</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	<b>vii</b>
<b>LIST OF ACRONYMS</b> .....	<b>x</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....	<b>xii</b>
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	<b>xiii</b>

<b>CHAPTER ONE</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1 Introduction .....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem .....	2
1.3 Study Objectives.....	2
1.3.1 General Objective .....	2
1.3.2 Specific Objectives .....	2
1.4 Rationale .....	3
1.5 Conceptual Framework .....	3
1.6 Literature Review .....	6
1.7 Methodology .....	16
1.7.1 Study Area .....	16
1.7.2 Materials and Methods .....	16
1.7.3 Types and Sources of Data.....	19
1.7.4 Data Collection Method .....	19
1.7.5 Duration of Data.....	19
1.7.6 Data Processing and Analysis .....	19
1.7.7 Problems Encountered During Research.....	19

<b>2.0 CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUND AND EVOLUTION OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN ZAMBIA</b> .....	<b>21</b>
2.1 Introduction .....	21
2.2 Development of an Organized Police in Zambia .....	22
2.2.1 The Colonial Policing Strategies: 1891-1963 .....	22
2.2.2 The Post Independence Policing Strategies: 1964-1972 .....	24
2.2.3 The Policing Strategies in the Second Republic: 1972-199 .....	26
2.2.4 The Policing Strategies in a Multi-Party Era: 1991-1994 .....	27
2.3 Conclusion .....	32

<b>3.0 CHAPTER THREE: THE NATURE AND STRATEGIES OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN ZAMBIA</b> .....	<b>34</b>
3.1 Introduction.....	34
3.2 The Nature of Community Policing in Lusaka Urban .....	35
3.2.1 Sensitization and Awareness of Community Policing .....	35
3.2.2 The Police Conduct and Accountability .....	42
3.3 The Role of the Community in Crime Prevention.....	48
3.3.1 Neighborhood Watch Associations .....	50

3.3.2 Beat or Preventive Foot Patrols.....	55
3.3.3 Community Police Posts .....	55
3.3.4 Sensitization Programmes.....	56
3.4 Conclusion .....	58
 <b>4.0 CHAPTER FOUR: THE IMPACT OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN ZAMBIA.....</b>	<b>60</b>
4.1 Introduction .....	60
4.2 The Impact of Community Policing on Crime in Zambia.....	60
4.2.1 Changing Crime Levels .....	61
4.3 Public Attitude towards Crime and the Police after CP.....	76
4.4 The Challenges of Community Policing in Lusaka Urban.....	91
4.5 Conclusion .....	99
 <b>5.0 CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS...</b>	<b>100</b>
5.1 Conclusions .....	100
5.2 Recommendations.....	103
 Bibliography .....	106
Appendices .....	113

## LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

<b>Tables</b>	<b>Page</b>
1.1: Number of officers selected from Emmasdale police establishment	17
1.2: Number of officers selected from Woodlands police establishment	17
1.3: Background characteristics of the sample for members of the public	18
1.3: Number of respondents from the public selected from six residential areas	18
3.1: Members of the community and police officers perspective on CP	35
3.2: Members of the community and police officers perspective on public involvement in community policing	38
3.3: Members of the community and police officers perspectives on training in community policing	40
3.4: Members of the Community and Police Officers Responses on Meetings Held Between Neighbourhood Watch Members and the Police	40
3.5: Classification of complaints received and dealt by the PPCA against police officers in 2003	45
3.6: The classification of complaints received and dealt by the PPCA against police officers in 2007	46
3.7: The classification of complaints received and dealt by the PPCA against police officers in 2008	46
3.8: Members of the Community and Police Officers Responses on the Neighborhood Watch Associations	52
4.1: Crime Statistics in 7 Categories of Crime in Lusaka Urban District Residential Areas, 2007-2008	61
4.2: Cases reported and dealt by Woodlands Police Station in 2007, 2008 and 2009	63
4. 1: distribution of Burglary, House Breaking and Other Breakings in High, Middle and Low Density Residential Areas of Lusaka Urban District before Community Policing	64
4.4: The distribution of Burglary, House Breaking and Other Breakings in High, Middle and Low Density Residential Areas of Lusaka Urban District after Community Policing	65
4.5: The distribution of Theft, Robbery, and Aggravated Robbery statistics: High, Middle, and Low density Residential areas of Lusaka urban district before Community Policing	66
4.6: Distribution of Theft, Robbery, and Aggravated Robbery Statistics: High, Middle, and Low Density Residential Areas of Lusaka Urban District after Community policing	67
4.7: The distribution of Rape, Assault, and Murder statistics: In High, Middle, and Low Densely Residential Areas in Lusaka Urban District before Community Policing	68
4.8: Distribution of Rape, Assault, and Murder statistics: In High, Middle, and Low Density Residential Areas in Lusaka Urban District after Community Policing	69
4.9: Comparison of Crime Rates in 1995, 2001, and 2009 at Emmasdale Police Station after community policing	71
4.10: Responses from Members of the public and police officers on crime before and after community policing	72



4.11A: Responses from members of the public on the progress made in the fight against Crime	75
4.11B: Responses from police officers on the progress made in the fight against crime	75
4.12: Summary on some of the responses on victimization and fear of crime	77
4.13: Victim's Most Important Reasons for Not Reporting Cases to the Police	79
4.14: The Level of Security Concern from Members of the Community	79
4.15: The Level of Security Concern from Police Officers	80
4.16: Responses on Public Trust on Police Ability to Deal with Crime	81
4.17: Responses on Impact of Community policing on Police Performance and Assistance to crime	82
4.18: Responses from the Members of the Community on the relationship between the Police and members of the public	84
4.19: Response from Police Officers on the relationship between the Police and members of the public	85
4.20: Responses from Members of the Public on human rights observance	87
4.21: Responses from police officers on human rights observance	87
4.22: Responses on impact of community policing on crime reduction	88

## Figures

4. 2: Bar Chart showing distribution of crime statistics levels, in Lusaka Urban district residential areas, 2007 and 2008	62
4. 3: Bar Chart showing number of cases reported and dealt by Woodlands Police Station in 2007, 2008 and 2009	63
4.3: Bar Chart showing distribution of burglary, house breaking and other breakings in high, middle and low density residential areas of Lusaka urban district before community policing	64
4.4: Bar Chart showing distribution of burglary, house breaking and other breakings in high, middle and low density residential areas of Lusaka urban district after community policing	65
4.5: Bar Chart showing the distribution of theft, robbery, and aggravated robbery statistics: high, middle, and low density residential areas of Lusaka urban district before community policing	66
4.6: Bar Chart showing the distribution of theft, robbery, and aggravated robbery Statistics in high, middle, and low density residential areas of Lusaka urban district after community policing	67
4.7: Bar Chart showing the distribution of rape, assault, and murder statistics in high, middle, and low density residential areas in Lusaka urban district before community policing	68
4.8: Bar Chart showing the distribution of rape, assault, and murder statistics in high, middle, and low density residential areas in Lusaka urban district after community policing	69

4.9: Bar Chart Showing Comparison of Crime Rates in 1995, 2001, and 2009 at Emmasdale Police Station in Lusaka Urban District	71
4.10: Responses from the members of the public on crime before and after community policing	73
4.11: Responses from Police officers on crime before and after community Policing	73
4.12: Bar Chart Showing the Distribution of Victimization and Fear of Crime	77
4.13: Summary of some Responses on the Public Trust on the Police Ability	82
4.14: Responses on police performance and assistance on crime	83
4.15: Responses from the Members of Public on relationship between the police and the public	85
4.16: Bar Chart Showing Number of Responses from the Community	87
4.17: Effectiveness of Community Policing on Crime Reduction	89
4.18: Impact of Community Policing on Gender composition of the Zambia Police Service	91

## LIST OF ACRONYMS

OABH	Occasional Assault Bodily Harm
ANC	African National Congress
BSAC	British South African Company
CBOs	Community Based Organisations
CCPA	Community Crime Prevention Association
CCPU	Community Crime Prevention Unit
CID	Criminal Investigations Department
CIO	Criminal Investigations Officer
COPE	Community Oriented Police Enforcement
CP	Community Policing
CPF	Community Policing Forums
CPOs	Community Patrol Officers
CPP	Crime Prevention Panels
CR	Crime Register
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
CSU	Community Safety Unit
CU	Chaplaincy Unity
IG	Inspector General of Police
MMD	Movement for Multi- Party Democracy
NWAs	Neighbourhood Watch Associations
OB	Occurrence Book
OIC	Officer in Charge
PPCA	Police Public Complaint Authority
PRSP	Public Service Reform Programme
RZ	Republic of Zambia
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SPOM	School of Public Order Maintenance
SSG	Special Support Group
UNIP	United National Independency Party

USA	United States of America
UTH	University Teaching Hospital
VCS	Voluntary Community Service
VIPs	Very Important People
VSU	Victim Support Unit

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

In the course of my research and preparation of this study, I was indebted to many organizations and individuals whose assistance and contribution made it possible for me to bring this work to an expeditious conclusion. Firstly, I am very grateful to the Zambia Police Service through the Office of the Inspector General of Police for the permission granted to access records and data from various Police Stations and Posts as well as from individual police officers at various levels. Thanks also go to Police Public Complaint Authority, UTH and Neighbourhood Watch Associations. Further, I acknowledge the unfailing cooperation and input in various ways by members of the police service especially in the selected Police Stations and Posts in Lusaka urban district. To all members of the public from Woodlands, Kabulonga, Nyumba Yanga, Emmasdale, Chaisa and Chipata compound communities I am deeply thankful for their cooperation and warm attitudes during the collection of data. I extend my thanks to my supervisor Dr Kaela for the valuable guidance and input in this work. Finally, I also want to record my remarkable indebtedness to my wife and my family for their moral support.

## **ABSTRACT**

The background to this study had its genesis from the fact that little was known about the impact of community policing strategy on the objectives set by the Zambia Police in 1995. The main purpose of the study, therefore, was to conduct a situation analysis and determine the extent or impact of the community policing on crime as well as on the public attitude towards crime and the police in selected communities of Lusaka urban. The study also examined the policing strategies in the colonial period (1891-1964) and the policing strategies that were employed by the Zambia police in the first, second and the early years of the third republic. In addition, find out factors if any, that hindered the implementation of community policing and possible measures to address hindrances so as to effectively implement community policing strategy programmes in selected communities of Lusaka urban district.

The study evaluated police data from 1993-2009, for 2 police stations and 4 police posts retrospectively from Emmasdale and Woodlands police stations, Chipata, Chaisa, Kabulonga and Nyumba Yanga police posts with permission of the Zambia Police Service as well as data from Police Public Complaint Authority. The Sample was collected from three categorized areas of high density populated communities of Chaisa and Chipata compounds; Middle density populated communities of Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga residential areas as well as in low density populated areas of Kabulonga and Woodlands residential areas. Two hundred and fifty (250) respondents constituted the Sample.

Field work included the distribution of questionnaires to 100 police officers using systematic random procedure at the two (2) police stations and four (4) police posts randomly selected in Lusaka urban and 130 members from the 6 randomly selected communities of Lusaka urban using simple random sampling procedure to select respondents in the sample. Purposeful sampling procedure on 20 key informants using in-depth interviews with officials within the Zambia Police Service, Neighbourhood Watch Association members, UTH Public Relations Office, Chaisa Resident Development Committee and Police Public Complaint Authority.

The findings of the study clearly indicated that despite the implementation of community policing programmes in these communities in the last 15 years, police has failed in many areas for instance, members of the public are in many instances not aware and involved in community policing, the reduction of crime by 50% as indicated in Zambia police reform objectives has not been achieved and over 95% police officers are not directly involved and not even trained in community policing. On the contrary, however, the findings of the study on community policing regarding police performance, police relationship with the public and police human rights observance, the study results shows the police have greatly improved.

However, the performance of community policing programmes in Zambia remains hindered by a myriad of factors including the exponential growth of corruption, centralization and erosion of law. Further, the police are faced with operational problems and lack resources such as transport, equipments and communication facilities, and inadequate office space, manpower, and training. Further, the inadequacy of legal document to back community policing and a weak practice of accountability measures, poor conditions of service, politicization of the Zambia Police Service and lack of professionalism are major contributing factors to the current inefficiency of the police service and the inability of the police to manage crime effectively.

The respondents, however, suggested the following measures to effectively implement community policing in Lusaka urban: It is important that the police service must look into the current nature of community policing which makes it difficult to fully involve the community and put in place sensitization/communication, coordination and cooperation measures as well as accountability mechanisms. The changes required for the roles on institutional character of the Zambia police and its crime policy can only be realized if the citizen's values are taken into consideration. Working relationships need to change as well within the police service and within the community to allow the flow of information and to remove the feeling of superiority or inferiority among officers and citizens. Police officers must also change their attitude towards each other and towards the public which is a precondition for rebuilding confidence and providing security to the society. Further leaders should also show the political will to ensure compliance with the community policing by allocating appropriate resources to the Zambia Police Service to ensure they have adequate trained manpower, office space, operational equipment and transport. Consequently, future police reform programmes should take all these factors into account when aiming to transform the Police Service totally.

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

The ever increasing crime rate in Zambia is a serious problem that needed to be attended to urgently. Today, every family and business has been directly or indirectly affected by robberies, burglaries, vandalism, sexual and other crimes. The significant increase in criminal activities impairs the overall development of a nation, undermines people's spiritual and material well-being, compromises human dignity, and creates a climate of fear and violence that erodes the quality of life. Therefore, Sound Police - Community Relations are indispensable in the fight against crime in Zambia. Without adequate involvement by the local communities in fighting crime, for example, police officers are not likely to succeed in their endeavors (Baker, 2008).

From the time of independence in 1964 to 1994, the Zambia Police Force, like many police organizations all over the world was using the Professional Model of Policing also known as the Crime Fighting Model or Traditional Approach Model which dominated the conception of the police function and the approach to organizing Police Forces and bureaucracies since the 1950s (Goldstein, 1990). In this model of policing, the key roles of the police were crime fighting, maintenance of law and order, and emergency response. Therefore, it focused the police agencies inwards than on building a symbiotic relationship with the community. Hence during this time the Zambia Police Force was militaristic whose main role was to ensure civil order. This eruditive police force by its nature was reactive rather than interactive or proactive. Therefore, it was claimed that traditional approaches to crime control were characterized by limited involvement from the public. Basically there was over reliance by the public on the police for protection and fighting crime problems (Hatchard and Ndulo, 1994).

With the crime fighting model in place, the crime rate continued to rise in Zambia which made the policing strategy inappropriate. As a result in 1994, the Zambia Police decided to embark on Police Reforms with the aim of making the police more efficient in preventing and fighting crime by transforming it from a force to a service. In 1995 the Zambia Police Service came up with the Strategic Development Plan (SDP) for the period 1995-2000, following the Zambia Police Reforms. The aim of the strategic plan was to spell out the way forward for the Zambia Police in order to suit with the emerging democratic principles obtaining in the country. The purpose of the Police Reforms was to come up with a community friendly and professional police, able to combat the high crime rate whilst respecting individual human rights. This would subsequently bridge the gap between the police and the community.

According to the Strategic Development Plan (1995-2000), the Zambia Police Reforms general objectives were:

- To reduce rising levels of crime, especially, violent crime by 50% by the year 2000;
- To reduce the Human Rights Abuses by half by the year 2000.
- To improve the Public Image of the Police.
- To improve Public/Police Cooperation and Partnership.



As the main strategy for fulfilling the objectives, the Zambia Police Service adopted the Community Based Policing Model of law enforcement. Musonda (2002) explains that the model was adopted because of its ability to address a specific citizens concerns and its demand for change and resource accountability. Community policing is based on the premise that the partnership between the police and citizens will help increase public safety and reduce crime. There is need for innovative approaches to fighting or preventing crime that may call for extensive community cooperation, planning, and outreach. Therefore, community policing requires shared ownership, decision making and accountability. This is what is referred to as the Partnership Approach. Overall, community policing model has a positive impact on reducing crime, helping to reduce fear of crime and enhancing the quality of life in the community (Adler, 1995:423).

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

In 1995 the government of Zambia, through the Zambia Police Service, adopted community policing strategy in which crime prevention through community participation and partnership with the police was emphasized. Despite the strategy being in place for over 15 years, there were indications that the situation on the ground was not in harmony with the Zambia Police Reform objectives. The crime in Zambia appeared to be increasing and the evidence that crime was going up is readily available through the public out cry on various news media and other fora as well as the Zambia police crime statistics. The Zambia police official crime statistics provided by the Victim Support Unit (VSU) show that reported violent crimes against women and children increased steadily between 1998 and 2004. For instance, reported cases rose from 473 in 1998 to 32479 in 2004 and this upward trend applied to other crimes. Further the police statistics show increased numbers of reported crime in Lusaka Province rose by more than 50% between 2003 and 2007. For example, reported cases rose from 25419 in 2003 to 66538 in 2007 (Victim Support Crime Statistics, 2008). Therefore, the study highlights the emergence of community policing strategy with a particular focus on crime prevention and in the process evaluating the success and failure of the community policing strategy in fighting crime and the attitude the citizens have today towards crime and the police.

## **1.3 STUDY OBJECTIVES**

### **1.3.1 General Objective**

To investigate the impact of community policing strategy on crime prevention, and the public attitude towards crime and the police in Zambia.

### **1.3.2 Specific Objectives**

Specific objectives of the study are:

- To identify and examine the types of community policing programmes put in place to fight crime in Zambia.

- To assess the impact of community policing programmes in enhancing crime reduction, and to see the change in public attitude on crime and the police in Zambia.
- To state and examine the factors that have negatively affected the effective implementation of community policing strategy in Zambia

#### **1.4 RATIONALE**

This study would be beneficial to the Zambia Police Force because not much study has been conducted to unearth factual information on the impact of Community Policing Strategy in Zambia. The information on the impact of community policing strategy would help the police command to plan effectively for appropriate management strategies on crime. The study results would also act as an impetus or catalyst to the Ministry of Home Affairs, the Police, Law makers and other partners in the policing of crime to plan for a holistic approach in the management of crime. Management of crime should look beyond the curative and reactive strategies but should include appropriate pro and core-active management crime strategies. It would also serve as a data base for further research on the gaps identified by other scholars.

#### **1.5 CONCEPTUAL/ THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

Over the centuries three institutions of policing have been constantly active. There are the local collective voluntary policing alongside informal communal control: it sees local solutions as the answer to local problems and may function on the basis of rules and values at variance with the state. Then there is client based contract policing as individuals specializing in policing offer their services on a fee basis. Finally there is a public policing that offers to serve all on the basis of state law. The community, business and the state have constantly been the authorizers and providers of policing.

With all the new developments in policing, plus the continuation of order traditions of self provision, theorizing has struggled to keep pace with reality. The mid-19<sup>th</sup> century ideology of policing, that it was a public good and therefore deserved a state monopoly, was largely unchallenged intellectually until the early 1990s. It was regarded as self-evident that the functions such as regulating society and maintaining order, preserving security, preventing crime and restoring order, and the use where necessary of instruments of coercion to assist any of these were matters for the state to undertake and the state alone. Only in the state's hands, it was argued, could policing activities be required to be accountable, consistent and humane. Thus, what had only been the experience for several years in the West, was regarded as 'natural' and 'right', whilst the longer historical pattern of diversity and plurality by non-state authorizers and providers was unimaginable. Those proposing its revival were vilified as promoting morally suspect vigilantes, mercenaries and commercial interests (Baker, 2008).

However, today the 'state monopoly' discourse does not fit people's experience in the society, which is one of multiple authorizers and providers. In Africa, where the post-colonial state has always been much weaker than in the West, this is even more the case. Faced with an absent, inefficient, corrupt and at times brutal state police service, citizens never cease to provide their own local solutions and have initiated new forms with or

without the approval of the state. State approved community –based policing can include customary structures, Neighbourhood Watch Groups, Community Policing Forums, Local Government Crime Prevention Bodies, Vigilantes and Street Patrols. Today in Africa, it is common to see non-state agencies engaged in street patrolling, guarding private and public property, order maintenance, arrest, search, detection, surveillance, inspection and personal escort/protection. In fulfilling many of these duties they commonly bear firearms and other means of coercion, such as handcuffs, truncheons and pepper spray to, if necessary, enforce their activities. In other words such policing groups do everything that the public police force does and do it as the police do it. Or, put another, law enforcement is broader activity than simply what “The Police’ do”.

It can be argued, therefore, that policing has to look beyond the state and beyond the formal. As Hills rightly observes, ‘the focus should be on policing (as in the provision of order and enforcement) rather than on what organizations call themselves. How the police style themselves is less important than what they do or do not do’ (Hills, 2001).

The failure to recognize the difference between policing and police, leads to popular assumption ‘that any solution to the governance of crime/fear will, inevitably, be a state led alone’ (Johnson, 2001:959). Stimulated by the argument that policing is not synonymous with the police, some have stretched the concept of policing to mean communal control in all its forms. However, when this is done, the term is left explaining everything and nothing. In response to this, Reiner argues that policing involves ‘the creation of systems of surveillance coupled with the threat of sanction directed at preserving the security of a particular social order (Reiner, 1977:1005)

The purposive element is the necessary part of the definition, but it is not sufficient. For example, it still leaves the issue of whether policing must involve ‘a conscious exercise of power’, as Jones and Newburn claim (1998:18). In addition, it can be argued, as does Shearing, that policing fundamentally is not so much about the exercise of power/coercion as about the establishment of security and peace; security being the preservation of some established order against threat (Shearing, 1992). This thinking underlies the Community Policing Strategies being implemented by the Zambia Police Service.

Therefore, policing in this formulation is not only about a network of agencies and community groups rather than about a single state police force, but clearly focused on governance rather than coercion. Johnson also supports this security emphasis, on the grounds that it is wider than crime and reflects people’s concern for more than just protection from crime. He defines policing as ‘a purposive strategy involving the initiation of techniques which are intended to offer guarantees of security to subjects’ (Johnson, 1999a: 178-79). The advantage of putting security, peace and order at the center of what constitutes policing is that it removes policing from being an exclusively criminological activity, confined to the domain of criminal justice. Crime is only one source of people’s insecurity (Ibid: 178-79). The security framework is also a reminder of why the state police service is only one provider of policing and can never be the sole one.

Acknowledging the arguments that policing contains the elements of purpose action and the provision of security, the study intends to use the following definition of policing. Policing can therefore, be defined as any organized activity, whether by the state or non-state groups, that seek to ensure the maintenance of communal order , security and peace

through elements of prevention, deterrence, investigation of breaches, resolution and punishment (Baker, 2008). While on the other hand, according to Reiner, Police refers to social-political and quasi legal institutional state agencies charged primarily with the enforcement of the law, the maintenance of order and community service (Reiner, 2000:2-3).

There are many perspectives that try to explain the evolution of the police and policing conceptually. Several related conceptual frames have been suggested in recent years and although some were primarily proposed with the Western world in view, they still have value in explaining the nature of the Zambia Police Force and its policing strategies. The first may be called Neo-Feudalism where private and public policing are sharply divided, with the former being primarily concerned with commercial security. It is an order where the 'undesirables' have been excluded through methods other than law and largely through the consensus of participants and the design of the environment. Therefore, the neo-feudal frame suggest a clear-cut separation between private and public orders of policing that did not fit the world of overlapping and cooperative patterns of security (Shearing and Kempa,2000).

The second conceptual frame is the Multilateral Policing. Bayley and Shearing (1996) argue that policing is authorized by a variety of sponsors: economical interests (formal and informal, legal and illegal), residential communities, cultural communities, individuals and governments. Further on the one hand, a variety of non-governmental organizations have assumed responsibility for their own protection, whilst on the other hand a variety of non- governmental agencies have undertaken to provide services. It has also been noted by Johnston (2001: 965), commenting on the active role of citizens in both authorizing and providing policing. Citizens rather than being the passive consumers of police services, engage in a variety of productive security activities. Such co-production ranges from individual/ household activities with police cooperation, group activities supported by the police (liaison groups, neighborhood watch groups), to those denied such support (hiring a private security patrol to protect a group of residences, engaging in citizen patrol). Therefore, in their view policing is diverse, though both public and private policing have significant differences, nevertheless they have important features in common. They are both forces of coercion engaged to preserve internal communal order and they draw on similar control and investigative techniques. It is then, increasingly hard to separate them analytically.

A third conceptual frame is the one proposed by Loader called plural networked policing (Loader, 2000). This conceptual frame, like the multi policing recognizes that the state is not (and cannot be) the sole source of both the provision and accountability in policing, but emphasizes the relationship and co-operation between the diverse policing groups. In other words it is not just that the boundaries between the state and non-state institutions have 'blurred' but they have been transformed by new partnerships. Though diverse, Loader argues that policing groups are not to be seen as isolated autonomous groups, but as together providing a security network across society. He talks of the network of power in which the state is but one node (Ibid, 2000).

This is the frame that recognizes a multiplicity of state, market and community groups loosely networked to provide shared control order and authority. Policies of partnership take plural- network policing as an opportunity to extend order and security. Though many nodes are acknowledged, this frame assumes the primacy of state law and still

regards the government as the primary node. These security networks tend to be defined in terms of the variable relationship with the state. It is now common to see governments, who until recently labeled citizen participation in policing as Vigilantism, encouraging citizen participation in self policing schemes like Neighborhood Watch. However, it can be argued that the prominence of the state may well fit current Western patterns, but in Africa and other parts of the developing world, where the state police are largely absent in the rural areas and poorer neighbourhoods of the towns, this paradigm is unsatisfactory.

It can then be argued that, despite the inadequacies, this conceptual frame still underpins contemporary debates about the police and policing the communities in a democratic society through community policing.

## **1.6 LITERATURE REVIEW**

Much academic literature on policing constructs the choice as one between accountable public policing and minimally accountable private policing (Stenning, 2000). However, for Africans their experiences are 'what is available', 'what works best' and 'what is affordable', more than issues of who controls the policing body and to whom are they accountable. Within this view, it can then be argued that these security terminologies become problematic as popular understandings give different shades of meaning or different applications. Thus 'public' and 'private' do not exist as straightforward terms in popular experience. Public policing not only fails to serve all equally, but neither is it free. For instance, to secure interest, investigation and prosecution of a criminal case may well necessitate people offering bribes. Further, daily encounters with public policing at roadblocks and at roadside vending pitches is costly, mostly the offenders have been forced to bribe the police.

Policing has always existed and communities everywhere have sought to maintain order to correct and discipline those who depart from community accepted behavior. In the largely rural population of pre-industrial Europe, for instance crime control and maintenance of order was a local community affair. Policing was fulfilled by collective task and sometimes also through Voluntary Community Service (VCS) on rotation basis (as constables, a watchman, and patrols) (McMullan, 1987).

There has been no any ideal policing model for African Police Forces because the position of the state in most African countries has been very fragile. Traditionally, however, most police forces all over the world have been using the Professional Model of Policing which dominated the conception of the police function and the approach to organizing police services and bureaucracies since the 1950s (Goldstein , 1990). August Vollmer, the proponent of the professional model is one of the most prominent figures in the history of police and policing. A professional police had to be non- political, well recruited, well trained, well disciplined, and equipped with modern technology; members were to be part of the civil service, selected and advanced by merit. However, while the pioneers were professionalizing police forces, many police forces were corrupt, superficial in training and inadequate training.

The police officer's major role in profession model of policing are: crime fighting, maintenance of order and emergency response (Adler, 1995). However, it can be argued that these three police functions may be considered to be in conflict under the

professional police system. For example, the conflict that may arise between law enforcement and order maintenance is that promotion and recognition of professional achievements are primarily based on measurable productions, such as the number of arrests, convictions and traffic tickets issued. This tendency is believed to discourage the performance of social services functions of the police. It can further be critically argued that police role and functions seem to be moving in the direction of paramilitary and political police, expanding the repressive and coercive role of police.

Furthermore, the proponents of community policing argued that professional model of policing ignored the factors that most communities regarded as a priority (Brogden: 2004). For instance, they argued that as policing became more professional, increasing emphasis was placed on crime fighting (the law enforcement models) and less on the type of policing that enhanced harmonious relations within the community, reduced fear of crime and fostered cooperation between citizens and police (the order maintenance function) (Adler, 1995) .

Therefore, it may be argued that despite professional policing model being challenged in the 1960s, in the wake of civil unrest, the functions of the police in Africa (Zambia) have always been closely linked to the development of the state because the police play such a vital role in the relationship between central political authority and the population. Most governments have had militaristic police forces whose main role was ensuring civil order .To do this, they had to use excessive violence and brutality to quell down any opposition to the political authorities (Mohamed, 2002). This as agued by Reiner (2000), contributed to the ineffectiveness of professional or fighting model to have a significant impact on crime rates or on individual or community safety and security. Hence proponents of Community Policing Model claim that traditional or professional model of policing had simply failed to deliver the goods and that community policing is the evolutionary response.

Further it may be argued that the successful performance of the law enforcement, maintenance of order, and community service functions required that the police had the trust, respect and cooperation of the public. Yet good police- community relations had all but vanished during the era of professionalization. Therefore, the most widely accepted model for improving police-community relations to fight crime is that of Community Policing. Community policing generally consist of programs and policies based on a partnership between the police and the community they serve. Some observers used the term “community wellness” to describe the philosophy behind this kind of policing. According to Cordner and Trojanowkz (1992:11), the emphasis of community policing is on working in collaboration with residents to determine community needs and the best way to address them and to involve citizens as “co-producers of public safety”.

Among the goals of community policing are a reduction in fear of crime, the development of closer ties with the community, the engagement of residents in a joint effort to prevent crime and maintain order, and an increase in the level of public satisfaction with police services. Skolnick and Bayley (1988) argued that many types of strategies were described as community policing, including increased use of Foot Patrol, Storefront Police Stations (Police Posts), Community Surveys, Police Sponsored Youth Activities, Police-Community Relations Programmes and Neighborhood Watch Programmes.

Community policing may appear to be new in the Zambian context of policing but on the world scene community policing is neither new nor unique. Other countries have much more active programmes in community policing than what is currently obtaining in Zambia. In Japan for example, officers are stationed in a mini-police station called a Koban in each neighborhood this can be related to police posts in Zambia. The Koban has a reception room, a small kitchen, an interview area, and a lost and found service; it serves the important function of soliciting recommendations for what the police might do to help the community. Further, Norway, Singapore and the USA also have such mini-police stations (Adler, 1983). Therefore, the idea behind this approach is that the communities have different needs and priorities that the police have to be aware of if efforts to prevent crime are to be effective.

Policies of partnership like community policing as indicated, take plural networked policing as an opportunity to extend order and security. However, the challenge is to work with a range of policing groups so that they perform a genuine service to society and not to become too independent and self-serving. For many policy-makers co-operation means “community policing” that will bring together the police closer to the people since “the police cannot win the war against crime alone” (Shearing and Wood, 2003). By way of illustration, attention is drawn to government initiatives to ‘Voluntarise’ and ‘Civilianize’ security provisions so called “responsibilisation strategies” to encourage individuals and organizations outside state apparatus to take responsibility for crime prevention and security (Newburn, 2001).

There can be no doubt that community policing has been popular with the public and the Zambia Police. In practice, however, community policing is primarily seen as a policy of enhancing the state police and remains ‘police property’ (Reiner, 2000), that is, a police-led and state centered initiative against crime and disorder. This has led to frustrations on both sides for instance, it may be argued that the public are not engaged in problem identification, prioritisation and solving. Further, it may be argued that the police see crime prevention associations as time consuming in consultation and too threatening to their management and operational independent. Furthermore, it may also be argued that state police in African set up are often reluctant to let civilians meddle in ‘their’ domain, or closely scrutinize how the police operate. More fundamentally, the very concept of ‘community’ is problematic. In reality the community is not uniform, definable entity: communities are extremely divided with little commonalities in terms of needs and aspirations. Community implies shared beliefs and values; directly; many sided relationships between members; and reciprocity. But given Africa’s (Zambia’s) frequently divided and fragmented societies, it is not certain whether such relationships exist. Yet the logic of community policing assumes communities to be form of association capable of informal social control. It assumes that the shared values can be used to regulate individual activities for the common good. In addition, there are issues as to whether all communities have the social capital to effectively undertake informal control (Baker, 2008).

Given the limitations of police service in Zambia, it is inevitable that citizens will mobilize to play a role in keeping law and order and implementing anti-crime strategies. Therefore, in the last 15 years Zambia police has undergone a number of positive reforms aimed at enhancing its effectiveness to fight and reduce crime. The Zambia police for example, introduced community policing in 1995, and this was in line with their mission

statement. According to Zambia Police Strategic Development Plan (1995-2000), their mission statement stated that,

*“We, the Zambia Police Service are committed to providing high quality service, by upholding and applying the law fairly and firmly to all. We will apply pro-active methods to prevent crime, arrest those who break the law and take them to court and assist the victims of crime through counseling. We are committed to cultivating rapport with the community.*

*We pledge to respect individual human rights while recognizing the community’s expectations and obligations.*

*We are committed and will review our roles and are ready to change our approaches to law enforcement methods where necessary, in order to facilitate good democratic governance, while upholding our professional standards and ethics.”*

In Zambia, several police initiatives have been described as community policing varying from Beat Patrol to Neighborhood Watch Group Patrols, Community Police Posts, Village Policing Schemes, Citizen Crime Prevention Units and Sensitization and Awareness Programmes (Musonda, 2002). But it is not clear that these initiatives deliver the quality of service that the Zambia Police Service seek in their mission statement or that they were ever intended to do so. It may be argued that the Zambia Police Service faces the dilemma of how to deliver quality service acceptable to the community, while simultaneously exerting a coercive force over that community to maintain order. As one commentator suggests that quality service is a mere cloak for the coercive function of the police and does not eliminate it (Brown, 1988).

However, this criticism could be evaded if quality service consistently were linked to consent and accountability and not to response time and image as is often the case. Current initiatives will be unlikely to succeed if they are arrived at without community consent, consultation or internal support. But can this be achieved when trust and confidence in the police have fallen and civil rights issues have grown, when the media increasingly question the police role? Objections are also made to any assumption that the community is one homogenous group; there are many communities or “customers of the police,” each with its own profile, hopes and expectations, and needs.

If policing in the Zambia police service is now primarily measured by provision of quality service, one must define both quality and service. Quality means an excellence of deposition, a mental or moral attribute, trait or characteristic, an accomplishment or attainment. It relates to professionalism, and varies from best to acceptable, unacceptable, and worst. In management terms, quality is the result of a carefully constructed cultural environment. It must include the whole organization, not just part of it. Services of good quality often assume to be customer driven, meeting customers’ agreed requirements at lowest cost, first time and every time (Crosby, 1990). Quality should be an ongoing process, always aiming to improve. Achieving this requires cultural change through training, planning, identifying and understanding customer needs and expectations, and developing a process for their accomplishment. But considering the current state of the Zambia police service, is it able to meet all the mentioned requirements to satisfy the community needs? The response is negative. Therefore, ‘quality in policing might be defined as the totality of features or characteristics of a police service that bear on its



ability to satisfy a given need; in other words, the provision of the right service at the right time, and at a reasonable price' (Ebbe, 1996).

A 'service' on the other hand, is a branch of public employment or body of public servants concerned with some particular work or supplying particular needs (Ibid,1996). The Zambia police service serves the sovereign, the state, and the community. They also serve to enforce laws and maintain order as representatives of the community. However, it should be argued that this last point is not universally agreed on. Some insist that the police role is law enforcement and order maintenance only that, "such a role (service) does not belong to the police work (Kinsey, Lea, and Young, 1986). This point of view gains support from a number of police officers who do not regard service jobs as 'real' policing. Some may think that the main job for the police service is coercive action, but one must also take account of how the Zambia police themselves view their role. The following are the key service areas of the police: (1) public contact management; (2) crime management; (3) traffic management; (4) public tranquility; and (5) community partnership and reassurance.

However, it could be argued that demand for community services from the police must be balanced against demands for police coercion and readiness to meet conflict, successful police services will combine these two. Only once this balance has been attained will quality considerations enhance the service provision. Goldstein argues that the ultimate objective for all efforts to improve the police is to increase capacity to deliver high quality service and equip police to do so in ways which are consistent with, and support, democratic values (Ebbe, 1996).

In the early 1970s a community policing strategy called team policing became a popular way to enhance contacts between citizens and police. Team policing has been a response to the riots in the inner cities, the perception of the police as an army of occupation and the limited familiarity on the part of officers with the needs of the neighborhoods they served. According to Adler (1995), the proponents of team policing hoped that if the image of the police is changed from that of an enemy to that of a friend, law enforcement activities would be a great deal more effective. Further, other experts argue that, team policing has indeed helped to encourage crime control through better police-community relations because in team policing, a team of officers, rather than individual officers, carries out the policing responsibilities (Kenney, 1972). Nevertheless, team policing can be critiqued on the basis whether it really differs much from routine patrol activities. Therefore, it is difficult to determine its effectiveness on the prevention of crime or on the increased number of crime problem solved.

Another way in which police can enhance community relations is through problem oriented policing. In problem solving approach, police work with citizens to identify and respond to community problems. The proponent Herman Goldstein (1990) warns that police too often focus on specific incidents. Their objective is to get to places fast to stabilize the situation and to get back into service quickly. But Goldstein argues that the police cannot reduce or prevent crime this way they need to be more problem-oriented and less incident oriented particularly in community consultation and problem identification. Such consultation will allow a redefining of the police role and function. It is not sufficient merely to pursue order maintenance or crime control; rather, police and community must define what local problems exist and the appropriate response.

Consultation can occur through a multi-agency group, a community group, or through local teams of police officers providing contact and reassurance.

It may be argued however, if consultation is the seeking of consent, how effective is that process and with whom do the police consult? Further, are all consultations true two way pursuits of consensus, or are they mere instances of contact such as school visit or Neighborhood Watch talk? One weakness in consultation programs is the limited opportunities they provide to discuss a response to problems as they arise. This is particularly noticeable in Zambia, where formal meetings are held, in most cases there are no such meetings for a long time. Another weakness is the tendency to represent a very large section of the area's population. Specific problems affecting local community would likely to be known and raised at large group meetings.

One cannot easily gauge whether representation by such a large group is effective, but one can deduce from the infrequency of meetings that they are not suitable vehicle for attempting to meet community expectations and needs. Formal community consultation, in Zambia then, has great weaknesses in addition to its underrepresentation of the young males and females, marginalized poor people, motorists and offenders, whose unwillingness to attend such a formal forum compromises any hope that this style of consultation could achieve the goal of quality service in the Zambia police service. As a result, police will continue to choose their own policing style, subject to government pressures, and little effort will be made to address the causes behind lack of consultation.

Further, another effort in community policing to improve police community relations involves the reintroduction of the pre-world war II practice of "walking the beat" It has been felt that patrol cars isolated officers from citizens and that if police had been put back on the streets, people would get to know them and feel a greater sense of security. Sherman (1987) argued that preventive foot patrol, which entails an increase in police presence and visibility, deters criminals from committing crimes and thereby reduces citizen's fear and fosters good police community relations. However, foot patrols or "walking the beat" can be critiqued on the basis that allocating more police to entire neighborhoods does not always have a deterrent effect because not all areas of neighborhood are highly risk for crime. The police presence, rather than being distributed over the whole neighborhood, should be intensified in hot spots of crime, particular places within neighborhood that are the source of the most calls to the police.

Another strategy for enhancing public perception of the police consists of police-community relations programmes. According to Sweeny (1982,) these programmes do not change the basic method of policing; but by reaching out into the community, they have good results as there is:

- Increased likelihood of citizen's cooperation in providing information to assist in law enforcement.
- More voluntary compliance with the law
- Improved relations with majority groups
- Community support for budget appropriations in an environment of competing demands.

Apart from the possible crime prevention and detection, if the programmes are properly implemented, a key advantage of citizen involvement in crime prevention may lead to an instilling in members of the public a sense of belonging and cohesion and feeling of competence and efficacy. This may in turn lead to higher moral and ethical standards.

Civic engagement thus serves to improve both the government and the citizen. This cooperation in crime prevention activities may ultimately lead to a reduction in crime and the fear of crime, thus encouraging closer community relations among the residents and also with the police. However, the critical part of this strategy is that for it to be successful, it mainly relies on close and regular contacts within the community. But considering the Zambian situation is it possible to maintain regular contacts between the police and the public when the Zambia police is faced with inadequate manpower, lack of police presence in certain areas especially shanty compounds due to lack of office accommodation, and lack of transport. Another critique is based on the premise that the majority areas are poor hence support for budget appropriations is impossible to be achieved.

Since the introduction of Zambia Police Reforms in 1994, there has been no major written literature on the impact of community policing in relation to Zambia. However, there is some literature on the way Zambia police has been policing its citizens in an effort to fight crime. The Zambia police Annual Reports of 1964 to 1972, have largely identified the shortage of qualified manpower and efforts of the liberation struggles in Neighboring countries and the emergency of armed robberies involving the use of fire arms in the late 1960s and early 1970s especially in the Copper Belt Province, as having influenced the police policing strategies in combating crime. These reports also indicate that the Lumpa uprising and the Mushala Rebellion had a bearing on the policing system adopted by the Zambia Police Service of using the paramilitary police at that time. The emergency of armed robberies influenced the formation of flying Squad basing more on militaristic approach of fighting crime through rapid response.

Authors such as (Hatchard and Ndulo, 1994) have also identified that lack of manpower undoubtedly seriously affected, police effectiveness to fight crime. As the Inspector General of police notes in his 1986 Annual Report: "There is an acute shortage of both administrative and operational manpower. Crime which could easily be contained has accelerated due to lack of beat and general patrols by the police. The little manpower which is available is engaged in guarding vital installations, banks, and VIPs and only a few are left to patrol and protect the general public" (P.I).

Further the introduction of one party constitution had a negative impact on the administration and policing of the police force as well. For instance, the party supremacy principle meaning that, all police officers were required to sit for Political Education Examination and the Inspector General of Police was sitting on the United National Independence Party (UNIP) Central Committee. In an effort to assist the police through the Zambia Police Amendment Act of 1985, in 1986 the government introduced the use of Vigilante Patrols. Vigilante required the approval of the party officials to operate. These were formed into section consisting of at least five people, and having the task of patrolling urban areas, tracking and if possible identifying criminals; and assisting the police in detecting and apprehending any person suspected of committing an offence (Hatchard and Ndulo, 1994). The literature further, stresses that the policing of crime was also being affected by serious shortage of police stations in urban areas. For example, while the population of Lusaka is ever increasing since 1964, no new major stations have been built. Consequently, this placed an enormous strain on existing stations. Small

stations which were built and established to cater for small areas prior to independence, catered for areas ten times large than they had been designed to cover (Ibid, 1994).

However, the critical analysis of this literature is that it is not very much related to community policing strategies because it is concerned with general policing strategies and their challenges that characterized the period between 1964 and 1994. Therefore, it can be concluded that the work is very much related to professional model of policing or the crime fighting model which was more militaristic approach than the partnership approach currently obtaining in Zambia.

With the introduction of police reforms in 1994, literature on police reforms through community policing has appeared in form of the Police Reforms Policy Document of 1994, Zambia Police Strategic Plans of 1995 to 2000 and 2001- 2006, and the Zambia Police Research and Planning Unit Document on Policing Changes in the Zambia Police of 1997. Other documents include the 1999 Police (Amendment) Act, the Police Annual Reports from 1995 to 2006 and the Strategic Plan for the Ministry of Home Affairs of 2003 – 2007. Another literature relating to police reforms through community policing is in the book by Ndhlovu (1995), entitled “Introducing Community Policing in Zambia”.

Nevertheless, these publications or documents have mainly concentrated on the mission statement and the police objectives. While Ndhlovu’s book is more on the history of the Zambia Police Force and how reforms were introduced and the adopting of community policing strategy to prevent and fight crime in Zambia. As a result these publications and documents never attempted to evaluate the impact of Community Policing Strategy on crime in Zambia. Therefore, the literature is concentrating mainly on the origins of policing in England, the evolution of policing in Zambia, as well as the politicization of the police between 1972 and 1991, the introduction of the Zambia Police Reforms in 1994 and the adoption of community policing as a strategy to prevent, fight and reduce crime in Zambia.

Further literature related to community policing in Zambia, is the work done by F.X Musonda (2002), in the book entitled the “History and Reformation of Zambia Police Service”. While his work was done some good seven years after implementation of community policing strategies in Zambia, however, his work has failed to explain why community policing strategy has not fared well to reduce crime in Zambia. But instead the book followed the same path like Ndhlovu’s book by concentrating on the historical developments of the police force in Zambia which was characterized by militaristic type of policing and politicization of the Zambia police by UNIP leadership. The literature emphasized more on the policing of civil disturbances by the Mobile Police Unit, the creation of Para-Military Police for the purpose of securing the borders and the creation of the Flying Squad for controlling armed robberies.

Furthermore, the literature concentrated on the creation of the Vigilantes (the party police) in order to bring the police in line with party policing programmes. The literature ignored much needed information on the impact of community policing in Zambia and delved much on the discussion of how Police Reforms were introduced and the adoption of community policing. Further, it plainly discussed the leadership style of Inspector General of Police who was at the helm of leadership during the reformation of the Zambia police instead of critically evaluating the performance of community policing. Though in little sense it acknowledges some failures, the literature evaluated the human rights observance by the Zambia police in which the police have been criticized in the

way they handled the suspects of the coup attempt of 28<sup>th</sup> October 1997, as well as the handling of the Public Order Act on the opposition political parties. The literature also argued that under the leadership of Mr Francis Ndhlovu, there was growing public discontent over police inertial and failure to contain the rising wave of crime, which traumatized the citizens. However, this statement may be criticized because no evaluation on crime has ever been carried out to ascertain the levels of crime then, it was just based on the information from the print media which could not be scientifically proved. Therefore, the literature in Musonda's book fell short to bring out the actual information on the impact of community policing in relation to crime reduction, relationship between the public and the police and the change of public attitude towards the police. The literature only concentrated on the negative part of the police and leaving out the positive role community policing played under the leadership of Mr Francis Ndhlovu.

The literature "under-appreciated" the role community policing played under the reign of Ndhlovu. Yet it was during his reign that the police underwent a number of positive reforms that enhanced police effectiveness for example, the creation of most community police posts which brought the police closer to the community and hence improved the relationship between the police and community, the introduction of Community Services Directorate which oversees the implementation of community policing programmes like Victim Support Unit, Community Liaison Unit and other units. Furthermore, it was under his reign between 1993 and 2000 that also included human rights on the police curriculum at all police training institutions.

Finally, some literature on police reforms in other countries like Multi-Choice Policing in Africa with keen interest on "*Who is Policing Uganda and Sierra Leone?*" by Bruce Baker (2008), Comparative International and Criminal Justice System Policing, Judiciary and Corrections on "*Policing and Public Disorder in the United Kingdom*" by Ebbe (1996), 'The Future of Policing', Law and Society Review, by Bayley, D. and Shearing. (1996), and other literature is of some help in understanding the dynamic of police reforms and community policing strategies in Zambia. The above reviewed literature emphasizes that during the past three decades, police forces all over the world have been restructuring their organization with a view to changing the internal culture of organization, increasing operational performance, efficiency and cooperation with the public. However, it may be argued that the restructuring process and preferred policing strategies have been varying due to the fact that there is no agreed definition of what the police are. This is a result of the given differences of origin-legal, culturally and organizationally of police forces internationally. Also the reforms have been affected by the different political, economic, legal, institutional and personality factors, and also depending on the type of political regime.

Therefore, from the preceding literature it can then be concluded that since inception in 1995, community policing in Zambia has scarcely been researched to explain its impact on crime and other issues it was adopted for. The neglect on studies of community policing is all the more unexpected, given the large output of studies on democracy, human rights abuse and good governance in Zambia. Policing is surely crucial to how citizen enjoy the freedoms of democracy and the protection of government, and how they view their government. Therefore, the Zambia Police Service has been failing to identify the gaps it needs to improve upon its policing strategies to prevent, fight and reduce

crime and how to provide a quality service to its citizen. This study sets out to redress this neglect.

However, the lessons learnt from the reviewed literature is that since the introduction of community policing which was in line with their mission statement and the changing from “Police Force” to “Police Service” is that in Zambia today, the police appear confused about their role. On the one hand, they seek to provide quality service, which could be achieved through community contacts; on the other hand, they continue to place emphasis not on consultation but on instant response being available to exert a coercive force. Such constant response, often to repeat calls, does little to address causes-causes which might be identified if the police were to depend on responsible low-level consultation. The advantage by lowering the rank level of formal community consultation helps to achieve three objectives. First, the formal group will represent a much smaller, more clearly defined section of the population; second, the community will take part in decision-making; and finally, a multi-agency approach will be adopted within the community in order to consider both crime and its causes and give some level of public ownership to the policing initiative. The current policing initiatives for police high quality service as stated in the Zambia police mission statement will be unlikely to attain the prime objective of community policing, that is, enhancing relationships between the police and the community. It seems necessary to consider new community policing initiatives for Zambia police which not only meets community expectations on crime control and prevention and order maintenance but also meets the need for quality of life and feeling of safety, neither of which exists now.

Zambia police needs to adapt to that philosophy of community policing which most empowers the local officer, and which links that officer with the community through effective consultation unlike what is obtaining now where the police service consistently fail to consult effectively. The literature is largely critical of the police role, hence has called for a strategy by which the police should cooperate at all levels with various groups that represent the community in order to detect and deter crime. But this argument is critical in the sense that a problem from one community cannot be generalized. Therefore, policing must meet different needs in different communities and will require different strategies of crime and order control.

Other lessons learnt from the reviewed literature is that low police visibility and lack of regular contact with the community may cause citizens to feel that there is no one to define and enforce social norms, and that the police neither knew nor cared about them. The belief by the police that members of the public may not know what is best for them has negatively impacted consultation between the police and the community. In neglecting to respond to the very needs of those elements of the community, police may appear to have lost the caring dimension in the quality of service as stated in the mission statement and consequently undermine public confidence in the police. The conflict may be addressed by changing the culture of the police service, to change behavior, police officers must change attitudes by accepting service as their role rather than perceiving service oriented quality as being imposed upon them.

Overall, the lessons learnt in the literature review is that given the limitations of the state police in Zambia, meant that they have not been able to provide crime protection and crime investigations for all citizens. As a result, it is inevitable that citizens will mobilize to play a role in keeping law and order and in implementing anti-crime

strategies. Of course this strategy will always produce the emergence of undesirable elements. Yet though increasing diversification is the reality on the ground, it is not a clear cut diversification away from the state, it is still taking place within the boundaries of state initiation, or at least state influence and approval. In practice, however, community policing is primarily seen as a policy of enhancing the state police and remains ‘police property’ that is, a police-led and state centered initiative against crime and disorder.

## **1.7 METHODOLOGY**

### **1.7.1 Study Area**

The study was conducted in Lusaka urban district. The city was selected because it is considered in Zambia to be a hub of brisk commercial, economical and industrial activities which attract a lot of people, which as resulted to unemployment and poverty leading to criminality.

### **1.7.2 Materials and Methods**

The study involved qualitative and quantitative, retrospective and prospective study methods of data collection. Qualitative method used semi-structured interviews. Quantitative methodology relied on the use of questionnaires.

The study was carried in six different residential areas of Lusaka urban district that is high densely populated communities of Chaisa and Chipata compounds; Middle densely populated communities of Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga; and lastly low densely populated areas of Kabulonga and Woodlands residential areas. The six areas have all implemented Community Based Policing Strategy (CBPS).

The population for the proposed study was police officers from the rank of assistant superintendant to the lowest rank of a constable in the selected police stations and police posts, members of the public from three selected communities of Lusaka urban district. Further all community service division officers at selected police stations and all assistant victim support unit counselors in the selected police stations and posts. In addition a few key informants based at Lusaka division, police headquarters and from other stakeholders.

Two hundred and fifty (250) respondents constituted the sample. The sample consisted of 100 police officers, 130 members of the public in the selected communities of Lusaka urban district. In addition, 20 key informants in the selected police station and posts, police headquarters and Lusaka division plus a few from other stakeholders.

Systematic random sampling procedure was used to select 100 Police Officers in the sample according to their strata of Superior Officers, Subordinate Officers and Other Ranks from two (2) police stations that is Emmasdale and Woodlands police stations; and

from four (4) police posts that is Kabulonga, Nyumba Yanga, Chaisa and Chipata police posts. The researcher used the main police station establishment to select police officers. According to Emmasdale and Woodlands police stations their establishment was 182 officers and this also included officers operating from police post which are under them. For instance, Chaisa and Chipata police posts are under Emmasdale police station while Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts are under Woodlands Police station. 50 police officers were selected from each police station establishment and this included all police officers operating at selected police posts because of the small number of officers found at these police posts. Therefore, the police officers were selected as follows:

#### **EMMASDALE POLICE STATION**

**(Includes Chaisa and Chipata police post)**

**Table 1.1:** Number of police officers selected from Emmasdale police station and selected police posts

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Emmasdale Police Station</b>	<b>Chaisa Police Post</b>	<b>Chipata Police Post</b>	<b>Total</b>
Assistant Superintendent	1			1
Chief Inspector	1			1
Inspectors	2	1	1	4
Sub Inspectors	6	2	2	10
Sergeants	9	2	3	14
Constables	9	5	6	20
<b>Total</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>50</b>

#### **WOODLANDS POLICE STATION**

**(Includes Kabulonga and Nyumba Yanga police post)**

**Table 1.2:** Number of police officers selected from police station and posts

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Woodlands Police Station</b>	<b>Kabulonga Police Post</b>	<b>Nyumba Yanga Police Post</b>	<b>Total</b>
Assistant Superintendent	1			1
Chief Inspectors	1	1	1	3
Inspectors	3	1	1	5
Sub Inspectors	5	2	2	8
Sergeant	7	2	3	12
Constables	11	4	6	21
<b>Total</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>50</b>

However, simple random sampling procedure was used to select 130 members of the public in the sample. This procedure was chosen because it provides each element in the population an equal chance to be selected in the sample. The sample selected from the



residential areas was as follows: Chipata, 25; Chaisa, 25; Emmasdale, 20; and Nyumba Yanga, 20. While woodlands and kabulonga residential areas had also 20 respondents each. The reason why we had more respondents from Chaisa and Chipata compounds was because they are highly populated compared to the other 4 residential areas of Emmasdale, Nyumba-Yanga, Kabulonga and Woodlands. For the purpose of easy collection of data from our respondents we concentrated on houses that have streets both in the compounds and other residential areas. Therefore, we picked one house out of six (6) households to administer the questionnaire. Purposeful or judgmental sampling procedure was used to select 20 key informants in the sample who have been directly involved with community policing. In purposeful sampling procedure a sample is chosen on the basis that it has typical characteristics of the population.

### General Characteristics of the Sample

**Table 1.3:** Background characteristics of the sample [members of the public]

Characteristics	Sex		Total 130 Respondents
	Male	Female	
Age			
20-29	30	10	40 [31%]
30-39	18	13	31 [24%]
40-49	15	9	24 [18%]
50-59	23	3	26 [20%]
60-69	6	1	7 [5%]
70-79	1	1	2 [2%]
Marital Status			
Single	52	23	75 [58%]
Married	41	14	55 [42%]
Type of Residential Area			
High Densely Populated	35	15	50 [38%]
Middle Densely Populated	31	9	40 [31%]
Low Densely Populated	27	13	40 [31%]

**Table 1.4:** Number of Respondents from selected residential areas in Lusaka urban district

Name of Residential Area	Number of Respondents
Chaisa Compound	25
Chipata Compound	25
Emmasdale	20
Kabulonga	20
Nyumba Yanga	20
Woodlands	20
<b>Total</b>	<b>130</b>

### 1.7.3 Types and Sources of Data

Data was both from primary and secondary sources. Primary sources was qualitative field work that included in-depth interviews with officials within the Zambia Police Service, Neighborhood Watch Association Members and interviews with both the police officers and members of the public randomly selected from three different types of residential areas in Lusaka urban district. While secondary data included statistical data mainly from official records and reports from the police and other institutions as well as review of various documents both personal and official.

### 1.7.4 Data Collection Methods

Qualitative and quantitative data was collected as follows:

The research used both qualitative methods to obtain data from various sources. As Detels (1977) states, qualitative methods have the advantage of emphasizing social reality as it is perceived and experienced by groups of interest. Quantitative data was collected by using two semi- structured questionnaires to collect primary data from both police officers and members of the community. A questionnaire for the members of the public was prepared and administered. Another questionnaire was prepared for the selected police officers from the rank of Assistant Superintendent, Subordinate officers (Chief Inspectors and Inspectors) and other Ranks (Sergeants and Constables) found at the selected police stations and police posts in Lusaka urban district. Where it was not possible to conduct the interviews due to non- availability of respondents, the questionnaire was left for completion and submission to the researcher at a later date. Furthermore, semi-structured interviews or interview guides were used to collect data from key informants in the community policing. While a desk survey of relevant literature, organizational and personal documents was done to collect secondary data.

In cases where some respondents were unable to read written questionnaires in English especially members of the public, the researcher had to translate in Nyanja or Bemba.

### 1.7.5 Duration of Data Collection

Duration of data collection was 5 months that is from 19<sup>th</sup> December 2009 to 22<sup>nd</sup> April 2010 covering the all selected residential areas and selected police stations and posts in Lusaka urban district. The participation of the respondents in this study was gained through informed consent and it was on voluntary basis and therefore, respondents had the right to decline or withdraw from the study at any point. The participants were informed of the purpose of the study before giving consent. Confidentiality was maintained because anonymity was ensured.

### 1.7.6 Data Processing and Analysis

The qualitative data was analyzed manually while quantitative data was mainly analyzed manually as well as using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The SPSS was chosen because it helps to obtain frequencies and percentages in an accurate, precise,

easy and fast way. In order to obtain the required information, numbers were assigned to response categories to which individual belong. For instance, sex as a variable was divided into categories: namely male and female. The number one (1) was assigned to male and two (2) to female. The scores were expressed in tables consisting of frequencies and percentages. In questions requiring a respondent to indicate the degree of agreement or disagreement, responses for respondents were added up in order to determine the percentage who had positive and those who had negative views for instance on community policing effectiveness.

#### 1.7.7 Problems Encountered During Research

It is obvious that the study of this nature was not able to escape from logistical and empirical limitations. It was also impossible to cover all the police stations and police posts in Lusaka Urban District because the population is big and the budget was insufficient to cover the all area hence confining to the selected communities. Another factor was time, since the approval for research came out somewhere in November 2009, but the study had its own period to be concluded, hence to gather data from 250 respondents it was an enormous task to finish say within three months. To make matters worse the data was collected during rain season. Another important limitation was that since the study was dealing with the police service which is a state security agency, and this made the collection of data with impunity resistance. Further to access crime statistics it was another mountain to climb. It was only accessed through going through crime registers at police stations and posts though underreported.

Further, the study also experienced problems in convincing members of the public to fully accept to be interviewed and answer the questionnaire. This was so because people still have negative perception on the police and many did not understand what was meant by the concept of community policing and what has done to the community. The above mentioned limitations though not the only ones as we can not mention them all, really made the collection of data period from two (2) months to five months and three days.

The study paper is divided into five chapters. Following chapter one (1) which has provided the introduction and background of the study, the conceptual framework, literature review and the methodology of the study is Chapter two. Chapter two (2) discusses the policing strategies put in place between 1964 and 1994 in Zambia as well as the historical and development of organized police policing in Zambia. Chapter three provides the analysis and discusses the findings on the nature of community policing strategies in Zambia and it is divided in to the following three (3) sections: Section one (1) discusses community policing in Zambia and an analysis on community based policing programmes for improved policing is also provided in this section, Section two (2) discusses the impact of community policing strategy. While the achievements of community policing strategy are provided in section three. Challenges to community based policing strategy programmes in Zambia are discussed in chapter four (4). Finally chapter five (5) contains the conclusions and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUND AND EVOLUTION OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN ZAMBIA**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

The Republic of Zambia (RZ) as a geographic entity in the Southern Central of Africa is well described in many classical books like those of Achola (1992), and WHO Zambia (1998). Zambia is a land mass of 752 612 square kilometers (Chisanga, 2005). The RZ is a land locked country, bordered by eight neighbors. The country is divided into nine provinces for administrative purposes, which are further divided into 72 districts. Each district is divided into constituencies and then into wards. Its population has more than tripled from about 3 million at independence in 1964 to close to over 13 million by 2010 (CSO, 2010). The country is made up of 73 ethnic tribes but with 7 major local languages while English is the official language.

Lusaka, the capital city of Zambia, is centrally located in the sense that it is connected to other eight provincial centers. The population of Lusaka Urban is above two (2) million as per 2010 census and is made up of low density residential area which is mostly for people of high economic status, middle density residential area which is associated with the middle class and finally the high density residential area where the people of low economic status reside and it is mostly associated with shanty compounds.

Despite its occupation by Britain, the country changed from Northern Rhodesia at independence in 1964 to Zambia, thereby preserving its historical link with the Mighty Zambezi River. Like most African Countries, Zambia blends Western Cultural Values derived from its British heritage with indigenous African norms. Zambia's blends of cultures and historical background have enormous significance and implications for the present organization of its policing system on crime.

Right from its inception, the Zambian system of law enforcement has always been patterned after the British model of policing formed in 1829 by Sir Robert Peel (Reid, 1994). However, it would be incorrect to suggest that policing in the country currently functions at the same level of sophistication, expertise, and efficiency usually associated with the British model. Lack of modernization is one of the main weaknesses of the enforcement in Zambia. Hence conceptually it still much resembles its colonial beginnings. Unlike the British model of policing, the Zambia Police is centralized, a true national police service, and its management and control has always been the responsibility of the central government.

In order to understand the much talked about community policing as a strategy by the Zambia Police Service to fight crime, it was important to trace the Police historical background and its policing strategies that were put in place to fight crime in Zambian communities. The historical sequence coupled with the policing strategies of each period as well as other considerations such as the motive behind the formation of the police at the initial stage can be of help to the understanding of the Zambia police policing system and community policing in particular. The review of the three historical phases gave an insight of what changes have taken place in the Zambia police as well as in its policing strategies. This also helped to determine if these changes have played any significant role in the fight against crime in Zambia.

## **2.2 DEVELOPMENT OF AN ORGANISED POLICE IN ZAMBIA**

The development of the police in Zambia can be divided into three main periods. These periods are: - the first period from the colonial times to pre-independence thus from 1891 to 1963, the second period is the independence and post independence from 1964-1990 and the third period is the third republic era from 1991 to the present time.

### **2.2.1 The Colonial Policing Strategies: 1891-1963.**

The origin of the Zambian experience of developing an organized police force can be traced to the British tradition. The development of the Zambia Police dates as far back as 1891 when the British Government granted permission to the British South African Company (BSAC) through the Royal Charter to extend its rule over the territory north of the Zambezi River which is today Zambia. At that time the territory north of the Zambezi was named in honor of John Cecil Rhodes, the founder of BSAC and was divided into two sub territories namely North-Eastern Rhodesia which was administered by Robert Codrington and the North-Western Rhodesia which was administered by King Lewanika of the Lozi people. However, in 1911 these two territories were amalgamated to form Northern Rhodesia. Therefore, from 1891 until 1924 when the BSAC handed over the administrative responsibilities to the British Government this territory was administered and policed by the Chartered British South African Company (Tordoff, 1980).

At first there were two Semi-Military Police Forces namely the Barotse Native Police (BNP) which was mainly composed of Africans, mostly from Barotse land (now western and north-western provinces of Zambia) and the North-Eastern Rhodesia Constabulary. However, these were amalgamated into Northern Rhodesia Police in 1912 by Proclamation No. 17 of 1912, dated 18<sup>th</sup> December (Jefferies, 1952). This continued to be a mainly military force, but a small section of Europeans called the 'Town and District Police' was recruited for the Civil Police work in the more settled areas. The division of the force into a 'Military Company' and a 'Town and District Police' continued after the administration of the territory was taken over by the British Crown in 1924. The 1924 Police Ordinances created the Civil Police with a mandate to prevent and detect crime and to apprehend offenders. At its inception, the police force adopted the traditional policing model of law enforcement and order maintenance hence it performed both military and civil functions. In 1932 the two branches were definitely separated and became respectively the 'Northern Rhodesia Military Police' and the 'Northern Rhodesia Police' and its first Police Commissioner was a military officer Colonel Hardings. A year later the Military Police became the 'Northern Rhodesia Regiment (Jefferies, 1952).

Though the decision to separate the Military and the Civil Force had been a sound one, the implications had not been satisfactorily on the civil side. A degree of shift from military to civilian duties did not alter the European focus for their work. Further, no steps had been taken to train the African rank and file as policemen (Ibid, 1952). Those recruited from within the colony were chosen from those sections of the population which were generally least educated, most distance from the centers of power and hence least threatening to the colonial government. They also worked outside their home territory lest be disinclined to enforce the law harshly (McCracken, 1986). The Police

force was paramilitary in nature and often recruited from the military. The intermingling of functions meant the police performed both police and military duties.

The colonial police mandate was to secure and extend colonial rule and to maintain order, in other words they were political in character; the prevention and detection of crime came a poor second (Baker, 2008). Police work also involved in the surveillance of European property (including at times maintaining order among workers at private factories) and persons, the persuasion of recalcitrant inhabitants' to pay taxes, the dispersal of anti-tax protesters, the recruitment of wage labor, and in the 1940's and 50s forceful break up of strike demonstrations (Ahire, 1991:68-69, 99). Police were perhaps chiefly engaged in collection of Hut Tax, escorts of cash, accompanying the District Commissioner on ulendo, and other duties that might well be performed by a messenger staff. The social and economic control did not make the police popular with the local population' (McCracken, 1986: 131).

The colonial police force was small and urban centered and so for the most of the territories it was local rulers through their agents (messengers and native authority police) that enforced order and who were expected, as a condition of their tenure, to uphold colonial rule. The rural interiors of the colonies were not policed directly by the authorities, because of the size and difficulty of the terrain and more importantly, because the area was not considered economically vital. The main areas of European investment, such as cities, mines and transportation links were to be protected by newly recruited armed forces and armed police (Baker, 2008). The actual position was that, it was only the areas where there were European settlements that were policed. For instance, for Northern Rhodesia, the police force was confined to the urban centers and mining compounds. For the most part, therefore, policing was the responsibility of 'the village policeman of the native authorities and the district messengers of the administration. Indirect rule ensured that the colonial state was the authorizer, but that in these specified areas it looked to customary authorities to be the providers of security and order. It was them who defined (or invented) and enforced customary law to regulate non-market relations in land, family and community affairs (Tignore, 1971). Mamdani, (1996) aptly calls this the delegation of rule and legal authority to local power holders, 'decentralized despotism'.

In Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia), law enforcement and order maintenance was however, dictated by the events that were unfolding in the country during the late 1930s and 1940s. Copper mines had just been opened at Nkana in Kitwe and Luanshya. African miners were subjected to poor conditions of service which led to numerous strikes by black workers. At the same time, nationalist movement demanding for black majority rule grew in intensity. The Copperbelt region became their main area of activity because of the influence of the miners on the colonial administration. Miner's strikes which mainly resulted into serious riots and disobedience were considered by colonial administration as a "Communist inspired" threat against the very existence of colonial government. Realizing the serious nature of the threat, and in order to ensure public order, the colonial government responded by creating the Mobile Unit in 1949 based at Bwana Mkubwa near Ndola to counter insurgent using the Police Force. This unit was specialized in methods of combating riots and other anti-social behavior. However, in 1963 its headquarters was moved to Kanfinsa near Kitwe. The idea was to locate a strong

force for the regulation of civil order in the centre of Copperbelt province which became notorious for its politically inspired upheavals (Musonda, 2002).

The rationale behind the creation of the Mobile Unit was that the civil police was no longer an effective avenue capable of mercilessly putting down political violent upheavals as well as violent strikes in the mines and other violent protests. The Unit's record of violently putting down any public disturbance was witnessed in various operations all over the country. An example of such an operation where Mobile Unit was involved includes the violently dispersing of the Tonga people in the Gwembe Valley in Southern Province in 1958. The villages were protesting against the government decision to evict them from their ancestral land in order to give way to the construction of the Kariba Dam. The police opened fire into the protesting crowd and short dead eight (8) people. The years leading to self rule in 1964 saw the police being used to crush dissent during the civil disobedience campaigns orchestrated by the opposition nationalist parties, using maximum force. This led to the general dislike and mistrust of the police among the native people (ibid, 2002).

Though the colonial states were authoritarian regimes, they were often weak in structure, in size, and in coverage outside the towns. For example Jeffries gives total force size in 1951 (with population in brackets) for Northern Rhodesia 1,970 (1,866,000) (Jeffries, 1952, 224). They were also weak in legitimacy, having to depend on force or else on native authorities, who themselves lacked legitimacy where they had been artificially created. The territory was divided into four Police Divisions, with thirty-two Police Stations and Posts, several of the Stations, as might be expected, being located in the region of Mining Compounds. In fact, about half the European strength and a one-third of the Africans were stationed in the Western Division, which included the Copper belt towns. In the rural areas, which the force until it was to be expanded could not cover adequately, the Village Policemen of the Native Authorities and the District Massagers of the Administration acted as Police. However, the size and ability of the Native Administration police varied considerably many of these forces were too small to be effective in crime control (Jeffries, 1952:92, 98,100,109).

### 2.2.2 The Post Independence Policing Strategies in Zambia: 1964-1972.

In October 1964, Britain granted independence to Northern Rhodesia which acquired the name of Zambia. The Northern Rhodesia Police Force also changed to Zambia Police Force by the then Act of Parliament, Chapter 133 of the Laws of Zambia which is now Chapter 107 of the Laws of Zambia. At Independence, the Zambian population stood at 3 million while police strength was 12000. Police infrastructure stopped at 36 Police Stations, two Training Institutions, Eight Divisions and one combat Unit.

With the expectations that the police at independence would be reorganized and re-oriented from regime policing to a force committed to serving the people, little changed. True, decolonization had seen an expansion and the belated Africanisation and training of police forces. Nevertheless there was no change in their role: they were there, as before, primarily to secure the new regime, which meant they were used for repression rather than protection of citizens (Goldsmith, 2003). Continuity also prevailed in the methods of crime control and detection; urban focus; the political intelligence work; and some cases, the ethnic recruiting pattern. In a short time, almost all the independent states abandoned

formal democracy for some form of authoritarian regime. Commonly the change began with moves to one-party rule and, typically, one-man rule. Mistakenly, political leaders imagined that firm personal rule could keep ethnically divided nations together and secure their own legitimacy.

Surely Mazrui, is right when he observes of the African state that, 'it is sometimes excessively authoritarian in order to disguise the fact that it is inadequately authoritative' (quoted by Chazan, 1988:120). Under the authoritarian regimes the police forces were poorly financed and poorly trained and, says Hills, subject to 'insecurity, political interference and economic depression' (2001:33). Meek's account of the Sierra Leone Police could be applied to many more including Zambia, that from the late 1960s to the 1990s the story was: a litany of oppressive policing, nepotism and corruption that undermined public confidence in the police...skills were not sought after and officers were illiterate. The police were not given uniforms, training or equipment (Meek, 2003:2).

In Zambia's case for example, the new government did not reform the police and provide structural changes to the Police Act to enable it adopt new policing strategies suitable for the new democratic dispensation, but it became comfortable with the establishment and structure of the police. Hence the new government decided to continue with a centrally controlled police force which was highly militarized. Firstly, the police were brought under a tighter control, and that is, they were made accountable to the president rather than the law. Secondly, policing was militarized. The new government did not, by and large, understand what civilian policing meant and so harnessed the police alongside the army to fulfill the regime's aim of repression and eliminating political opposition for example, the period immediately after independence, there were violent clashes between the opposition, African National Congress (ANC), and the ruling party, United National Independence Party (UNIP). Further, the government even continued building barrack like police camps. With such colonial structures, the police had a firmer hand to control and police the citizens, however, this meant the police were separated from their communities and encouraged to cultivate a 'tough and intimidating' attitude to civilians.

Zambia also became a base for freedom fighters from the neighboring countries that were fighting for self rule. As a result, the country became a target for constant attack by the colonial regime especially from Ian Smith of Southern Rhodesia, now Zimbabwe, and Apartheid South Africa. As a result of this, the post independence saw the creation of an important wing, the Para-Military Police Unit in 1966. Its main function was to patrol along the borders and to act as the striking force especially against disorders of military nature, and guarding vital government installations or infrastructure like bridges and power stations (Musonda, 2002).

Ndhlovu (1995), further states that the late 1970s saw the introduction of a crime fighting strategy code named "FLYING SQUAD". This was a rapid response motivation in which fast cars fitted with radio communication, heavily armed with firearms were assigned to areas of high criminality to respond to emergency calls mainly those involving break-in and aggravated robberies. The rationale behind this strategy was especially a response to the new crime wave that had hit the mining towns on the copper belt, threatening both human life and national economical development. However, in most of their engagements with the suspected criminals especially robbers, the officers



shot dead rather than apprehended the suspects. Even with this strategy in place the crime did not decrease.

The reasons given forward then for such firm control was that most of the country's neighbors for example, Angola, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Namibia and South Africa which was close to Zambia but not a neighbor were not independent. Civil wars with freedom fighters were going on which had even crossed over in to Zambia because it was hosting several liberation movements from the region. Hence, their role, as opposed to their formal functions, was determined by what the regime saw as the best way of ensuring its survival. The firm control crime strategy coupled with low levels of education and ill training did little to increase efficiency and effectiveness of the police force.

### 2.2.3 The Policing Strategies in the Second Republic: 1972-1991.

The period between 1973 and 1991 saw policing crime in Zambia become thoroughly politicized. For example in 1972 when Zambia became a one party state, the Zambia police was politicized to an extent where party organs were formed in the police camps and stations. The police officers enhanced their chances of earning promotion if they were active card carrying members of the party. Further the Inspector General of Police, who is the chief of police, was a Member of the Central Committee of UNIP, the supreme law making body of the party. Furthermore, the second republic saw the introduction of the Vigilante Policing Scheme by the government in 1986 and this was after the amendment of the Zambia Police Act No. 23 of 1985. This strategy was operating as a Community Crime Prevention Association (CCPA), though it was organized on party lines. The members were supposed to come under the direction and control of the police; however, this was not the case, because the party officials and cadres became the controllers of the police officers in giving orders and making decisions.

This was mainly because the party was considered as supreme over all government institutions including the police. During the same period of the second republic, the police detained political opponents with opposing views under the directives from the politicians. The politicization of the police affected the professional conduct of the officers which resulted in complete alienation of the police from the members of the public. The police record of human rights abuses, corruption and high crime levels in the country became widespread as public confidence in the law enforcers embedded further (Musonda, 2002).

Therefore, during this period of politicization of the police, indiscipline entered police ranks, resulting in incompetence, inefficiency and lack of accountability. Police welfare and conditions of service were also eroded to the lowest web. Furthermore, due to lack of manpower, both the Mobile and Paramilitary Police Units were now utilized as reservoirs of man power to assist the police general duties instead of doing their normal duties of guarding government vital installations and patrolling along the borders. "Unlike the general duties, their training was tilted towards the military with less emphasis upon intellectual caliber" (Throup, 1992). For example in the 1970s, Zambia experienced a civil war in the North Western Province known as the Mushala Rebellion. The Paramilitary police were deployed along side the army to fight in the rebellion and they performed very well as an army (Musonda, 2002). Therefore, the inclusion of the two

units to do general duties meant that the police became militarised. As a result the police became detached from the community as reactive policing became rife and an efficient way of policing the community in the country. Primarily, the only contact public had with the police was when they saw them driving or when there was something wrong like a riot or making an arrest.

With the police distracted by the security affairs, concentrated in central urban areas, understaffed, under-resourced and under-skilled, criminal activities prospered. Frustrated by the difficulty of securing witnesses and convincing forensic evidence, police resorted to confessions made under duress or even to handing out summary punishment. But the problems went beyond training and resources. Those who held weapons and had information on security provision (or lack of it) were in the unique position to exploit their advantage during times when pay was low and irregular. Their corruption became as endemic as their incompetence in the eyes of the most populations. Consequently, to safe guard their nations' very existence, state leaders resorted to coercive internal security. Ironically they found that the colonial emergency provisions and paramilitary police could serve their interests (Amnesty International, 1998).

Therefore, the context of policing in the independent Zambia was one of a personalized and fragile political order, often accompanied by conflict, repression and corruption. This meant the role of the state police depended more on how the government defined national security and how fragile public order was, rather than on the formal functions laid down in the constitution.

#### 2.2.4 The Policing Strategies in a Multi- Party Era: 1991-1994.

At independence many anticipated a national state police force that would provide a universal, effective and just protection, but after three (3) decades of independence it had become apparent to the Zambian population that their government was not willing or able to provide the service promised. The explanation was partly financial, although weak states often chose to privilege 'regime stability and narrow sectional interests over public safety considerations' or at times were simply guilty of 'malevolent indifferent' (Goldsmith, 2004:4,7). As regards offering protection for citizens, state police were widely perceived as indifferent, inept, and inefficient and corrupt (chukwuma, 2001). They were also concentrated in urban and high-income areas.

Ndhlovu (1995) acknowledges that with the re-introduction of democratic governance in Zambia in 1991, there was a call upon the police force to change to police service and to be non-partisan as well to act professionally. The Zambia Police Force was at cross roads. The poor economic climate meant that the kwacha was scarce and human resources could not be increased. The police strength decreased lamentably due to retirements, resignations and deaths for instance, from the strength of 12000 in 1966 to 5,700 in 1994, but the work load continued sky rocketing, hence the police force was over loaded. Therefore, the police force needed to develop an approach to policing that address the underlying cause of crime. But the police could not do it alone, hence the communities were needed to be involved in policing themselves. This move included a concern with the participation of citizens in matters that affected their daily lives, consultation with the citizens, establishing processes and structures of accountability, and working towards greater service delivery.

The Zambia Police Reforms were developed following the introduction of the multi-party democracy in 1991. These reforms were instituted in May, 1994 and the main aim of these reforms was to improve the quality of service delivery in terms of efficiency, effectiveness, professionalism and police public image through the training of the human resource to increase the manpower. Another important aim was to cast aside the police force's previous military and political outlooks and to transform the organization into a public institution that was accountable to the laws and to the community it serves from a "force" to a "service". The reforms were community based in that they were aimed at bringing the police closer to the public they served by creating partnerships with communities. According to the paper entitled "Community Involvement in Policing Strategies" presented to a workshop for security staff at the National Assembly of Zambia in January, 2002, "the police sought for a policing model which focused on the prevention of crime through community participation and which would make the police more accountable and make them win back their legitimacy". Hence community policing was adopted in 1995, as a means of combating crime in Zambia through prevention measures.

Therefore, the Background and Evolution of Community Policing in Zambia dates as far back as 1994, when the Zambia Police Reforms were instituted. Following the Zambia Police Reforms, in 1995, the Zambia Police came up with the Strategic Development Plan (SDP) for the period 1995-2000. The aim of the strategic plan was to spell out the way forward for the Zambia Police in order to suit with emerging political and social economical changes. The purpose of the Police Reforms was to come up with a community friendly and professional police, able to combat the high crime rate whilst respecting individual human rights. This would subsequently bridge the gap between the police and the community.

The Zambia Police Service is tasked to provide direction for responses from crime prevention associations and other stake-holders in the provision of quality service and increase of public involvement through community policing programmes and pro-active methods of crime prevention. Through the Zambia Police Amendment Act No. 14 of 1999, the Zambia Police Act was amended to allow the police to network with the civil society in all activities aimed at creating safer communities. For example, the government established the Crime Prevention Associations in the form of neighborhood watch schemes under the Zambia Police Act Cap 107 of the laws of Zambia, Amendment Act No. 14 of 1999. It was created under PART IX Section 48. In this part any community may establish in residential, commercial or industrial area a crime prevention and control association to compliment the police in the maintenance of law and order. Further membership in these associations shall be voluntary and open to any person who is normally resident or operates in the area or community where an association is established. Therefore, the police today collaborate with the community and other organisations to bring out programmes aimed at creating crime free communities.

In terms of article 113 of the Constitution of Zambia, every citizen has a duty, inter alia, to:

- Contribute to the well being of the community where that citizen lives as well as observe health controls;
- Foster national unity and live in harmony with others;

- Promote democracy and the rule of law;
- Carry out with discipline and honesty, legal public functions;
- Vote in national and local government elections;
- Assist in the enforcement of the law at all times.

Therefore, according to Musonda, (2001), community policing in Zambia is implemented through the five initiatives:

- **Beat Patrol:** Here an officer is assigned a small geographical area for conducting patrols. The beat officer's major function is to provide crime prevention and security tips to members of the neighbourhood.
- **Neighbourhood Watch Group Patrols:** Citizens living in the same neighbourhood are encouraged to volunteer part of their free time to patrol streets.
- **Community Police Post:** Citizens living in populated areas which are not near to a police station are requested to work together with the police in the provision of office and residential accommodation for the police. This is especially in the shanty compounds and other residential areas where the police assign a number of officers to work in those communities. The focus of police function in these communities is crime prevention through community participation as police officers are encouraged to solve contemporary community problems together with community members. These police posts have full station functions including organizing community crime prevention and to develop community contacts.
- **Village Policing Scheme:** In distant places such as villages and farms, the police coordinate with the residents in conducting investigations. They also offer crime prevention lecture to local communities while still recognizing already existing channels of authority within the village structures.
- **Citizens Crime Prevention Units (CCPUs):** In this approach, citizens are encouraged to meet in smaller communities to discuss how best to secure their neighbourhood against crime and other social vices.
- **Sensitisation and Awareness Programmes:** In collaboration with public and private media institutions, the police do conduct sensitisation programmes in both the print and electronic media (radio, television and print media) aimed at sensitizing the community on various issues of community safety and security. It is therefore, the duty of community crime prevention officers to give crime education to various communities in order to reduce the incidence of crime rates.

The above mentioned initiatives are however, being implemented by the Directorate of Community Services Division (CSD) based at police headquarters and in all provincial police headquarters. The task of CSD is to coordinate, implement and monitor all community policing activities and programmes in the country so that the confidence that was lost in the Zambian Police could be revived. Individual police officers were taken

from their routine line duties and appointed community police officers. A community police officer was to make rounds, on foot, and “to function as a planner, problem solver, community organizer, and information link between the community and the police. Under the CSD, four units were established to carry out the various programmes that promote community policing and these are:

- **Community Safety Unit (CSU):** One of the core activities being undertaken by the CSU include: the promotion of Community Crime Prevention Programmes such as Neighborhood Watch Associations (NWA). In other words it sits with the community to find better ways of policing. It is also responsible for the publication of crime prevention awareness materials such as brochures, pamphlets and posters, holds sensitization programmes on crime, and facilitates capacity building for police officers and members of NWAs.
- **School Liaisons Unit:** In Zambia, another positive thing associated with community policing was the creation of the Schools Liaison Unit. The Schools Liaison Unit was created so as to respond to issues affecting children in schools and other learning institutions. This unit is tasked to disseminate information on crime activities in Schools. It targets school children who they share with crime prevention strategies such as how to identify potential criminals. The Schools Liaison Unit: therefore, is one of the programmes under community policing whose mandate is to form partnership between the Zambia Police Service on one hand and the Schools (staff and pupils) on the other. Community policing programmes in schools are tailored to ensure that both pupils and teachers work hand in hand with the police in the fight and prevention of crime in learning institutions. The functions of the School Liaison Unit are:
  - To sensitize school children on different forms of crimes that affect children. This came about after realizing that children are victims of crime and at times are perpetrators of crime knowingly or unknowingly. The unit’s role is to sensitize children concerning the crimes that affect them viz. child abuse: sexual abuse (defilement, rape, indecent assault, etc), physical abuse for instance, assault, substance abuse (drugs, alcohol) and psychological abuse. Last but not the least also sensitization on vandalism.
  - To offer children security education as this helps instill a sense of security awareness in children at a tender age.
  - The unit strives to make children law-abiding citizens so that they grow up as responsible people who will contribute positively to the development of the country.
  - The unit also teaches children about their rights and what they should do if they are violated by any one.

- The unit also explains the juvenile justice system to children. The juvenile justice system's main focus is to prevent and safe guard the well-being of children who come into conflict with the law. This could be at the police station, courts of law or detention facilities.

In order to ensure that the above objectives are enforced, the unit is in the process of establishing Crime Prevention Clubs in schools and other learning institutions. Crime Prevention Clubs will ensure that crime sensitization and education are enforced in schools and learning institutions. These clubs will also help equip children with knowledge on how to work with the police on crime prevention programmes and how they can react and protect themselves if they are in danger. Further, these clubs will also help to ensure that they offer safety tips to school going children. Hence, the creation of Crime Prevention Education through clubs helps to create a free environment in institutions of learning. This is important because a crime prone school cannot effectively provide the necessary knowledge to children as the school may not provide a conducive atmosphere for learning. The schools liaison unit is, therefore committed to ensuring that schools are free from all forms of violence and crime as this is a stepping stone for building safer communities.

- **Chaplaincy Unit (CU):** This unit is charged to give spiritual encouragement to police officers and their families and also offers spiritual counseling to victims of crime. However, this unit has been implemented only at national and divisional level, hence it is not active at station level where it is needed most.
- **Victim Support Unit (VSU):** The Zambia police service saw it fit to create a separate unit called the Victim Support Unit (VSU) under the Community Services Division. According to the police Act, there shall be a Victim Support Unit at all police stations and posts to be administered by police officers appointed by the Inspector General of Police. Therefore, the functions of a Victim Support Unit are:
  - (i) To provide professional counseling to victims of crime and to offenders; and
  - (ii) To protect citizens from various forms of abuse

The Victim Support Unit in Zambia in most instances deal with victims of defilement, rape, sexual assaults, gender based cases like domestic violence related cases and property grabbing on the death of a spouse, negligence, child desertion, assault accessions bodily harm, unlawful wounding, murder, malicious damage to property, incest, threatening violence and child abduction. The main aim of the VSU is, therefore, to help people cope with the crime and abuse they have experienced. Another important thing worth mentioning is that the police officers in the Victim Support Unit may co-ordinate with the civil society and professional bodies in carrying out their duties.

In short, Victim Support Unit offers special treatment to victims of crime, especially women and children who are the weaker members of society both financially and physically. However, of all the units, the VSU is the most successful in implementation of community policing because it has received a lot of donor support in terms of finances, transport and infrastructure. Besides the support mentioned earlier, the focus has been on

training through seminars and workshops, advice on strategic and operational planning, and senior personnel, and through the United Nations Civil Police programmes.

It should be noted that the police establishment has made provision for Community Services Division personnel at all police stations and some police posts. Even if most of these police stations and police post officers may not be doing the actual work of community services, the structures have been established in stations and police posts at least. In police stations and police posts where officers are available and doing the work of community services, the community has appreciated their contribution and there is evidence to prove that the relationship between the police and the community has improved in such areas. The case of Nyumba Yanga in Woodlands area where the community has assisted to arrange for funding for renting a police post and houses for police officers is a good example of how good community relations can lead to development.

This move included a concern with the participation of citizens in matters that affect their daily lives, consultation with citizens, establishing processes and structures of accountability, and working greater service delivery. The police as the most public face of the state were to be seen to reflect the new democratic ethos. Therefore, this represented a major change from police forces that were historically brutal and discreditable. While there were attempts on the part of governments to democratize, the reality on the ground is that governments in Southern Africa have remained autocratic and intolerant of popular mobilization and protest. The police in Zambia, Zimbabwe, and Swaziland have all been employed in recent years to repress opposition collective action (Amnesty International, 2002a). Further, despite attempts to transform (or more appropriate to reform) police forces in these countries, police management as well as police legislation has not changed.

Therefore, Police forces may try to practice the philosophy of community- oriented policing, but this will be limited if police organizations themselves are not internally democratic. Police management and governments in most Southern African countries including Zambia have failed to see the link between internal and external democratization in police agencies (Marks, 1998).

## **2.2.5 CONCLUSION**

The chapter has fully discussed the background and development of organized police in Zambia by tracing its colonial antecedents. It has also discussed the post-colonial Zambia, and has shown that like any other African countries, Zambia inherited a police force that was influenced by the bifurcated state. The chapter finally discussed the evolution of community policing in Zambia.

In conclusion the study in this chapter, discussed what characterized the whole period of the colonial rule policing, where policing changed from militarization through demilitarization to re-militarization, over a short period of time. Thus colonial policing in Africa never followed the idealized European model of a civilian force, living in the community, under local control and engaged in upholding the rule of law. It was not locally authorized and controlled policing that was impartial and politically neutral. It was centrally controlled regime policing; and regime policing necessitates a very distinct relationship between those policing and those policed, one that some believe has endured

to the present. Hence, the role of the police then was regime policing, policing the colonial economy and upholding the authority of colonial rule.

Further, in the context of policing in the independent Zambia, was one of a personalized and fragile political order, often accompanied by conflict, repression, politicized and corruption. This meant the role of the state police depended more on how the government defined national security and how fragile public order was, rather than on the formal functions laid down in the constitution

It can then be said that much of the past policing strategy in the Zambia police, that is from colonial period up to the second republic and few years into the third republic was reactive, Para-military, and political and regime inclined. It was only in 1995, when Zambia police policing strategies changed and adopted the one that emphasized on proactive policing, particularly in the form of community policing. This strategy aims at forging a partnership between the community and their police. The effort is based on determining community needs and finding ways to meet those needs before they become crime problems. It also became clear, that police forces which are respected and trusted in their communities do much better in crime detection because they have the help of the community hence the adoption of community policing by the Zambia police in 1995. Therefore, in the next chapter we shall explain how community policing has been understood in Zambia and how the members of the various communities have been involvement in supplementing the police in the fight and prevention of crime in their communities. Further, what programmes in the form of community policing have been put in place in order to encourage community participation in the fight against crime in Zambia.



## **CHAPTER THREE: NATURE AND STRATEGIES OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN ZAMBIA**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In Zambia community policing was advocated when it became clear that the police were becoming isolated from the community. Low police visibility and lack of regular contact with the community had caused citizens to feel that there was no one to define and enforce social norms, and that the police neither knew nor cared about them. Therefore, the successful performance of the law enforcement, order maintenance, and community service functions requires that the police have the trust and cooperation of the public. The manner in which the police perform these three major functions, especially order maintenance and community service determines the community's respect for trust in its police. Hence if such respect exists, citizens are much more likely to assist the police in their law enforcement function. Yet good police-community relations had all but vanished during the era of first, second and the first few years of the third republic, thus from 1964 to 1994.

In view of the aforementioned, in the early 1990s, due to domestic and external pressures on many African governments to democratize their political space, democratic systems were introduced, which embarked upon ambitious political, institutional and economic reforms. Emphasis was placed on good governance that consists of a public service that is efficient, a judicial system that is reliable, and the administration that is accountable to the public. Therefore, to correspond with democratic principles the police forces as well seek restructuring their organization with a view of changing the internal culture, increasing operational performance, efficiency, accountability and cooperation with the public (Bayley, 1994).

As a result in 1995, the only solution for the Zambia Police was to adopt the most widely accepted strategy for improving police-community relations in the form of community policing. Community policing generally consists of programs and policies based on partnership between the police and the community they serve in order to increase public safety and reduced crime. Community policing requires shared ownership, decision making based on problem solving and accountability. The emphasis is on working in collaboration with residents to determine community needs and the best way to address them and involve citizens as "co-producers of public safety". Among the goals of community policing as earlier indicated are a reduction in fear of crime, the development of closer ties with the community, the engagement of residents in joint effort to prevent crime and maintain order, and increase in the level of public satisfaction with police services. The idea behind this approach is that communities have different needs and priorities that the police have to be aware of if efforts to prevent crime are to be effective.

Therefore, this chapter and its two sections present a systematic inquiry into the nature of community policing as regards to public and police officers' awareness and knowledge on community policing and citizen participation in crime prevention in their communities. The first section of this chapter, following the introduction, discusses the nature of community policing in Lusaka urban district. In this section, an inquiry and findings will be discussed on how the police have fared in relation to sensitization and

awareness, community participation, training in community policing. The last part of this section analyses community policing in relation to police conduct and accountability as well as the institutions put in place to check police conduct and accountability. Finally, section two of this chapter discusses the role of the community in crime prevention where the study provides the analysis and findings on pro-active crime prevention activities put in place by the Zambia police service through community policing strategy in Lusaka urban.

### **3.2 THE NATURE OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN LUSAKA URBAN DISTRICT**

#### **3.2.1 Sensitization and Awareness of Community Policing**

Community policing in Zambia was adopted in 1995 under the leadership of Francis Njobvu who was then Inspector General of Police (IG). Hence as the adopted crime policing strategy by Zambia Police Service there was need for police officers to be receptive to the community policing philosophy. Therefore, it is prudent for members of the public to be reliably informed what community policing meant for them to be encouraged to participate. It is the duty of the Zambia Police Service to educate the members of the public what community policing means and the benefits of this strategy. In Zambia, the situation leaves much to be desired in the sense that at the inception of CP only a few police officers were involved and since then not much has been done to sensitize the police on community policing strategies within the police organization. It has therefore, proved to be very difficult for the members of the community to know what it is and to understand the real meaning of community policing. This is because the majorities of police officers just know the basics of community policing but are ignorant of what is involved in community policing hence the failure to educate the members of the community.

***Table 3.1: Members of the Community and Police Officers Perspectives on Community Policing***

<b>ISSUE</b>	<b>Responses From 130 members community</b>		<b>Responses From 100 Police Officers</b>	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Knowledge on the existence of Community Policing	71(53%)	59(47%)	100(100)	Nil
Knowledge on the meaning of Community policing	48(37%)	82(63%)	100(100%)	Nil
Sensitisation of Community Policing to the members of the public	41(32%)	89(68%)	36(36%)	64(64%)

For instance, in table 2.1, most, 71(53 percent) members of the public interviewed stated that they were aware about the existence of community policing in Lusaka urban against 59 (47 percent) who indicated they were not aware. Further, the study findings indicated that 82 (63 percent) members of the community did not know what it means against 48

(37 percent) who indicated that they knew what it means. On the contrary, however, all police officers interviewed indicated that they were aware of the existence as well as what community policing meant. The study also revealed that the key informants and the majority members of active Neighborhood Watch Associations or Crime Prevention Associations knew what community policing is and what role the community was to play. Furthermore, the study revealed that in the Zambia Police Service most officers both senior and junior police officers are against most of the components of community policing strategies. For example, 77(77percent) officers do not think it is right to allow civilians or community members to be dictating on how the police should operate. However, it was discovered that 53(53percent) police officers were willing to allow members of the community to be involved in prevention of crime and maintenance of order through patrols in conjunction with the police, provide financial and material support to their local police station or police posts.

Few respondents, especially those directly involved with community policing during this study, agreed that ‘some few sensitization workshops for the community members have been done in very few places’, by the community services division (CSD) of the Zambia police by officers based at stations, district and divisional level. The study also noted that the CSD has put in place some sensitization programmes for all members of the community, but can not be implemented because of inadequate resources such as lack of adequately trained manpower in community policing, transport, and finances. However, the majority (64) 64 percent of police officers and (89) 68 percent of members of the public confirmed that the police as the major provider of public safety and security have not done much sensitization on the meaning and importance of community policing to both civilians and police officers respectively.

The Zambian Constitution provides for the establishment of the Zambia Police Force in Article 103, and among its functions as stated in Article 104, section (d): “to co-operate with the civilian authority and other security organs established under this constitution and with the population generally”. However, there are no specific directives from the Zambian people through the constitution or any other piece of legislation as to how they want the police to carry out their operations and what type of policing strategy they should be using. This was identified as a major set back by the key informant interviewed. The study revealed that though the police service in Zambia adopted community policing as a strategy to police the country, this policy has no solid backing because it is not supported by an Act of Parliament. Hence in Zambia it is difficult to know how the communities are policed.

For instance, the study findings are very indicative that in Zambia, the central government never played a major role in reforming the police department as it did in other government departments through the Public Service Reform Program (PRSP). This is evident from the fact that there is no major policy direction on CP. This means that the type of policing in Zambia by the Zambia Police Service is dependant upon whoever is the Inspector General (IG) at each time to decide on the policing strategy and the reforms to be adopted. Therefore, the approach taken in Zambia is different from the reforms that countries like Uganda, Sierra Leone and South Africa adopted which had national and political commitment to police reforms through Acts of Parliament. For example, the South African Constitution reveals the first formal reference to “community policing” as the prescribed strategy for policing a democratic South Africa, found in the constitution

(Act No 200 of 1993). In section 221 (1) and (2), the Constitution directed that an Act of Parliament was to provide for the establishment of Community-Police Forums in respect of police stations and the functions clearly stated.

### Community Participation/Partnership

This is seen as a cooperating effort to facilitate a process of problem solving by joining forces with various stakeholders in a given community. Community policing entails a close cooperation and accountability to the public. The police in Zambia would want to cooperate with the public as long as it is beneficial to the police service but not to be accountable to the public. In Zambia the benefits of the cooperation between the police and the public are looked in terms of crime intelligence, providing manpower for patrols, and providing material support such as transport, stationary, food for use at police stations and police posts. Further, communities provide structures for office space and accommodation for police officers. Even if police officers consider themselves to be professionals who know better policing issues than any one else, they have discovered that if they want to enlist public support and cooperation, they must be prepared to listen to what the community has to say, even if it is unpleasant. Therefore, it is important that the public is allowed to speak and to be informed about policing strategies, tactical approaches, and even the behavior of individual officers.

For instance, 40 percent of the 20 key informants indicated that they have taken complaints about poor performance of police posts to their mother stations and also about the discipline of officers to officers in charge of police stations. In the same vain, the entire officers in charge (OICs) the study interviewed confirmed receiving complaints against officer's improper conduct from the members of the public. It was also noted that those officers who have been found wanting have been placed on disciplinary charge while others have been transferred. The members of the community do not only complain about the bad behavior of officers but also recommend officers who work professionally, hard working and dedicated to police duties for promotions. Hence some officers have been promoted by the high command through recommendations from members of the public.

In fact, all OIC's of police stations and police posts have the discretion in the way they handle complaints, in many cases the officer or officers concerned are called upon to verify the complaints and the complainant in most cases are not revealed for fear of victimization. Sometimes these officers-in-charge take the complaints but without taking any action to the officers concerned depending on the type of complaint brought forward. These OIC's indicated that some complaints are not worth and they are just there to tarnish officers' image hence sometimes they would just ignore the complaint because of the great mistrust they have for members of the public.

On the participation of the community in crime prevention planning for their area, it was observed that most officers in- charge (OIC's) only involved the community in minor situations especially foot patrols. All the OIC's that the study interviewed in selected police stations and posts in Lusaka urban confessed that they do not trust the members of the community through the Neighbourhood Watch Associations (NWAs); hence they cannot involve them to the fullest because the information ends up in the hands of criminals. As a result they would rather restrict the number of people they

discuss with so that if there is a leak of information, it would be easy to locate the source of the leak. To them it would be unfair to expect the police to whole heartedly embrace the idea of community policing by involving the public in police planning.

***Table 3.2: Members of the Community and Police Officers Perspectives on Public Involvement in Community Policing***

<b>ISSUE</b>	<b>Response From 130 members community</b>		<b>Responses From 100 Police Officers</b>	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Citizens involvement in prevention of crime and maintenance of order	44(34%)	86(66%)	37(37%)	53(53%)
Police consulting members of the public in the way they should be policed	37(28%)	93(72%)	48(48%)	52(52%)
Community allowed to determine the crime strategy for policing their community	14(11%)	116(89%)	23(23%)	77(77%)

Lack of public involvement by the police in security matters was overwhelmingly supported by the majority in the study as indicated in table 3.2, 86 (66 percent) members of the public the study interviewed who said they were not involved in community policing, and this was also supported by 53 (53percent) police officers who said members of the public were not involved. On consultation and how the public should be policed, 97 (75 percent) members of the community said they were not consulted while 52 (52 percent) police officers also said members of the community were not consulted. Further, 116 (89 percent) out of 130 members of the community and 77 (77 percent) out of 100 police officers indicated that members of the community were not allowed to determine the policing strategy in their area. They believe that this type of planning must start with community involvement in other matters at local administration level which are less confidential, and thereafter spread to security. In fact, formal structures of how the community involvement will function and areas of operation must first be established so that both the police and the public know their roles and boundaries for a smoother working relationship. This has been done in Uganda, Malawi and Sierra Leone and so far is working well.

As alluded to earlier, the Zambia Police Service lacks the policy document that can act as a guide in the way it must police its citizens. The nature of community policing in Zambia makes it difficult to put in place accountability mechanisms. At first glance the desire of the public to engage in policing reflects their desire to acquire greater control over their circumstances. In Zambia like in any other country that adopted community policing in fighting crime, the initial motive was to enhance the local accountability of policing through a greater level of local control, but is fraught with difficulties. The study revealed that in Zambia, in practice, local police arrangements often come about on ad hoc basis, without the approval or leadership of the community. For instance, according to the findings from the members of Chipata and NyumbaYanga neighbourhood watch associations and even the host communities stated that in most cases they were unaware of the nature and extent of community policing activities in their area. Despite the fact

that such policing is often imposed on residents and only gains respect and legitimacy from them later, is partly due to their style of leadership. In Lusaka urban communities it was observed that the local policing groups mainly attracted those who had prior interest in security and who are assertive by nature. However, such groups mainly lack transparent in decision-making and the leadership is always self imposed hence may not be elected or removable.

In Lusaka urban district, it is very clear that citizens are not fully involved in policing their communities because they are not consulted on security priorities and how to meet them. 93 (72 percent) members of the public stated that the major reasons why they are not consulted are because the police officers do not recognize and believe that the citizens can provide valid inputs in the fight against crime. The police are not in a position to give part of their responsibility to civilians and also do not trust the civilians entirely. As a result of this the local communities have not been able to monitor and evaluate their local police effectiveness in its services.

### Training in Community Policing

Any framework for reshaping attitude of police officers must involve staff training and development. Traditionally, police training programmes have had a skills-based focus, but with recent changes in policing, police officers require an attitude –focused training. This would lead to the need for a pragmatic approach to training and development so as to develop the capacity of police officers for improved service delivery. The police service, despite its limitations and constraints, still remains the only acceptable instrument for the implementation of crime policy. It is, therefore, critical to the realization of crime prevention and reduction of crime in the Zambian communities. The police service must create an appropriate and conducive environment for the efficient and effective performance of other stake-holders in the fight against crime to get involved. The police service plays a central role in enabling the achievement of community policing objectives. Police service should, therefore, continuously seek new and better ways to build a service institution that has the capacity to champion and advance the course of policing that would encourage the citizen’s participation.

The purpose of human resource capacity building efforts in the Zambia Police Service would be to raise the level of performance of the police service to cope with the rising and ever- changing demand of the communities on security matters. It would also increase the number of police officers trained in community policing, change in orientation of policing and raise the awareness among police officers for community policing strategies. Other effort of training would include induction courses for newly recruited police officers, and seminars, workshops and meetings involving both police officers and stake-holders for the exchange of information and experiences of community policing in relation to crime. Having looked at the importance of training in the police service, it is therefore, imperative to see what is happening on the ground in terms of training especially in community policing.

***Table 3.3: Members of the Community and Police Officers Perspectives on Training in***

### *Community Policing*

Category of Respondents	Response From 130 members community		Responses From 100 Police Officers	
ISSUE	Yes	No	Yes	No
Training offered to neighbourhood watch association	7(19%)	30(81%)	13(13%)	87(87%)

On training, the interview focused especially those spearheading community policing at police stations and posts including the neighborhood watch personnel indicated that training is not heard of. As indicated in table 3.3, out of 37 neighbourhood watch members only 7 (19 percent) indicated they received some training in community policing leaving out the majority 30 (81 percent) members who said they have never received and heard of any training for neighbourhood watch members being organized and offered by the police. For instance, one officer who is the CSD coordinator at one of the selected police station indicated that she only received training or attended a workshop in community policing at its inception in 1995 and from that time to date nothing has come forth. However, she stressed that instead only the senior police officers based at headquarters have been able to attend trainings, workshops and seminars at the expense of junior officers who interact with the community regularly since they are on the ground. After receiving the training on community policing these senior officers never share the knowledge acquired, they just keep it to themselves. The claim by the CSD coordinator was supported and echoed as well by the majority police officers interviewed for example, only 13 (13 percent) indicated that the police offers some training to neighbourhood watch associations while 87 (87 percent) indicated the police does not offer any form of training to the neighbourhood watch associations.

***Table 3.4: Members of the Community and Police Officers Responses on Meetings Held Between Neighbourhood Watch Members and the Police***

Category of Respondents	Responses From 130 members community			Responses From 100 Police Officers		
Issue	Nil	Once	Twice	Nil	Once	Twice
Meetings held between police and neighbourhood watch members	12(32%)	19(51%)	6(16%)	61(61%)	27(27%)	12(12%)

The study, however, observed that in communities where neighborhood watch associations existed; the meetings have to be called by the NWA themselves and it is very rare that meetings are called by police. For instance, the study in table 3.4, revealed that out of 37 neighbourhood watch members, 12(32 percent) indicated they never meet, 19(51 percent) indicated they meet once per month and 6 (16 percent) indicated they meet twice a month. On the contrary 61 (61 percent) police officers said they never meet, 27 (27 percent) said they meet once per month and 12 (12 percent) police officers said

they meet twice a month. However, most key informers that is police officers spearheading community policing and NWAs members stated that since the relationship between the police and community is still not very good, most residents and police officers do not attend these meetings if they are called because they still do not cooperate and trust one another. Among the topics that are supposed to be covered at such meetings involve:

- The nature of community policing and crime prevention
- The training of neighbourhood watch personnel to respond promptly and intelligently to public safety issues such as crime, social disorder and fear of crime
- The differences between criminal and civil cases
- Sensitizing the community of their role in crime prevention,i.e. detection and reporting of crime, conflict resolution through peaceful means
- The importance of preserving the evidence at the scene of crime
- The preservation of human rights
- Conducting community awareness and sensitization campaigns aimed at educating the communities and translating important laws and procedures
- Strategies for personal security and identification of security concerns
- Formation of crime prevention associations (where they do not exist).

One of the committee members of the Chipata compound NWA indicated that: “the sensitization programmes through training, meetings and workshops are all about teaching the citizens on how to police themselves”.

In Zambia one would have expected that members of NWAs who also participate in crime prevention through patrols in their communities have been trained in some police training basics to be able to know how to react during an encounter in the field. Hence, as a result of lack of training, NWA members have many times gone beyond their authority because they don't understand their role adequately. NWA members are not trained in the criminal law to understand which cases constitutes crime and which ones are civil cases where the police can not come in. However, the majority interviewed, both the public and police officers, admitted that NWA members have been known to have arrested and harassed people for the offences that are not criminal like adultery and debts.

It is also a positive fact that some police officers have been exposed to workshops and seminars in community policing. This has been done in Kabwe at Crime Prevention Foundation Institute of Zambia (CPFZ) and also through seminars and meetings organized by the CSD all over the country at police stations, police posts and some selected communities. Some officers had also opportunities travelling abroad to countries like Canada, Sweden, and South Africa for educational tours of CP programmes. Unfortunately, the number of officers exposed to such trainings was and has still remained too small to cater for the entire police service and in most cases officers who have travelled are always the same and are senior officers leaving the junior officers. According to the Zambia police CSD establishment each police station and police post is supposed to have at least four and two trained community services officers respectively. However, in Lusaka urban it was discovered that the number of trained officers is below the number required to cater the 13 police stations and over 150 police posts. Even the



few, who were trained, some have been transferred to other sections while others have died or resigned. As a result most CSD officers manning police stations and police posts are ill-qualified in community policing hence the failure to succeed.

Further, when asked if the police had any future plans in terms of training more police officers as community services officers, one of the coordinators at Lusaka Division indicated that programmes for training had already been drawn up but there are no funds to commerce them. The coordinator also stated that this is the general picture you will find for all in- service courses in the police service, they have not been held for some time now due lack of resources. An examination of the list of training programmes at Police Headquarters waiting for funding revealed that Community Policing related courses do not even feature on the list. This means that even if some funds are available, CP courses would not be held because they are not a priority as it is not considered very important compared to investigations, prosecutions, traffic, police intelligence, communication and administration courses. To make matters worse community policing is not taught to police trainees at Lilayi Police Training College as it is not part of the police training curricular.

However, it has been noted that, training alone, even if it was to be at a higher scale than what is obtaining currently, it will not achieve the required principles of community based policing. It must be linked to the changes in the environment police operate. Training should be reflected in police standing orders in the day-to-day instruction received from supervisors, including law reform (UN office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 11/12/06). But what reflects on training in the Zambia Police Standing Orders is not commensurate with the environment in which police is operating today. What is found in the Zambia Police Standing Orders is still associated with things like parades, musketry, automatic and weapon training and a few station lectures. There is also basic and post- basic training. Basic training means initial police training for recruits and direct entry cadets while, post-basic training means specialized and in-service training. It is also important to state that training at police academies is always carried out in accordance with programmes approved by the Inspector General and in accordance with the Zambia Police Training Manual which has no place for community policing training.

### 3.2.2 The Police Conduct and Accountability

In May 1994, the Zambia Police Reform Programme was instituted and adopted the community-based policing strategy in 1995. As earlier stated, the main aim was to improve the quality, delivery, efficiency and effectiveness of public services. However, it was not only that, but also to transform the organization into a public institution accountable to the law and to the community it serves from a “force” to “service” (Musonda, 2002). Accountability is the creating of mechanisms in which the police can be made answerable for addressing the needs and concerns of the community they serve.

Policing is not just about supervising organizations, but tackling some of the underlying social issues that cause conflict and precipitate the need for policing alternatives to the state police. In the first place, legislation will not suffice until there is a mechanism put in place for investigating and punishing complaints against state police

abuse. In Zambia, the government formed and put in place a complaint authority known as the Police Public Complaint Authority (PPCA).

The police have the responsibility of protecting life and property, and are the preservers of law and order. This makes the police a critical institution in constitutionalism, upholding rule of law, and human rights protection. However, as shall be seen in this section, that there is evidence that police conduct towards the public seeking recourse to the rule of law is undesirable.

Since the inception of constitutional democracies in the free world, the debate has continued on the degree of freedom the public service should enjoy from public control, public participation and public scrutiny (Vocino and Rabin 1981). Hanekom and Thornhill (1983:184) identify public accountability as one of the prominent characteristics of twentieth century public administration and point out that the public and elected representatives need assurance "... that public services are under control and carried out within the framework of the policies laid down by parliament". However, what is the meaning of accountability? If in any sense it can be said that government is for the people, "... then those who hold public offices and possess and exercise power for instance the police officers must submit their actions to public scrutiny and approval. (Sallis, 1982: 18).

Each police officer as a public servant must perform his or her daily task with the greatest care and responsibility as he may be called to account publicly for any careless error, deliberate offence or culpable action. All police officers like other public officers such as administrators and civil servants have to accept public accountability for their deeds and misdemeanors. However, it should be noted that the issue of accountability only applies when the public or communities are fully involved in policing their areas by the police. Hence, accountability raises a series of questions: Does the police service have standards of conduct that it adheres to; are there records that can be examined; to whom are the police answerable for such adherence; are the members of the community familiar with those standards that they can call for compliance? Is there community consultation to determine policing goals and objectives? And beyond the local community, are the police accountable for actions (such as the use of force) that impinge directly on public interest objectives such as human rights and rights of privacy.

Police accountability is a contentious issue as it is a requirement of Community Policing that police officers must be accountable to the members of public. The rationale behind this accountability, like we have already discussed, is that the public are the master and so they should decide what the police are going to do and how they will do it and thereafter the police must account for what they have done to the citizens of the community. To the contrary, the study reveals that in Zambia it does not work like that. Many people interviewed, especially the key respondents and senior police officers indicated that the police are only accountable to the ruling class and to a lesser extent, to the National Assembly through the Governance and Security Parliamentary Committee. The public have no avenues of holding the police accountable even if a gross misconduct has been committed by the police. From the interviews by the senior police officers, this is one area that the current police establishment has no intention of ever implementing because there is no compelling government policy.

As we have seen from the foregoing, there are no established procedures in which to handle issues raised by the members of the community. No avenues were created in the

legislation to have formal forums where the community would hold the police accountable. The study has revealed that the cooperation that exists now between the police and the members of the public has not led to the police being more accountable to the public in the way they are policed. In fact, it has been observed that the legislation in Zambia, holds the community accountable to the police in the way it operates Community Crime Prevention Units (CCPU) through Section 48(5) of the Police Amendment Act No. 14 of 1999 which says *“Every association shall perform its functions subject to the direction and control of the officer-in-charge”*.

However, despite the fact that in Zambia, the police service is less accountable to the public especially to the local communities, the study revealed that there are other various institutions that exist to check police conduct, accountability and human rights abuses in the police service and these are:

(a) The Police Public Complaints Authority (PPCA)

In 1999, the Zambia Police Act was amended to strengthen police conduct towards the public or individuals, as the existing provisions did not spell out adequate redress or complaint processes for individuals that are victims of police misconduct. Hence the government established the Police Public Complaints Authority (PPCA) under the Zambia Police Act (Cap 107) Amendment No.14 of 24<sup>th</sup> December 1999. The PPCA was created under (PART XA Section 57A). The Minister of Home Affairs in the year 2002 as by law established and constituted the PPCA and appointed members of the Authority as stipulated under Section 57B and 57D of the Act No. 14 of 1999 and came into force in 2003. The Police Public Complaints Authority Mission Statement is to secure individual fundamental human rights and freedoms from police abuse through sensitization of partners, general public and other stake holders, receiving of complaints against police human rights abuses; investigating abuses, making directives and recommendations to relevant bodies. The functions of the Police Public Complaint Authority are:-

- (a) to receive all complaints against police action
- (b) to investigate all complaints against police action which result in serious injury or death of a person injured or death of person
- (c) submit its findings, recommendations and directions to
  - The Director of Public Prosecutions for consideration of possible criminal prosecution
  - The Inspector General of Police for disciplinary action or other administrative action or
  - The Anti-Corruption Commission or any other relevant body of authority

The PPCA is presently the institution to which complaints against police actions and those, which result in serious injury or death of person, can be lodged. Members of the public can also complain against the abuses, corruption and illegal detentions by the police officers. The Authority is there to deal with serious complaints against the police. These include cases of serious injury for instance, fracture, damage to internal organ, impairment of body function, a deep cut or laceration or unlawful carnal knowledge.

In addition, management units have also been established at the directorate level, while discipline has improved following the establishment of the Legal and Professional Standards Directorate which houses the Police Professional Standards Unit which was established in 2003. The unit deals with complaints against police as received by the office of the Inspector General of Police to ensure that police officers acted and conducted themselves professionally. The Unit as well investigates cases of corruption, arbitrary arrests and detention and other unprofessional behavior within the police service. The professional standard unit has power to recommend action against a police officer(s) found guilty of police, misconduct. However, this unit is just found at headquarters as it is believed all Police Commanders at (division, district, and station, down to the officer in charge police post level) are, essentially Professional Standards Officers.

More serious than the corruption that still exists are the cases, though relatively few, of police beatings and raping persons in custody especially in police posts where officers take advantage of some sought of decentralized powers given to them as shown in the tables below.

### **Observations of Police Conduct in 2003, 2007 and 2008**

**Table 3.5: The classification of complaints received and dealt by the PPCA against Police officers in 2003**

<b>Nature of Complaint</b>	<b>No. of complaints received</b>	<b>Complaints Pending</b>	<b>Complaints Closed</b>
Unlawful Detention	83	76	7
Brutality/Torture	56	45	11
Debt Collection	8	7	1
Police Inaction	45	35	10
Unprofessional Conduct	138	101	37
Abuse of Authority	32	19	13
Death in Police Custody	7	4	3
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>369</b>	<b>287</b>	<b>82</b>

**Source:** Police Public Complaint Authority

Observations of police conduct in 2003 within the Police Public Complaint Authority (PPCA) framework shows that there were 369 complaints of police misconduct received in the period January to December. These also varied from unlawful detention, police brutality and torture, police inaction, unprofessional conduct, abuse of authority and death in police custody. It came to our attention in table 3.5 that 82 complaints were

concluded and 8 (eight) Police officers were dismissed from the Zambia Police Service as a result of detaining members of the public unlawfully. Further 6 (six) officers were disciplined by the Inspector General of Police while 7 (seven) police officers were cleared of allegations against them. However, the 8 (eight) police officers who were dismissed fought for judicial review in the High Court of Zambia and judgment was passed in their favor.

**Table 3.6: The classification of complaints received and dealt by the PPCA against Police Officers in 2007**

<b>Nature of Complaint</b>	<b>Number of complaints received</b>	<b>Referred to other Organizations</b>	<b>Complaints Pending</b>	<b>Complaints Closed</b>
Unlawful Wounding	79		77	2
Brutality/Torture	33	1	31	1
Debt Collection	12		12	
Police Inaction	34		33	1
Unprofessional Conduct	75	2	70	3
Death in Police Custody	15	2	13	1
Abuse of Authority	2	1	2	
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>250</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>238</b>	<b>8</b>

*Source:* Police Public Complaint Authority

Observations of police conduct as indicated in table 3.6, in 2007 within the Police Public Complaint Authority (PPCA) framework shows that there were 250 complaints of police misconduct received as compared to 369 in 2003. The complaints varied from unlawful detention, police brutality and torture, police inaction, unprofessional conduct, abuse of authority and death in police custody. However, only 8 (eight) complaints were concluded and recommendations were made to the Inspector General of Police for various disciplinary actions.

**Table 3.7: The classification of complaints received and dealt by the PPCA against Police Officers in 2008.**

<b>Nature of Complaint</b>	<b>No. of complaints received</b>	<b>No. of complaints referred to other organizations</b>	<b>Complaints pending</b>	<b>Complaints closed</b>
Unlawful Detention	80	5	70	5
Brutality/Torture	44	2	40	2
Police Inaction	28		27	1
Unprofessional	36		36	

Conduct				
Abuse of Authority	20		19	1
Death in Police Custody	3	2	1	
TOTAL	211	9	193	9

**Source:** Police Public Complaint Authority

Observations of police conduct in 2008 within the Police Public Complaint Authority (PPCA) framework shows that there were 211 complaints of police misconduct received in the period 2008 as compared to 250 in 2007. These also varied from unlawful detention, police brutality and torture, police inaction, unprofessional conduct, abuse of authority and death in police custody. Further police unprofessional conduct was exhibited when police shot and injured two University of Zambia students in Lusaka. The students were demonstrating against their low government sponsored allowances. Police used live bullets to disperse the students.

The study revealed that the marginal reductions in the complaints against police officers' conduct today is due to several reasons advanced by the PPCA and key informants which include: Ignorance by the members of the public on the existence and importance of PPCA as a result of lack of sensitization. Another reason put forward was that complaints usually take long to be completed hence many people have been frustrated and lost interest to report police bad conduct to PPCA. Further, a third reason was that in most cases, despite the police officers being found guilty by the PPCA, their recommendations mostly have not been enforced by the Inspector General of Police. This discourages members of the public to report police abuses because whether they report or not report no action will be taken against the erring police officers. This was supported by members of PPCA who stated that they had no mandate to discipline erring officers because the Authority only submits its findings and recommendations to the Director of Public Prosecutions, Inspector General of Police and the Anti-Corruption Commission. Noteworthy, is that the Authority's recommendations do not necessitate enforceability or compliance. These institutions are not under obligation to comply with recommendations made by PPCA such that most often it does not receive co-operation especially from the police in dealing with inquiries.

Furthermore, PPCA members indicated that the contributing factor in concluding only a small fraction of complaints in the year 2003, 2007 and 2008 was because of inadequate support both administrative and technical staff to do the day to day operations of the Authority efficiently and effectively. The PPCA also lacks operational guidelines, for instance there is lack of harmonization in terms of operations among the PPCA, Zambia Police Service and Police and Prisons Commission. Finally it lacks resources such as transport, offices and finances.

On the contrary, to PPCA, within the police circles it was argued that the reduction in complaints against police officers is a result of police officers adhering to the concept of Human Rights Observance due to sensitization programmes through community policing, police station and posts lectures. Further, Human Right has been included in the police curriculum as a subject for trainees at Police Training Schools and Lilayi Police Training College.

#### (b) Legislative institutions

During question time in the house: During sessions, provision is made in accordance with the Rules of Order, for an opportunity for questions each week. These questions may be answered verbally or in writing. Sometimes the questions are concerned with specific administrative actions which must be answered convincingly by the Minister of Home Affairs. Police officers should carry their work with great sense of responsibility, as any misconduct may easily be questioned in the House.

During debates of public concern: When parliament carries a motion to call for a special debate of public concern on a specific matter on the police, that matter will be discussed in great detail. Therefore, police officers should keep their conduct above suspicion and in the event that anything happens to damage the interests of the public, the matter would be significantly.

#### (c) Courts of justice

Court cases are usually associated with the unpleasantness of the administration of justice, but when public interest is at stake, courts of justice must play a role. Public accountability on the police is enforced by courts of justice in the following indirect ways:

During criminal cases against police officers: Police officers are not above the law and the application of justice. Even they must pay for misdemeanors and felonies they commit. The fact that police officers may be charged with any criminal offence compels them to act responsibly.

During judicial inquiries: After any catastrophe which involves the police as an institution, the government would instruct that a commission of inquiry be appointed to investigate the circumstances, for example, what led to the shooting and killings during civil unrest and riots. These inquiries usually determine the extent of police accountability to the public.

There are widespread violations of human rights in Zambia. For instance in this democratic era at least two commissions of inquiry appointed by the President have confirmed the existence of torture by the police. However, the government has largely ignored the recommendations of the commissions. Some of the torturers have been promoted to top positions, showing clearly lack of political will to combat police brutality. Hence, failure by the government to deal with alleged torturers has created impunity among some police officers, extra judicial killings of suspects still occur frequently.

#### (d) The public media

Since the government of the day believes in freedom of the press, except where this might harm the country or its people, public media are constantly on the lookout for the irregularities in the police service and subsequently make these known to the public. The media focus on sensational reporting, and anything that would arouse public interest, will be published in an efficient manner. Police officers must, therefore, act cautiously so as not to catch the watchful eye of the public media, resulting in exposure by alert journalists. Ways, in which the police conduct can be scrutinized in the media, include the following:

- (a) by inquiries and reports from investigative journalists
- (b) through letters to the press
- (c) in editorial comments
- (d) in television appearances, interviews on radio or panel discussion

Therefore, in Zambia, the formal accountability of police conduct in the police service is more likely with state policing, although it is even more likely to be accountable upward for instance, (to the Inspector General of Police, or Minister of Home Affairs and Parliament) than accountability downward (to citizens or members of the community). In Zambia, the keeping of detailed records by such bodies as the Police Public Complaint Authority and the Police Professional and Standards Unit, and despite the legal backing, this does not address the on going accountability by the citizens for police action.

### **3.3 THE ROLE OF THE COMMUNITY IN CRIME PREVENTION**

In Zambia, community policing through crime prevention has been upheld in the Zambia Police Mission Statement as well as in the Strategic Development Plan Reports (SDP) of the Zambia Police Service 1995-2000 and 2001-2006. The report emphasizes the need to facilitate and encourage initiatives aimed at prevention of crime. Further, some of the reports reviewed for this study also endorse prevention as a viable means of addressing the crime problem. For the promise of prevention to be fulfilled however, it is important to find whether the rhetoric of prevention is being translated with action. Unless the type and magnitude of crime prevention activities being currently conducted is known it would be difficult to have a baseline from which to measure progress in the field.

Crime can be reduced if approached systematically. Crime Prevention involves responding to a few priority problems using different types of approaches. These approaches aim at addressing the causes of, and opportunities for, particular crime problems. Crime is usually caused when three things happen:

- There is a willing or vulnerable victim (target)
- A willing and able offender, and
- An environment or location which is conducive to committing an offence

Crime prevention is basically classified into two (2) methods and the first one is called the re-active method which is the detection of an already committed crime. While the other classification is the pro-active method which is mainly associated with the detection of crime before it is committed. Crime prevention is also about ensuring that laws are enforced and that fear of crime is reduced. Elias (1986), preferring to talk about crime



reduction rather than crime prevention states that 'crime reduction seeks to help victims by devising strategies to reduce crime and victimization, largely by increasing victim participation. However, as noted in Zambia it is not always the case that crime prevention or crime reduction strategies necessarily involve greater victim participation.

In Zambia, however, in the last fifteen years there has been an increasing tendency to widen the responsibility for crime prevention to include the community. The police suggest two reasons for this. First, there has been an increasing awareness of the fear of crime and the belief that such fear is having a deleterious effect on community life. Secondly, there has been an increasing awareness that many people are affected by crime either as victims or friends of victims. As a result of these two factors, the community crime prevention programmes have emerged. These programmes have focused their attention on the role of the community in crime prevention. They encourage greater participation and involvement of individuals in crime prevention; and secondly they rely on greater cooperation and co-ordination between the police and the community.

Having looked at what is meant by crime prevention and seen how communities and other stake-holders can be brought on board to prevent crime in partnership with the police, it is now appropriate to discuss crime prevention initiatives that have been put in place in Lusaka urban communities by the police, community and other stake-holders.

### 3.3.1 Neighbourhood Watch Associations/Schemes

The community-based crime prevention programmes promote active communication with the public and the police must be visible in the community, accessible, caring, with the goal of reducing fear and deterring crime (Goldstein, 1987). The center piece of community based crime prevention is mainly associated with the Neighborhood Watch, which encompasses organizing and training people to report criminal activity and having police officers make security surveillance of premises. However, it has to be recognized that community programmes vary with respect whether the *"initiative come from the police or the public; whether costs are borne by the participants, government, or charitable organizations; the size of areas organized; the manner in which leaders are selected; the amount of effort devoted to maintaining high levels of activity and involvement; the kind of provision made for organizing neighborhood units into larger associations; and the level of on going support from the police"* (Skolnick and Bayley, 1988:7).

Apart from the possible crime prevention and detection, if properly implemented, a key advantage of citizen involvement in crime prevention may lead to instilling in members of the public a sense of belonging and cohesion and feeling of competence and efficacy. This may in turn lead to higher moral and ethical standards. This cooperation in crime prevention activities may ultimately lead to reduction in crime and the fear of crime, thus encouraging closer community relations among the residents and also with the police. On the other hand, citizen involvement in crime prevention is not without disadvantages. There are possibilities that some citizens may want to use the police to further their criminal activities especially in communities where the majorities are unemployed and poor. Others have argued also that the power to deprive a citizen life or liberty is very important power that must remain within the government and not with private individual (ibid, 1988).

Encouraging greater participation of individuals in the community in crime prevention programmes is not a particularly new idea, however the more recent initiatives have promoted a victimization perspective. This development relies on what Hope and Shaw in Ellias(1986) call 'the mobilization of informal community controls' which are directed 'in the defense of communities against a perceived predatory threat from outside' (ibid.,p.12). Taking a lead from similar developments in the United States and United Kingdom, this defense has emerged in Zambia in the form of the neighborhood watch scheme.

In Zambia the most well known and established avenue in which the communities have participated in crime prevention is through the neighborhood watch association. The neighborhood watch associations are aimed at reducing crime in the community. It involves getting to know one's neighbor and introducing the concept of neighborhood. This means that the good neighbors work together with the police to alleviate the potential of crime. They are chaired by the civilians and include representatives of the significant groups and interest in the local community. The prime aim of neighbourhood watch schemes is to give local communities a say on how they want to be policed. The study revealed that police officers that were interviewed in the selected police stations and posts as well as from key informants indicated that nearly in every community in Lusaka at least one neighborhood watch association existed.

According to the coordinator of Community Safety Unit at Lusaka Division, stated that the reason why the police high command emphasized on the creation of the neighbourhood watch associations was because the neighborhood watch schemes are a positive step against crime and constitute an opportunity for reduction of crime. This stresses the importance of having 'eyes on the street' since there is some evidence indicating that surveillance will deter criminals and thus reduce crime. Hence neighborhood watch schemes are described as the 'eyes and ears of the police'. Neighbourhood watch associations also stress the importance of creating and harnessing community cohesion. Therefore, community cohesion increases the interaction which takes place between different members of the community in the common purpose of crime prevention through the mechanism of neighborhood watch may lead to greater civility and trust within the community and reduce the fear of crime.

Rising crime in the Lusaka urban especially in densely populated areas and which are shanties in character has seen innumerable initiatives by communities to tackle it with a degree of ruthlessness. In Zambia's urban areas neighbourhood watches of 20-30 people undertake regular armed patrols in the company of police officers. They have widespread support because they are considered to be very effective in crime prevention. For instance, the information provided by the CSD coordinator at Lusaka Police Division Headquarters stated that at least in all the communities in Lusaka urban district there is a NWA and went on to mention that for the whole Lusaka Division they have a total of 94 NWAs, though over 90 percent of these are not active. This means that most people are aware of the existence of CP through NWAs as a crime strategy. This is despite the fact that publicity and encouragement for communities to form NWAs has been very little. In most communities, the association may not be registered due to the high fees that have to be paid at the registrar of society's offices, but it may still be operating though not officially registered.

There is an argument on the effectiveness of neighbourhood watch associations. This is most obviously displayed when the questions of how and where such schemes seem to be most readily implemented and the extent to which they are effective in achieving their goals. The study provided an opportunity to explore the extent to which there was support for this development. The study also provides an analysis on the findings. The study suggests that: the strongest spontaneous support for neighborhood watch resides in those communities where people are sufficiently worried about crime, where they feel the need to do something about it, and where they feel positively towards their neighbors and to the community in general and there is a police post in that community.

According to the study findings, neighborhood watch scheme seems to be popular in areas where the worry about crime is high but the actual risk of residential crime is relatively low. In other words it seems to build on an already existing network of relationships which crime is most likely to be seen as an external threat to the community. The study also revealed that the neighborhood watch schemes are common in high and middle density populated areas of Lusaka like Chipata, Chaisa, Mandevu compound and Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga areas respectively. On the other hand, in areas where the crime is low, neighborhood watch associations are less popular for instance; in low density areas of Lusaka like Woodlands and Kabulonga, these schemes do not exist instead they mostly depend on private security firms as a mode of securing their lives and property. In short the study revealed that the establishment of NWAs in Lusaka urban is determined by the presence of the police.

***Table 3.8: Members of the Community and Police Officers Responses on the Neighborhood Watch Associations***

ISSUE	Response From 130 members community		Responses From 100 Police Officers	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Existence of Neighborhood watch Associations in their communities	79(61%)	59(39%)	71(71%)	29(29%)
Member of the neighborhood watch associations	37(28)	93(72%)	N/A	N/A
Is the Neighborhood Watch in your community active?	47(36%)	83(64%)	43(43%)	57(57%)

Earlier in this chapter, over 90 percent respondents who were interviewed indicated that the citizens or members of the public are truly co-producers of public safety. On the contrary, the study in table 3.8 revealed that 79 (61 percent) members of the community were aware of the existence of neighborhood watch associations in their community, while 51(39 percent) indicated that they were not aware of the existence of neighborhood watch associations in their community. On the police side 71 (71 percent) police officers as opposed to 29 (29 percent) indicated that in the area they operated at least there existed the neighborhood watch association. Further, the study noted that out of 130 members of the community whom the study interviewed, only 37 (28 percent) were members while the 93(72percent) were not members of the neighborhood watch associations. Hence, it could be deduced that only a few people are involved directly in policing their

communities through neighborhood watch associations as opposed to those who are not involved.

However, according to the study findings it is clearly indicated that most of these NWAs are not active. As shown in table 3.8, where 83 (64 percent) members of the community indicated not active as compared to only 47 (36 percent) members of the community said they were active. This was also supported by the police officers for example, 62 (62 percent) indicated they were not active as compared to only 38 (38 percent) who said they were active.

Furthermore, the study also noted that the neighborhood watch schemes are less popular in areas where crime is high and where it is believed by the people in the community that the offenders are local people. They are probably neighbors. In other words the problem here is that crime is seen as internal threat to the community. Hence neighborhood watch is not necessarily the mechanism on which trust can be built or fear reduced under these circumstances. Community members may see and hear what is going on in their community but this does not necessarily lead to opportunity reduction, or reduction in fear of crime. Therefore, people's belief about crime does not facilitate strategies which have these goals.

#### Roles and Functions of Neighbourhood Watch Associations (NWAs)

Neighborhood watch provides for a means of reducing the opportunity for crime to occur through active participation of citizens in crime prevention programmes. Through NWAs citizens are taught how to make their homes less inviting as the target for criminals, how to participate in operational patrols, making the personal property less deceivable by burglars and how to be alert to suspicious activities in their neighborhood. Very few people are in the position to protect their homes and property all the time. For instance, vacation, business and shopping trip or even on an evening outing and hence leave their homes unattended to and become vulnerable to crime. The neighborhoods watch programmes also provide a sense of security to individuals and families who leave their homes for any length of time.

Further the neighborhood watch helps to coordinate the efforts of the police and the community in tracking down criminals. Resident members of the neighborhood watch are encouraged to be on the look out for suspicious behaviors or people. However it should be noted that NWA should always be and remain in partnership between the police and the community as it is stated in the Zambia Police Amendment Act No. 14 of 1999, that every association shall perform its functions subject to the direction and control of the officer-in-charge. In this sense the community are seen as the 'eyes and ears', but the police retain their active role when dealing with actual or suspected crime. Therefore below are some of the basic objectives of neighborhood watch scheme:-

- To supplement police efforts in order to combat crime by ensuring law and order prevail in the neighborhood.
- To alert citizens and residents concerning crime in their area;
- To carry out sensitization and educational meetings with residents on how best to protect themselves against criminal activities; and

- To carry out any other objective that may be used in the maintenance of law and order in their community.

### Reasons for Joining Neighbourhood Watch Associations

When asked on the reason why they joined the NWA, most key informants especially those involved in the recruitment of members and those who are members of neighbourhood watch association in Nyumba Yanga and Chipata compound gave the following as their reasons for joining: “to help the police and their community to eliminate crime. One key informant indicated that prior to 1995, in most compounds and communities of Lusaka there were many violations of people’s rights and this was the opportunity to protect people’s rights. Another member of the neighbourhood watch stated that by joining the NWA, it was also an opportunity to learn about the law and of gaining legal advice.” Further, members added that before the formation of these crime prevention associations in most shanty compounds of Lusaka there was fighting; now the people are restrained because they know preventers are around hence it reduces crime. It was also mentioned that these neighbourhood watch associations have assisted the police on, publicity and educating other members of the public on the importance of reporting on crimes like rape, defilement and other forms of abuse. Therefore, from the interviews it may be concluded that the major reason why they have joined the NWAs is because they see their primary function as assisting the police in crime prevention.

For instance, as a result of the presence of NWAs in most residential areas as stated by most key informants, members of the public and the police officers interviewed during the study noted that crime rates are not very high in areas where the NWA existed and active. Both police officers and members of NWA interviewed in Chipata, Chaisa and Mandevu compound and in Nyumba Yanga in Woodlands area stated that, where cooperation in communities existed between the NWA and the police with frequent patrols, crime rates especially of violent crimes like murder, robbery, house breaking and motor vehicle theft have reduced significantly. The close cooperation has also assisted to reduce the inadequacies of the police like the lack of transport, stationary and manpower.

On the reasons why the neighbourhood watch associations are not active, the majority of respondents, that is police officers and members of the public, indicated lack of support from the police as an organization such as equipment (raincoats, handcuffs, and transport), trainings and financial assistance when the members are in problems. For the response on the support given to the NWAs the majority, members of the public and police, indicated manpower or human resource support.

Further it was also revealed that there is lack of support from the community itself because most of the members of the public are not willing to be involved in security matters hence only a few are willing to come on body to work and coordinate with the police in combating crime through crime prevention. As a result of this many of them are not active; they just depend on individual’s willingness or activeness to work with the police as it is voluntary. This was also supported by most members of these unrecognised NWAs in these communities. For instance as area stated only 37 out of 79 which represent 47 per cent were members of the neighbourhood watch associations in their communities. Another reason is that though most communities have formed NWAs, the majority of them are not legally recognized or registered with the registrar of societies

because most of the communities are poor hence failing to raise the required fees for registration.

### 3.3.2 Beat/Preventive Foot Patrols

As discussed earlier, serious questions have been raised about the effectiveness of the traditional police strategies. These strategies are based on the assumption that visible police presence on the streets will result into arrests of law breakers and ultimately reduce and prevent crime. Therefore, for decades patrol work by police officers alone has either been motorized or on foot with very little community interaction and participation. Following the revelations of a research which revealed that randomized patrols and rapid response may not effectively prevent crime and lead to more arrests, community policing proponents contended that patrol operations should encourage a deeper community involvement (Elias, 1986). Patrol officers should be encouraged to know the community by talking to people and encouraging requests for non-emergency services and be a remarkable part of the community scene. This is an effort to overcome the barriers to communication that reactive randomized patrols usually present (Goldstein, 1987). In this way, patrol officers would be able to respond to community concerns more positively and ultimately explain police services more accurately and solicit information that leads to arrests and prosecution. Police will still respond to emergencies but a large portion of patrol personnel will be deployed to proactive crime prevention.

For example, it was agreed by the majority key informants in the study, that police and NWA patrols assist significantly to prevent crime in the communities because they increase police presence. Actually it was observed that in most police posts they mostly depended on NWA members to do their patrols though most of them are not registered. Further, information from the coordinator of community safety unit during the study at police headquarters is that in the early stages on the introduction of community policing in Zambia in 1995, the patrols in Lusaka were boosted when the Zambia police got a grant of \$30,000 US from the Public Sector Capacity-Building Project (PSCAP) to acquire radio community equipment for use during patrols. This equipment was supposed to assist the NWAs to be more efficient in the use of communication, transport and manpower during patrols. Unfortunately, due to lack of training and knowledge on how to use the equipment on the part of NWA members and the majority of NWAs not operational due to non availability of registration fees. Therefore, this meant that the equipment was transferred to the police stations and police posts and connected to police channels.

### 3.3.3 Community Police Posts

Another proactive crime prevention measure in Zambia was the establishment of community police posts. In Zambia, it has been observed that police officers operating in these police posts patrol their areas in the company of members of the community from neighborhood watch schemes. These patrols are either on foot or car mostly solicited from the members of the community. However, foot patrols may not, of course, lessen the volume of services requested, but they extend, deepen, and personalize interaction. The officers in these police posts have autonomy in deciding how to implement policing

in their area. This creates the possibility of more intimate police-community relationship and allows police officers the opportunity to gather more information in their area.

Currently, at least all communities in Lusaka urban can access police services within 5 kilometers of their residences. For example, the CSD coordinator Lusaka Divisional Headquarters stated that the development of police posts and neighborhood watch scheme has been very rapid in Zambia especially in Lusaka urban where there are over 120 police posts.

However, despite the existence of police posts and NWAs in most communities, the study observed that most of the structures housing these police posts are “ramshackle”, and not fit to be a public office. For instance, some structures are an old Community Hall or metal containers with no toilets and piped water. This has worked as a disadvantage on the part of officers working in these communities as it has demotivated them to work effectively. Apart from unfit structures, these police posts have very few officers to run the shifts and they work long hours for instance, from 1800hours to 0800hours the following day hence affecting their effectiveness. Further, the NWAs members lack equipment like handcuffs, raincoats and boots to use when assisting police officers in policing crime.

The co-operation of the public in these NWAs does point to a desire to see a better policed community by the police and there is no doubt that, despite the difficulties, the neighborhood watch schemes are generally valued and are not seen as unwelcome foreign imports. Therefore, the success of these police posts and neighborhood watch schemes in Lusaka urban lies largely in the way the police and local people are mobilized. As far as the Zambia police service is concerned it has improved the public’s perception of the police as exemplified, among other things, by the absence of mob justice in many communities.

### 3.3.4 Sensitization and Awareness Programmes

Another initiative by the Zambia police service was the programme for enhancing public perception of the police which consisted of police-community relations programmes. These programmes do not change the basic method of policing; but of reaching out into the community. Police-community relations are essential to crime prevention programmes as they enable citizens to become more aware of their neighborhood and of places where crime can occur. This is the means or method of reaching out to the community and it is based on the premise that the police and the community should jointly accept the responsibility for the maintenance of public order, peace and security in their area.

The police service came up with programmes of reaching out to schools and the community through the School Liaison Unit, Radio and Television programmes (Community Forum) through the Public Relations Department, and public-speaking programmes through the Community Safety Unit. In collaboration with the public and private media institutions, the police conduct radio and television programmes such as the “Police and the Community” aimed at sensitizing the community on various issues such as community safety and security. In addition, the police designs and publishes crime awareness posters, brochures, leaflets and pamphlets in the community. By educating and sensitizing the different stakeholders for instance, the business people and

home owners on the effective security techniques and developing a good police-community rapport, citizens feel safer and have less fear in dealing with the police. This programme by the Zambia police service has proved to have yielded good results as it has increased the citizen's cooperation in providing information to assist in law enforcement. Further, there is more voluntary compliance with the law by the citizens, improved relations with the local communities, and increased community support for police.

The sensitization and awareness programmes were initiated because according to the situation analysis prior to the reformation of the Zambia police service and the adoption of community policing strategy in 1995, the prevailing attitude was that police only existed to arrest and to torture; they can never be friendly and few criminals were handed over to them by the members of the public. This was an indication that the police were not receiving enough cooperation from the community due to lack of rapport between the police and the community. For instance, majority of criminal cases were not reported to police especially gender based offences like rape and defilement. But with increased cooperation through police-community relations, members of the public can now feel free and comfortable to bring complaints to the police and also offer information that could be valuable to the police. The coordinator at Lusaka Division Police Headquarters stated that as far as the CSD is concerned this strategy has improved the public's perception of the police. The police service associates this programme to the cooperation that has existed between the police and the community for the past 15 years.

As a policing measure to fight crime in Zambia, the community policing strategy has been in place for the last 15 years. However, to the contrary, on the ground the Zambia police still use the old strategies of fighting crime especially in the case of addressing violent crimes. For instance, the response to armed robbery on an organized scale by the Flying Squad, Crack Squad Unit and the SCORPION based at Lusaka Divisional Headquarters. With its recruitment of informers, the Flying Squad and the SCORPION have been very successful in breaking up the crime groups or driving them away. Yet the cost was loss of accountability and, perhaps inevitably, accusations that the criminal elements had corrupted the police officers attached to these two units. Further, the military style 'shoot to kill' policy against armed robbers clearly weakens the judicial system.

Despite some weaknesses, most people interviewed are indeed glad that organized crime is slowly going down. Most indicated that these units especially the Flying Squad which is well known to most people, did a good job where mostly general duty police officers had failed; but the methods they are using are not very good. However, some members of the public and even police officers have criticized the Flying Squad and SCORPION unit in investigating what might be termed 'ordinary' crime. They feel these crimes can be effectively handled by the Criminal Investigations Department at divisional, district, station and post level. Hence most officers feel their work is increasingly being undertaken by these units.

Though, this type of policing is very much against the ideals and the essence of community policing in Zambia as it turns to be militaristic and paramilitary policing. However, the world wide trend toward paramilitary policing has been noted by several commentators (for instance, Kraska and Kappelar, 1997; Jefferson, 1990; Wadington, 1991). Militarization is the state's response to social disorder or the fear of it which is not achievable through community policing. The disorder may arise from criminal or



political groups. Therefore, the part of explanation for the militarized response by the Zambia police service has been attributed by the public outcries against the rise in armed robberies hence instilling a sense of insecurity. These units were set up due to the protective failure by the general duties and CID officers found at police stations and posts to deal with armed robberies and serious crimes.

It is also important to recognize that most community policing programmes that have been put in place in most parts of Lusaka urban are police initiated hence police driven. The crime prevention programmes have not taken a multi- agency strategy approach. For instance, according to the study findings from most of the key informants especially from police circles, even the few neighborhood watch associations that exist are a result of police efforts because very few members of the public in Lusaka urban have taken keen interest in crime prevention in their communities. The city council or the local authority is not even, closely associated in ensuring community safety by creating an enabling environment for community participation. To reduce crime, something needs to be done with regards to collaboration between the police, the community and other stake-holders. In case of robbery, burglary and theft, for example, the police could patrol the area, and if called to the scene of crime, arrest the offender. With the assistance of the police, the courts could convict and sentence the offender. In the same way the police, with the assistance of members of the community and other stake-holders in terms of crime intelligence and foot patrols, proper roads and street lighting especially in shanty compounds, can help the police to prevent, detect as well as apprehend the suspects.

The improving of street lighting, planning the layout of parking lot and where the shopping center is to be situated, cutting the long grasses and many more, can not be undertaken by police, they are the functions of local government, local businesses, owners of shopping center and the community at large. As it is emphasized that the principle behind crime prevention strategy is to engage the assistance of all those who can (and should) help to solve crime problem. Since no single agency is responsible for all the elements that cause crime, a joint effect is needed. This is what is referred to as the 'partnership approach'. Partnership brings together those who have something to contribute.

### **3.4 CONCLUSION**

The limitations of the old strategies that were used by the Zambia police from 1970s to early 1990s, which were more militaristic and reactive, meant that the Zambia police force then was unable to provide crime protection and crime investigation for all the citizens. As a result, another policing strategy in the form of community policing was adopted that encouraged greater participation of individuals in the community in the crime prevention programmes by the Zambia police service in 1995. This strategy aimed at being a democratic way by bringing the public closer to the police, hence becoming accountable and professional. As stated in section one of this chapter, some of the major positive reforms that enhanced the police effectiveness in Zambia police were the creation of Community Service Division which oversees all community policing programmes, Research and Planning Department which deals with all research work, data collection and processing in the Zambia Police Service.

The creation of neighbourhood watch associations and community police posts nearly in all residential areas of Lusaka to encourage community participation through foot patrols. The police thought the general public was not kept adequately informed on the security situation in the country, what the police was doing to reduce the high crime levels and issues to do with the Zambia Police Reform Programme. Hence the Public Relations Office was improved upon in the reformation of the police service, it did not only concentrate on issuing daily crime incident reports but its role was expanded to include the publication of the “police news” that carried stories of what the police was doing to work closely with the community. The public relations office also usurped the role of promoting the good image of the Zambia Police Service through the running of programmes both on radio and television such as the “Police and You” and currently the programmes have been changed to “Police and the Community”, and Community Forum.

The study however, indicated that communities are not fully involved because they are not consulted by the police on how they should be policed. Further, they are unable to monitor and evaluate police effectiveness as a result there is no proper police accountability by the members of the community though the government created Police Public Complaint Authority whose recommendations are mostly undermined by the police superiors as stated in section two of chapter three. In addition, training in community policing programmes are unheard of in many residential areas.

Finally it is important to state that most of the discussions within this chapter have been concerned to outline the assumptions underpinning strategies to crime prevention that encourage community participation and accountability. However, it is indicated that the Zambia police has not completely abandoned the old strategies used in policing crime, hence the existence of the Flying Squad which are militaristic and reactive in nature to supplement the failures of community policing strategy.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: THE IMPACT OF COMMUNITY POLICING**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The impact of community policing on crime is discussed in section one of this chapter. Today both the print and electronic media as well as the public outcry suggest there is much crime, but there is no way of knowing how much crime there is. It was the purpose of this study in this section to ask such questions and seek answers to them through the systematic analysis of empirical data. In order to establish the impact of community policing on crime in Zambia, the study in this section presented the findings of the study on crime levels before and after community policing was introduced in Zambia. Further, the study has described and discussed a number of related issues that define the problem context of the community policing impact analysis on crime, including the need for the nature of crime problems including the extent of crime, the trends and distribution of crime to be analyzed.

To achieve this, in this section, seven (7) categories of crimes which include murder, forcible rape, robbery/aggravated robbery, burglary and theft, house breaking, theft, assault and other breakings have been used. The seven categories are referred to as serious crimes and are representative of the criminal tendency. As a way of ascertaining the trends of crime we computed change in the crime rates for each of the seven (7) categories during the last 15 years from 1993 to 2009. Hence to test the effectiveness of community policing in reducing the crime rate, the study experiences of three groups of Lusaka urban residential areas are systematically analyzed and these are high (Chaisa and Chipata compounds), middle (Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga) and low densely populated areas of (Woodlands and Kabulonga) residential areas.

On the other hand, in section two (2) of this chapter, the study analyzed and discussed the findings on the impact of community policing on public attitude towards the police on various issues that affect effectiveness and completeness in the implementation of community policing. Hence in order to establish the impact of community policing on these important issues the study looks at trust and relationship between the police and community, police performance, victimization and fear of crime, level of security concern, human rights observance and the composition of Zambia Police service in relation to gender before and after community policing was introduced in 1995. It is further, noted that the situation analysis before community policing was introduced, the police were rated negatively in almost all of the above stated issues.

Finally, in section three (3) of this chapter, the study discusses the challenges that have negatively affected the implementation of community policing. Therefore, the central objective of this chapter is to analyze systematically and discuss the findings on the impact or effectiveness of community policing strategy on the tendency of crime incidence, public attitude towards crime and the police. In summary, the study in this chapter looks at the success and failure factors as well as challenges facing the community policing strategy, specifically in the last fifteen (15) years, during which time community policing strategy was implemented.

### **4.2 THE IMPACT OF COMMUNITY POLICING ON CRIME**

#### 4.2.1 Changing Crime Levels

It is very obvious that opinion is divided among the public and the police officers about crime levels in residential areas of Lusaka urban district. The conflicting views of 'high' and 'low' rates are not resolved by the Annual Crime Report published by the Zambia Police Service, though in Zambia it is not a practice for the members of the public and even police officers to access the Annual Crime Reports because they have never been published for so many years for public consumption. As stated by many people, both in the print and electronic media and other forums, it is known that there is much crime in Lusaka urban district. But there is no way of knowing exactly how much crime there is in the communities of Lusaka urban district because not all crimes committed are reported to and recorded by the police nor can all crimes be detected by the police. Although the accuracy of crime statistics has been questioned, the crime statistics collected and compiled from selected police stations and police posts in Lusaka urban communities are undoubtedly the best source available to measure the magnitude of crime in Lusaka urban. Our crime analysis has its central thrust based on the 7 categories of the crimes. However, other addition categories of crimes were also compiled and they include other breakings and theft of motor vehicle.

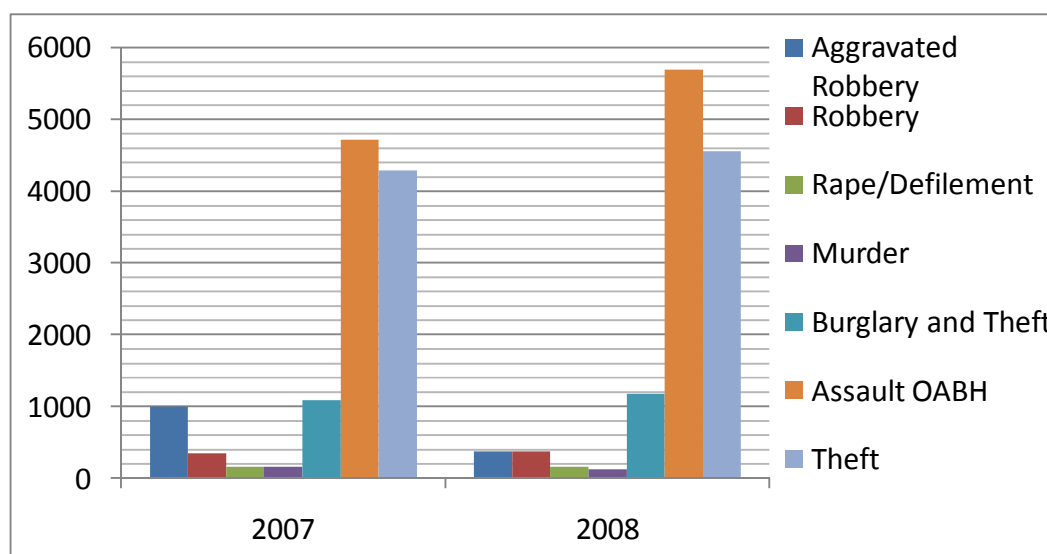
#### **The Extent of Crime in Lusaka Urban Residential Areas**

**Table 4.1: Crime Statistics in 7 Categories of Crime in Lusaka Urban District Residential Areas, 2007-2008**

<b>Offence</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>
Aggravated Robbery	999	375
Robbery	350	374
Rape/Defilement	162	162
Murder	162	124
Burglary and Theft	1083	1175
Assault OABH	4718	5701
Theft	4290	4559
TOTAL	11,602	12,470

*Source:* Lusaka Division, Zambia Police Service

**Figure 4.4: Bar Chart Showing Distribution of Crime Statistics Levels, in Lusaka Urban District Residential Areas, 2007 and 2008**



**Source:** Computed from Lusaka Division Police Headquarters Crime Statistics

Despite the availability of the data in form of statistics, the statistics on crime rates in table 4.1 and figure 4.1 are associated with under reporting to the police because of lack of access, embarrassment, fear of the police and desire for speed justice. But in addition, there is a problem as admitted in the inner circle of the police service (key informants) that the police setup currently is yet to grasp the importance of crime statistics. Further many police officers in charge of crime that is Criminal Investigations Officers (CIOs) do not send accurate crime figures to their Divisional headquarters. During the study it came to the study attention that the data presented in table 4.1 only included cases taken to court, excluding withdrawn cases, un followed up reports, and where criminals are not known. Further, it also came to the study's attention that most cases such as theft and assault cases which are usually withdrawn from police posts were not included on the crime statistics.

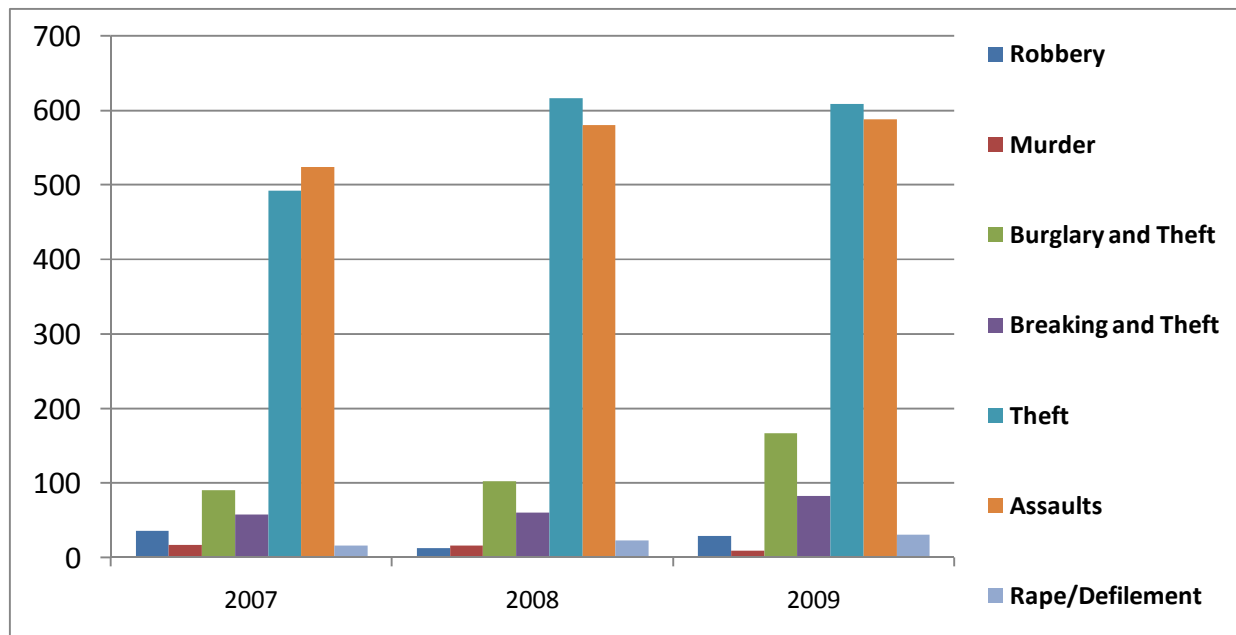
Due to under reporting associated with police statistics in the above table and figure, the study was indebted to carry out its own findings at some selected police stations and community police posts. However, what was found at most of these stations and police posts Crime Registers (CR) and Occurrence Books (OB) was contrary from what was reported from Lusaka Divisional Headquarters and it was noted that the crime statistics presented in table 5 was for entire Lusaka Province that is including rural areas as well. Therefore, the tables below show the study findings at some of the selected police stations and community police posts in Lusaka Urban District Residential areas.

**Table 4.2: Cases reported and dealt by Woodlands Police Station in 2007, 2008 and 2009.**

OFFENCE	2007	2008	2009
Robbery	36	13	29
Murder	17	16	9
Burglary and Theft	91	103	167
House Breaking and Theft	58	61	83
Theft	493	617	609
Assaults	524	581	589
Rape/Defilement	16	23	31
TOTAL	1,235	1,414	1,517

*Source:* Woodlands Police Station

**Figure 4. 5: Bar Chart Showing Number of Cases reported and dealt by Woodlands Police Station in 2007, 2008 and 2009.**



*Source:* Computed from Woodlands Police Station Crime Statistics

The statistics in table 4.2 figure 4. 2 were collected at Woodlands police station and the trends of the crime statistics were that almost all crimes reported at Woodlands police station were on the increase. Therefore, if the above statistics were to be generalized in the whole Lusaka urban district, then they clearly show that police statistics are under reported.

Further, on the case of defilement there was an opportunity to visit University Teaching Hospital (UTH) Public Relations Office. The information the study got on defilement cases received or reported for medical attention was as well alarming. For instance, from January, 2010 to June 2010, the hospital had already received reports and

treated the victims of defilement exceeding 400 cases. These are the cases received by UTH only what about other designed referral clinics. This is a clear indication that despite sensitization programmes and stiff sentences put in place people are still able to have carnal knowledge with the minors hence the crime is not reducing but increasing.

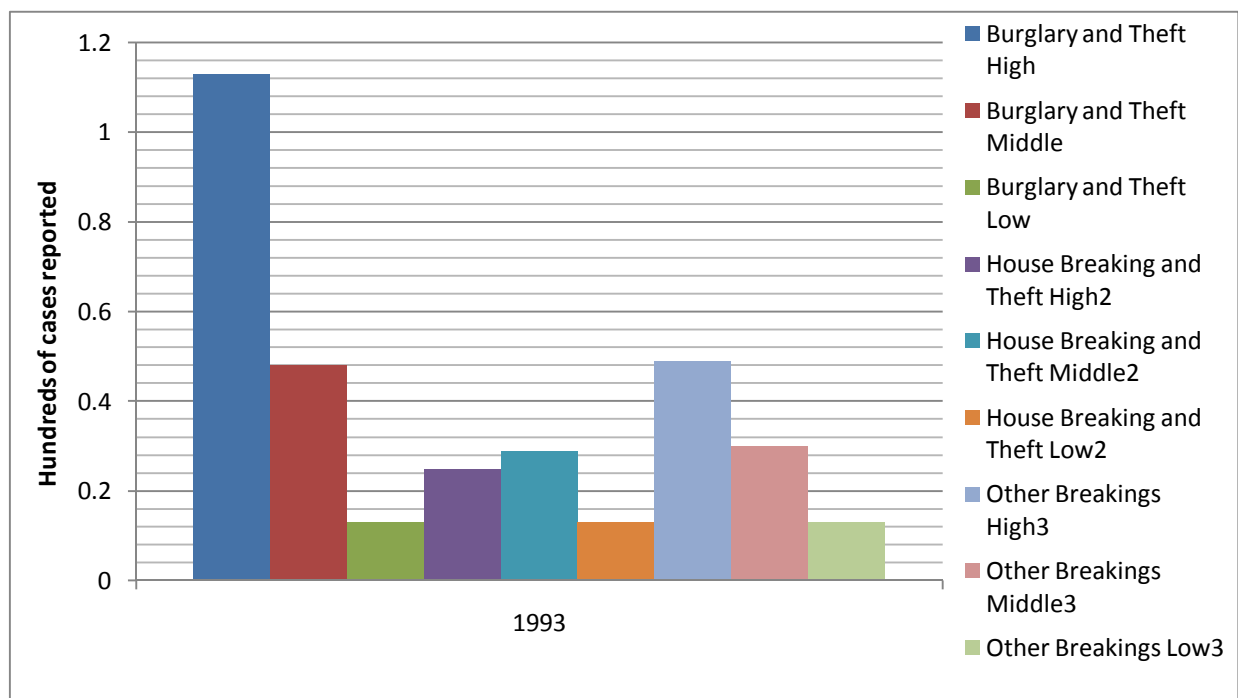
#### **The Distribution of Crime Rate in Lusaka Urban Residential Areas before and after Community Policing.**

**Table 4.6: distribution of Burglary, House Breaking and Other Breakings in High, Middle and Low Density Residential Areas of Lusaka Urban District before Community Policing.**

	<b>Burglary and Theft</b>			<b>House Breaking And Theft</b>			<b>Other Breakings</b>		
Year	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low
1993	113	48	13	25	29	13	49	30	13

*Source:* Chipata, Chaisa, Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts and Woodlands and Emmasdale police stations.

**Figure 4.3: Bar Chart Showing Distribution of Burglary, House Breaking and Other Breakings in High, Middle and Low Density Residential Areas of Lusaka Urban District before Community Policing.**

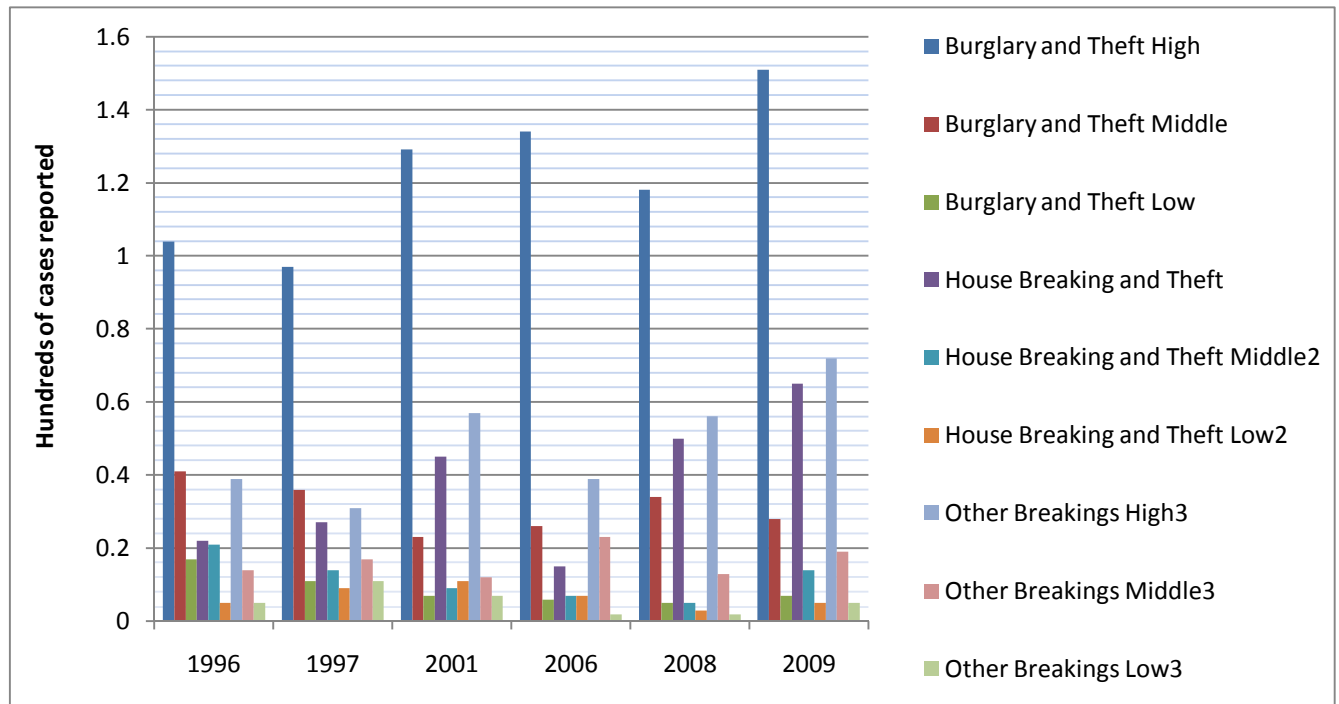


**Table 4.4: The distribution of Burglary, House Breaking and Other Breakings in High, Middle and Low Density Residential Areas of Lusaka Urban District after Community Policing.**

	Burglary and Theft			House Breaking And Theft			Other Breakings		
Year	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low
1996	104	41	17	22	21	5	39	14	0
1998	134	27	13	32	11	15	60	8	0
2002	80	31	9	52	12	4	47	22	13
2006	134	26	6	15	7	7	39	23	5
2008	118	34	5	50	5	3	56	13	8
2009	151	28	7	65	14	5	72	19	7

**Source:** Chipata, Chaisa, Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts and Woodlands and Emmasdale police stations

**Figure 4.4: Bar Chart showing distribution of burglary, house breaking and other breakings in high, middle and low density residential areas of Lusaka Urban District after Community Policing.**



**Source:** Computed from Chipata, Chaisa, Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts and Woodlands and Emmasdale police stations Crime Statistics.

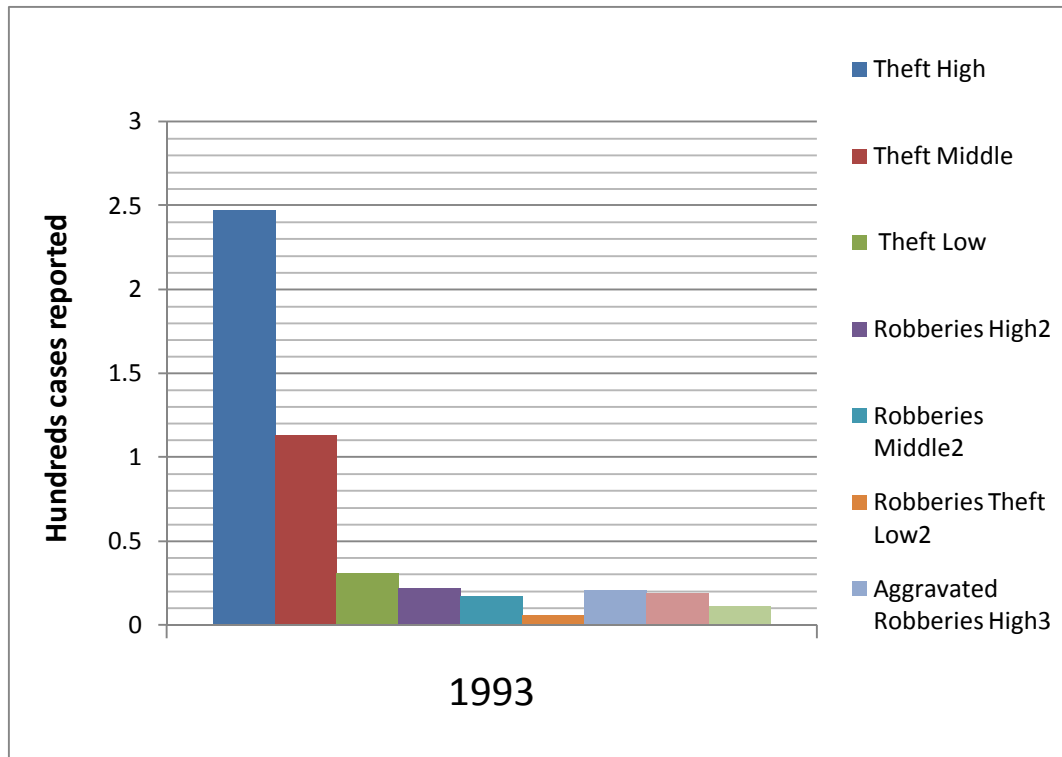


**Table 4.5: The distribution of Theft, Robbery, and Aggravated Robbery statistics: High, Middle, and Low density Residential areas of Lusaka urban district before Community Policing.**

	Thefts			Robberies			Aggravated Robberies		
Year	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low
1993	247	113	31	22	17	6	21	19	11

**Source:** Chipata, Chaisa, Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts and Woodlands and Emmasdale police stations.

**Figure 4.5: Bar Chart Showing the Distribution of Theft, Robbery, and Aggravated Robbery statistics: High, Middle, and Low Density Residential Areas of Lusaka urban district Before Community Policing.**

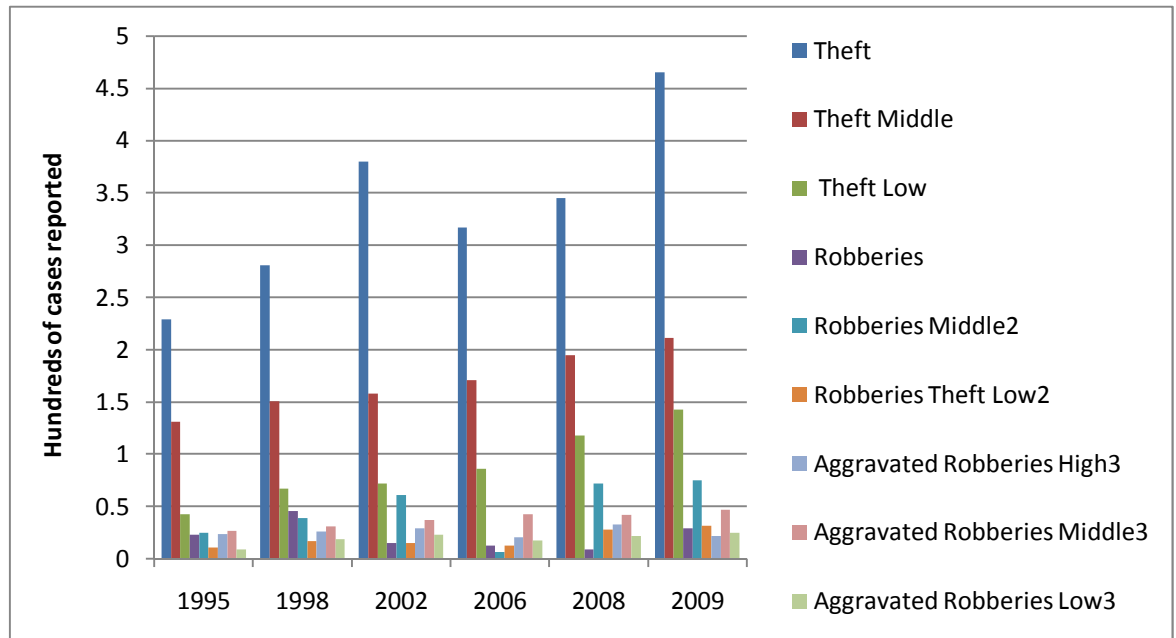


**Table 4.6: Distribution of Theft, Robbery, and Aggravated Robbery Statistics: High, Middle, and Low Density Residential Areas of Lusaka Urban District after Community policing.**

	Thefts			Robberies			Aggravated Robberies		
Year	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low
1995	229	131	43	23	25	11	24	27	9
1998	281	151	67	46	39	17	26	31	19
2001	357	166	80	48	58	21	31	34	21
2002	380	158	72	15	61	15	29	37	23
2006	317	171	86	13	7	13	21	43	18
2008	345	195	118	9	72	28	33	42	22
2009	465	211	143	29	75	32	22	47	25

**Source:** Chipata, Chaisa, Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts and Woodlands and Emmasdale police stations.

**Figure 7.6: Bar Chart Showing the Distribution of Theft, Robbery, and Aggravated Robbery statistics: High, Middle, and Low Density Residential Areas of Lusaka urban district after Community Policing.**



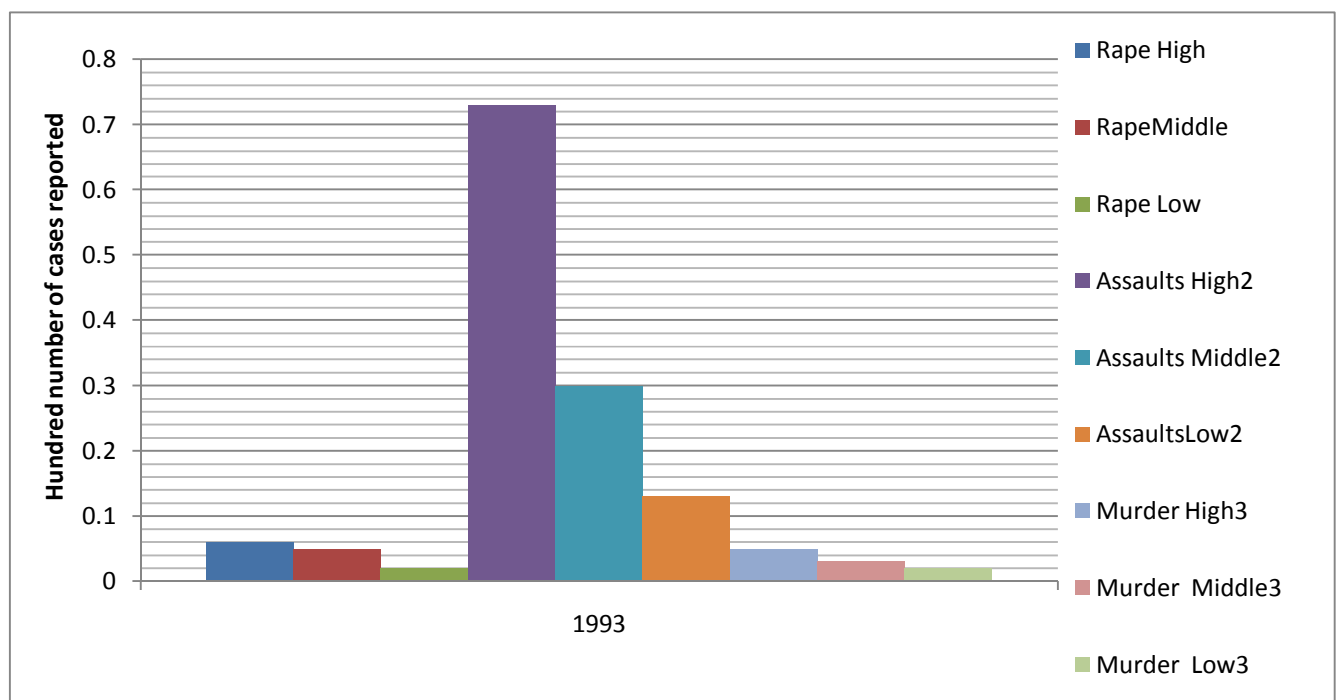
**Source:** Computed from Chipata, Chaisa, Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts and Woodlands and Emmasdale police stations Crime Statistics.

**Table 4.7: The distribution of Rape, Assault, and Murder statistics: In High, Middle, and Low Densely Residential Areas in Lusaka Urban District before Community Policing.**

	Rape			Assaults			Murder		
Year	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low
1993	6	5	2	73	30	13	5	3	2

**Source:** Chipata, Chaisa, Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts and Woodlands and Emmasdale police stations.

**Figure 4.7: Bar Chart Showing the Distribution of Rape, Assault, and Murder Statistics: In High, Middle, and Low Densely Residential Areas in Lusaka Urban District before Community Policing.**



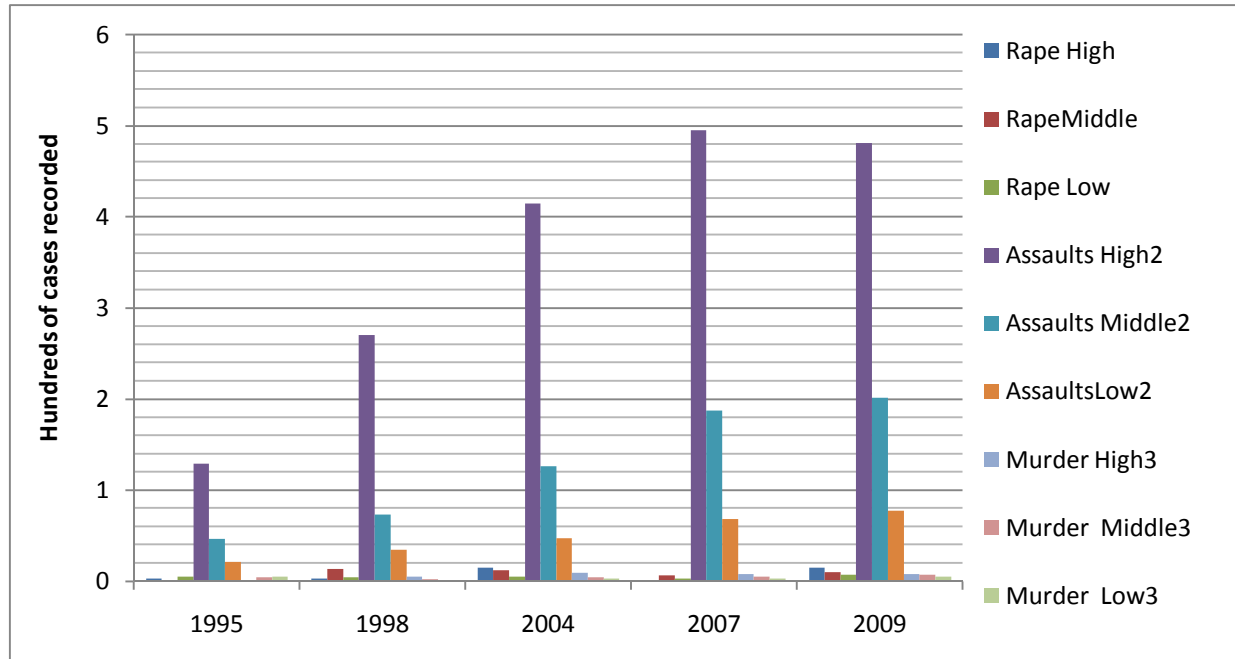
**Source:** Chipata, Chaisa, Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts and Woodlands and Emmasdale police stations.

**Table 4.8: Distribution of Rape, Assault, and Murder statistics: In High, Middle, and Low Density Residential Areas in Lusaka Urban District after Community Policing.**

Year	Rape			Assaults			Murder		
	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low	High	Middle	Low
1995	3	1	5	129	46	21	1	4	5
1998	3	13	4	270	73	34	5	2	1
2004	15	12	5	414	126	47	9	4	3
2007	nil	6	3	495	187	68	8	5	3
2008	2	11	8	473	191	63	2	4	2
2009	15	10	7	481	201	77	8	7	5

**Source:** Chipata, Chaisa, Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts and Woodlands and Emmasdale police stations.

**Figure 4.8: Bar Chart Showing the Distribution of Rape, Assault, and Murder Statistics: In High, Middle, and Low Density Residential Areas in Lusaka Urban District after Community Policing.**



**Source:** Computed from Chipata, Chaisa, Nyumba Yanga and Kabulonga police posts, Woodlands and Emmasdale police stations Crime Statistics

The data presented in above tables and bar charts clearly indicate that community policing impact on crime in the past 15 years in Lusaka urban district residential areas

vary from community to community. The high, middle and low densely populated communities' difference in the crime rates shows a wide variation among the different criminal offences. For example in 2009, table 4.4, 4.6 and 4.8 shows the highly densely populated areas of Chipata and Chaisa compounds crime rates ranges from the high of 465 for theft, 481 for assault, 22 for aggravated robbery, 29 for robbery, to the low of 15 for rape and 8 for murder respectively. The middle densely populated areas of Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga ranges from the high of 211 for theft, 191 for assault, 47 for aggravated robberies, 75 for robberies, and 10 for rape. Figure 4.4, 4.6 and 4.8 shows the pattern of crime rate distribution among the high, middle and low densely populated areas of Lusaka urban from 1995 to 2009. On the other hand table 4.3, 4.5 and 4.7 as well as figure 4.3, 4.5 and 4.7 shows the distribution of crime level in 1993 before community policing was introduced and implemented.

In general, the crime rates in the above mentioned tables and figures have clearly indicated that crime rates are much higher in shanty compounds which are highly densely populated areas than in middle and low densely populated areas in every crime category. Except that aggravated robberies and robberies rate are higher in middle densely populated areas than other areas. The crime rates in high density populated areas are higher in every category than those in middle and low density populated areas except for aggravated robberies and robberies. On the other extreme, aggravated robbery, robbery, rape and murder in shanty compounds show a relatively small difference from those in middle and low density areas and particularly the murder rate in shanty compounds shows the least difference from that in middle and low density areas.

It can then be concluded that from the above tables especially tables and figures after the introduction and implementation of community policing, the crime rate has increased the fastest in shanty compounds or highly densely populated areas, followed by middle densely populated areas, then low density populated areas. During the last 15 year period, the total crime rate has increased more than 3 times in shanty compounds and middle density areas, and slightly less than 2 times in low density areas. The fact that the crime is increasing fastest in shanty communities and that the crime rate is highest in shanty compounds indicates that the problem of crime is not only more serious in shanty areas than elsewhere, but also the crime problem in shanty compounds is getting worse faster than elsewhere. Murder, rape, house breaking and theft, burglary and theft, theft, assault OABH have increased faster in high density areas than elsewhere. However, aggravated robberies, robberies and other breakings increased faster in middle densely populated areas than shanty areas, but the increase rate in low densely populated areas was even faster than that of the highly densely populated areas.

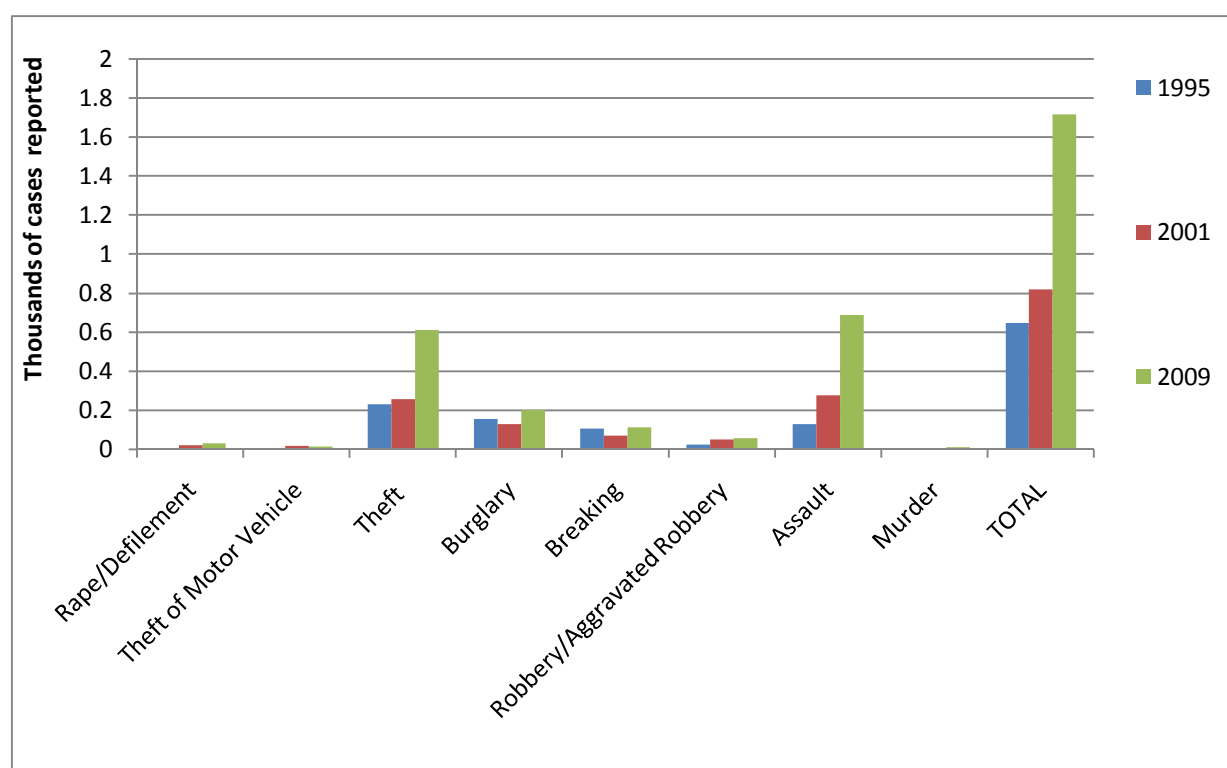
**Table 4.9: Comparison of Crime Rates in 1995, 2001, and 2009 at Emmasdale Police Station After Community Policing.**

Offence	1995	2001	2009
Rape/Defilement	3	19	31

Theft of Motor Vehicle	1	17	13
Theft	229	257	609
Burglary	154	129	199
Breaking	105	70	111
Robbery/Aggravated Robbery	23	48	57
Assault	129	275	689
Murder	1	3	9
Total	645	818	1,718

**Source:** Emmasdale police stations.

**Figure 4.9: Bar Chart Showing Comparison of Crime Rates in 1995, 2001, and 2009 at Emmasdale Police Station in Lusaka Urban District.**



**Source:** Emmasdale police stations.

As a way of ascertaining the trends of crime in Lusaka urban district, the trends from table 4.9 comprise 8 categories of crime offenses during the last 15 years covering 1995, 2001 and 2009 collected from Emmasdale police station. The Bar Chart in Figure 4.9 shows that the crime rates were raising in almost every category. For instance, theft, rape,

assault, murder, breakings, theft of motor vehicle, robbery and defilement from 1995 to 2001 at Emmasdale police station never showed any signs of reducing as expected in the objectives of community policing to reduce crime by 50 per cent by the year 2000, but instead it was increasing. Though, in some crimes such as burglary, breakings and robberies there was some reduction in rates. Further in the period covering 2001 and 2009 the trend was similar in the sense that in some cases it was rising while in some cases it was reducing though not at the rate of 50 per cent as expected in the objectives of community policing set in 1995. Therefore, it has been noted that the total reported crimes at Emmasdale police station has been increasing for instance, from 645 reported cases in 1995 to 818 reported cases in 2001 and to 1,718 reported cases in 2009. Hence it is showing that crime in Emmasdale area covering 1995 2001 and 2009 increased by more than hundred percent [100%].

The number of criminal offenses reported at Emmasdale police station varied greatly among the 8 categories, ranging from the high of 199 for burglaries to the low of 9 for the murders (willful homicides) in 2009. In general, the number of crimes against persons (murder, rape, defilement, aggravated robbery and robbery) is markedly smaller than that against properties (burglary, theft, breakings). However, the fact that the criminal offences against persons are less frequent than those against properties does not suggest that personal crimes constitute a less serious problem. The truth is that personal crimes have a more terrorizing effect on the victims than property crimes and the damages are incalculable, often inflicting a lasting tragedy to the victims or their relatives.

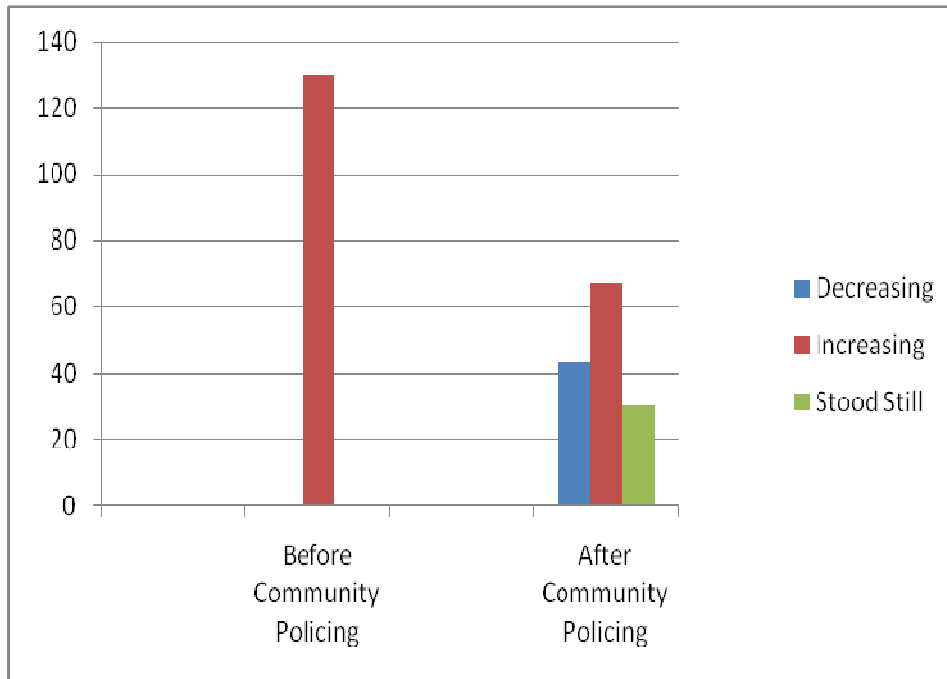
In summary it should be noted that the crime statistics presented in the above tables and figures may not entirely represent the Lusaka urban district, but they include the crime statistics in high, middle and low density populated areas of Lusaka urban hence they can be generalized as a representation of Lusaka urban district. This is because the crime statistics as a whole are a mixture of all types of communities of Lusaka urban, since they vary in size, population and social economic characteristics.

### **Comparison of Crime before and after Community policing from both members of the public and police officers**

**Table 4.10: Responses from Members of the Public and Police Officers before and After community policing**

ISSUE	RESPONSE	
The crime rate before the introduction of Community Policing	<u>Members of Community</u> 130 indicated increasing	<u>Police officers</u> 100 indicated increasing
The crime rate after the introduction of Community Policing	<u>Members of Community</u> 43 indicated decreasing 57 indicated increasing 30 indicated stood still	<u>Police officers</u> 95 indicated decreasing 2 indicated Increasing 3 indicated stood still

**Figure 4.10: Number of Respondents from the members of the public**



**Figure 4.11: Number of Respondents from Police officers**

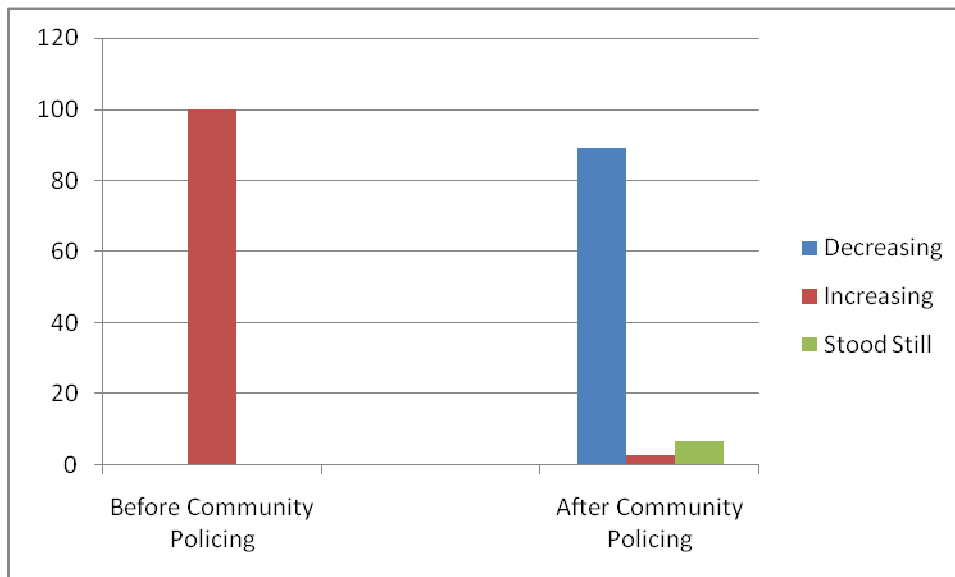


Figure 4.10 and 4.11 reveals that it is not only police statistics and public outcry on various media forums both electronically and print media that shows that crime has been increasing in Lusaka urban but also the majority of the respondents of the study did



indicate that crime was increasing in their neighborhoods especially in middle density areas of Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga and high density areas of Chipata and Chaisa compounds. On crime levels before community policing was introduced, all the respondents that is both the members of public and police officers indicated that crime kept on increasing. Further on the study question asked: “In the past 15 years with community policing in place, do you feel the crime rate in your community has been increasing, decreasing, or has remained the same as it was?”

In response to the study question, in low density populated areas of Kabulonga and Woodlands 9 (22.5 percent) answered “increasing”; 19 (47.5 percent) indicated “decreasing”; and 12 (30 percent) said it “remained the same or stood still”. While in middle densely populated areas of Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga 21 (52.5 percent) said that it was increasing, and 12 (30 percent) said it was decreasing and only 7 (17.5 percent) said it stood still. Furthermore, in high density areas of Chaisa and Chipata compounds 31 (62 percent) said crime was increasing in their area, while 9 (18 percent) said it was “decreasing”, and 10 (20 percent) said crime remained the same or as it was before community policing was introduced in 1995. To the contrary, in response to the same question, police officers operating from all the selected communities indicated that since the introduction of community policing in 1995, crime in most of the communities has been decreasing.

Furthermore, the research asked “In their community was there more crime, less crime or the same as compared to other communities of Lusaka urban district with community policing in place? In low density populated areas of Woodlands and Kabulonga 7 (17.5 percent) answered “more”; 21 (52.5 percent) said “less”; and 12 (30 percent) said the “same”. While in middle density areas 20 (50 percent) said “more”, 12 (30 percent) said “less” and 8 (20 percent) said the “same”. Further in high density areas of Chaisa and Chipata compounds 29 (58 percent) said there was more, 9 (18 percent) said it was less and 12 (24 percent) said crime was the same as compared to other communities of Lusaka urban district.

Therefore, the study concluded that there were more people in low density areas of Kabulonga and Woodlands who felt their neighborhoods had lesser crime as compared to people in Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga as well as people from Chaisa and Chipata compounds. While it was the opposite in middle densely populated areas (Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga) and high densely populated areas (Chaisa and Chipata compounds) where more people believe there is more crime in their communities than elsewhere in Lusaka. This was also supported by police officers who operate in low densely populated areas who indicated that in Woodlands and Kabulonga there was less crime as compared to high density populated areas of Chaisa and Chipata compounds. Further, police officers who operate from high densely populated areas stated that even if crime has been reducing, there is still more crime in the areas they operated as compared to areas like Woodlands, Kabulonga and other middle densely populated areas.

However, despite the study suggesting that crime rates have been growing, the study also noted that there was a greater willingness to report crime to the police by the members of the community. This willingness may be part of the 1995 transformation of the Zambia police through community policing that serve the public or it may be a response to sensitization programmes among the public and the police that have made

them more willing to treat seriously certain crimes such as those involving gender violence, rape, and defilement. Further, the rise in crime could be suggested as a result of police presence in the form of community police posts that have been created in most communities hence people reporting to the police whenever there is crime committed. For instance, today nearly in all the communities there is a police post or station that is taking the police closer to the community.

In addition, the study revealed that of the 18 percent members of the community from high densely populated areas, 30 percent from middle densely populated areas and 47.5 percent from low densely populated areas, and police officers who indicated that the rate of crime was decreasing in their areas, most attributed this decrease to the emergence of community police posts and neighborhood watch associations in their communities and other programmes that have encouraged the flow of information between the police and community. Therefore, this has motivated members of the public to report crimes which never used to be reported because the police presence was not there in their area or it was too far. The police are now closer to the community because of the increase in the numbers of police posts at the local level.

Though the trend is not a clear cut, the study may conclude from this evidence that there are lesser police officers and people particularly in low density populated areas who think that crime is increasing lately than those from middle and highly densely populated areas of Lusaka. However, it must be noted as well that other people may have suggested that crime was increasing in their communities while facts on the ground are that crime was decreasing, but since they still have negative attitude towards the police, then to them crime is not decreasing.

### **Progress made in the fight of Crime after Community Policing**

**Table 4.11A: Responses from Members of the Public.**

Response	Made much progress	%	Made some progress	%	Lost some grounds	%	Lost much grounds	%
Police progress	39	30	48	37	24	18	19	15

**Table 4.11B: Responses from Police officers.**

Response	Made much progress	%	Made some progress	%	Lost some grounds	%	Lost much grounds	%
Police Progress	45	45	41	41	11	11	3	3

There are less people who believe that the police with community policing as strategy to fight crime are losing the fight against crime than those who believe it is making progress. Hence, the study asked the respondents if they believed that the police today in its fight against crime “made much progress”, “some progress”, “lost some ground” or “lost much ground”. As a result out of 130 respondents from the community, table 4.11A, shows that 39 (30 percent) members of the community said the police today has made much progress in its fight against crime, 48 (37 percent) said the police have made some progress, while 24 (18 percent) said the police lost some grounds and 19 (15 percent) said the police has lost much ground in its fight against crime in Lusaka urban. While on the hand, out of the 100 police officers, as indicated in table 4.11B, 45 (45 percent) said the police has made much progress and 41 (41 percent) said the police today made some progress in the fight against as compared 11 (11 percent) and 3 (3 percent) who said the police today has lost some ground and lost much ground in the fight against crime in Lusaka urban respectively.

Further, there are fewer people who believe that the nation’s law enforcement, through community policing does not really discourage crime than those who believe it does. Therefore, the study asked the respondents whether or not they felt the law enforcement system of community policing (the introduction of police post, neighborhood watch scheme and public relations programmes) in Zambia worked to discourage people from committing crimes. There were more than half of the respondents 88 (68 percent) who believed it did discourage crime as compared to those who believed it did not discourage crime 42 (32 percent), in other words to them it meant that the system is not working. In supporting the above view that community policing discourages people from committing crime, out of 100 police officers, 86 (86 percent) police officers respondents indicated that community policing indeed discouraged people from committing crime compared to only 14 (14 percent) who indicated that the strategy did not discourage people from committing crime.

Most respondents indicated that if the community and police were to work very closely then crime can be discouraged. The respondents who supported community policing strategy to be very effective in reducing crime rates in many communities, said so because they believe criminals and those who are to be criminals live within the community and are known by the people in that community. However, only if the implementation is done earnestly with the full involvement of the public or community in the prevention of crime through programmes like the neighborhood watch schemes, hence able to patrol and provide crime intelligence to the police, then crime in the communities could be reduced. In the current form it has not been able to produce the desired results because the implementation has been very poor hence making it ineffective.

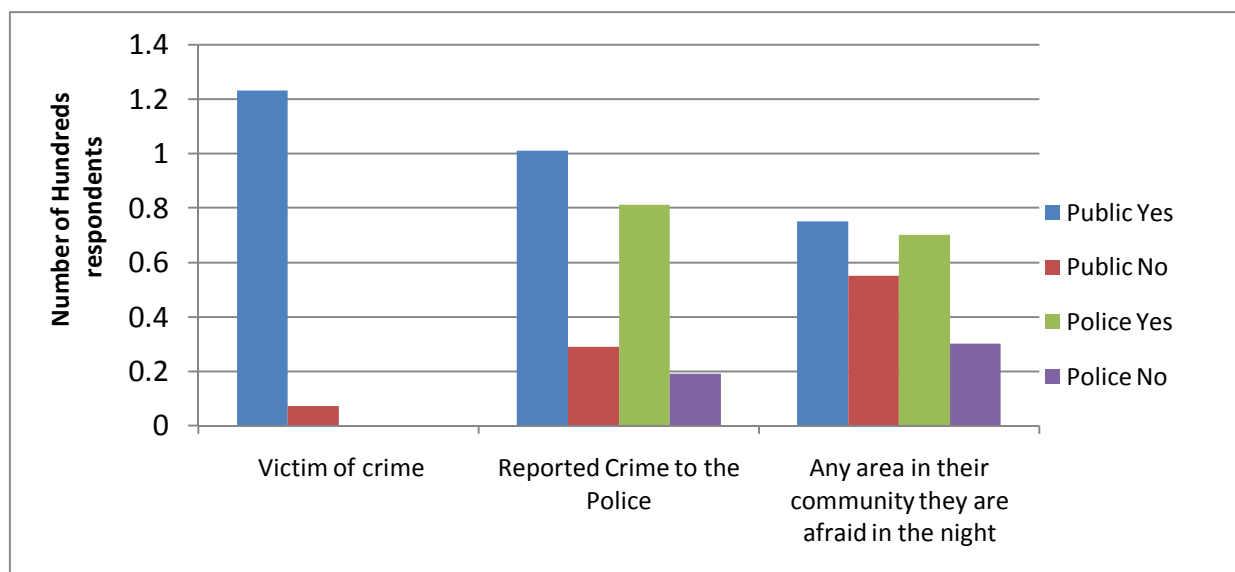
### **4.3 PUBLIC ATTITUDE TOWARDS CRIME AND POLICE OFFICERS AFTER COMMUNITY POLICING**

#### **Victimization and Fear of crime**

**Table 4.12: Summary on some of the responses on victimization and fear of crime**

RESPONDENTS	COMMUNITY				POLICE OFFICERS			
Response	Yes	%	No	%	Yes	%	No	%
Victim of Crime	123	95	7	5	N/A	0	N/A	0
Reported Crime to the Police	101	78	29	22	81	81	19	19
Any area in their community they are afraid in the night	75	58	55	42	70	70	30	30

**Figure 4.12: Bar Chart Showing the Distribution of Victimization and Fear of Crime.**



As stated by most respondents in table 4.12, as well as indicated in figure 4.12, in Lusaka urban residential areas, it is clearly indicated that ‘crime’ was now becoming one of the serious problems. Therefore, people are worried about crime and violence, both of which are closely interrelated. Further, police statistics show increased numbers of reported crime in Lusaka urban, particularly cases of armed robbery, theft, rape, assault and defilement (sexual intercourse with someone under 18). For instance, in this study, crime is increasingly becoming the most worrying problem because many people are concerned and live in fear. In the selected residential areas of Lusaka, both fear and victimization rates remain high. Therefore, according to our study in selected Lusaka urban residential areas concerning victimization, it was revealed that 123 (95 percent) members of the public who responded had been victims of crime or experienced crime in their life time or

had known someone who had been a victim of rape, defilement, theft, burglary, robbery and physical assault or in simple terms violent crime. On the contrary, only 7 (5 percent) were not victims of crime. It is important, however, to disaggregate the reports of crime and disorder on a gender basis. It was discovered in our study that female respondents fear most crimes like rape, defilements and assaults which endanger their physical capabilities. In short crime against the person and property is an ever-present reality in Lusaka urban communities and one where they themselves must take responsibility for security against it.

The study also revealed that in terms of fear of crime, in areas where neighborhood watch associations exist and are very active, the response from our respondents suggested that the fear of crime has reduced. This has been so because neighborhoods watch association members in these communities have been sensitizing their fellow members of the public about their existence. According to them this has resulted into three major things: firstly criminals have been aware of their activeness; secondly, because of the publicity and knowing that criminals will refrain from operating in their communities, fear of crime by the residents of the community will be reduced leading to an increase in the property value in the area; the publicity will make more people be aware of their community responsibility leading to active neighborhood watch associations.

Furthermore, the study had an opportunity to interview one important key informant in a low density area with a lot of high value of property. From the interview, it was evident that most residents are worried about the value of property coming down once crime rates increase. This interview further revealed that most neighborhood watch members did not have much confidence in the police to patrol alone and prevent crime. The key informant said: "if you leave police officers alone, they will just go to drink alcohol, after all they do not stay in the area and they also look at the residents of this area to be rich hence can afford private security". Therefore, the citizens' patrols add credence to crime prevention patrols thus reducing fear of crime among community members.

On crime reporting, our study revealed that the majority who were victims of crime reported to the police. For example, over 101 (78 percent) respondents who were victims of crime reported to the police station as compared to 29 (22 percent) who did not report to the police. This was also supported by most police officers who stated that, in most cases, members of the community who were victims of crime always reported to the police. For instance, 81 (81 percent) police officers indicated that crime was always reported to the police as compared to only 19 (19 percent) police officers who indicated that most crimes were not reported to the police. Some of the reasons the members of community gave as to why they reported to the police is that, despite police set backs they still have confidence and trust in the police as law enforcers. Others indicated that the reason why they reported to the police is because they wanted their cases to be on record in case in future they happen to find their stolen property hence they never wanted to be queried by police officers.

Those who are afraid of street crimes and change their habits because of fear not only account for a substantial proportion of the population but a proportion that is increasing, according to the research findings. Among a number of research questions, the study asked the question: "Is there any area within your community where you would be afraid to walk alone at night? The responses in low density areas like Woodlands and Kabulonga 13 out 40 (32 percent) of the respondents answered "yes" and 27 (68 per cent)

said “No” that is there was no area they were afraid of. In middle residential areas of Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga areas, the “yes” percentage was increasingly substantially to 22 out of 40 (55 percent) and to 40 out of 50 (80 percent) in high density areas of Chaisa and Chipata compounds. In short a total of 75 members of the community indicated they were afraid as compared to only 55 members of the community who indicated they were not afraid to walk alone in the night in their community.

However, not surprising the “yes” answer was also selected by most police officers who operate in police posts especially in high and middle density areas of Lusaka. For instance, 70 (70 percent) police officers indicated that there are so many areas that even police officers themselves are scared to patrol in the night if they happen to be two (2) unless in the company of at least more than four (4) neighborhood watch personnel. They also informed the study that even when at police posts they are always alert for fear of being attacked by criminals who are after firearms, hence the requirement for more than two (2) officers in the night in addition to the beef up from the neighborhood watch personnel. This view was not held by counter parts from woodlands and kabalunga areas it was not the case.

**Table 4.13: Victim’s Most Important Reasons for Not Reporting Cases to the Police**

Total number of those who did not report to the police	Felt it was a private matter and did not want to harm the offender	Police could not be effective	Did not want to waste time because of police inaction	Too confused or did not know how to report	Fear of reprisal from the police
29	4	14	6	3	2

On the reasons given by the 29 (22 percent) respondents who were victims of crime did indicate in table 4.13 that did not report to the police because they felt it was share waste of time and never had trust and confidence in the police service because even if they reported nothing happens. They further indicated that police officers always ask the victim of crime to provide logistics in terms of transport money or complain about lack of manpower; hence most reports are not followed up especially from the poor members of the community. But when you offer them something especially money then they will visit the scene and will just end there no further investigations are carried on. Furthermore, most police officers indicated that some of the reasons why some members of public were discouraged to report crimes to the police were because of bad behavior of some officers in the way they handled complaints from members of the public. Lack of interest and concern by some officers to professionally deal with a crime problem received. They also said lack of respect and the use of bad language by some officers towards members of the public.

**Table 4.14: The Level of Security Concern from Members of the Community**

Response	Very Safe	Safe	Pretty Safe	Unsafe
The level of security with Community Policing Programmes in place	12	41	38	39

The study asked: Compared to the time before community policing (police posts and neighbourhood watch schemes) was introduced in their communities some 15 years ago, how do they feel in the streets of their community today with community policing in place? The responses varied depending on which community one came from. For instance in low density areas 8 (20 percent) said they felt very safe, 20 (50 percent) said they felt safe and 6 (15) percent said they felt pretty safe in their communities while also 6 (15 percent) said they felt unsafe. On the contrary in middle densely populated areas of Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga and high densely populated areas of Chaisa and Chipata compound those who felt very safe and safe were few compared to those who felt pretty safe, and unsafe as the number was increasing. For example, 3 (7.5 percent) and 14 (35 percent) in Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga said they felt very safe and safe in their communities respectively as compared to 11 (27 percent), 12(30 percent) in Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga who said they felt pretty safe and unsafe in their communities respectively. Further in Chaisa and Chipata compounds only 1 (2 percent) and 7 (14 percent) said they felt very safe and safe in their communities as compared to 21 (42 percent), and 21 (42 percent) said they felt pretty safe and unsafe in their communities respectively.

The response from various respondents from the three different communities clearly shows that the majority members of the community especially in low density areas of Kabulonga and Woodlands over 70 percent felt Safe in their neighborhood at night. While in residential areas of Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga over 55 percent felt pretty safe and unsafe in their communities. Furthermore, in Chipata and Chaisa compound the number of those who felt pretty safe and unsafe was even more for instance, over 80 percent felt “pretty safe” or “ unsafe” in their neighborhoods at night leaving only about 20 per cent who said they felt very safe or safe in their communities.

The study may then conclude that the level of safety or security concern was different from one community to the other depending where one comes from whether high, middle or low density residential area. For instance, in low density populated areas more respondent said they felt very safe compared to high density populated areas where the majority felt unsafe.

**Table 4.15: The Level of Security Concern from Police Officers**

Response	Very Safe	Safe	Pretty Safe	Unsafe
The level of security with Community Policing Programmes in place	29	41	14	16

However, the response from police officers on how they described the level of safety or security in the communities they operated it was contrary to the views of the host communities. About 70 percent police officers indicated that the areas they operated from are safe for instance, in table 4.15, 29 (29 percent) indicated very safe and 41 (41 percent) indicated safe in terms of security in the communities they operated from. While 14 (14 percent) said pretty safe, and 16 (16 percent) said unsafe. The 16 percent police officers who indicated unsafe came from officers who operated from high densely populated areas of Chaisa and Chipata compound that are associated with high crime rates. Therefore, the study observation to police officers who said “very safe” or “safe” in support of the areas they operated from could be that they did not want to tell the truth because they never wanted to be regarded as failures or to be blamed that they are not doing enough to police and protect the communities.

After reviewing the data collected from the study on public attitude towards crime, the analysis concluded that the crimes which members of the public feared most were crimes which might endanger their personal safety and property, especially attack by a “stranger”. For instance, most members of the community indicated that they fear robberies, aggravated robberies, and burglary and theft while a few indicated thefts and assaults. However all the 48 (36 percent) female respondents indicated that they feared most crimes against women like assaults, murder, rape and defilements which usually happen on a female who is under the age of 18 years. Hence because of fear of violent crimes, the majority of the respondents said they had changed their habits to protect themselves.

These findings were also supported by the police officers though they were categorized according to communities. For instance, the study observed that in low densely populated areas of Woodlands and Kabulonga most people indicated that they feared aggravated robberies and robberies than any other crimes as they are prone in these areas. While in middle densely populated areas of Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga the most feared crimes are aggravated robberies, robberies, and burglary and thefts and they said these were actually the common crimes in these communities. In the final count most of police officers who operate in highly densely populated areas of Chaisa and Chipata compound indicated that people in these communities feared crimes like burglary and theft, house breaking and theft, rape, defilements, assaults and robberies. Actually all the Criminal Investigation Officers (CIOs), the study interviewed confirmed that actually these are the most common reported crimes in the shanty compounds of Lusaka.

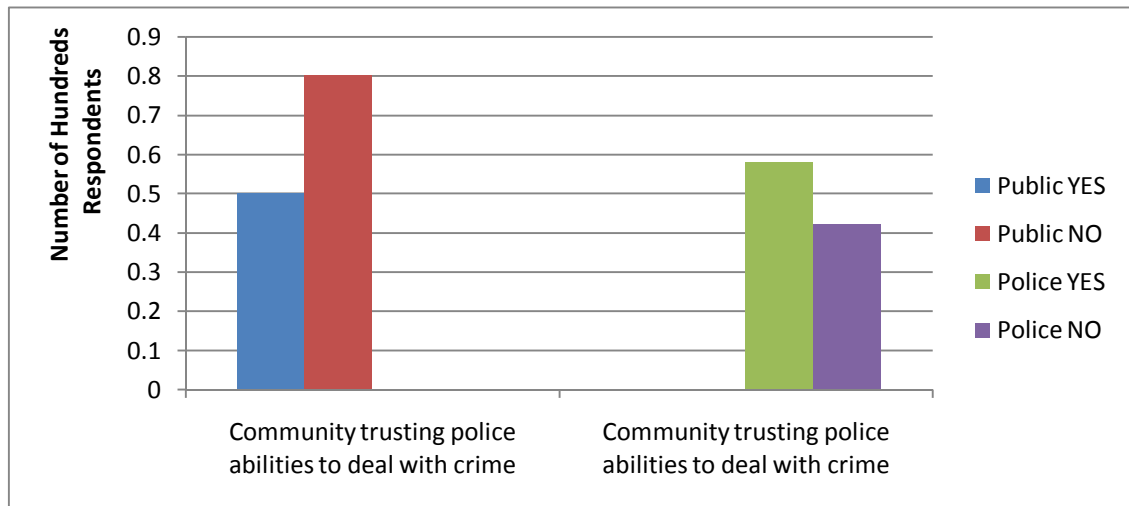
### **Police Ability to Deal with Crime**

**Table 4.16: Responses on Public Trust on Police Ability to Deal with Crime**

<b>RESPONDENTS</b>	<b>COMMUNITY</b>				<b>POLICE OFFICERS</b>			
	Yes	%	No	%	Yes	%	No	%
Response								
Public trust on police ability to deal with crime	50	38%	80	62%	58	58%	42	42%



**Figure 4.13: Summary of some Responses on the Public Trust on the Police Ability**

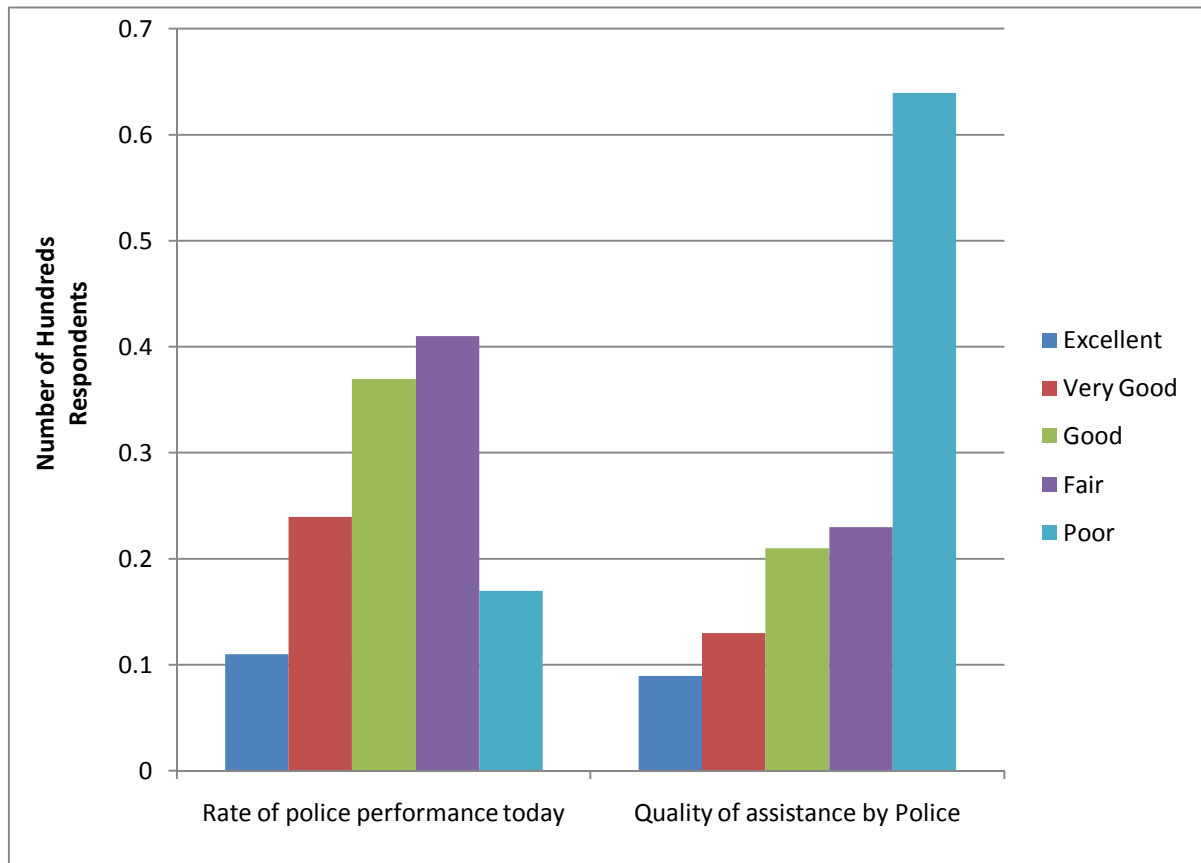


On the community trusting the police ability to deal with their crime problem, it was noted in the study that the majority did not trust the police ability to deal with their crime problem effectively. For example, from the responses in figure 4.13, and table 4.16, 50 (38 percent) respondents said “Yes” to police ability to deal with their crime problem. On the contrary, 80 (62%) said “No” to police ability to deal with their crime problem. On the police side 58 (58%) per said “Yes” members of the community had trust in the police to deal with their crime problem effectively. While on the other hand 42 (42%) police officers said “No” meaning that members of the public had no trust in the police to deal with their crime problem respectively. It may be then concluded that there are more members of the public who do not believe that the police have the ability to deal with crime problem than the police who believe that the public still has trust in police ability to deal with their crime problems.

**Table 4.17: Responses on Impact of Community policing on Police Performance and Assistance to crime**

Response	Excellent	%	Very good	%	Good	%	Fair	%	Poor	%
Police Performance	11	8	24	18	37	28	41	32	17	13
Police Assistance	9	7	13	10	21	16	23	18	64	50

**Figure 4.14: Responses on police performance and assistance on crime**



In spite of the prevailing feeling of the inefficacy of the police and the current policing system in crime control and prevention in place, the local police stations and police posts in table 4.17 and figure 4.14, are rated favorably in terms of performance by a great majority in the study. The study showed that citizens' evaluation on the local community police performance is favorable to the police. The study reported that 11 (8%) said the local police performance was excellent, 24(18% indicated very good, 37(28%) indicated good, while 41 (32 percent) said fair", and 17 (13 percent) said poor.

On the contrary, the study found that though the police may be rated favorably on performance but are rated negatively on the way they responded to calls for assistance whenever the public had a crime problem which required immediate response and assistance from the police. For example in figure 4.14 and table 4.17, 9 respondents from the community said their community police was excellent, 13(10%) indicated their community police was very good, 21(16%) indicated their police community was good and 23(18%) indicated their community police was fair in terms of assistance. On the contrary 64 (50%) respondents from the community indicated their community police was poor in terms of assistance whenever they had a crime problem. From the above assessment it is clearly indicative that in terms of performance (processing the cases to court) the police have really been appreciated by the majority members of the public. However, it was the opposite in terms of assistance when the police are called upon to assist in case of crime being committed or sense of urgency or when quick response is

needed by the victim of crime. In this area the police response was not very much appreciated by the majority of the community.

Further the citizens' evaluation of the police assistance when called by the community was assessed in relation to 3 selected communities of the city of low, middle and high densely populated residential areas. The study indicates that the responses were different depending on which community one came from. The police response to calls for assistance was considered prompt (less than 10 minutes) or in less than 1 (one) hour in the two type of residential areas of low and middle density populated areas. On the contrary, most respondents from high densely populated areas of Chaisa and Chipata compounds indicated that the police came after 2 (two) and beyond or never came to assist the community. However, the reason behind this was that in Woodlands, Kabulonga, Emmasdale and Nyumba Yanga the houses are easily accessible and with good roads, they have the resources in terms of transport and money for talk time for easy communication as compared to their counterparts in high density areas of Chaisa and Chipata compound where there are no proper roads, house numbers and also lack the capacity in terms of resources. Hence, mostly the assistance was not favorable as the police response and assistance in most cases was not there as the police never came to their aid at the right time when needed.

Furthermore, on the quality of assistance from the police again, in figure 12, 66 (50 percent) rated the police excellent, very good or good and fair whenever they took a complaint to the police. While on the other hand only 37 (28 percent) rated the police assistance as satisfactory and only 29 (22 percent) rated the police assistance as unsatisfactory whenever they took a case or complaint to the police station or police post.

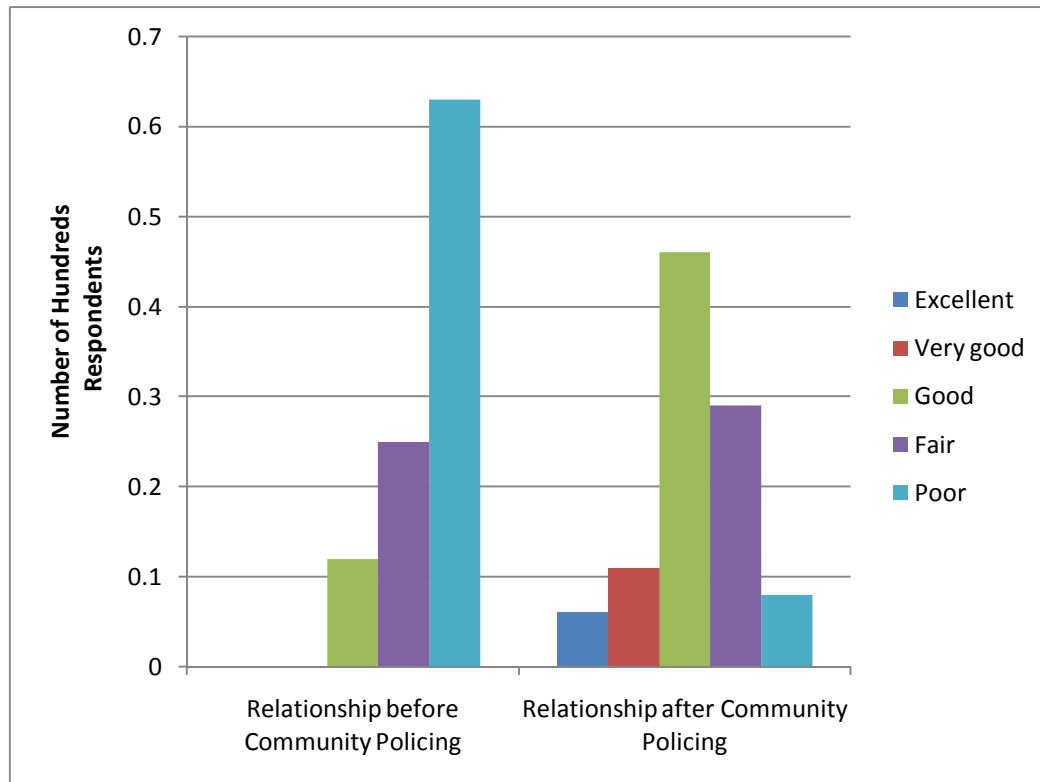
It may then be concluded by the study, that the police performance is appreciated and rated favorably in all the three communities of high, middle and low densely populated areas of Lusaka. On the other hand, however, the study findings are different in the way the three types of communities rate police assistance and response to crime problem. In middle and low densely populated areas they rate the police favorably in terms of response and assistance to crime problem. On the contrary the communities in high densely populated areas, the police are rated negatively in terms of response and assistance to crime emergencies.

### **The Impact of Community policing on the Police-Community Relationship**

**Table 4.18: Number of Number of Responses from the Members of the Community**

Response	Excellent	%	Very good	%	Good	%	Fair	%	Poor	%
Before Community Policing	Nil	0	7	5	13	10	31	24	79	61
After Community Policing	8	6	17	13	44	34	41	31	20	15

**Figure 4.15: Number of Responses from the Members of Public**



**Table 4 .19: Response from Police Officers**

Response	Excellent	%	Very good	%	Good	%	Fair	%	Poor	%
Relationship before Community Policing	Nil	0	Nil	0	12	12	25	25	63	63
Relationship after Community Policing	6	6	11	11	46	12	29	29	8	8

As regards to how the relationship was between the police and public before community policing was adopted by the Zambia police service in 1995. Only a few indicated that the relationship was sound while the majority indicated it was not sound. For instance in table1.19, out of 130 respondents from the community, zero respondents indicated that the relationship was excellent, 7(5 percent) respondents said the relationship was very good, 13(10 percent) respondents said the relationship was good and 31 (24 percent)

respondents said the relationship at that time between the police and the public was fair while to the contrary 79 (61 percent) respondents indicated that the relationship was poor. This view that the relationship was bad between the police and the public was acknowledged by most police officers who stated that the relationship between the police and members of the community was poor. Further in table 4.19, 63 (63 percent) police officers indicated that the relationship was poor, 25 (25 percent) said the relationship was fair and about 12 (12 percent) indicated that the relationship between the police and the members of the community was good while no one indicated that it was either excellent or very good.

Regarding the relationship between the police and the public, the study results are actually the opposite from what transpired before and what has transpired after the introduction of community policing. The results are showing great improvements in relationship between the police and the public after implementation of community policing in the last 15 years than before. For instance from 130 members of the community, 8 (6 percent) said the relationship is excellent, 17 (13 percent) is very good, 44 (34 percent) said is good and 41 (31 percent) said it is fair while only 20 (15 percent) said it is poor. Further this was also supported by the police officers where only 8 (8 percent) said that the relationship is poor. While the rest said the relationship between the police and the public is either excellent or very good and good or fair.

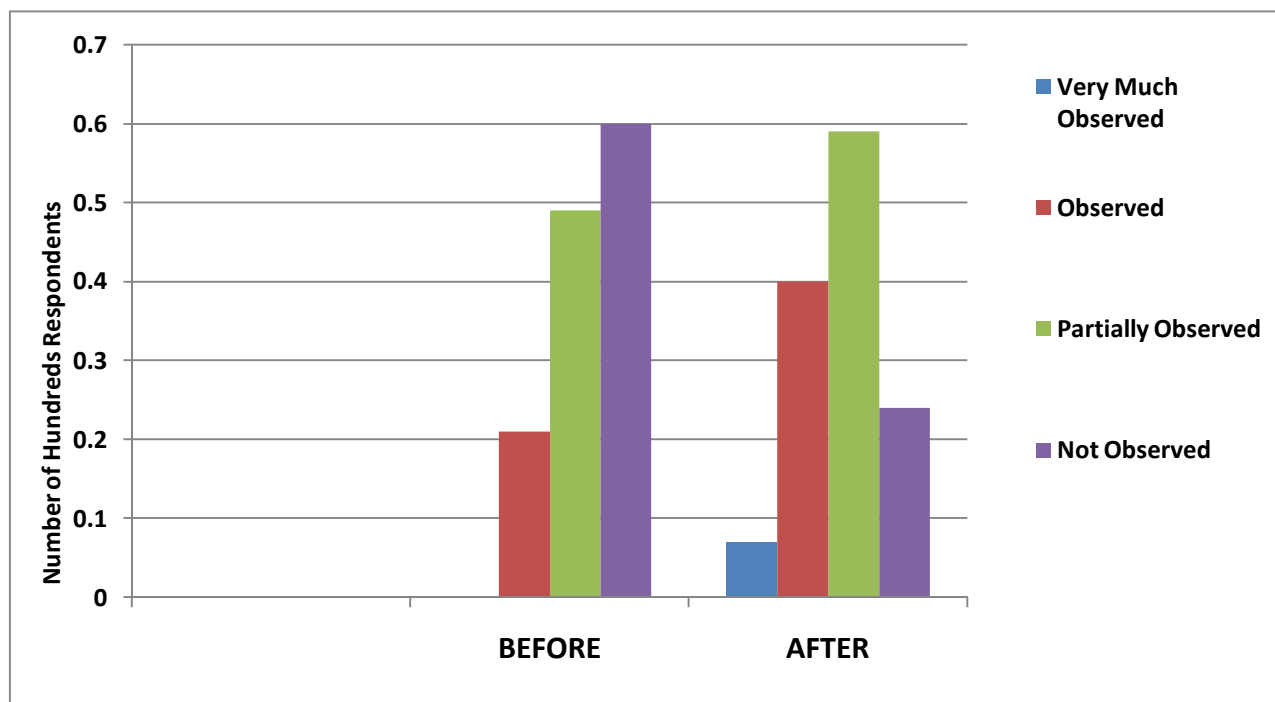
Therefore, one of the biggest impacts of the reform process since Community Policing Strategy was adopted by the Zambia Police has been in the change of relationship between the public and the police. Until relatively recently the police were still regarded with suspicion and fear. Despite the problems that still exist in the public mind as regards corruption, the slowness to respond to victims call and the use of excessive violence against opposition, there is not the suspicion and fear of the police that there once was. Today the almost universal member of the public response in Zambia is that the police were now friendly, approachable and showed respect to all citizens. 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 Africa the police are often held in contempt and fear. True there are those who say it is better not to report a crime than go to the police station, but many respondents in the study observed that when it was a police force, many people were afraid of the police but with the change to a police service the public now feel they have a role to play as partners with the police in fight against crime.

### **Community Policing and Human Rights Observance**

The observance of human rights plays a critical role in all law enforcement agencies especially the police. However, the results obtained from the study from both the police and the public, clearly indicate that before community policing was introduced in 1995 by the Zambia police, the human rights records were very bad in the way the police handled suspects, criminals and the community at large.

**Table 4.20: Number of Responses from Members of the Public**

Response	Very Much Observed	Observed	Partially Observed	Not Observed
Observance of human rights before Community Policing	Nil	21	49	60
Observance of human rights after Community Policing	7	40	59	24

**Figure 4.16: Bar Chart Showing Number of Responses from the Community****Table 4.21: Number of Responses from Police Officers**

Response	Very Much Observed	Observed	Partially Observed	Not Observed
Observance of human rights before Community Policing	3	24	33	40
Observance of human rights after Community Policing	38	51	9	2

After the implementation of community policing in 1995, there has been some improvement in human rights by the Zambia police service. For instance, as indicated by

respondents from the community in table 4.20 and figure 14, 21(16 percent) members of the community said human rights were observed, 49 (37 percent) said human rights were partially observed and 60 (46 percent) said human rights were not observed while no one indicated human rights were much observed. With regards to police officers, the responses were almost in the same range as those of the community. For example, in table 4.21, 40 (40 percent) of police officers indicated that before community policing human rights were not observed by Zambia police, 33 (33 percent) said human rights were partially observed and 24 (24 percent) said human rights were observed while only 3 (3 percent) indicated that human rights were very much observed by the Zambia police force. It should be noted that one of the major aims of community policing was to reduce human rights abuses by half or 50 percent by the year 2000 in the Zambia police.

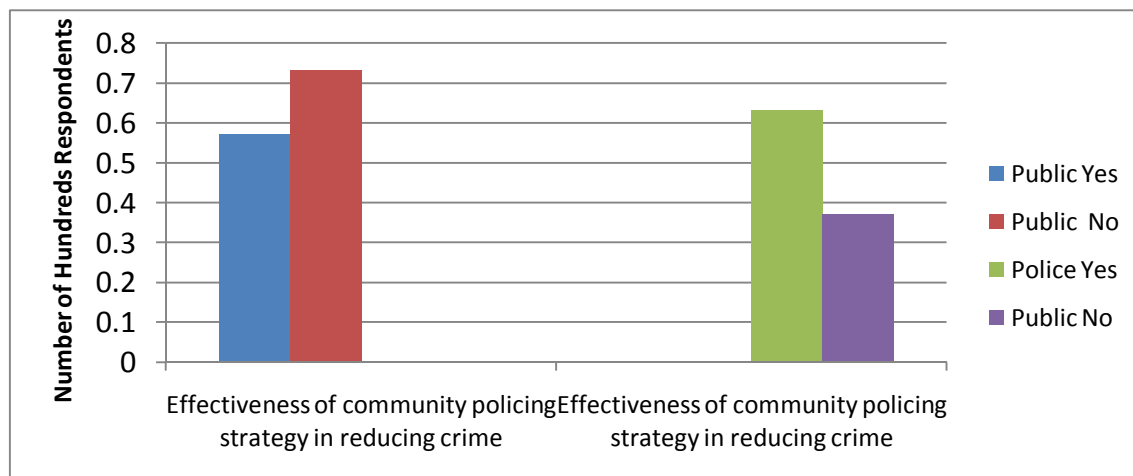
However, the results on the human rights observance with community policing in place in comparison with what transpired before the community policing was introduced is that police observance on human rights has improved. The responses from the members of the community suggest that the police have made some positive steps in the sense that, only 24 (18 percent) indicated that the police today did not observe or respect human rights on the suspects and the community at large. While the rest for instance, 59 (45 percent) said partially observed, 40 (31 percent) said observed and 8 (6 percent) said that human rights today are much observed by the police compared to the time before community policing was introduced. In support of this, the responses from the police officers were overwhelming in that 38 (38 percent) said today human rights were much observed, 51 (51 percent) said today human rights were observed and on other hand only 9 (9 percent) and 2 (2 percent) police officers indicated that today human rights were partially observed or completely not observed by police officers. Therefore, there are more members of the public and police officers who believe that today the police respect and observe human rights of the suspects, criminals and the public at large as compared to the period before community policing was introduced.

### **Impact of Community Policing Strategy on Crime Reduction**

**Table 4.22: Number of Responses**

<b>RESPONDENTS</b>	<b>COMMUNITY</b>				<b>POLICE OFFICERS</b>			
	Yes	%	No	%	Yes	%	No	%
Response								
Effectiveness of community policing strategy in reducing crime	57	44	73	56	63	63%	37	37%

**Figure 4 .18: Effectiveness of Community Policing on Crime Reduction**



As indicated in the first chapter no evaluation or research was done by the Zambia police to assist in assessing whether community policing strategy achieved its goal to reduce crime by half in the year 2000 and beyond. Despite some of achievements for example, in observance of human rights, improvement in relationship between the police and the public and other achievements to be explained in the next chapter, most respondents both the public and police feel it has not been very effective in crime reduction. For instance, in table 4:22 and figure 4.18, shows that 57 (44 percent) members of the public indicated that community policing is effective in contrast to 73 (56 percent) who said or indicated that it was not effective in reducing crime rates because crime is still sky rocketing. On the responses from the police officers it was noted that more than 63 (63 percent) indicated that it is effective as compared to 37 (37 percent) who said that it is not effective. There could be a reason why most police officers indicated that community policing is effective, it could be that they did not want to be associated with failure as they are directly involved.

The picture of crime in these communities that it is threatening the wealthier residents is far from the reality. In fact the poor of these communities are more victimized than the perpetrators of crimes. As alluded to earlier, the study revealed that people who live in these communities are the most likely to be victimized by both property and violent crime as compared to those from middle and low densely populated areas of Lusaka. But while the poor in these communities are more exposed to crime in areas in which they live, they are far less able to afford protection from physical security measures such as walls, burglar proofing and electronic alarms. Therefore, the fear of crime, high victimization rates and rising crime rates in these poor communities are as much a reflection of their inability to defend themselves against crime. This also explains why there are many police posts and neighborhood watch schemes in these communities compared to the middle and low densely populated areas. These have come about because of community policing strategy that was adopted during the reformation of the Zambia police in 1995 which encourages community participation in the fight and prevention of crime. In these



communities there is greater participation in crime prevention through such schemes as this is the only alternative to guarantee them safety.

Further, the study findings are highly revealing in that the local police performance generally pleases the citizens with regard to violent crimes against women and children especially the girl child through the Victim Support Unit (VSU), but the local citizens are not satisfied with the police service in other criminal matters. The citizens experience, based on evaluation of the community policing as ineffective in criminal matters in Lusaka Urban community, helps to explain why public views the law enforcement system of community policing as generally ineffective in reduction and control of crime.

### **Impact of Community policing on the Gender Composition of the Police Service**

The political, social and economical changes of the 1990s challenged the Zambians to reaffirm their commitment to equality before the law. The political democratic changes of 1991 have had a major impact on the composition of the Zambia police service, hence during reformation of the Zambia police and to comply with the gender policy of 30 percent representation of women in holding key positions in all government departments, police service had to make an effort to attract female applicants. However, this was met with some resistance in the police circles. Serious obstacles and stereotypes had to be overcome: that women were physically weak, irrational, and illogical; that they lacked the toughness needed to deal with work on the streets. Some argued that the association of female and male officers would cause complications in both job and family life.

By 1994, according to the statistics given by a police public relations office, the number of policewomen was still low- under 4 percent. By the year 2000 that proportion had more than doubled, to 10 percent. On personnel practices, the study found that eligibility criteria and mechanisms used to recruit, screen, and select candidates have changed dramatically, enlarging the pool of eligible women. Currently in the Zambia police more than 30 percent female recruits are recruited during recruitment time.

Despite the advances that women have made in policing in the Zambia police service, they are still not fully accepted by their male colleagues or the public. Most of the resistance stems from the belief that the physical strength of women does not allow them to perform well in violent situations. As a result in responding to these concerns, police continue to assign women to clerical duties or to specific types of problems, such as domestic disputes and this is happening in the Zambia police as most women have been deployed in the Community Services Division especially the Victim Support Unit. The study demonstrated, however, that these fears are “unfounded” because female police officers make almost as many arrests as male officers, their overall work performance has been rated extremely satisfactory by superiors, their level of strength is well within the acceptable range for professional performance, and they may be more pleasant and respectful with the public than their male counterparts.

**Figure 4.19: Impact of Community Policing on Gender composition of the Zambia Police Service**



As regards the way police women perceive themselves, it appears that they enter the police service self-confident and a bit idealistic but gradually become disillusioned by others' beliefs that they are flirtatious and ineffective. In sum, policewomen have indeed made their mark on the police service, but it may be some time before their male colleagues accept them as equal partners. However, the major contributing factor for the attraction of female police officers is because the police force has changed from that of being brutal to that of being friendly.

#### **4.4 THE CHALLENGES OF COMMUNITY POLICING**

The major challenge to community policing in Zambia is the declining social value of society itself. Despite efforts made by the Zambia police service to reform the police in 1995 at national, divisional, district, station and post levels, the situation has indeed worsened. It has been observed that community policing strategy in Zambia has not been implemented in full because the police service has been inflicted by problems of political interference, nepotism, corruption, inefficiency, poor conditions of service, lack of coordination between the police and the community, lack of resources, poor management and institutional capacity building. In addition values such as integrity, honesty, dependability, helpfulness, impartiality, courteousness, and fairness are gradually disappearing from the police service. Unfortunately, in most Zambian communities, there is no system for reinforcing these values. These weaknesses have stifled the process of policing crime in the Zambian communities.

It is therefore, understood that the endurance and viability of the democratic exercise in Zambia in the long term will be determined by the effectiveness, fairness and public accountability of its police service. However, in reality, the police service is one of the weakest links in the governance process. For instance, 99 percent of the targeted respondents stated that its institutional, technical, and administrative capacities are inadequate to support members of the community to perform their role in preventing crime effectively. In addition, police officers themselves do not have the necessary education, skills, information and knowledge in community policing to perform their functions effectively and this trickles down to the members of the community. Physical infrastructure, information and communication technology, as well as other facilities like transport, fuel, are also lacking or inadequate.

The policing of crime in Zambia cannot be viewed adequately without considering the current position of the Zambia Police Service. There has long been a crisis of confidence, trust and honest on the part of the public as to the ability of the police service to deal effectively with crime. By some, the police are viewed with suspicion; corruption, unprofessional and ineffective, while others associate police officers with dishonest, criminality, hostility and view them with contempt. This has not been helped by public criticism of the police service from the public and various media even by the government and police command. There is no doubt to others, especially people from high density residential areas that the performance and assistance being rendered by the police has been described to be undesirable, especially with sky-rocketing crime rates for offences against persons and property remaining unexplained.

There are several factors that have contributed to the derailment of the successful implementation of community policing by the Zambia Police Service. The first, and probably the most serious problem stems from the fact that there is erosion of the rule of law in the Zambia police service. As a result of this, members of the public have been very critical of the Zambia police service. Yet even the improvement in the public perception is relative, members of the public still complain about the slowness of the police to respond to crime problems; and there were persistent claims by the majority of those interviewed of bribe seeking. Deaths still occur in police custody, some due to torture and some suspected criminals are still shot and killed while being pursued. However, it is not always clear that any action has been taken against those concerned.

There has been a serious erosion of the rule of law in Zambia by the Zambia police because policing is not always conducted according to the rule of law. A typical example is that equality before the law has been seriously eroded as a result of the behavior of state institutions, particularly the police service that lacks professionalism. Cadres of the ruling MMD, as well as its top officials have committed numerous criminal offences, sometimes in the presence of the police but, the police have taken no action against them. On the other hand the police are quick to arrest opposition leaders and supporters at the slightest opportunity, even when there are no reasonable causes. Further, there has been consistent abuse of the Public Order Act by police, which deny the opposition political parties and non-governmental organisations permission to hold public meetings and demonstrations but at the same time allow MMD supporters to have meetings and demonstrations even in flagrant disregard of the provisions of the Act (Chanda, 1999).

The criticism against The Zambia police by members of the public have continued. For example, in Zambia the police are repeatedly charged with political partisanship in the increasingly heated political atmosphere of emerging multi-partyism. This can be evidenced when the police allowed the MMD cadres to perpetuate violence in Mufumbwe during the parliamentary by-elections. The evidence suggests a concerted effort campaign on the use of the police by the MMD against the political opposition parties because the Inspector General of Police (IG) was on record blaming the opposition UPND in particular without renouncing the MMD who were the perpetrators of violence in Mufumbwe.

This meant that the language of a professional officer was highly compromised and sounded like that of a political cadre. Though the political policing may not affect directly the majority of the population, it is still prevalent and violent. The opposition leaders have suffered physical abuse, including caning, severe beating, and inflicting pain on their bodies. Parallel with this is the use of the police to repress the opposition press, with journalists assaulted by MMD cadres and arrested by the police for trapped up charges like contempt of court and defaming the president (based on their criticism of President Banda (The Post 4<sup>TH</sup> MAY 2010). Therefore, the IG and the high command should have realized that a compromised police service is a danger to society. It is then evident that for all the improvements in everyday policing this is not a democratic police service.

The second problem pertaining to the implementation of community policing strategy is associated with the inadequate resources. In this respect one may be tempted to argue that in areas where the community services officers are trying hard to put up programmes that involved the community in policing their area, they are faced with a lot of challenges in terms of facilities such as transport, stationary and office equipment. Since most officers are not trained in community policing activities, availability of transport would have meant that the few that have the technical know-how in community policing would hold seminars, meetings and station lectures to officers and community members.

The National and Divisional CSD Coordinators are also suppose to attend Annual General Meetings of NWAs but are not able to due to lack of transport and financial support from the police leadership. A key informant, who is also a coordinator at Lusaka Divisional Headquarters, confessed that while other departments like the Criminal Investigations and Police Intelligence Departments are funded monthly for their operations, CSD is not given any funding. They do not even have a single vehicle for them to use as operational or a pool vehicle. The only vehicle they can use is the one that was donated to VSU by the Danish government which is very busy because of rising gender based crimes. This has frustrated the efforts of the CSD officers. Therefore, currently very little is being done in terms of sensitizing both the police officers and the public.

Further, the study observed that almost all police posts and a good number of stations rely on the community for stationary, transport and finances for police operations. The police started to abuse the concept of greater community participation by making many demands from the community for things which are not directly related to police duties such as money for mealy meal, cooking oil, rentals, medical fees etc, in short receiving support even for personal problems that officers may have. In fact, many officers interviewed suggested that community policing, for it to thrive, must be complemented

financially and materially by the community they are serving. This has had a negative impact in police operations because it has led to corruption and abuse of authority in the police service. For instance, one key informant noted that the sponsors of their formation are given a preferential status. They get priority treatment and the police are forced to bend the rules when either the sponsor himself/ herself or close friends find themselves in conflict with the law. People who know are prone to getting in conflict with the criminal law are the biggest sponsors. In basic terms, this is corrupting the police so that they abuse their authority. So to fight such vices the police are challenged to provide resources to all police stations and posts.

Furthermore, there is a serious shortage of police stations in Lusaka Urban. For instance, whilst the population of Lusaka has increased, by over 300 per cent since 1964, no new major police stations have been built. Consequently, this has placed an enormous strain on existing stations. Stations which were built and established to cater for small areas prior to independence, now cater for areas twenty or more times larger than they were designed to cover. Instead, the police service has introduced the system of Police Post (holding cells) with the help of the community. However, most of these police posts are not well refurbished as they are in the form of containers, old community halls and unfinished buildings, no proper cells and toilets and sometimes no piped water and are not gazetted. Also, officers in these police posts are usually overworked due lack of relief manpower as there are only two shifts. The result is that most of the new residential areas, high, middle and low density, for instance Chalala area in woodlands have no permanent police presence.

Transport also remains a major hindrance in policing crime in the Zambian communities. For instance, all police stations are not operating on the authorized allocation scale that was used in 1965. Ndulo (1994), states that prior to 1965, each police station was allocated three vehicles for three shifts and one vehicle for general administration. However, today most police stations have just one vehicle (only a few with two) which is used by all three shifts for twenty four hours and general administration. Not surprising, the vehicles are constantly breaking down because of being overused as they are changed from one driver to another without servicing. Both members of community and police interviewed have stressed, as an added problem to motor vehicles that the choice of police vehicles is often made unilaterally by the IG and this has resulted in the acquisition of vehicles which are unsuited for local conditions. For example, the police acquired Nissans and RAV 4 vehicles in 2006 and 2007 respectively. These are totally not suitable and ill-equipped to handle the most Zambian conditions, hence very few are properly serviceable. Attempts to purchase spare parts for these vehicles have been difficult due lack of funding hence stations have to buy and do the repairs on their own. Further, both senior and junior police officers also reported severe lack of fuel, lack of uniforms especially shoes and lack of accommodation as the biggest problems. This acute lack of transport has resulted in the police service virtually grinding to a halt.

Another hindrance is lack of finances by most NWAs. Information gathered from the study is that most NWAs, especially those from high density areas, cannot afford the fees to pay for registration at the Office of the Registrar of Societies. Therefore, the majorities of NWAs in Lusaka urban have remained unregistered and so cannot be recognized

legally. It was also noted that people who are well to do and the business community do not take keen interest in joining the NWAs hence unable to be sustained.

The third problem seems to result from alleged corruption and abuse of authority. McCormack (1997:419) defines corruption, on the part of a public official, as behavior that deviates from the normal duties of a public role because of pecuniary or status gains. Corruption is the abuse of public roles and resources for private benefit or the misuse of office for private ends. There are many types of corruption: - bribery; theft and embezzlement of public funds; intentional loss of or damage to public property or interest; abuse of insider information and many others. Corruption is a pervasive phenomenon. It increases the cost of public services delivered to the citizens and it is usually 'behind the screen' and not easily detected, particularly petty corruption among lower cadres of the police service, as well as "grand" corruption at top management levels.

With reforms in place in the Zambia police in this democratic era the progressive thought is that the civil service system would eliminate corruption and incompetence among the police. Yet after 15 years of reforms in place, police corruption still persists. The term "corruption" covers a wide range of conduct patterns. For example, many people in Zambia distinguished-in typical police jargon- between "meat eaters," who solicit bribes or actually cooperate with criminals for personal gain, and "grass eaters" who accept payoffs for rendering police services or for looking the other way when action is called for. Further the study has subsequently revealed and provided additional classifications and descriptions of police misconduct, including soliciting and accepting bribes, dereliction of duty, and street crime offenses such as larceny, embezzlement, and coercion.

Complaints are common about police officers engaged in acts of corruption such as demanding bribes at check points, falsely charging motorists with violations and impounding vehicles to extort money. Transparency International Zambia claim that the police officers demanded money from accused persons for their charges to be dropped and also for them to be released on police bond. The practice of charging complainants fees for stationary such as medical forms, affidavits, and other papers before obtaining statements from them has also continued. More seriously, police are said to be in collusion with criminals and accept bribes from suspects in exchange for dropping charges.

Despite the effort of the Zambia police service in-conjunction with Anti- Corruption Commission putting in place Code of Ethics and the putting in place of the Police Standards and Professional Unit in 2007, corruption has continued. According to Transparency International Zambia, corruption may even be more serious now than it was before the reformation of the police. Even police chiefs and presidents bemoan police corruption. For example, in Zambia, according to (The Times of Zambia, July 24, 2003), Assistant Commissioner of Police and the then Copperbelt Deputy Police Chief, Grace Chipalila, noted there were many criminal element within the ranks; and further from President Mwanawasa also expressed disappointment at the police service that had failed and needed serious cleansing.

The police service in Zambia mainly relies on internal control to police itself. If internal control is to be effective, there is need for the law enforcement professionals to change their thinking about self policing. For example, police whistle blowers are

regarded with derision. Such attitude needs to be replaced by intolerance toward those who abuse the public trust and the power of the shield by engaging in abuses, corruption, and other forms of criminality. The revelation of the study from Key Informants, Officers in-Charge police stations and members of the public at large indicate, however, that more police officers are unwilling to report misconduct by other officers. This raises the question of whether there is anything special or different about the personality of police officers and the culture in which they function that sets them apart from the rest of the population.

Fourthly, inadequate of manpower, is another serious challenge that has affected effective performance of the Zambia police in community policing. The Zambia police service objectives, according to Daka (2003), are like the objectives of the police service of every country which are to: “preserve life, protect property, prevent the commission of crime, detect offenders and keep the peace among citizens”. No doubt, however, that the police are overstretched. According to the HIV and AIDS/STI/TB Workplace Policy of the Zambia Police Service, currently there about 15,000 personnel in the Zambia police against the population of over 12 million people, well below their goal of 27,000 in 2015 to provide 1 police officer per 600 citizens. Therefore, Zambia Police Service can only provide an operation police civilian ratio of about 1 per (800) eight hundred citizens. This is inadequate to provide the crime prevention and crime investigation service that the public want. The crisis of confidence continues, swelled by a continuing shortage of well-trained and able officers especially at the levels from Constables to Chief Inspectors and at some senior ranks.

Additional factors are poor conditions of service and restrictions on recruitment due to lack of resources that have led to police strength being continuously below the required establishment compared to the increase in population and crime. This is because it is a government decision as to how many officers can be recruited in a particular year. Thus police needs may not be satisfied by the number of recruits made available. For example in the history of Zambia Police, it was only in 1969, 1972 and 1976 that police strength was up to establishment. The number of officers rose from 5880 in 1964 to 18,884 in 1986- a small increase compared to the population and crime increases (Times of Zambia, 12 February 1988). It can be noted that this strength at that time was inadequate and yet today the strength is even lesser than the manpower at that time. Therefore, there is both administrative and operational manpower problem. Crime which could easily be contained has accelerated due to lack of intensive foot and general patrols. The little manpower which is available is engaged in guarding vital installations, banks, filling stations, and VIPs, hence only a few are left to patrol and protect the general public. The resultant lack of man power has today undoubtedly seriously affected police operations and its effectiveness and it is likely to do so for some time.

Lack of political will is another problem affecting effective performance of community policing by the police. On the issue of the legal basis on community policing, in particular the involvement of the community in crime prevention, it is very inadequate. However, information from respondents, especially the key informants, is that there is lack of political will on the part of the government to allow the police to have the full complement of laws that will allow it partner with the community fully as required by the “strategy” of community policing. It is expected though that as the country’s political system matures, so will the policing policy and strategies. The community may then be

expected to actively get involved in policing their areas as well as the running of their local police. The fact that the national policing strategy through community policing is not backed by law, means that whoever heads the police will be able to change the strategy to suit his or her individual beliefs. This has been a major challenge in the police service that has caused the Zambia Police Reforms to have very little progress if any at all. The frequent changing of Inspector Generals in the past fifteen years has seen the police trying and testing various types of policing strategies over the years some of which are abandoned immediately he is replaced by another Inspector General of Police.

Currently in Zambia, it is evident that the importance of police reforms through community policing mainly depends on the head of the institution at that particular time. For instance, the person that first started the police reforms, former IG, Mr. Francis Ndhlovu, was very passionate about reforming the police by introducing CP in Zambia in 1995. Therefore, under his reign CP was very active. However, after him in 2000, the IGs that followed did not and still do not have as much passion about reforming the Zambia police through CP as he did. As a result, the importance of community policing and its community services units have faded in the police service as it has been the least of the issues for the police for almost ten years now. Further, just as community policing is not seen as a priority to police management, it is also not a priority to the government. The government has never been active in the reform programme for the police and how citizens are policed has never been an issue in Zambia and so government has never shown much interest by not putting any policy document on community policing. Hence the need to put in place a legal framework through a policy document on community policing for who ever is the IG to continue the policy without any hesitation.

Furthermore, inadequate training is another problem pertaining to the implementation of community policing in Zambia. As discussed earlier, almost all NWA members are not trained in law enforcement and their use in patrols is beset with a lot of problems ranging from abuse of Human Rights to simply being unreliable since they cannot be compelled to work as it is voluntary and so they work when they want. As explained by one senior police officer, “in as much as citizens’ patrols prevent crime, police officers can do a much better job, but do not have sufficient numbers of officers to do the patrols. Most members of the public are ignorant about criminal law and law enforcement and as a result, the police through the office of the officer in charge receive a lot of complaints from members of the community who have been unfairly treated or abused by NWA members”. The complaints usually come when members of the NWAs conduct patrols and investigations without the involvement of or being accompanied by police officers.

For example, a chairman of neighborhood watch association explained that “most NWA members (especially those in the poor high density areas like Chaisa and Chipata compounds or shanty compounds) work in the NWA almost as a full-time job because they are unemployed. As a result, they usually find ways and means of earning a living through NWA activities, mostly by illegal means”. The most common way they earn a living is through extorting from suspects by threatening, torturing and even stealing from suspect’s things like cell phones and even exhibits found at the police station or post. Further, they also in many cases make complainants pay them before following a report on a reported complaint. Some NWA members also encourage monetary settlement of criminal cases, they usually act as reconciliators. They negotiate with the complainant to accept money from the accused. This is usually done in order for them to gain something,



because if the case went to court, they would not benefit financially. In most cases, these NWA members work in collaboration with police officers to extort money from both the complainant and the accused.

Lack of decentralization of police administration is also another problem affecting effective performance of community policing. According to the 1994 situation analysis done by the Zambia Police Reform workshop, it was established that decision making in the Zambia police is centralized at police headquarters especially through the Office of Inspector General of Police. An Officer in Charge of a police station could not decide independently to implement policing strategies or involve the local citizens in policing without the approval of the Office of the Commanding Officer or Inspector General of Police. This is a reflection of the whole governing system of centralization where power is vested at the center. As it is known that Zambia operates as a unitary system, therefore, even if it is divided into nine provinces, the provincial leadership has no independent authority to govern. This is the same way the Zambia police operate in policing its citizens. The Zambia police service is divided into nine divisions and six special support groups but all these report to the Inspector General of Police where they derive instructions. In this system of policing, no division, district, station or police post can decide to try out any policing strategy without the knowledge and permission from the IG's office.

As observed, the police have been trying to decentralize the policing system to ensure effective decision making and accountability at the local level through the opening of police posts and neighborhood watch associations or schemes. These police posts have almost all sections that are found at the main police stations to enable them work closely with the local community. However, contrary to the recommendations of the 1994 situational analysis report, these police posts have not been given autonomy on how they should police their local community. It is true that the police have brought policing services nearer to the communities but with no discretion. As noted, and confirmed by the key informant coordinating community policing at headquarters, "that matters of policing are a preserve of the police command at headquarters. Having said this, does not mean the local police are not allowed to suggest, they are but the process takes too long for the suggestions to be taken on by the police command. Hence, most of the recommendations are being ignored by the police hence discouraging the participation of the community. This is because implementation cannot be done without being cleared and in many instances there is no response. In some cases when the response is received, whatever the local police wanted to do would have been overtaken by other events. Therefore, this has obviously frustrated the efforts of the citizens especially through NWAs in trying to improve security by being involved fully.

Finally, the problem seems to result from alleged poor supervision by supervisors in the Zambia police service. Governance, particularly the management systems of the state police, has become a key area of policing reform for the last 15 years in Zambia. Therefore, the government that fails to put in place effective executive management teams in its police service face high levels of police corruption, inefficient practices and uncurbed crime rates. External complaints authority systems have their place, but bad police practice is at heart a personnel management problem.

Yet the degree to which the government is prepared to tackle the necessary supervision of its police service varies, despite the democratic reforms. Several recent

reports on the police service in Southern Africa (for instance, Amnesty International, 2002; Kliplin and Harrison, 2003) make it clear that in the majority of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries, which include Zambia police harass and disrupt the activities of the opposition leaders, trade union officials, youth activists, human rights monitors and journalists. They also extort money from travelers and from suspects or even from those wanting an investigation to take place. They frequently use torture and coercive confessions during investigations and rarely, if ever, are punished for such abuses. In addition, there is widespread use of summary killings of suspects even prior to investigations.

It is universally agreed that weakly supervised police services are not natural allies of the citizen, the community leaders, development organizations and even some members of the government itself. This situation, not surprisingly, makes many individuals conclude that they are on their own in the fight against crime and that if they want any progress they must take matters into their own hands. As those who have authority, it presses them to consider setting up alternative arrangement. Thus decisions about self-policing are made against a background of state abandonment and police predation.

#### **4.5 CONCLUSION**

From the above analysis and findings in sections one, two and three of chapter four (4) it is very clear that in Lusaka urban, high densely populated areas stand out as having the highest crime rates and part of the explanation lie in the very nature of communities. These communities are far less developed, inevitably the communities are experiencing widespread development of illegal occupation on site unplanned, overcrowded, inadequately serviced, and often unsafe. The local authorities do not have the resources to keep pace with demand for basic services such as housing, roads, piped water, health services, and education and police service because in the first instance they were illegal. Hence, the population of Lusaka urban residents in slums or shanties is the highest.

There are some positive developments and improvements in human rights observance, composition of the police in terms of gender, relationship and trust between the police and community and others. However, the overall picture regarding Zambia Police Service ability to fulfill the elements or the main objective of community policing of reducing crime by 50 percent in the year 2000 is negative. It is the contention of this study finding that the Zambia police service has far fallen short of many of the benchmarks of community policing such as failure to reduce crime rates by 50 percent and also failure to improve on responding and quality of assistance to emergencies of crime problem when called upon especially in high densely populated areas. Other major failures of community policing in Zambia, include the exponential growth of corruption, centralization, unprofessionalism and erosion of law. Further, the police lack resources such as transport and equipments, lack of supervision, lack of manpower, and lack of training. Furthermore, there has been a marked absence of political will from the government by failing to put in place a legal framework to support and legalize community policing strategy.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 CONCLUSIONS**

The analysis and findings of Zambia Police Reform Programme through community policing in the study shows that since 1964, the government through the Zambia Police Force then has been making huge efforts in improving crime policing strategies in various communities to meet political and democratic governance challenges of this era. In response to these challenges, policing reforms were launched to consolidate the rising crimes with particular emphasis of changing the policing strategies. Thus in the 1970s, the police force then put up reactive policing strategies or measures in the form of Flying Squad, Anti-Robbery Squad and Vigilante Policing Schemes in 1986.

However, the fact remained that in spite of the efforts made by the Zambia Police Force, the results achieved remained somewhat poor and the crime situation of many communities, in many cases deteriorated. Owing to factors such as the politicization of the Zambia Police Force, insufficient manpower, lack of transport, lack of accountability, poor conditions of service and coupled with corruption which undermined not only professionalism but also competence.

In Zambia, the Police Service is mainly organized along the lines similar to military structure, with units that parallel those of other government departments: It is made up of bureaus, divisions, and sections or units. Police mainly perform three categories of functions: law enforcement, maintenance of order, and community services. The focus on crime fighting policing which was more militaristic in the law enforcement alienated the police from the community, as a result a great deal of tension and mistrust between the police and community existed. Therefore, this made it difficult for the police to detect, investigate and combat crime since there was no cooperation from the community. Police efforts aimed at improving its policing strategies were also constrained by the formulation and adoption of inappropriate policing strategies as well as poor and ineffective implementation of the strategy. Even where strategy committees were created, many of the recommendations were not being implemented. Further, police crime strategies took a piecemeal approach, which focused on political issues to the negligence of others. Hence in the 1990s, the Zambia police sought ways to change its image by adopting innovative policing strategies in the form of community policing.

Consequently, the Zambia Police Reforms were initiated in 1994, and in 1995 the Zambia Police adopted community policing as a strategy to combat crime through crime prevention. The main aim of this strategy was ensuring not only the adequate management of crime by the police, but also effective community police service delivery through forging a partnership between the community and their police. In short, building and strengthening of relationship between the police and community that would enhance community participation in crime prevention in their communities. To this effect, strategies or initiatives such as neighborhood watch associations, police posts, preventive foot patrols and community-police awareness and sensitization programmes were introduced or adopted with a view to promoting and encouraging community participation in crime prevention, improving the quality of police services, increasing the efficiency of service delivery and promoting police accountability and professionalism.

The analysis and findings in chapter three (3) of the study clearly indicated that in Lusaka urban district, members of the public in all the three types of residential areas that is high, middle and low densely populated are now increasingly looking to various forms of community policing to assist the weak police service. Community policing is based on the principle of co-ordination and consultation between the police and the policed, to provide intelligence, guide security agendas and solutions and supplement police patrols. There has been much skepticism of community policing programmes as western imposed and ineffective, but there have been some successful partnerships between the police and the community in most residential areas of Lusaka urban. For instance, the alienation that denied them the civil cooperation needed to prevent and detect crime which in return perpetuated police ineffectiveness has now reduced.

Further, in order for police to encourage organization reforms and greater community participation in crime prevention the Zambia Police created Community Services Division (CSD) at police headquarters and divisional or provincial police headquarters to oversee the implementation of community policing and was also tasked to bring the community closer to the police. The CSD oversees programmes that are carried out by the Schools Liaison Unit, Crime Safety Unit, Chaplaincy Unit and Victim Support Unit.

Furthermore, to encourage Police- Public Relations, the police public relations department was also improved in form of carrying programmes on both print and electronic media that has encouraged cooperation and participation between the police and the community. For instance, in collaboration with the public and private media institutions, the police conduct radio and television programmes such as the “Police and the Community” aimed at sensitizing the community on various issues such as community safety and security. In addition, the police designs and publishes crime awareness posters, brochures, leaflets and pamphlets in the community. By educating and sensitizing the different stakeholders like the business people and home owners on the effective security techniques and developing a good police-community rapport, citizens feel safer and have less fear in dealing with the police. This programme by the Zambia Police Service has proved to have yielded good results as it has increased the citizen’s cooperation in providing information to assist in law enforcement. In addition, there is more voluntary compliance with the law by the citizens, improved relations with the local communities, and increased community support for police.

According to the study, there is evidence that in Lusaka Urban District there is a great improvement on the public perception of the police. For instance, the study importantly shows that there has been ‘a great improvement in police attitude’, particularly as regards to cooperation and human rights observance.

Another positive thing that has resulted from community policing is that institutions have been created to ensure sanity, professionalism and accountability in the police service though they have only been partially successful in achieving some of the objectives. For instance, the Police Public Complaint Authority (PPCA) has focused on sanctions and not the source. Secondly, these institutions that were established to promote ethics and accountability often lack the resources, public visibility, impartiality and police support (most of their recommendations are ignored) that are critical to their success. The enormity of the task of dealing with the erosion of the rule of law and to promote ethics and accountability in the police service is not to be underestimated. In spite of setbacks experienced in this regard, it is still possible to score gains in a

meaningful manner. Central to this dimension is the need for dedicated and sustained implementation of comprehensive, broad-based and self-reinforcing measures by the police service and the members of the community within the framework of democratic, responsive, transparent and accountable governance.

From the analysis and findings of the study in chapter 4, it is clearly indicated that the impact of community policing on crime and public attitude towards the police in Lusaka urban district had both successes and failures. It was observed that both police and public attitude towards crime varies according to communities they came and operated from. From this perspective it is argued that crime is believed to be high and more feared in poor residential areas (communities) of Lusaka which host high populations with non formal employment. In these communities the police are seen to be slow in response to their complaints and reports and hence prompting members of these communities getting involved in the prevention and fighting of crime through neighborhood watch associations.

It is the opposite in low densely populated areas where crime is feared less hence no need for them to get involved in the policing of crime through neighbourhood watch associations in their communities. However, in these communities police response to crime problem is faster as they are easily accessed. It can then be stated that community policing seems to be more appreciated in poor communities because that is where citizens have shown interest to work and cooperate with the police than rich communities of Lusaka. As a result of this we have greater community participation in crime prevention in high and middle densely populated areas as compared to low densely populated areas. This is because there are more community police posts and neighborhood watch schemes in the high and middle densely populated areas of Lusaka urban district than in low densely populated area.

With community policing strategy in place, in section two of chapter 4, the study results indicated that the Zambia Police Service in some selected communities have recorded significant achievements in the prevention of crime by applying different strategies or initiatives of community policing such as neighbourhood watch association, police post, foot patrols and community-police relations programmes on both print and electronic media and school programs. The police have been rated favorably on various ways for instance, victim support unit, human rights observance, performance, progress, improved relations with the community, gender composition of the police service and public image.

They may have been rated favorably on the above mentioned issues, yet they have been rated negatively on consultation, professionalism, transparent and accountability, effectiveness, crime prevention, training, corruption and the reduction of crime. This is because the Police Service has been faced with a number of challenges, which reduced the speed of the reform process hence affecting community policing implementation. For instance, institutional capacity, which is essential to the success of police reforms, is lacking or simply inadequate in the police service. There is also a broad consensus that a deficit of manpower, inadequate finances, transport, infrastructure, stationary, and inadequate training has also largely affected effective performance of the police in community policing.

Further, the deficit of legal document to back community policing because of lack of political will and a weak practice of accountability measures, corruption, and poor

conditions of service, politicization of the Zambia police service and lack of professionalism are major contributing factors to the current inefficiency of the police service and the inability of the police to manage crime effectively. The lack of transparency and accountability in the management of community policing in the prevention of crime, coupled with inappropriate information on the part of the community, slows down the information and, hence the inability of stakeholders to participate in the formulation, adoption and decision making in conjunction with the local police in crime prevention strategies.

It is apparent from these findings that the community policing strategy implications for the criminal tendency in the sample communities are highly complex and ambiguous. Therefore, one generalization stands out that in the current form community policing initiatives/programmes are rather unlikely to bring about a drastic reversal in the crime tendency in Lusaka urban district. Simply stated, the evidence of crime-reducing effect in some selected residential areas is too modest implying that the crime rate variance among the communities is primarily a function of community policing measures. Community policing is considered as a new and innovative strategy for improving the crime-prevention ability of the police. However, considering the fact that the community policing strategy itself was devised to make the prevention and fighting of crime more effective, it is important to note that the community policing impact on crime reduction is uncertain at best.

Therefore, the findings and the results cited in chapter 3 and 4 clearly suggest that the excessive reliance of the current crime prevention policy on community policing programmes, particularly the police patrol, unregistered neighbourhood watch associations and ungazzeted community police posts, is unjustifiable and lacks rationality. Thus, the community policing strategy may offer psychological comfort to the citizens, but not effective crime reduction.

The challenges highlighted in chapter 4 are surmountable, but to overcome them and lay the foundations for a lasting crime strategy. It is important that the police service must look into the current nature of community policing which makes it difficult to fully involve the community and put in place accountability mechanisms. The changes required for the roles on institutional character of the Zambia police and its crime policy can only be realized if the citizen's values are taken into consideration. Working relationships need to change as well within the police service and between the community to allow the flow of information and to remove the feeling of superiority or inferiority among officers and citizens. Police officers must also change their attitude towards each other and towards the public which is a precondition for rebuilding confidence and providing security to the society. Leaders should also show the political will to ensure compliance with the community policing. Consequently, future police reform programmes should take all these factors into account when aiming to transform the police service.

## **5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS**

In light of the above challenges, the following recommendations are made for successful implementation of community policing by the Zambia police service:

- To bolster the fight against crime nationwide the national government would need to allocate adequate financial and material resources such as transport, habitable offices to police service especially the police stations and posts in order to enhance its capabilities in terms of transportation, communication, crime fighting gadgets and equipment.
- The CSD should be adequately funded as it is the centerpiece of community policing implementation. In this sense it would be able to train more police officers and members of the public through workshops, seminars, meetings and sensitization programmes through community visitations by headquarters, division and station coordinators.
- Another initiative is the need for the city council to take a center stage in crime prevention through the Safe Cities Programme. This was launched in 1996 in response to calls from mayors of large African cities who wanted to address urban violence and were looking for a prevention strategy at the city level. It has been implemented in Abidjan, Nairobi, Johannesburg, Durban, Dakar, Dar-es-Salaam and Yaoundé. It seeks to create awareness, sensitize communities and build local capacity in urban safety in partnership with other stake-holders, NGOs and CBOs. At community level it draws up proposals with neighbourhood leaders for job creation as means of tackling the root causes of crime, as well as organizing communities to promote urban safety. As Kisia (2004: 13) observes, the safer cities approach 'requires radical institution reform, partnership, a major shift in attitude among civic leadership and genuine and broad-based participation in decision making, which enhances citizenship and inclusion'.
- Police Public Complaints Authority should be decentralized to provincial and district levels in order to provide an effective mechanism through which members of the public can be afforded the opportunity to keep the operations of police officers in check. Further more powers should be given to the authority not only recommendations but punishment against the ailing officers.
- The Zambia police service needs to spearhead the formation of forums unlike what is transpiring now, only concentrating on Neighbourhood Watch Associations. Forums can bring together every local community organization, international Non- Governmental Organization and Governmental Agency concerned with improving quality of life in the community. Together they can develop a community safety plan, share community and physical resources, and create channels for referral to services provided by one another. Once a need is identified, options can be sought that are state and non- state, or joint projects. Brogden and Shearing (1993) speak of it as 'dual policing'. The dual model envisages the state police bearing primary responsibility for enforcement; while problem- oriented (community) policing would be provided by state police in conjunction with commercial, municipal and voluntary elements. Overall responsibility for coordination and integration of policing networks would lie with local government, though authoritative force would remain with the state police

and national criteria would be established to determine the legislative units' limits of local civil autonomy. An example of this approach is South African Safety Forums.

- The police service must ensure all police formations including the police posts are adequately funded for all their operational functions so that the public does not pay police services like stationary, transport and fuel which has led to corruption and abuse of authority.
- Partnership with CSOs and the Private Sector. The involvement of the private sector and the civil society organizations (CSOs and NGOs, etc) in crime fighting is now recognized worldwide. The police service in Zambia should improve their relationships with these organizations, and use them as partners in combating crime rather than adversaries. Police service should promote dialogue with CSOs and NGOs to reduce mutual suspicion and enhance partnership in combating crime. Support for community policing initiatives by independent NGOs can be of enormous benefit. In other countries they have promoted public discourse on security threats; organized civic education programmes; raised knowledge of the issues by distributing materials on security issues; commissioned research on the legislative control and policing practices; obtained financial contributions from the business sector for crime prevention work with the youth; lobbied parliamentarians to support specific measure and resources to promote crime prevention; and developed pilot schemes to take the activities forward.
- The government must put in place the legal structure for Community-Based Policing in the Constitution and Police Act, then build crime policing policy on that legal basis. This has been done in South Africa so that who ever takes over as Inspector General of Police would build on what the other has left. Further the creation of Crime Prevention Boards must also reflect in the Constitution stating the composition of such board.

However, it should be made clear that not all the methods and tools outlined will be applicable to all situations. Therefore, a careful and selective adaptation of some elements to selected areas is essential. In that regard, it is also important to note that police reform is concerned with a continuous improvement in all aspects of crime policing. It aims to continuously improve results by improving capacity. It should also be noted that the crime policy options outlined above are not mutually exclusive. Combinations of them can be used. The over-riding principle, however, is the need for a national strategy of law and order that integrates, regulates, mobilizes, and empowers all those willing to preserve law and order in acceptable manner.



## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### BOOKS

- Adler, Freda. (1995). *Criminology (Second edition)*. New York: McGraw- Hill, Inc.
- Adler, Freda. (1983). *National Not Obsessed with Crime* (Little, Cole: Fred B. Rothman 1983). New York: McGraw- Hill, Inc.
- Altbeker, E. (1998). *Solving Crime: The State of the SAPS Detective Service*. Pretoria: Institute for Strategic Studies.
- Amnesty International, 1998, Senegal: *Climate of Terror in Casamance*. New York: Amnesty International.
- Baker, Bruce. (2008). *Muilti- Choice Policing in Africa*. Uppsala: Nordiska Africainstitute.
- Brogden,M, and C. Shearing, 1993, *Policing for a New South Africa*. London: Routledge.
- Bowden, B. (1978). The Police, Crime, and Economic Theory: *An assessment, "American Sociological Review"*. Washington, Dc: US Government Printing Office.
- Brown, M. 1988. *Working the street: Police discretion and dilammas of reform*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Chazan, N., (1988), Ghana: Problems of Governance and the Emergency of Civil Society, in L.Diamond, J. Lintz, and S. Lipset (eds), *Democracy in Developing Countries: Africa*. Boulder; Lynne Reinner.
- Chisanga, E., (2005). Establishment and Status of Commercial Plantations in, Proceedings, 1<sup>st</sup> National Symposium on Timber Industry in Zambia, September,2005, pg 1-9, Mission Press.
- Cordner, W.G. and Trajanowicz. C, R. (1992). *"Patrol" in what works in policing? Operations and Administration Examined*. Ohio: Academy of Criminal Justice Sciences.
- Crosby, P. (1990). *Leading*. London: McGraw-Hill.
- Daka, J. (2004). Sexual Offences in Zambia and how the Police deal with them. Lusaka.
- Detals, R. (1977). *The Methods of Public Health*. New York, Oxford University Press.
- Ebbe, Obi N.I. (1996). *Comparative and International Criminal Justice Systems: Policing, Judiciary and Corrections*. Washington: Butterworth-Heinmann

- Goldstein, H. (1990). *Problem Oriented Policing*. New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.
- Goldstein, H. (1977). *Policing a free society*. New York: Ballinger.
- Grabosky, P and Hula, R. (1992). *The Politics of Crime and Conflict*. Beverly Hills: Sage
- Hanekon, S.X. and Thornhill, C. *Public Administration in Contemporary Society: A South African Perspective*, Johannesburg, Macmillan South Africa, 1983.
- Hatchard, J, and Ndulo, M. (1994). *Reading in Criminal Law and Criminology in Zambia*. Lusaka: Multimedia Publications.
- Jefferies, C., (1952). *The Colonial Police*. London: Allen and Unwin.
- Jefferson, T., (1990). *The case against Paramilitary Policing*. Milton Keynes; Open University Press.
- Jones, T. and T. Newburn, (1998). *Private Security and Public Policing*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Kenney, P.J. (1972). *Police Personnel Administration*. Springfield III: Charles C. Thomas.
- Kinsey, R., J. Lea, and J. Young. 1986. *Losing the fight against crime*. London: Basil Blackwell.
- Kornblum, W. (1994). *Sociology in changing World (Third edition)*. New York: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
- Loader, I. (2000). 'Plural Policing and Democratic Governance', *Social and Legal Studies*, 9, 3, 323-45.
- Mamdani, M., (1996), *Citizen and Subject, Contemporary Africa and the Legacy of Late Colonialism*. Kampala: Fountain Publishers.
- Marks, M., (1998), 'Policing for Democracy: A case for Paramilitary Policing in Africa?', *Crime and Conflict*, 11
- Meek, S., (2003), *Policing Sierra Leone*, in M.Malan, S.Meek, T.Thusi, J.Ginifer, and P.Coker (eds), *Sierra Leone; Building the Road to Recovery*. Pretoria: Institute for Strategic Studies (ISS), monograph 80.
- Muhammed, D. (2002). *The Post Industrial Society: Tomorrow's Social History: classes, conflict and culture in the programmed society*. New York: Random House.

Musonda, F. X. (2002). *History and Reformation of Zambia Police Service*. Lusaka: University of Zambia Press.

Ndhlovu, F.K. (1994). *Introduction of Community Policing in Zambia*. Lusaka:

National Crime Statistics,(2008). Victim Support Unit, Police Headquarters, Lusaka

Pelser, E. (1999). *The Challenges of Community Policing in South Africa*. Pretoria: Institute for Strategic Studies.

Reid, Sue Titus. (1994). *Crime and Criminology*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace and Co.

Reiner, F. (2000). *The Police in America*. New York: McGraw- Hill.

Sallis, E. "The Machinery of Government", *An Introduction to Public Administration*, London, Holt, Reinhart and Winston, 1982.

Sherman, W. L. (1987). *Repeat Calls to the Police in Minneapolis*. Washington, D. C: Crime Control Institute.

Skolnick,J., and Bayley, D. (1986). *The new blue line: Police innovations in six American cities*. New York: Free Press.

Skolnick, J., and Bayley, D. (1988).*Community Policing: Issues and Practices around the World*. Washington D.C: National Institute of Justice.

Skolnic, Jerome H., and James Fyfe. (1993). *Above the Law: Police and the excessive use of force*. New York. Macmillan.

Sweeny, M, E. (1982). *The Public and the Police: A Partnership in Protection*. Springfield, III: Charles C Thomas.

Tordoff, William. (1980). *Administration in Zambia*. Manchester. Manchester University Press.

Vocino, T. and Rabin, J. (1981). *Contemporary Public Administration*, New York, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Inc.

Waddington, P., (1991). *The strong Arm of the Law: Armed and Public Order Policing*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

## ARTICLES

Achola,P.P., (1990), Implementing Educational Policies in Zambia-1992.b) Gennaro, FV (1987), The crime. In the Grolier interactive, 1987.

Ahire,P., 1991, 'Re-Writing the Distorted History of policing in Colonial Nigeria' *International Journal of the Sociology of law*,18,45-60

Bayley, D. and Shearing. (1996). 'The Future of Policing', *Law and Society Review*, 30, 585-606.

Bennett, T. and Wright, R (1984), *Burglars on Burglary* (Aldershot: Gower).

Bouman, M.,1987, A Note on Chiefly and National in Botswana'. *Journal of Legal Pluralism*, 25 and 26, 275-300

Bright, J. (1987), 'Community safety, crime prevention and local authority', in P. Willmott (ed), *Policing and the Community*, Policy Studies Institute Discussion Paper 16 (London: Unwin Hyman).

Brogden, M. (2004). 'Commentary: Community Policing: A Panacea from the West', *An African Affairs*, 103,413, 635-49.

Chanda, A.W, "The State Security Act v. Open Society: Does a Democracy Need Secrets? 29 ZAMBIA LAW JOURNAL 33-48 (1997).

Chukwuma, I., 2001, 'Police Transformation in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects', paper presented at 'Crime and Policing in Transitional Societies', Conference held 30 August-1 September 2000, South Africa, available at [www.kas.de/pro](http://www.kas.de/pro) home.

Cordner, W.G. (1985). "The Baltimore County Citizen-Oriented Police Empowered Project: Final Evaluation", Paper Presented to the America Society of Criminology. San Diego.

Elias, R. (1986), 'Community Control, criminal justice and victim services', in E.A.Fattah(ed.), *From Crime Policy to Victim Policy* (London: Macmillan), pp. 290-316.

Forrester, D., Chatterton, M. and Pease, K. (1988). *The Kirkholt Burglary Prevention Project, Rochdale*, Crime Prevention Unit Paper 13 (London: HMSO).

Goldsmith, A. (2003). 'Policing Weak States: Citizen Safety and State Responsibility', *Policing and Society*, 13, 1, 3-21.

Hills, A, 2001, 'Police Reform in Post-Colonial States', paper prepared for the Workshop on 'Democratic Control of Policing and Security Sector Reform', Geneva, Switzerland, available at [http:// www.dcaf.ch](http://www.dcaf.ch), Geneva Center for The Democratic Control of Police Reform in Post-Colonial States.

Johnston, L. (2001). 'Crime Fear and Civil Policing', *Urban Studies*, 38, 5-6, 959-76.

Johnston, L. (1999). 'Private Policing in Context', *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, 7, 2, 175-96

Kempa M., R. Carrier, J. Wood and C. Shearing, (1999). Reflection on the Evolving Concept of "Private Policing", *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, 7, 197-223.

Killingray, D., 1986, 'The Maintenance of Law and Order in British Colonial Africa', *African Affairs*, 85, 411-37.

Kisia, P., 2004, 'Promoting Peace, Safety and Security: The Role of Communities and Local Governments' paper prepared for Africa Local Government Action Forum, available at [www.worldbank.org/wbi/publicfinance/documents/ALGAF/KISIA.pdf](http://www.worldbank.org/wbi/publicfinance/documents/ALGAF/KISIA.pdf)

Klipin, J. and K. Harrison, 2003, *The Future of Policing and Crime Prevention in SADC*, Canadian International Crime Prevention Center, available at <http://www.crime-prevention-intl.org/publications.php?type=OTHER>

Kraska, P. and V. Kappelar, (1997), 'Militarising American Police: The and Normalisation of Paramilitary Units', *Social Problems*, 44, 1, 1-18.

McCormack, R. (1987). *International Corruption, A Global Concern*, Paper presented to the International Anti-Corruption Conference, Peru, 1997.

McCracken, J., 1986, 'Coercion and Control in Nyansaland: Aspects of the History of a Colonial Police Force', *Journal of African History*, 27, 127- 48

McMullan. (1987). 'Policing the Criminal Underworld: State Power and Decentralized Social Control in London 1550-1700', in J. Lowman et al (Eds), *Transcarceration: Essays in the Sociology of Social Control*. Aldershot: Gower, 119-38.

Newburn, T. (2001). 'The Commodification of Policing: Security Networks in the Late Modern City', *Urban Studies*, 38, 5-, 829-48.

Pease, K. (1986), 'Obscene telephone calls in England and Wales', *Howard Journal of Criminal Justice*, vol. 24: pp. 275-81

Rosenbaum, D.P. (1988), 'A critical eye on neighbourhood watch: does it reduce crime and fear' in T. Hope and M. Shaw (eds), *Communities and Crime Reduction* (London: HMSO), pp. 126-45.

Shearing, C., and Wood, J. (2003). 'Governing Security for Common Goods', *International Journal of the Sociology of Law*, 31, 3, 205-25.

Shearing, and M. Kempa, 2000, 'The Role of "Private Security" in Transition Democracies', paper given at 'Crime and Policing in Transition Societies', Conference held August 30- September 1 2000, South Africa, available at [www.kas.de/proj/home](http://www.kas.de/proj/home)

Stenning, P., (2000). 'Powers and Accountability of Private Police', *European Journal on Criminal Policy and Research*, 8, 325-52

Throup, D., 1992, 'Crime and Politics and the Police in Colonial Kenya, 1993-63', in D. Anderson and D.Killingray (eds). *Policing and Decolonization: Politics, Nationalism and the Police, 1917-1965*. Manchester: Manchester University Press, 127-57

Tignore, R., 1971, 'Colonial Chiefs in Chiefless Societies', *Journal of Modern African Studies*, 9, 3, 339-59.

Weisburd, J., Mc Elrot, J., and Hardyman, P. (1988), "Challenges to Supervision in Community Policing Observation on a Pilot Project", *American Journal of Police*.

Willmott, P. (1987), 'Introduction', in P. Willmott (ed), *Policing and the Community* (London: PSI), pp. 1-7.

## **DOCUMENTS AND REPORTS**

Amnesty International, 2002, Southern Africa: Policing to Protect Human Rights: A Survey of Police Practices in Countries of Southern African Development Community, 1997-2002, available at [web.amnesty.org](http://web.amnesty.org)

Central Statistics Office (2003), 2002 Census of Population and Housing Report, Lusaka:CSO.

Government of Zambia (Republic) 1996. *Constitution of Zambia Amendment Act*, 1996. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Ministry of Home Affairs, Zambia Police Service, (2005). *HIV and AIDS/STI/TB Workplace Policy of the Zambia Police Service*. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Musonda, F.X. (2001). *Community Involvement in Policing Strategies*. Lusaka.

South Africa (Republic). 1994. *Constitution of South Africa Amendment Act*, 1994

United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs 11/12/06.

WHO Zambia (1998), *Country health system Profile*, 1998.

Wood, B. (2000). *Malawi Security Sector Reform Pilot Project Report: Sept 1999- Aug 2000*.

Zambia Police Act Chapter 107 of the Laws of the Laws of Zambia. Lusaka: Government Printers.

*Zambia Police Annual Report, 1964*, Ministry of Home Affairs, Lusaka.

*Zambia Police Annual Report, 1986*, Inspector Generals Office Police Headquarters, Lusaka.

*Zambia Police Annual Reports, 1995 to 2006*, Inspector Generals Office Police Headquarters.

Zambia Police Strategic Plan 1995-2001, Government Printers, Lusaka.

Zambia Police Strategic Plan 2001-2006, Government printers, Lusaka.

Zambia Police Service Standing Orders (2009) Revised Edition. Lusaka: Government Printers

## **NEWSPAPERS**

*Post News Paper*, 4<sup>th</sup> May 2010: “A Compromised Police is Danger to Society”.

*Times of Zambia*, July 24<sup>th</sup>, 2003

*Times of Zambia*, 12<sup>th</sup> February, 1988

## APPENDICES



## **APPENDIX 1**

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR POLICE OFFICERS.**

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA  
SCHOOL OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES  
DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE  
STUDIES**

**RESEARCH TOPIC: AN EVALUATION OF THE COMMUNITY POLICING  
STRATEGY ON CRIME IN ZAMBIA: A CASE STUDY OF LUSAKA URBAN  
DISTRICT.**

Dear Respondent,

I am a student at the University of Zambia, Great East Road Campus, studying Public Administration and carrying out a research as part of the fulfillment for the attainment of a master's degree in public administration. Please note that this is purely an academic exercise, which will in no way harm anyone. You have been randomly selected to complete this questionnaire. The information being solicited will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please answer as objectively as possible following the given instructions.

### **INSTRUCTIONS:**

In answering the following questions, you are expected to:

1. Tick one of the options available to you.

For Example:

What kind of residential area do you operate from?

1. High (e.g. Chaisa) [☒]    2. Middle (e.g. Emmasdale) [☐

2. Where appropriate, please write your responses in line spaces provided.

***THANKING YOU IN ANTICIPATION FOR YOUR COOPERATION***

Serial No. ....

**SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF RESPONDENT**

1. What is your sex?

1. Male [ ] 2. Female [ ]

2. What is your marital status?

1. Married [ ] 2. Single [ ] 3. Divorced [ ] 4. Widowed [ ]

3. What is your standard of education?

1. Grade seven [ ] 2. Grade nine [ ] 3. Grade twelve [ ] 4. College [ ]  
5. University [ ]

4. What is your rank?

1. Constable [ ] 2. Sergeant [ ] 3. Inspector [ ] 4. Chief  
inspector [ ] 5. Assistant Superintendent [ ]

5. How long have you served in the Police Service?

1. Less than 1 year [ ] 2. 1-2 years [ ] 3. 3-4 years [ ] 4. 5-6 years [ ]  
5. More than 6 years [ ]  
specify.....

6. What type of residential area do you operate from?

1. Low density area [ ] 2. Medium density area [ ] 3. High density area [ ]

7. How long have you served in the same residential area?

1. Less than one year [ ] 2. 1 year [ ] 3. 2 years [ ] 4. 4 years [ ]  
5. More than 4 years [ ]

**SECTION B: POLICE AND COMMUNITY POLICING**

8. Are you aware of the community policing strategy put in place by the Zambia Police Service as a strategy to fight crime in Zambia?

1 Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

9. Do you know what community policing is?

1. Yes [ ] 2 No [ ]

10. How would you describe the relationship between the Police and the community in your area of operation?

1. Excellent [ ] 2. Very good [ ] 3. Good [ ] 4. Satisfactory [ ] 5.  
Unsatisfactory [ ]

11. In your opinion, have the Police done much publicity to sensitize both the Police officers and the members of the public on community policing in the area you operate from?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

12. In your opinion, are the citizens in the community you operate from fully involved in police initiatives to prevent crime and maintain order?

1. Very much involved [ ] 2. Much involved [ ] 3. Not much involved [ ]  
4. Not involved [ ]

☐

13. In the community you operate from, you as the Police do you consult and agree with the members of the community on the type of the security priorities and on ways to meet them?

1. Always consult and agree with the members of the community [ ]  
2. Partially consult and agree with the members of the community [ ]  
3. Do not consult and agree with the members of the community [ ]

☐

14. Are the citizens in your community allowed to determine the crime strategy for policing their community?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

☐

15. If not to question 13 and no to question 14, what do you think could be the reason why the community is not consulted and allowed to determine crime strategy for policing their community by the Police?

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

16. In your opinion, are the members of the community really co- producers of public safety?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

☐

17. If yes to question 16, do you have any Neighborhood Watch Association in the community you operate from?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

☐

18. If yes, how many Neighborhood Watch Associations are registered under your area of jurisdiction?

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

19. Of the registered Neighborhood Watches Association, how would you describe their activeness?

1. Very active [ ] 2. Active [ ] 3. Not active [ ]

☐

20. If not active, in your opinion, what could be the reason why Neighborhood Watches Association has not been active? .....

.....  
.....  
21. As Police, what type of support do you offer to these Neighborhood Watch Associations?

1. Financial support [ ]    2. Technical support [ ]    3. Material support [ ]  
4. Human resource support [ ].

☐

22. As Police officers do you attend meetings organized by the Neighborhood Watches Association in the community you operate from?

1. Yes [ ]    2. No [ ]

☐

23. If yes to question 22, how many times do you meet in a month to discuss security measures in the community?

1. One time [ ]    2. 2 times [ ]    3. 3 times [ ]    4. 4 times [ ]  
5. More than four times [ ]

☐

24. As Police, do you offer any training on crime prevention strategies to the community you are serving?

1. Yes [ ]    2. No [ ]

☐

25. If yes to question 24, what type of crime prevention strategies do you train these associations in? .....

.....  
.....

26. As the Police, what type of programmes have you put in place in your area of jurisdiction that involve citizens as co- producers of public safety?.....

.....  
.....

### SECTION C: THE IMPACT OF THE COMMUNITY POLICING ON CRIME IN ZAMBIA

27. What action do members of the community usually take whenever they experience crime?

1. Go to the Police Post/ Station [ ]    2. Go to Private Security Organizations [ ]  
3. Go to Legal Resource Foundation [ ]    4. Go to the community leaders [ ]  
5. None [ ]

☐

28. What is the extent to which the crime is reported?

1. Always reported [ ]    2. Sometimes reported [ ]    3. Not reported [ ]

☐

29. In your opinion, do you think the members of the community trust the Police abilities to deal adequately with their crime problem?

1. Very much trust [ ]    2. Much trust [ ]    3. Not much trust [ ]    4. No trust [ ]

☐

30. If the response was 4 to question 29, what do you think could be the reason why the community does not trust the abilities of the Police to deal with their crime problem?

.....  
.....

31. Is there any area within your area of jurisdiction where members of the community are afraid to walk in the night?

1. Yes [ ]    2. No [ ]

☐

32. How would you describe the level of safety or security in the neighborhood you operate from?

1. Very safe [ ]    2. Safe [ ]    3. Very unsafe [ ]

☐

33. What type of crimes do you think the members of the community you serve fear most?.....

.....  
.....

34. Compared to the period before the introduction of community policing, how would you describe the crime rate in the community you serve today?

1. Increasing [ ]    2. Decreasing [ ]    3. Remained the same as it was [ ]

☐

35. How would you describe crime in the community you serve as compared to other communities of the city of Lusaka?

35a. Before the introduction of the community policing?

1. Less crime [ ]    2. More crime [ ]    3. The same as in other communities [ ]

☐

35b. After introduction of community policing?

1. Less crime [ ]    2. More crime [ ]    3. Same as before [ ]

☐

36. As a Police officer, how would you rate the success of Zambia police since the introduction of community policing strategy in its fight against crime?

1. Has made much progress [ ]    2. Has made some progress [ ]  
3. Stood still [ ]    4. Lost much ground [ ]

☐

37. How do you rate the performance of the Zambia Police since the introduction of community policing 14 years ago?

1. Excellent [ ]    2. Very good [ ]    3. Good [ ]    4. Fair [ ]    5. Poor [ ]

☐

38. Do you think the introduction of Neighborhood Watch Associations have assisted in reducing crime in the community you operate from?

1. Yes [ ]    2. No [ ]

☐

39. Do you think the members of the community have trust in the Neighborhood Watch Association as one of the providers of community safety?

1. Very much trust [ ]    2. Much trust [ ]    3. Not much trust [ ]    4. No trust [ ]

☐

39. How would you describe the relationship between the Police and the members of the public in the community you operate from?

1. Excellent [ ]    2. Very good [ ]    3. Good [ ]    4. Satisfactory [ ]    5. Unsatisfactory [ ]

☐

40. How would you describe the Police observance in human rights before the introduction of community policing in 1994?

1. Very much observed [ ]    2. Less observed [ ]    3. Not observed [ ]

☐

41. What has been an effect of community policing in human rights observance by the Police?

1. Very much observed [ ]    2. Less observed [ ]    3. Not observed [ ]

☐

### SECTION C: CHALLENGES OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN ZAMBIA

41. In your own opinion has community policing strategy been effective in reducing crime in the community you operate from?

1. Yes [ ]    2. No [ ]

☐

42. If no to question 41, what do you think could be the reason why community policing has not been effective? .....

.....

43. What type of problems do you face as the Police to effectively implement community policing in fighting crime in the community you operate from?.....

.....

.....

44. What type of problems does Neighborhood Watch Associations in your area of operation face that has made them ineffective to participate in crime prevention and public safety? .....

.....  
.....

45. In your opinion, what are the major challenges that have negatively affected the success of community policing strategy in reducing crime in the community you operate?.....

.....

46. What do you think is the most important thing the Police and the community have to do to be more effective in the fight against crime?.....

.....  
.....

**APPENDIX 2**  
**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE MEMBERS OF THE PUBLIC**

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA**  
**SCHOOL OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL**  
**SCIENCES**  
**DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL AND**  
**ADMINISTRATIVE STUDIES**

**RESEARCH TOPIC: AN EVALUATION OF THE IMPACT OF THE COMMUNITY  
POLICING STRATEGY IN ZAMBIA: A CASE STUDY OF LUSAKA URBAN  
DISTRICT.**

Dear Respondent,

I am a student at the University of Zambia, Great East Road Campus, studying Public Administration and carrying out a research as part of the fulfillment for the attainment of a master's degree in public administration. Please note that this is purely an academic exercise, which will in no way harm anyone. You have been purposively selected to complete this questionnaire. The information being solicited will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Please answer as objectively as possible following the given instructions.

**INSTRUCTIONS:**

In answering the following questions, you are expected to:

1. Tick one of the options available to you.

For Example:

What kind of residential area do you operate from?

1. High (e.g. Chaisa) [☒]    2. Middle (e.g. Emmasdale) [☐]    3. Low (e.g. Kabulonga) [☐]  
2. Where appropriate, please write your responses in line spaces provided.

***THANKING YOU IN ANTICIPATION FOR YOUR COOPERATION***

Serial No. ....



**SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF RESPONDENT**

1. What is your sex?  
1. Male [ ] 2. Female [ ] ☐
2. What is your age? ..... ☐
3. What is your marital status?  
1. Married [ ] 2. Single [ ] 3. Divorced [ ] 4. Widowed [ ] ☐
4. What is your standard of education?  
1. Grade 7 [ ] 2. Grade 9 [ ] 3. Grade 12 [ ] 4. College [ ] 5. University [ ]  
6. Non-formal [ ] ☐
5. What kind of residential area do you come from?  
1. Low (e.g. Kabulonga) [ ] 2. Middle (e.g. Emmasdale) [ ] 3. High (e.g. Chaisa) [ ] ☐
- 6a. What is your occupation?.....
- 6b. Formal employment or Informal employment?.....

**SECTION B: PUBLIC INVOLVEMENT IN THE COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGY**

8. Are you aware of the community policing strategy initiated by the Zambia Police to fight crime in your community?  
1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ] ☐
9. Do you know what the community policing is?  
1. No [ ] 2. Yes [ ] ☐
10. In your opinion, have the Police done much publicity to sensitize both the Police and the members of the public on the community policing in your area?  
1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ] ☐
11. Do you think the citizens in your community are fully involved in Police initiatives of preventing crime and maintaining order?  
1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ] ☐
12. Does the Police consult and agree with the community on the type of the security priorities and on ways to meet them?  
1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ] ☐

13. If no to question 12, what do you think could be the reason why the Police do not consult the public on security priorities and ways to meet them?

.....  
.....

14. Is your community able to monitor and evaluate the Police effectiveness and efficiency in its service delivery?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

☐

15. If your answer is no to question 14, what could be the reason why the community is unable to monitor and evaluate the Police effectiveness and efficiency in its service deliver? .....

.....

16. In your opinion, are the public or citizens really co-producers of public safety?

1. Yes [ ] 2.No [ ]

☐

17. If your answer was yes to question 16, do you have any Neighborhood Watch Associations in your community?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

☐

18. If your answer was yes to question 17, are you a member of any Neighborhood Watch Associations?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

☐

19. If you are a member, do you meet as members to discuss security safety measures in your community?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

☐

20. If yes to question 19, how many times do you meet in a month?

1. Once [ ] 2.2 times [ ] 3.3 times [ ] 4. 4 times [ ]

☐

21. If yes to question 19, do the Police offer any advice and training on the prevention strategies and on the type of cases that you should handle?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

☐

22. If yes to question 19 and 21, what are these strategies and cases that you should handle? .....

.....  
.....

23. If yes to question 18, do the police give you enough support that you need to effectively run your Neighborhood Watch Association Programs?

1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

☐

24. If yes to question 23, what type of support do you receive from the Police?

1. Financial support [ ] 2. Human support [ ] 3. Material support [ ]  
4. Other support [ ] ..... ☐

SECTION C: THE IMPACT OF THE COMMUNITY POLICING ON CRIME  
IN ZAMBIA

- 26 Do you know what crime is? ☐  
1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

27. Have you ever experienced crime before? ☐  
1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

28. If yes to question 27, how many times?  
1. 1-2 times [ ] 2. 3-4 times [ ] 3. More than 4 times [ ] 4. N/A ☐

29. What action do you usually take when you experience crime?  
1. Go to the Police Post or Station [ ] 2. Go to the Private Security  
Organizations [ ]  
3. Go to Legal Resource Foundation [ ] 4. Go to the community leaders [ ]  
5. Other, please specify ..... ☐  
6. None [ ]

30. If you do not go to the Police Post or Station, what are the reasons?  
.....  
.....  
.....

31. If you go to the Police Post or Station, do you trust the Police ability to deal  
with your crime problem adequately?  
1. Very much trust [ ] 2. Much trust [ ] 3. Not much trust [ ] 4. No trust [ ] ☐

32. Whenever you go to the Police Station or Police Post, have the Police dealt  
with your complaint adequately?  
1. Very much adequately [ ] 2. Adequately [ ] 3. Not adequately [ ] ☐

33. Is there any area within your community where you are afraid to walk alone in  
the night?  
1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ] ☐

34. After the introduction of Police Posts and Neighborhood Watch Associations,  
how do you personally feel on the streets of your community today?  
1. More afraid and uneasy [ ] 2. Less easy [ ] 3. Not much different  
from the way you felt before Police Posts and Neighborhood Watch Schemes  
were introduced [ ] ☐

36. How do you feel in your neighborhood in the night?

1. Very safe [ ]      2. Safe [ ]      3. Pretty safe [ ]      4. Unsafe [ ]      ☐  
5. Very unsafe [ ]

37. What type of crimes do you fear most in your community?

1. Rape and defilement [ ]      2. Burglary and theft [ ]      3. Robberies [ ]      ☐  
4 Other, specify.....

38. Since the introduction of a Police Post and Neighborhood Watch Association, how do you describe the crime rate in your area?

1. Increasing [ ]      2. Decreasing [ ]      3. Remained the same as it was [ ]      ☐

39. How would you rate crime in your community before the introduction of a Police Post and Neighborhood Watch Association as compared to other communities of the city?

1. Less crime [ ]      2. More crime [ ]      ☐  
3. The same as other communities in the city [ ]

40. How would you describe crime in your community after the introduction of the Police Posts and Neighborhood Watch Association as compared to other communities of the city?

1. Less crime [ ]      2. More crime [ ]      3. Remained the same as it was [ ]      ☐

41. As a citizen, how would you describe the success of Zambia Police since the introduction of Police Posts and Neighborhood Watch Associations?

1. Has made much progress [ ]      2. Has made some progress [ ]      3. Stood still [ ]      ☐  
4. Lost much ground [ ]

42. Do you think by putting more Policemen and Neighborhood Watch Personnel on patrol would discourage criminal activities in your community?

1. Yes [ ]      2. No [ ]      ☐

43. How do you rate the Police performance in your community today?

1. Excellent [ ]      2. Very good [ ]      3. Good [ ]      4. Fair [ ]      5. Poor [ ]      ☐

44. How does Police in your community respond to your calls for assistance?

1. Less than 10 minutes [ ]      2. After 30 minutes [ ]      3. After 1 hour [ ]      ☐  
4. Other  
specify,.....

45. How do you rate the quality of assistance by the Police since the introduction of community policing 14 years ago in your community?

1. Excellent [ ]      2. Very good [ ]      3. Good [ ]      4. Fair [ ]      ☐  
5. Satisfactory [ ]      6. Unsatisfactory [ ]

46. How would you describe the relationship between the Police and the community after the introduction of community policing 14 years ago?

1. Excellent [ ]    2. Very good [ ]    3. Good [ ]    4. Fair [ ]    5. Satisfactory [ ]  
6. Unsatisfactory [ ]

☐

47. How would you describe the Police in human right observance before the introduction of Community Policing 14 years ago?

1. Very much observed [ ]    2. Observed [ ]    3. Partially observed [ ]  
4. Not observed [ ]

☐

48. What has been an effect of Community Policing Strategy in Police human rights observance?

1. Very much observed [ ]    2. Observed [ ]    3. Partially observed [ ]  
4. Not observed [ ]

☐

#### SECTION D: THE CHALLENGES OF COMMUNITY POLICING

49. In your opinion, has community policing strategy been effective in reducing crime in your community?

1. Yes [ ]    2. No [ ]

☐

50. If no to question 49, what do you think could be the reason why community policing strategy has not been effective?.....  
.....  
.....

51. What type of problems do you think the Police and Neighbourhood Watch Association face to effectively implement community policing strategy in fighting crime in the communities? .....  
.....  
.....

52. In your opinion, what do you think are the major challenges that have negatively affected the success of the neighborhood watch associations in your community?.....  
.....  
.....

53. What do you think is the most important thing that the Police and the community have to do to be more effective in the fight against crime?.....  
.....  
.....

### **APPENDIX 3**

#### **INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR KEY INFORMANTS IN COMMUNITY POLICING.**

#### **(QUESTIONS TO KEY INFORMANTS SPEARHEADING COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGY IN THE ZAMBIA POLICE SERVICE)**

1. When did you get involved with community policing and in what capacity?
2. What do you think were the reasons why the Zambia police force introduced community policing strategy?
3. Before the introduction of community policing strategy, what strategies was Zambia police force using both to prevent and fight crime in the communities?
4. What do you think was the reason why community policing was adopted and not any other crime prevention strategy?
5. How is the administration structure like for the community policing at national, provincial, district, station and post level?
6. Do you think the administrative structure you have stated is present and very active at every level?
7. Do you receive any financial, material and technical support for the community policing activities apart from the police and the central government?
8. What type of crime prevention activities does community policing offer?
9. Do you provide any training to officers directly involved in community policing?
10. If you do, can you specify?
11. How many officers have been trained in community policing so far and are there any plans for more training in future?
12. During police training does the police service offer any lessons in community policing?
13. At station level, are there lectures conducted specifically on community policing to all police officers?
14. What is the role of police officers in community policing?
15. Are there any sensitization programmes that your office undertakes to educate the police officers and members of the public on community policing?
16. If they are, how has been the response from the police and members of the public?

17. To what extent has the member of the public been cooperative in community policing?
18. How is the police accountable to the public?
19. What strategies have you put in place to promote community participation in crime prevention and crime fighting in their neighborhoods?
20. What has been the response like from the community on these strategies?
21. If the response has been positive, has the community been able to form some Neighborhood Watch Associations to prevent and fight crime in their area?
22. If so, how many Neighborhood Watch Associations are registered in your area of jurisdiction?
23. What role do these Neighborhoods Watch Associations play in community policing?
24. Do you offer any training to the members of the Neighborhood Watch Associations?
25. If you do, what type of training?
26. Are there any specific measures that you have put in place to monitor the activities of the Neighborhood Watch Associations?
27. How active are they? And if not active, what could be the reason why they have not been active?
28. In what ways can they be improved to be active?
29. How is the working relationship between the Police and the Neighborhood Watch Associations?
30. Have the members of Neighborhood Watch Associations assisted the Police to prevent and fight crime in their neighborhoods?
31. If not what are the reasons?
32. What could be done to make the Neighborhood Watch Associations effective?
33. What do you think are the major problems faced by both Police and Neighborhood Watch Associations to effectively implement community policing strategy?
34. In your opinion, what do you think the police can do to improve crime prevention through community policing strategy?

## APPENDIX 4

**Table A . Summary of Data Collection Technique**

The table below shows various techniques which, were employed to obtain the responses from the interviewees

Objective	Nature of Information	Source	Data collection Technique	Instrument
To identify and examine the policing strategies put in place to fight crime in Zambia.	Historical background of police in Zambia	Police literature i.e. Police journals, books, government policy documents	Desk Survey	Literature Search
	Policing strategies put in place in the colonial time, first, second and third republic.	Key-Informants i.e. CSD and VSU national, division, and station coordinators	Interview	Interview Guide
To assess the impact of community policing strategy on crime, and public attitude towards crime and police	Knowledge of police officers and the public on the meaning and awareness of community policing.	Police officers in police stations and police posts and members of the public	Distribution of questionnaire	Questionnaire
	Community policing strategies and programmes put in place	NWA Members, VSU and CSD Coordinators.	Interview	Interview Guide
		Police Officers	Distribution of questionnaire	Questionnaire
	Impact of community policing Strategy on crime, public attitude towards crime and police	Public and police officers  CSD and VSU coordinators and NWA members	-  Interview	Questionnaire  Interview guide



To state and examine factors affecting community policing strategy in Zambia.	Investigating problems that have negatively affected the smooth implementation of community policing.	Police officers and Members of the public  CSD and VSU coordinators at national, divisional, station level and officers at police posts  NWA members	Distribution of questionnaire  Interview	Questionnaire  Interview Guide
---	---	--	--	--------------------------------------

## APPENDIX 5

**Table B: Schedule Interviews Done**

<b>Name of Interviewee</b>	<b>Date of Interview</b>	<b>Designation</b>	<b>Organisation</b>
W/ Insp Tiki	2 <sup>nd</sup> December 2009	Co-ordinator Community Safety Police Station	Zambia Police Service
Mr Zabwino Palibe	18 <sup>th</sup> December 2009	Committee Member	Nyumba Yanga Neighbourhood Watch Association
Insp Mbaula	4 <sup>th</sup> January 2010	Coordinator Support Unit Victim Police Station	Zambia Police Service
W/Cost Shinengene	11 <sup>th</sup> January 2010	Coordinator Support Unit Community Police Post	Zambia Police Service
Mrs. Saladi	14 <sup>th</sup> January 2010	Coordinator Community Service Division	Zambia Police Service Lusaka Division
Mr. Ndalama	26 <sup>th</sup> January 2010	Chairman	Neighbourhood Watch Association

Insp Shipikili	4 <sup>th</sup> February 2010	Coordinator Community Safety	Zambia Police Service Lusaka Division
Mr PachePache	11 <sup>th</sup> February 2010	Vice Chairman	Chaisa Resident Development Committee
C/Insp Dandabula	16 <sup>th</sup> February 2010	Coordinator Schools Liaison Unit Police Station	Zambia Police Service
Ms Kamugomo	22 <sup>nd</sup> February 2010	Committee Member	Zambia Crime Prevention Foundation
Mr Bonongwe	26 <sup>th</sup> February 2010	Officer In Charge Police Station	Zambia Police
Insp Chisamba	4 <sup>th</sup> March 2010	Coordinator Schools Liaison Unit	Zambia Police Service Lusaka Division
D/Insp Chizule	16 <sup>th</sup> March 2010	Criminal Investigation Officer Community Police Post	Zambia Police Service
Costable Kambwiri	30 <sup>th</sup> March 2010	Beat Constable Community Police Post	Zambia Police Service
C/Insp Silozi	7 <sup>th</sup> April 2010	Officer In-Charge Community Police Post	Zambia Police Service
W/ Insp Foloko	16 <sup>th</sup> April 2010	Officer In-Charge Police Station	Zambia Police Service
Mr Nkalamu	5 <sup>th</sup> May 2010	Coordinator	Chipata Neighbourhood Watch Association
Mr. Mbwiri	21 <sup>st</sup> May 2010	National Coordinator Community Services Division	Zambia Police Service

D/ Sgt Mbuzi	8 <sup>th</sup> June 2010	Criminal Investigations Officer Community Police Post	Zambia Police Service
Mrs. Sibweni	14 <sup>th</sup> July 2010	Public Relations Officer	University Teaching Hospital