

**CO-PRODUCTION AND PUBLIC VALUE: INVESTIGATING EXPERIENCES
OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN MALAWI'S LILONGWE DISTRICT**

PhD. (PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION) THESIS

MLOWOKA NOEL FRANK KAYIRA

UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI

FEBRUARY, 2025



**CO-PRODUCTION AND PUBLIC VALUE: INVESTIGATING EXPERIENCES
OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN MALAWI'S LILONGWE DISTRICT**

PhD. (PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION) THESIS

MLOWOKA NOEL FRANK KAYIRA

***Master of Public Policy and Management – Monash University (Australia)
Bachelor of Arts (Humanities) – University of Malawi Bachelor of Laws -
Hons (Upper Second Class) – University of Malawi Diploma in Law –
University of Malawi***

Submitted to the School of Law, Economics and Government in partial fulfilment of the
requirement for the award of Doctor of Philosophy in Public Administration.

University of Malawi

February, 2025

COPYRIGHT

No part of this thesis may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means; electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without prior written permission of the author or that of the Department of Politics and Government at University of Malawi.

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that this thesis is my own original work that has been accomplished in partial fulfilment for the award of a Doctoral of Philosophy Degree in Public Administration at the University of Malawi. This thesis has not been submitted to any other academic institution for similar purposes. Where other people's work has been cited in some sections of the thesis, acknowledgements have duly been made.

MLOWOKA NOEL FRANK KAYIRA

Signature

Date

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

The undersigned certify that this thesis represents the student's own work and effort and has been submitted with our approval in partial fulfilment of a Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Public Administration at the University of Malawi.

Signature: _____

Date_____

Happy M. Kayuni, PhD (Professor)

SUPERVISOR

DEDICATION

I dedicate this research study to my wife Dorah and my children, Talumba, Tadala and Frank who greatly missed my love and affection during the long and winding journey when I was busy working on this thesis. May God bless you for your endurance.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

With a profound sense of gratitude, I would like to recognise and sincerely thank everyone who assisted me in my whole PhD thesis expedition. I remain heavily indebted to the late Professor Richard Tambulasi who was my primary supervisor before he passed on, on February 7th, 2021. He was an incredible professor and academic who shaped my idea to produce something that we can now call a research study. May His Soul Rest in Eternal Peace. I am also extremely grateful to Professor Happy Kayuni, another professor and scholar with immense knowledge and experience who was the co-supervisor for this research for quickly taking over the huge responsibility left by late Professor Tambulasi to revise and review the numerous drafts that later culminated into this scholarly work that we can read today. Professor Kayuni took his time from his busy schedule to guide me throughout the study. I am equally grateful to my wife Dorah for providing spiritual and moral support throughout my academic journey up to the completion of this thesis. Mr. Misheck Mphande, a young man with unique research skills is sincerely thanked for his immense guidance in developing the data collection tool and teaching me how to use it as well as for taking his time to assist me in data collection and reading through my draft thesis.

I am also very grateful to Management of the Malawi Police Service (MPS) for allowing me to conduct this research study using community policing experiences and for allowing

members of the MPS and members of community policing groups to participate in this study.

I sincerely appreciate their living experiences shared in answering my research questions.

In addition, I feel honoured to have met all the participants in this study. Finally, I would like to thank the Government of Malawi through the Department of Human Resource Management and Development (DHRMD) for awarding me a scholarship to study for this PhD.

ABSTRACT

This thesis investigated police and community's experiences of community policing as a form of co-producing public safety and security in Malawi's Lilongwe district. Specifically, the study examined what the police (active and retired) and the public (civil society leaders, community police forum (CPF), neighbourhood watch (NHW) groups and members of the community) perceived as benefits, challenges and opportunities associated with community policing as a form of co-production. Qualitative research approach with phenomenological strategy of inquiry was used in the study. Results revealed that community policing had several public value benefits including improved knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing among both police and members of the public, enhanced general and personal safety and security, improved trust in community police forums and neighbourhood watch groups, improved police friendliness and several other benefits. The study also revealed that community policing faced many challenges which included human rights abuse and misconduct by both police officers and members of CPF and NHW, lack of feedback from the police, lack of joint patrols, assaults and injuries among community police members and neglect of duties by police officers. Missed opportunities revealed by the study included willingness of the community to conduct joint patrols with police, availability of information and communication technology as well as artificial intelligence.

The study provided comprehensive application of New Public Service and Decentralisation theories in community policing, adding new knowledge on community policing through

empirical evidence on benefits, challenges and missed opportunities of community policing as a form co-production in Malawi's Lilongwe. The study suggested further research on knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing; disparities in citizen trust in the police in rural areas, low and high-density areas and willingness of by the community to compensate CPF and NHW members.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	viii
LIST OF TABLES	xxiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xxiv
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	xxv
CHAPTER 1	1
BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Background Information	3
1.3 Problem Statement	6
1.4 Main Study Objective.....	8
1.4.1 <i>Specific Objectives</i>	8
1.5 Significance of the Study	8
1.5.1 <i>Theoretical Significance</i>	9
1.5.2 <i>Significance to Policy and Practice</i>	10
1.5.3 <i>Significance to Literature</i>	11
1.5.4 <i>Methodological Significance</i>	11
1.6 Chapter Summary	12
CHAPTER 2	14
LITERATURE REVIEW	14
2.1 Introduction	14
2.2 Origin and Development of Co-production	14

2.3 Definition of Co-production	16
2.4 Typologies of Co-production	19
2.5 Community Policing as a Form of Co-producing Public Safety and Security.....	21
2.6 Community Policing: The Concept, Definition and Goals	24
2.6.1 <i>Goals of Community Policing</i>	27
2.7 Dimensions of Community Policing	29
2.7.1 <i>The Philosophical Dimension</i>	29
2.7.2 <i>The Strategic Dimension</i>	32
2.7.3 <i>The Tactical Dimension</i>	34
2.7.4 <i>The Organizational Dimension</i>	36
2.8 Co-production, Crime Control and Community Policing	39
2.9 Public Value or Benefits of Community Policing	41
2.9.1 <i>Different Approaches to Public Value</i>	42
2.9.2 <i>The Strategic Triangle by Moore</i>	44
2.10 Community Policing and Public Value Benefits: The Context of Malawi and Beyond	47
2.11. Community Policing and Public Value Benefits: The Context of Malawi and Beyond	48
2.11.1 <i>Community Policing, Police Visibility, and Feeling of Safety</i>	50
2.11.2 <i>Community Policing, Citizen Participation in Co-production</i>	51
2.11.3 <i>Community Policing, Accessibility and Reachability of Police Services</i>	53
2.11.4 <i>Community Policing and Police Friendliness or Approachability</i>	54
2.11.5 <i>Community Policing, Police Responsiveness and Rapid Response to Calls</i> ..	55

2.11.6 Community Policing and Volunteerism	56
2.11.7 Community Policing and Customer Care	57
2.11.8 Recognition and Reward for Community Police Members	58
2.11.9 Community Policing and Joint Patrols	59
2.11.10 Community Policing and Community Trust in the Police	60
2.11.11 Community Policing, Information and Communication Technologies, and Artificial Intelligence	62
2.11.12 Community Policing, Co-production and Corruption	64
2.12 Chapter Summary	66
CHAPTER 3	68
THEORETICAL	68
FRAMEWORK	
3.1 Introduction	68
3.2 New Public Service, Co-production, Public Service Reforms and Community Policing.....	70
3.2.1 Traditional public administration	71
3.2.2 New Public Management	72
3.2.3 New Public Governance	73
3.2.4 New Public Service	74
3.3 Decentralization and Community Policing	80
3.3.1 Definition of Decentralisation	81
3.3.2 Decentralisation and Community Policing	81
3.3.3 Key Objectives of Decentralisation	82
3.3.4 Types of Decentralisations	82

3.3.4.1 Deconcentration	83
3.3.4.2 Delegation	83
3.3.4.3 Privatisation	84
3.3.4.4 Devolution.....	84
3.4 Decentralisation and Community Policing in Malawi	85
3.5 Relationship between Local Councils and Community Policing	87
3.6 Chapter Summary	88
CHAPTER 4	89
METHODOLOGY	89
4.1 Introduction	89
4.2 Research Approach or Design	89
4.2.1 <i>Phenomenological Strategy of Inquiry</i>	92
4.3 Area of the study or Site	94
4.4 Target Study Population	95
4.5 Sampling Method and Size	96
4.6 Data Collection Methods/Techniques	98
4.6.1 <i>Key Informant Interviews</i>	98
4.6.2 <i>Focus Group Discussions</i>	99
4.5.3 <i>Observations</i>	101
4.6.4 <i>Desk Review/Documentary Analysis</i>	102
4.7 Data Collection Tools (see Appendices 1 & 2)	103
4.8 Data Management	104
4.9 Data Analysis	110
4.10 Credibility and Trustworthiness of the Study	112

4.10.1 Credibility	112
4.10.1.1 Prolonged Engagement with Data	113
4.10.1.2 Member Check or Validation Interview	113
4.10.1.3 Triangulation	114
4.10.2 Transferability	114
4.10.3 Dependability.....	115
4.10.3.1 Peer Debriefing	116
4.10.3.2 Audit trail	116
4.10.4 Confirmability	116
4.11 Ethical Considerations.....	117
4.12 Foreseeable and Unforeseeable Adverse Events	118
4.13 Dissemination of Findings	119
4.14 Study Limitations	120
4.15 Chapter Summary	121
CHAPTER 5	123
BENEFITS OF COMMUNITY POLICING AS A FORM OF CO-PRODUCTION	123
5.1 Introduction	123
5.2 Demographic Data.....	123
5.3 Knowledge and Understanding of the Concept Community Policing	124
5.3.1 Police Respondents	124
5.3.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public	126
5.3.2.1 Civil Society Organisations	127
5.3.2.2 Community Police Members' Knowledge of Community Policing	128
5.3.2.3 NHW Knowledge and Understanding of Community Policing	129

5.3.2.4. Ordinary Citizens’ Knowledge and Understanding of Community Policing	130
5.3.3 <i>Discussion on Knowledge and Understanding of the Concept Community Policing</i>	132
5.4 General Safety and Security	135
5.4.1 <i>Police Respondents</i>	135
5.4.2 <i>Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	136
5.4.3 <i>Lilongwe Rural</i>	138
5.4.4 <i>Lilongwe Urban</i>	139
5.4.5 <i>Discussion on General Safety and Security</i>	140
5.5 Personal Safety and Security	142
5.5.1 <i>Views and Perceptions from Police Participants</i>	142
5.5.2 <i>Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	143
5.5.3 <i>Discussion on Personal Safety and Security</i>	145
5.6 Crime Reduction and Reduction of Fear of Crime	147
5.6.1 <i>Police Respondents</i>	147
5.6.2 <i>Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	148
5.6.3 <i>Discussion on Crime Reduction and Reduction of Fear of Crime</i>	149
5.7 Community Participation and Involvement in Safety and Security	153
5.7.1 <i>Police Respondents</i>	153
5.7.2 <i>Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	154
5.7.3 <i>Discussion on Community Participation and Involvement in Safety and Security</i>	155

5.8 Accessibility and Reachability of Police Services	158
5.8.1 Accessibility and Reachability of Police Services - Urban	158
5.8.1.1 Police Respondents	158
5.8.1.2. Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public	159
5.8.2 Accessibility/Reachability of Police Services - Rural	160
5.8.2.1 Police Respondents	160
5.8.2.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public	161
5.8.3 Discussion on Accessibility and Reachability of Police Services	162
5.9 Police Friendliness and Approachability.....	164
5.9.1 Police Respondents	164
5.9.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public	166
5.9.3 Discussion on Police Friendliness and Approachability	167
5.10 Police Visibility	169
5.10.1 Police Visibility: Foot Patrols - Lilongwe Urban.....	170
5.10.1.1 Police Responses	170
5.10.1.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public	171
5.10.1.3 Discussion on Police Visibility: Foot Patrols in Lilongwe Urban	172
5.10.2 Police Visibility: Patrols - Lilongwe Rural	174
5.10.2.1 Police Responses	174
5.10.2.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public	175
5.10.2.3 Discussions on Police Visibility: Patrols in Lilongwe Rural	176
5.10.3 CPF and NHW Visibility and Foot Patrols	177
5.10.3.1 Police Responses	177
5.10.3.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public	178

5.10.3.3 Discussion on CPF and NHW Visibility and Foot Patrols	180
5.11 Rapid Response to Calls of Distress	181
5.11.1 Police responses	182
5.11.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public	184
5.11.3 Discussion on Rapid Response to Calls of Distress	186
5.12 Citizen or Public Trust in the Police	188
5.12.1 Police Respondents	188
5.12.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public	189
5.12.3 Discussion on Citizen or Public Trust in the Police	191
5.13 Trust in Community Police Groups	194
5.13.1. Police Respondents	194
5.13.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public	195
5.13.3 Discussion on Respondents' Trust in Community Police Groups	196
5.14 Chapter Summary	197
CHAPTER 6	202
CHALLENGES AFFECTING COMMUNITY POLICING AS A FORM OF CO- PRODUCTION	202
6.1 Introduction	202
6.2 Corruption	202
6.2.1 Perceptions of Police Officers	203
6.2.2 Perceptions of the Public	204
6.2.3 Discussion on the Challenge of Corruption.....	205
6.3 Human Rights Abuse and Misconduct by CPF and NHW Groups	207

6.3.1	<i>Perceptions of Police Officers</i>	207
6.3.2	<i>Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	208
6.3.3	<i>Discussion on Human Rights Abuse and Misconduct by CPF and NHW</i>	
	<i>Groups</i>	208
6.4	<i>Police Neglect of Their Duties to CPF and NHW</i>	209
6.4.1	<i>Police Respondents</i>	209
6.4.2	<i>Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	210
6.4.3	<i>Discussion on Police Neglect of their Duties to CPF and NHW</i>	211
6.5	<i>Volunteerism</i>	213
6.5.1	<i>Police Respondents</i>	213
6.5.2	<i>Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	214
6.5.3	<i>Discussion on Volunteerism</i>	216
6.6	<i>Lack of Joint Patrols as Motivational Challenge</i>	218
6.6.1	<i>Police Respondents</i>	218
6.6.2	<i>Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	220
6.6.3	<i>Discussion on Lack of Joint Patrols as Motivational Challenge</i>	221
6.7	<i>Attacks, Injuries and Intimidation on CPF and NHW Members</i>	223
6.7.1	<i>Perceptions of Police Officers</i>	223
6.7.2	<i>Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	224
6.7.3	<i>Discussion on Attacks, Injuries and Intimidation on CPF and NHW members</i>	225
6.8	<i>Lack of Police Feedback</i>	227
6.8.1	<i>Perceptions of police officers</i>	227

6.8.2	<i>Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	228
6.8.3	<i>Discussion on Lack of Police Feedback</i>	229
6.9	<i>Inadequate Training in Community Policing</i>	230
6.9.1	<i>Perceptions of Police Officers</i>	231
6.9.2	<i>Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	232
6.9.3	<i>Discussion on Inadequate Training in Community Policing</i>	234
6.10	<i>Attacks on and Intimidation of Police Officers</i>	236
6.10.1	<i>Perceptions of Police Officers</i>	236
6.9.2	<i>Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	237
6.10.3	<i>Discussion on attacks on and intimidation of police officers</i>	238
6.11	<i>Lack of Recognition and Rewards as a Motivational Challenge</i>	239
6.11.1	<i>Perceptions from Police Officers</i>	239
6.11.2	<i>Perceptions of Members of the Public</i>	240
6.11.3	<i>Discussion on Lack of Recognition and Rewards as a Motivational Challenge</i>	241
6.12	<i>Poor Customer Service and Attitude of Police Officers</i>	243

6.12.1 Perceptions of Police Officers	243
6.12.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public	244
6.12.3 Discussion on Poor Customer Service and Attitude of Police Officers	245
6.13 Political Interference	247
6.13.1 Police Respondents	247
6.13.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public	248
6.13.3 Discussion on Political Interference	249
6.14 Resource Challenges	251
6.14.1 Police Respondents	251
6.14.2 Views from Members of the Public	253
6.14.3 Discussion on Resource Challenges	254
6.15 Chapter Summary	256
CHAPTER 7	258
MISSED OPPORTUNITIES OF COMMUNITY POLICING AS A CO-PRODUCTION	258
7.1 Introduction	258
7.2 Community Willingness to Conduct Joint Patrols with Police	258
7.2.1 Police Respondents	259
7.2.2 Views from Members of the Public	259
7.2.3 Discussion on Community Willingness to Conduct Joint Patrols with Police	261
7.3 Community Willingness to Contributions Honorarium for CPF & NHW Volunteers	

.....	262
7.3.1 Police Respondents	262
7.3.2 Views from Members of the Public	264
7.3.3 Discussion on Community Willingness to Contributions Honorarium for CPF & NHW Volunteers	264
7.4 Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and Artificial Intelligence (AI)	266
7.4.1 Police Respondents	266
7.4.2 Views from Members of the Public	267
7.4.3 Discussion on Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and AI ...	269
7.5 Chapter Summary	271
CHAPTER 8	274
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	274
8.1 Introduction	274
8.2.Public Value Benefits of Community Policing as Co-production	276
8.2.1 Enhanced Knowledge and Understanding of the Concept of Community Policing	277
8.2.2 General and Personal Security, Crime Reduction and Reduction in Fear of Crime	278
8.2.3 Community Participation and Involvement in Public Safety and Security	279
8.2.4 Accessibility, Reachability and Friendliness of Police Services	280
8.2.5Police Visibility and Response to Calls of Distress	281

8.3 Challenges Affecting Community Policing as Co-production	283
8.3.1 Corruption and Citizen Mistrust in the Police	284
8.3.2 Police Neglect of Duties	286
8.3.3 Volunteerism and Lack of Recognition and Rewards of CPF and NHW	
Groups	287
8.3.4 Lack of Joint Patrols and Human Rights Abuse by CPF and NHW Groups	288
8.3.5 Attacks on CPF, NHW Members, Police and Damage to Police Infrastructure ..	
.....	289
8.3.6 Inadequate Training on Implementation of Community Policing	290
8.3.7 Poor customer Service, Attitude of Police Officers and Lack of Feedback from	
Police	290
8.3.8 Political Interference	291
8.3.9 Resource Challenges	292
8.4 Missed Opportunities of Community Policing as Form of Co-production	292
8.4.1 Community Willingness to Conduct Joint Patrols with Police.....	293
8.4.2 Willing Community to Make Financial and Material Contributions	293

8.4.3	<i>Information and Communication Technology and Artificial Intelligence.....</i>	294
	8.5 Contributions of the Study	294
8.5.1	<i>Theoretical Contributions</i>	295
8.5.2	<i>Contribution to Policy and Practice</i>	296
8.5.3	<i>Contribution to Literature.....</i>	297
8.5.4	<i>Contribution to Methodology</i>	297
	8.6 Recommendations	298
	8.7 Suggestions for Further Research	300
REFERENCES		303
ANNEXES		328

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Comparing Perspectives: Old Public Administration, New Public Management, New Public Governance and New Public Service.	78
Table 2: Community Policing Structures and Local Government Structures at District Council	87
Table 3: Qualitative Strategies of Inquiry	93
Table 4: Anticipated Sample Size of Participants.....	97

Table 5: Demographic Data	124
Table 6: Views and Perceptions from Members of Public on General Security	137
Table 7: Police Visibility in Lilongwe Urban	172
Table 8: Police Visibility in Lilongwe Rural	175
Table 9: CPF and NHW Visibility	179
Table 10: Corruption as a co-production challenge	203
Table 11: Volunteerism.....	213

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Moore M. Strategic Triangle	44
Figure 2:Data Management Framework	106

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CPC: Crime Prevention Committee.

CPF: Community Police Forum.

CPP: Crime Prevention Panel.

CSO: Civil Society Organisation.

DFID: Department for International Development.

FGD: Focus Group Discussion.

KII: Key Informant Interviews.

MPS: Malawi Police Service.

NHW: Neighbourhood Watch NPG:

New Public Governance.

NPM: New Public Management.

NPS: New Public Service.

OB: Occurrence Book.

TPA: Traditional Public Administration.

CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Community policing as a form of co-production was introduced in Malawi in 1997 (Malawi Police Service, 2002). It is now a major component of crime control in Malawi. At global level, literature has unveiled a huge catalogue of benefits, challenges and missed opportunities associated with community policing as a form of co-production (Olusegun, 2016; Grace, 2022; Masogo et al. 2014; OSCE, 2022). Benefits include: enhanced general and personal safety and security, community participation on issues of safety and security, improved police friendliness and police accessibility and several other benefits. Documented challenges include: corruption, human rights abuse and misconduct by both police officers and members of community police forums and neighbourhood watch groups, lack of joint patrols and neglect of duties by police officers. International studies further revealed that community policing had failed to take full advantage of available opportunities such as information and communication technology (ICT) and artificial intelligence (AI) to improve the performance of the concept.

In Malawi, over the years that community policing as a form of co-production has been practiced, very little on the benefits, challenges and missed opportunities has been documented in academic literature. To the best of this researcher's knowledge and a search in peer reviewed literature, there were about four studies that had addressed the issues in Malawi, with one targeting the whole country (Smith, 2015), another targeting the central region of Malawi (Mutupha & Zhu, 2022) and the remaining studies targeting parts of Lilongwe district (Chipao & Probert, 2019; Ngwala & Adeb, 2023). Of the four studies,

only two were published in well-known peer reviewed journals, while one was in form of a report submitted to sponsors of community policing in Malawi.

A review of the four studies revealed that none conducted an in-depth investigation into benefits, challenges and missed opportunities of community policing as a form of coproduction. Consequently, this study was intended to fill this research gap by conducting an in-depth investigation into benefits, challenges and missed opportunities associated with community policing as a form of co-production in Lilongwe district in Malawi. The study focused on perceptions of the public as well as of the police on how they experienced the phenomenon community policing. The study was conducted in rural geographic areas of Traditional Authority Malili and Traditional Authority Njewa specifically in Chikuni, Ndalama, Kachinda, Jeremani, Mphnda and Chitipi villages, peri-urban Areas of 25, 23 and Chinsapo; in urban low-density areas such as Areas 12, 43, 9, 47, 15 and 49 New Gulliver, and urban high-density areas of Mtandire, Chigwirizano, Senti and Chimoka.

The study makes contribution to knowledge on applicability of New Public Service and Decentralisation theories in community policing research, additional literature on community policing by providing in-depth empirical evidence on benefits, challenges and missed opportunities of community policing as a form co-production in Malawi's Lilongwe district and the use of phenomenological strategy of enquiry in community policing studies. Finally, the thesis argues that although the implementation of community policing as a form of co-production in Lilongwe district was associated with many public

value benefits, it was also marred by a myriad of challenges, many of which concern the practice, trust, behaviour and attitude of police officers and insufficiency of resources.

1.2 Background Information

Community policing as a form of co-producing public safety and security is among the hottest topics in both local and international academic discourse (Smith, 2015; Chipao & Probert, 2019; Mutupha & Zhu, 2022; Ngwala & Adebbe, 2023). Nevertheless, this concept itself is not a new invention across the globe. Community policing as a form of coproduction first appeared in international discourse in United States of America and the United Kingdom in the 1970s (Cordner, 2014). In America, it was mainly adopted to help deal with problems of growing crime, disorder, fear of crime as well as to improve police legitimacy in the eyes of the public (Moore, 1992; Cordner, 2014; Percy, 1987). Since its inception, it has gained greater momentum and has spread across the globe as a best model of policing.

According to Bullock (2013), community policing was adopted to serve as an alternative model to traditional reactive policing styles that heavily relied on motorised patrols in crime and disorder management.

In Malawi, community policing started in 1997, a few years after the change of political system from one party system of government to multipartyism in 1994 (Malawi Police Service, 2002; Sikwese, 2013; Trone, et al., 2005). This arrangement which was first piloted in Lilongwe district was a novel form of cooperation between the citizens in the neighbourhood and members of the Malawi Police Force. Community policing was adopted with a background of substantial weaknesses and deficiencies in traditional forms

of policing which were associated with one party system of government. Under the oneparty system of government, which was authoritarian, the Malawi Police Force served dual roles: preventing and responding to crime and maintaining the power of the then ruling Malawi Congress Party (MCP) (Mutharika, 2003). During this period, the police were mainly used as an oppressive tool to suppress political dissent and people's freedom. They were ill-equipped for crime control and prevention in a democracy where the police are required to work with people. Moreover, the police force was largely unaccountable and lacked the capability to effectively detect criminal activities. Consequently, the Malawi Police Force lacked legitimacy and was distrusted by the population. While there was no real tradition or form of community policing in Malawi, the Malawi Congress Party Youth wing had organised itself in such a way that it provided a form of self-policing that occurred at the local level during the one-party era (Mutharika, 2003).

Soon after community policing was adopted in 1997, several government policy documents recognised community policing as a modern and democratic way of delivering safety and security services in Malawi. Firstly, the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS) pointed to the need for the police to develop better models for partnering with the community and the private sector to provide high performing safety and security services that meet citizens' needs (Malawi Growth and Development III). Secondly, the Malawi Decentralisation Policy of 1998 promoted co-production of public services at local level. The Decentralisation Policy encouraged local citizens to play a huge role at various levels when initiating and implementing local development projects. Thirdly, the MPS integrated community policing into its first ever five-year Strategic Development Plan in 2002, and largely recognised community policing as a major reform tool for the Malawi Police

Service (Malawi Police Strategic Development Plan, 2002).

As a collaborative effort in the fight against crime, community policing was finally legislated through the Police Act of 2010, with Section 119 of the Act specifically emphasising the need to establish and maintain partnership between the police and citizens and promote cooperation to improve service delivery to the community at national, regional, district and local levels, and promote the joint identification of problems and solutions to such problems. The whole of chapter X of the 2010 Police Act was dedicated to community policing. This emphasises the importance of community policing in Malawi.

Under community policing, various structures were established by both conventional police and other stakeholders and such structures included community police forums (CPF), neighbourhood watch schemes (NHW), victim support services, lay visitors scheme, public order management, safe schools' initiative, rural policing, road traffic wardens and several other initiatives.

To augment the importance of citizen participation and partnership in the fight against crime and disorder, the mission of the Malawi Police Service (MPS) was revised to reflect such collaborative efforts. Since 2002, the mission of the MPS reads, 'To provide quality policing services in partnership with the community and all stakeholders'. Through community policing, people with various expertise, skills, resources and lived experiences come together and produce new knowledge and combined skills in the fight against crime and improve public tranquility (Kainja, 2012).

1.3 Problem Statement

The growing crime, public disorder and fear of crime across the world, Malawi inclusive, stimulated citizens to become actively involved in efforts to increase safety and security in their communities (Percy, 1987; Cordner, 2014). While some developed and developing countries such as Australia, Ireland and Mexico portray positive results from community policing as a form of co-production, in most African countries, such as South Africa, Kenya, Nigeria, Uganda, Ghana and Malawi, the exact extent of public value created by this form of co-production is still viewed with pessimism (Newman & Nalla, 2013;

Renauer et al., 2000, p. 9; Clegg et al., 2000, p. 40).

For example, whereas a 2014 study of 5,422 police officers in metropolitan Guadalajara, Mexico, on public value created by community policing as a form of co-production showed that community policing can reduce crime as well as fear of crime when directed to concerns identified by residents (Bullock & Johnson, 2013, p.9-12), a similar and more recent study conducted in South Africa showed conflicting results (Szesclo, 2017).

In his study Szesclo (2017, pp. 145-8) found that co-production of public safety and security in South Africa had met several challenges such that the public value created by community policing remained controversial. In this regard it can be argued that community policing as a form of co-production of public safety and security is bound to produce different results in different contexts in which it is implemented.

Evidence from Malawi's Central Region and Lilongwe district shows that although the need for collaboration between the police and community in the delivery of public safety

and security is widely accepted, only a few studies have attempted to address the issue of benefits, challenges and missed opportunities associated with community policing in an indepth sense (Ngwala & Adebe, 2023; Mutupha & Zhu, 2022; Chipao & Probert, 2019). Only a few elements of benefits, challenges and opportunities were considered by these previous studies. The present study provides a comprehensive analysis of benefits (12), challenges (13) and opportunities (3) associated with community policing as a form of coproduction in Lilongwe, thus adding new knowledge and information in the field of community policing as well as on theory, policy and practical implementation of community policing.

1.4 Main Study Objective

This research aimed to investigate police and community's experiences of community policing as a form of co-producing public safety and security in Malawi's Lilongwe district.

1.4.1 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the present study were three-fold:

- (a) To examine perceived benefits of community policing as a form of co-production by the public and police.
- (b) To analyse the challenges associated with community policing as a form of coproduction by the public and police.
- (c) To explore the opportunities associated with community policing as a form of coproduction by the public and police.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Community policing as a form of co-production has for a couple of decades taken a central stage in discussions bordering on police reform in Lilongwe (Smith, 2015; Chipao & Probert, 2019; Mutupha & Zhu 2022; Ngwala & Adebe, 2023). However, the aspect of benefits, challenges and missed opportunities associated with the phenomenon has not been fully investigated. This phenomenological qualitative study sought to investigate police officers' and community members' experiences with community policing in Lilongwe, Malawi.

The study was chosen because a review of the four studies that were conducted in Malawi particularly the central region and Lilongwe district lacked in-depth investigation into benefits, challenges and missed opportunities of community policing as a form of coproduction. This study was therefore necessary to conduct an in-depth investigation into the phenomenon and make significant contribution to the body of knowledge in theory, policy and practice of community policing, methodology and literature on community policing to academia and the community at large.

1.5.1 Theoretical Significance

The study has the potential to contribute to the application of the New Public Service (NPS) and Decentralisation theories in the implementation of community policing as a form coproducing public safety and security in Malawi (Ozkan, 2016; US Department of Justice, 1994). A number of studies have been conducted on community policing in Malawi (Mutupha & Zhu, 2022, Ngwala & Adebe 2023; Chipao & Probert, 2019). However, evidence shows that none of the previous studies was founded on principles of the NPS

and Decentralisation theories of public management. The central concern of the NPS and Decentralisation theories is to bring public service providers close to the people and allow citizens to participate at all levels of project implementation and service delivery (Denhart & Denhart, 2000). The analysis of NPS and Decentralisation theories will also highlight how partners and stakeholders in community policing as a form of co-production create public value in their communities. Under both the NPS and Decentralisation theories, citizens must be seen as active participants on issues that affect them.

This study will endeavour to explain the relationship between the two theories and community policing. This link could then be used by future scholars studying various aspects of community policing.

1.5.2 Significance to Policy and Practice

The data and findings from this study would contribute to new knowledge on benefits, challenges and opportunities associated with community policing as a form of coproduction. For example, the study will inform the police on the relationship between police visibility, rapid response to calls of distress, accessibility and friendliness and level of trust people have in the police. An understanding of such dynamics would help the police to focus on attributes of trust in their job.

The study would also identify potential benefits that training, capacity building and awareness on community policing concept has to both police officers and members of the community. Such trainings and awareness may enhance police and community's knowledge and understanding of the concept of community policing. In the end it would

be important to ensure that community policing forms part of any training for police officers in Malawi.

Additionally, the study unveils the practical challenges that affect implementation of community policing including police neglect of their duties, abuse of human rights by police and members of CPF and NHW and suggest ways of dealing with such challenges. Findings of the study will also contribute towards achievement of Agenda 2063 by proposing recommendations that will help improve the efficiency and effectiveness of community policing in the creation of a safer and more secure Malawi.

1.5.3 Significance to Literature

The present study provides comprehensive insights into benefits, challenges and opportunities of community policing as a form co-production in Malawi's Lilongwe district. By exploring missed opportunities of community policing as a form of coproduction, this study would add novel literature to community policing in Malawi. It is envisaged that a number of peer reviewed manuscripts will be salvaged and published from findings of this study thus contributing to a pool of knowledge in the field or area of community policing.

1.5.4 Methodological Significance

This study may contribute to research methodologies that would be used by future researchers when studying the phenomenon community policing. By adopting a phenomenological strategy of enquiry as opposed to case study strategy of enquiry which has dominated most previous studies on community policing, the present study adds to

phenomenological strategy of enquiry to a list of potential methodologies that would be applicable when studying community policing.

1.6 Chapter Summary

Community policing as a means of co-producing public safety and security in Malawi's Lilongwe district has been practiced since 1997. In some countries community policing is touted as very beneficial in the co-production of public safety and security. In other countries, it remains contentious as to the exact forms of public value benefits that community policing creates. At the same time there seems to be a mismatch between what police officers in various countries consider to be public value of community policing and what members of the community, civil society leaders, community policing groups and members of neighbourhood watch groups consider to be the public value created by community policing. In this regard it can be argued that different contexts in which community policing as a form of co-production of public safety and security is implemented, it is bound to produce different results. Thus, the debate on the forms of public value benefits of community policing as a form of co-producing public safety and security continues to grow. The debate has expanded to the challenges and missed opportunities associated with community policing as a form of co-production.

This chapter has presented the introduction, background information to the study, problem statement, main and specific objectives of the study and significance of the study. The main objective of this study was to investigate police and community experiences of community policing as a form of co-producing public safety and security in Malawi's Lilongwe district by examining perceptions of the police, civil society leaders, members of various

community police groups and views of members of the community on the various form of public value benefits, challenges and missed opportunities associated with community policing.

The major driver of the study was lack of in-depth studies on various forms of public value benefits, challenges and missed opportunities of community policing as a form of coproduction in Malawi's Lilongwe district. The findings of this study will provide more clarity and in-depth understanding of various forms of public value benefits, challenges and missed opportunities associated with community policing as a form co-production in the area of public safety and security in Malawi's Lilongwe district.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature relevant to community policing as a form of co-production to create an understanding of the gap the study is addressing. The chapter focuses on international, regional and national literature that covers conceptual understanding of community policing, co-production, public value benefits of community policing as a coproduction. Coverage includes general and individual security, police visibility, citizen participation, police accessibility, police-citizen relations; challenges such as mistrust between police and citizens, corruption, police responsiveness, volunteerism, customer care and joint patrols and some opportunities affecting community policing such as coproduction information and communication technology and artificial intelligence.

2.2 Origin and Development of Co-production

The term ‘co-production’ dates back to the 1970s (OECD, 2011, p. 28). It originally related to the direct involvement of citizens or clients in the public or private sector in the production of services.

After its first emergence in the 1970s, thanks to the research activity of Elinor Ostrom and her colleagues from Indiana University, co-production was not much used in the subsequent years as other models of public service reforms were so predominant, only to be added to the institutional arrangement available to public sector organisations very recently, in the post-New Public Management era (Ostrom & Ostrom, 1971; Fungi et al., 2016, p. 14). Co-production attracted little official interest at the start, as the concept was

primarily seen as relating to volunteers making it dependent on altruism, an approach that did not mesh well with the market principles advocated by Thatcher and Reagan (Parks et al., 1981). The emphasis on volunteerism overshadowed models of co-production by clients and thus, the potential to collaborate with users to improve service delivery was not fully explored.

From the 1980s onwards, the models of public service improvements were predominantly managerial, under New Public Management (NPM) with an emphasis on markets and competition, public choice, transaction cost, and principal-agent and new forms of performance management (Hood, 1991, p. 6). The main policy thrust in the 1980s was to improve efficiency in service delivery and enhance service quality. Unlike the Traditional Public Administration, which focused a lot on following procedures, the bureaucracy and merit based public servants, New Public Management approach shifted the organisational focus from internal processes and administrative procedures to an external focus on the customer (Huges, 2003). The models of public service reform, under NPM focused on achieving professionalised service delivery to customers, clients and users to improve quality and achieve value for money.

It is clear that co-production was introduced mainly to improve quality of service delivery with full participation and contribution of users of that service.

2.3 Definition of Co-production

The concept and the practice of co-production continues to gain popularity among public policy makers, public managers, professionals, academics and by society in general

(Loeffler & Bovaird, 2019; Gawłowski, 2018, p. 73; Fungi et al., 2016, p. 1; Eijk & Steen,

2014). It initially appeared in the work of Elinor Ostrom and her research group in the 1970s to define the empirical phenomena of citizens contributing to the production of public goods and services alongside professionals (Silvestre et al., 2016, p. 354; Ostrom et al., 1978; Van Eijk et al., 2017).

Since the work of Ostrom, myriad definitions of co-production have existed (OECD, 2011, p. 31). To begin with, Pestoff (2011, p. 2) defined co-production as ‘the potential relationships that could exist between the “regular” producer (street-level police officers, schoolteachers, or health workers) and “clients” who want to be transformed into safer, better educated, or healthier people’. Norman (1984 cited in Loeffler and Watt, 2009) defined co-production as ‘working with or in the place of professionals where citizens and users more directly participate in the production or delivery of public service’ (see also Byle et al., 2006). In this case, citizens and users become contributors rather than passive recipients and undertake some of the activities formerly carried out by professionals. On the other hand, Parks et al. (1981, p. x) defined co-production as ‘the mix of activities that both public service agents and citizens contribute to the provision of public services’.

The former is involved as professionals, or “regular producers”, while “citizen production” is based on voluntary efforts by individuals and groups to enhance the quality and/or quantity of the services they use’ (Pestoff, 2006, p. 506).

As the debate on the definition continued, Parks et al. (1981) and Silvestre et al. (2016) brought in the aspect of volunteerism into the definition. Parks et al. (1981) and Silvestre et al. (2016, p. 354) defined co-production as ‘all actions where citizens assist, as volunteers, in the provision of services by public agencies in order to increase the

efficiency and efficacy of the public services provided'. In their works, they cited several areas of government where the practice of co-production had widely been adopted, including

'resolution of conflicts, health services, agriculture, finance, education as well as public safety and security among others' (Brandsen et al., 2018, p. 3 cited in Brandsen et al., 2018).

These varying definitions of co-production have created some theoretical and analytical confusion in the co-production discourse (OECD, 2011). For example, from the above definitions, it remains unclear as to which path co-production is supposed to take. Should co-production take the path of volunteerism, or should it be participation of any form? Or both? Secondly, Roberts (2004) presented co-production as an example of citizen participation.

This was in direct contrast with initial definitions of co-production, which regarded participation as an element of co-production and not vice versa. In his study, Roberts argued that participation was broader than co-production. He postulated that participation comes in many guises, being captured by a multitude of terms including involvement, engagement, empowerment, co-production, and more recently co-creation; each of which has its own distinct nuances. He defined participation the same way as other authors had defined co-production. According to Roberts (2004), participation was broadly defined as the process by which citizens can share power with public officials in taking substantive decisions or actions related to the community.

That was one of the reasons OECD (2011) argued that the above definitions created a theoretical and analytical confusion in the co-production discourse. In this regard, OECD views co-production as a process with several stages, where citizens are allowed to participate at each and every stage of that process. Involvement of citizens at various levels increased the democratic level of participation. Thus OECD (2011) defined co-production as ‘a way of planning, designing, delivering and evaluating public services which draws on direct input from citizens, service users and civil society organisations’. This definition agreed with what Loeffler (2009) proposed, that any meaningful definition of coproduction must focus on measuring the contribution of the partnership between citizens or users and service professionals, with a lot of emphasis placed on outcomes and/or creation of public value emanating from such collaboration. Loeffler argued that meaningful co-production requires regular and/or long-term relationship and direct input from citizens and/or users. Thus, by allowing citizens to participate at every stage of service delivery, OECD brings in an element of continuous quality control, citizen empowerment and accountability which results in better outcomes and public value.

Despite some confusion in the definition of co-production, the common element that stands out in these definitions is that they all share a notion that citizens and users can be a potential public service resource: a particularly significant idea in the context of declining public resources (OECD, 2011). This element is in line with the proposition by Loeffler (2009), that any meaningful co-production must aim at creating public value. Considering the ongoing debate over what is and what exactly should be included under the coproduction construct, this study adopts the definition of co-production as defined by OEDC (2011) and complemented by the ‘public value creation school’ of Loeffler. The

main argument is that, citizens and users of public service are a crucial partner to ensure the end product or end service is of great quality. This is achieved through continuous quality control throughout the service production chain.

2.4 Typologies of Co-production

Academics and researchers have used varied criteria to define and categorise various types of co-production, such as its objectives, and the relationships, roles, and interactions of professional service providers and users or service beneficiaries (Bovaird, 2007; Brudney & England, 1983). A recent typology of co-production by Nabatchi et al. (2017) defines three levels of co-production.

First, ‘individual level co-production which occurs when a professional state actor works directly with a single unqualified actor (typically a client or customer)’. This is probably the most common form of co-production. The second group of co-production happens when one or more professional state actors work directly and simultaneously with a number of unqualified actors in a specific population category (e.g., users of a specific service, residents of a specific neighbourhood, or patients with a specific disease). This type of coproduction begins to take on some of the characteristics related to traditional concepts of public participation (Nabatchi et al., 2017). Lastly, collective co-production happens when one or several professional state actors (from one or several organisations) work directly and simultaneously with numerous unqualified actors who are diverse members of the community (Nabatchi et al., 2017). This form of co-production most closely resembles modern type of public participation. Each of these forms of co-production can happen during any of the four phases of the service cycle which are ‘*commissioning, design, delivery, and assessment*’. The degree and nature of the actors’ involvement and

interactions differ across the levels of co-production, which in turn means that each type of co-production is likely to have different empowerment effects on participants. Specifically, individual co-production may generate empowerment at the individual level; group co-production may generate empowerment at both the group and individual levels; and collective co-production may generate empowerment at the community, group, and individual levels (Nabatchi et al., 2017). This typology of co-production is founded on a theory of individual, community or organisational empowerment.

The other typology of co-production is based on two variables; viz: the extent to which citizens are involved in the design of services that they individually receive and whether the co-production concerns core services of the organisation or complementary activities and the proximity of co-production to the primary process (Brandsen & Honingh, 2015, p. 31). This differentiation helps improve an understanding of how design of a co-production process is linked to specific outcomes and can support evidence-based design principles. This typology of co-production advocated by Brandsen and Honingh (2015) is markedly different from the one proposed by Brudney and England (1983) in their classic article, which uses the categories of individual, group, and collective co-production. Considering the changes in co-production research, this classical categorisation of co-production has been revised to the new categorisation. Brudney and England's typology was mainly linked to the outcomes of co-production or the nature of the benefits received from co-production (1983, p. 62). Such an approach has been criticized as being conceptually less useful in the study of co-production. It is for this reasons that Brandsen and Honingh proposed a typology based on how co-production is linked to the design of the service, without assuming what it should or does achieve. For this study, individual and collective forms of

co-production as proposed by Nabatchi (2017) are very crucial and form a greater reference to the study. This is the case because community policing as the form of co-producing public safety and security mainly relies on individual and collection participation.

2.5 Community Policing as a Form of Co-producing Public Safety and Security

The movement to embrace co-production in the area of public safety and security gained greater momentum in the late 1970s with the introduction of community policing as a tool to encourage citizens to actively participate in crime prevention efforts within their localities (Moore, 1992; Cordner, 2014, 170). Evidence shows that community policing as a model of co-producing public safety and security services began in the United States and the United Kingdom in an attempt to increase the legitimacy of the police in the eyes of citizens (Cordner, 2014).

However, Carter and Radelet (2002 cited in Cordner, 2014, p. 148) argued that community policing as a philosophy, dates back to the era of Sir Robert Peel and his often-cited principle that ‘the police are the people, and the people are the police’, laid down in 1829, community policing served as an alternative to traditional, reactive policing styles that heavily relied on motorized patrols, rapid response to criminal acts and disorder, and enforcement of criminal law (Bullock, 2013). Other approaches to co-production of public safety and security include neighborhood watch, CCTV cameras, property marking, watch dogs, purchasing of guns, vigilantism, safe school’s initiative and private security guards (Szescilo, 2017, p.146; Percy 1987; Eijk et al., 2017, p.323).

Community policing manifests itself very differently in different parts of the world including in African countries such as Kenya, Gambia, Madagascar, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia and Malawi (Newman & Nalla, 2013).

While there is some similarity between community policing occurring in Malawi and South Africa, there are huge disparities with community policing occurring in Kenya, Gambia and Madagascar (Newman & Nalla, 2013). For example, in Gambia community policing existed as an informal and parallel form of law enforcement and criminal justice management. In Madagascar, community policing was interpreted within the context of 'Fokonolona', which meant a group of people living together within a village or Malagasy indigenous community. All members of Fokonolona are born and live in the same communal territory.

In Kenya, community policing is often referred to as Nyumba Kumi, which means several houses coming together to provide security. On the other hand, community policing implemented in Malawi and South Africa was highly formalised and well legislated resembling the American and British approach. With such contextual disparities, the results of community policing as a form of co-production may not be uniform across countries.

Unlike in other African countries such as South Africa, where community policing was adopted mainly as a consequence of police inefficiency and the failure to tackle the high rates of crime, in Malawi community policing was mainly adopted as a tool to transform and reconfigure the police from force to a more service and human rights-oriented organisation as a result of inefficiencies. The community policing model introduced in

Malawi was largely an adaptation of the Western European and American principles, emphasising democratic control, accountability, impartiality, transparency and a demilitarised style of policing. Social crime prevention became a key area of focus, and problem-solving approaches were emphasised (OECD DAC Handbook, 2007, p. 179). Community Police Forums (CPF) were established and were designed to be the link between local communities and the new Malawi Police Service. The initial phase of its implementation was problematic due to structural and cultural background of the then Malawi Police Force. There was some initial significant institutional resistance to community policing principles. However, after a few years, community policing gained momentum and has since received massive support from government, civil society organisations and private citizens, albeit with diverse focus.

It needs to be reiterated, that much as community policing has gained momentum in Malawi's Lilongwe district and other parts of the country, not much has been done to appreciate the exact extent of the momentum. The benefits, challenges and missed opportunities of the phenomenon have not been wholistically studied. A few studies that have addressed the phenomenon provide very limited scope of benefits, challenges and missed opportunities of community policing as a form of co-production.

2.6 Community Policing: The Concept, Definition and Goals

Community policing means many things to many people (Cordner, 2014, p. 154). This is due, in part, to vastly different contexts in the ways in which community policing has been used and implemented. As it developed in the 1980s, community policing and its proponents were frequently criticised for failing to provide a clear definition, and it was

often called ‘old wine in new bottles’ (Bayley, 1988). Formal concept of community policing began in the late 1970s in the United States and the United Kingdom in an attempt to increase the legitimacy of the police in the eyes of citizens (Moore, 1992, p. 99; Corder, 2014, p. 148). It was an intentional re-introduction of olden ‘beat cop’ approach to dealing with crime and disorder where police officers conducted patrols every day and on foot in neighborhoods, getting to know and becoming respected by the community. The approach serves as an alternative to traditional, reactive policing styles that rely on motorised patrols, rapid response to criminal acts and disorder, and enforcement of criminal law (Bullock, 2013).

According to OSCE (2008, p. 5), ‘community policing is defined as a philosophy and organisational strategy that promotes a partnership-based, collaborative effort between the police and the community to more effectively and efficiently identify, prevent and solve problems of crime, the fear of crime, physical and social disorder, and neighbourhood decay in order to improve the quality of life for everyone’. In agreement with OSCE (2008), Moore (1992) and Corder (2014) also defined community policing as ‘a philosophy that promotes organisational strategies, which support the systematic use of working partnerships and problem-solving techniques between police and community, to proactively address the immediate conditions that give rise to public safety issues such as crime, social disorder, and fear of crime’. In the co-production discourse, community policing can be described as ‘the concept where police officers and private citizens and communities work together in creative ways to help solve contemporary community problems’ (Trajanowicz et al., 1998, p. 3).

In Malawi, the Manual on Community Policing (2019) defines ‘community policing as a strategy that allows the police and the community to work together to jointly solve problems of crime and security’. Community policing focuses on building confidence and partnerships between the public and security agencies. The manual postulates that community policing was, therefore, a deliberate effort by community members and security agencies to partner in sharing information to address security concerns in a locality. The manual further defined community policing as a new philosophy of police work, based on the idea that police officers and the community can work together, resolving in various creative ways problems at the level of the local community relating to crime, fear of crime, various forms of social deviance, and several other safety challenges. Behind this philosophy was a belief that in order to achieve these objectives, the police must develop new quality relationships with law-abiding citizens, whereby these citizens will have the chance to define priorities, get involved in various activities so as to enhance the overall quality of life in the local communities in which they live (Manual on Community Policing,

2019, p. 1). Mutupha and Zhu (2022, p. 3) also define community policing as ‘a policy and a strategy aimed at achieving more effective and efficient crime control, reduced fear of crime, improved quality of life, improved police services and police legitimacy, through a proactive reliance on community resources that seek to change crime causing conditions.

In this study, community policing is described as ‘a police-oriented affair having to deal with how officers will adopt new strategies by collaborating with the community in preventing crime and promoting the sense of security’ (Yero et al., 2012, p. 53). It is

important that community policing begins with changing the mindset, practices, attitudes and behaviours of police officers so that their efforts are citizen-centered.

Evidence shows that change of attitude and mindset of police officers' perceptions of citizens helps to improve efficiency in gathering information and receiving support from the public. The tone and the manner in which the police communicate with citizens also affects how the public perceives the police. Officers' attitudes toward the public also influence how citizens are treated during their interactions with the police (Jacobs et. al, 2021). Failure by police to change would result in failure of the whole strategy of community policing.

2.6.1 Goals of Community Policing

At international level, Portland State University (2011, p. 6) and Jacobs et al. (2021) argue that there are many goals associated with community-based policing programmes. The objectives can be as simple as enhancing road traffic safety and security of school-going children or as complex as dealing with gender-based violence or as difficult citizen participation in apprehending criminal suspects. All community policing programmes, however, strive to establish and maintain successful working relationships between police agencies and the public with the intent to reduce crime (Wehrman & DeAngelis, 2011, p. 51; Chappell, 2009, p. 7). Community policing programmes are not imposed from the outside; they emerge from discussions about neighborhood problems and how best to respond to these problems by residents of the neighborhood. In situations where it is the community that has initiated the partnership between the police and the people, this is usually termed 'community-oriented policing (Yero, 2012)', which means that it the people

themselves who took the initiative to compliment police efforts towards crime control and prevention in their area for the betterment of their community.

These partnerships are created to build constructive solid relationships between local communities and police officers. Through good relationship there is huge amount of information exchanged between police agencies and citizens and there is more willingness from the public to cooperate with the police regarding crimes occurring within their neighborhoods (Wells et al., 2006, p. 525).

Other proponents viewed community policing as a way to improve citizen attitudes toward the police and to encourage their cooperation in preventing crime and apprehending criminals (Cordner, 2014). Thus Bayley (1988) and Sparrow et al. (1990) argue that the fundamental idea behind community policing, is that effective working partnerships between the police and the community can play an important role in reducing crime and promoting security. It is Bayley's argument that community policing emphasises that the citizens themselves are the first line of defence in the fight against crime. Recently, more rigorous research has shown that community policing can reduce crime when directed to concerns identified by residents (Bullock, 2013), but it can also create new forms of disorder, social strife, and exclusion, particularly when used to extend the reach of an under-staffed, under-resourced, and unaccountable police force (Ruteere & Pommerolle, 2003).

In Malawi, according to the Manual on Community Policing (2018, p. 24) the main goal of community policing was to bridge the gap between the police and the community.

Additionally, part XI, section 119 of the Police Act of 2010 provides the following as key objectives of community policing:

- (a) Establishing and maintaining partnership between police and the community;
- (b) Promoting communication between the police and the community;
- (c) Promoting cooperation between the police and the community in fulfilling the needs of the community regarding policing;
- (d) Improving the rendering of police services to the community at national, regional and district levels;
- (e) Improving transparency in the police service and accountability of the police to the community and;
- (f) Promoting joint identification of problems and solving of such problems by the police and the community.

2.7 Dimensions of Community Policing

There are many dimensions of community policing. But for purposes of this study, we discussed only four major dimensions of community policing along with the most common elements associated with each dimension as described by OSCE (2008); Moore (1992); Cordner (2016, p. 37); SEESAC (2006) and other scholars as follows:

2.7.1 The Philosophical Dimension

Prominent advocates and proponents of community policing heralded community policing as a new philosophy of policing, perhaps constituting even a paradigm shift away from professional-model policing, and not just a temporary programme or specialised activity

(Kelling, 1988). The philosophical aspect involved incorporating community policing ideals within the organisation.

The philosophical dimension is commonly found within a mission statement and/or a department's mandates and objectives (Cordner & Scarborough, 1997). For example, 'community participation' was clearly included in the mission of the Malawi Police Service as well in the preamble of the Police Act of 2010. The philosophical dimension was premised on the belief that, for the police to control and prevent crime, the public and the community must build trust and partnerships with each other, police must build trust and develop a partnership between themselves and the public (OSCE, 2008, p. 23). This partnership needs to be characterised by mutual responsiveness and an equal footing for both partners. As a philosophy, SEESAC (2006) argued that the central idea and belief of community policing was the achievement of a safe and secure community through three main ways vis: - *citizen input into service delivery, broadening the function of the police, and personalising safety and security service by ensuring great care personal attachment to the people police professionals serve.*

Through *citizen input into service delivery*, community policing incorporates a firm commitment to the value and necessity of citizen contribution to police policies and priorities. In a free and democratic society, citizens were supposed to have a say in how they are governed. Police departments, like other agencies of government, were supposed to be responsive and accountable. Also, from a more selfish standpoint, law enforcement agencies were most likely to obtain the citizen support and cooperation they need when they display interest in input from citizens. A few of the techniques utilised to enhance

citizen input include advisory boards, community surveys, community meetings, and radio/television call-in shows. Today, agencies are increasingly using their web pages and social media as additional means of soliciting citizen input.

Through *broadening the functions of the police*, community policing regards policing as a broad function, not a narrow law enforcement or crime fighting role. The job of police officers is seen as working with residents to enhance neighborhood safety. This includes resolving conflicts, helping victims, preventing accidents, solving problems, and fighting fear (Cordner, 2010) as well as reducing crime through apprehension and enforcement. Policing is inherently a multi-faceted government function. Arbitrarily narrowing it to just call-handling and law enforcement reduces its effectiveness in accomplishing the multiple objectives that the public expects police to achieve. Some examples of the broad function of policing include traffic safety education for schools and the community, drug abuse prevention, search and rescue, and protecting lives of vulnerable groups such as women, children, the elderly, disabled, persons with albinism, the homeless and the mentally challenged people (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990, iv).

By emphasising *empathetical and personalising service*, community policing contrasts bureaucratic behaviour. Personalised service helps to overcome one of the most common complaints that the public has about government employees, including police officers; that they do not seem to care, and that they treat citizens as numbers, not real people. Of course, not every police-citizen encounter can be amicable and friendly. But whenever possible, officers should deal with citizens in a friendly, open, and personal manner designed to turn them into satisfied customers. This can best be accomplished by eliminating as many

artificial bureaucratic barriers as possible, so that citizens can deal directly with ‘their’ officer. A few of the methods that have been adopted in order to implement personalized service are customer relations training, officer business cards, and victim/complainant recontact procedures. Modern technologies including cell phones, e-mail, and social media have opened up new methods by which police agencies can deliver services to people and by which community residents can contact ‘their’ police officer directly.

2.7.2 The Strategic Dimension

The strategic dimension denotes incorporation of the ideals of community policing into policies, procedures, circulars and protocols, and most importantly, the allocation of adequate resources to strategies consistent with community policing philosophy discussed above (Corder, 2016, p. 37; Moore, 1992; OSCE, 2008, p. 25). Three important aspects that can be examined to assess the degree to which a police agency has adopted the strategic component of community policing include *re-oriented operations*, *prevention emphasis*, and *geographic focus*. Each of the three elements is discussed below as follows:

Re-oriented operations mainly advocate for police agencies that are less reliant on the patrol car but put more emphasis on face-to-face interactions with the communities they serve through tactics such as foot patrols within the community. This approach helps to replace ineffective operational practices such as motorised patrol and rapid response when responding to less priority crimes within the locality. More interactive approaches help the police to improve resource allocations to its traditional functions such as rapid response to emergency calls and conducting follow-up investigations. Prominent illustrations of reoriented operations include foot patrol, bicycle patrol, directed patrol, differential

responses to calls for service, and case screening for more targeted investigations. Current initiatives associated with hot spots policing, intelligence-led policing, smart policing, and predictive policing also fit into this category (Ratcliffe, 2008).

Prevention Emphasis Community Policing is based on the common-sense idea that although citizens appreciate and value rapid response, reactive investigations, and apprehension of wrongdoers, they would always prefer that their victimisations be prevented in the first place. Most modern police departments devote some resources to crime prevention, in the form of a specialist officer or unit. Community policing attempts to go farther by emphasizing that prevention is a big part of every officer's job. A few of the approaches to focusing on prevention that departments have adopted are situational crime prevention, crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED), youth-oriented prevention, and a variety of programmes involving schools, communities, landlords, and businesses.

With regard to homeland security, community policing emphasises that police officers are not just first responders, but also first preventers (Kelling, 1988). *Geographic Focus Community Policing* strives to establish stronger relations between police officers and the neighborhood community in order to increase mutual recognition, identification, responsibility, and accountability in furtherance of strengthening social organisation, security, and collective efficacy in neighborhoods (Eijk et al., 2017). Although most police departments continue to deploy patrol officers to beats duties, evidence shows that the officers' real accountability has usually been temporal, focusing on their shift only rather than accountability for the geographic area to which they are deployed. More specialised

personnel within law enforcement agencies (such as detectives) have similarly been accountable for performing their respective functions, but not usually for any geographic areas.

By its very name, however, community policing implies an emphasis on geographic locations more than work shifts or functions. Some of the methods by which community policing attempts to emphasise geography are permanent beat assignments, lead officers, beat teams, mini-stations, and area commanders.

2.7.3 The Tactical Dimension

The tactical dimension in the implementation of community policing involves the establishment 'on the ground' of crime prevention programmes and problem-oriented policing. It focuses on translating the ideas, concepts, philosophies, and strategies into some concrete programmes, tactics, and behaviours.

Although some scholars argue that 'community policing is a philosophy, not a programme', at some point they concede that unless community policing eventually leads to some action, some new or different behaviour, it is all rhetoric and no reality (Moore, 1992, p. 105). The tactical dimension focuses on three key elements of community policing that are of great benefit as follows: positive interaction with the community, partnerships with stakeholders, and joint problem solving between the police and the communities.

Positive Interaction Policing involves some elements of negative contacts and confrontation between officers and citizens. Such negative contact includes arrests, traffic tickets and stops and search of suspicious individuals.

Partnerships Community Policing emphasizes the significance of active partnerships between police, other agencies, and citizens, in which all parties work collectively to identify and solve community challenges. Citizens can take a greater role in public safety than has been typical over the past few decades, and other public and private agencies can leverage their own resources and authority to provide solutions to public safety and security challenges. Of course, there are some legal and safety limitations on how extensive a role citizens can play in co-producing public safety. Just as obviously, it is a mistake for the police to try to assume the entire burden for controlling crime and disorder on themselves. Partnerships can take many forms including community police forums, neighbourhood watch groups, police-safe schools initiatives, landlord associations and even citizen patrols in their localities.

Problem Solving Community Policing encourages and promotes the adoption of a problemsolving orientation toward policing, as opposed to the incident-oriented approach that has tended to prevail in conjunction with the professional model (Pino, 2001, p. 200). Emergency calls must still be handled right away, and police officers will still spend much of their time handling individual incidents as they occur. Whenever possible, however, officers are encouraged and should search for the fundamental conditions that are a cause to single and multiple incidents. When such underlying conditions are identified, police officers should try to deal with them as a means of controlling and averting future incidents.

Typical elements of problem-solving community policing include the SARA (Scanning, Analysis, Response, Assessment) process, the crime triangle, a commitment to carefully analysing specific crime and disorder problems and a bias toward sharing the responsibility for problem solving with the community and with other public and private institutions (OSCE, 2008).

2.7.4 The Organizational Dimension

The way an organisation is arranged always affects implementation of its strategies. The organisational dimension of community policing encourages police department to consider a variety of changes in the way the police is organised, administration is done, supervision and other internal systems are arranged as well as changing the culture and behaviour of work groups and individuals (Moore, 1992, p. 103). Such organisational changes include introduction of new and more decentralised structures into the police, such as a separate coordination unit for community policing to facilitate successful implementation of community policing as a strategy and new way of managing community-related information. Main areas of focus under the organisational dimension include restructuring of police organisations, leadership/management change in implementation of community policing, and adopting information-based community policing. Each of the above three dimensions are discussed below.

Restructuring of police agencies focuses on changing the structure of police organisations in order to facilitate and support implementation of the philosophical, strategic, and tactical elements described above (SEESAC, 2006).

Any organisation's structure should correspond with its mission and its technology (i.e., the nature of the work performed by its members and the processes it uses to transform inputs into outputs and outcomes). Some characteristics of traditional police organisation structure seem more suited to routine bureaucratic work than to the discretion and creativity required for community policing. The types of restructuring associated with community policing include decentralisation, flattening of the hierarchy, de-specialisation, teams, and civilianisation.

Leadership or management changes in implementation of community policing are often associated with styles of leadership, management, and supervision that give more emphasis to organisational culture and values and less emphasis to written rules and formal discipline (SEESAC, 2006). The general argument is that when employees are guided by a set of formally sanctioned values, they will usually make good decisions and take appropriate actions. Although many formal rules will still be necessary, managers might need to resort to them much less often in order to maintain control over subordinates. Management practices consistent with this emphasis on organisational culture and values include mission and value statements, strategic planning, mentoring and coaching, and positive discipline. Stress is put on empowering officers and taking full advantage of their talents and creativity than mere respect for ranks (SEESAC, 2006, p. 10). In the ever-changing quality versus quantity debate, it is important that community policing focuses on both dimensions of the debate.

Information Based Community Policing helps the police to embrace qualitative and quantitative community policing. Studies show that, in many instances, community

policing focuses more on quality and avoids the traditional bean-counting (e.g., arrests and traffic tickets) to measure success, more concern for how well calls are handled versus merely how quickly they are handled and many other qualities versus quantity aspects.

From the foregoing presentation, it is clear that police and scholars agree that successful crime-fighting requires police and residents to co-produce public safety and security. For example, Lau and Ali (2019) in their most recent study found that police and citizen involvement in crime prevention are effective in reducing crime. In their study they discovered that the higher the frequency of police and citizen involvement in crime prevention patrols, the lesser the level of crime. Thus, with increased joint patrol by police and citizen in the neighbourhood, the level of crime became lower, and safety was improved, and this was particularly valid in the case of the nine geographical areas covered under Kuching police district in Malaysia.

In another example, Sabet (2014, p. 6), using statistics from a survey result of 5,422 police officers in metropolitan Guadalajara, Mexico, found that forty-five percent of respondents felt that the most effective factor in combating crime was increasing community participation, as compared to increasing the number of police (14%), investing in more equipment (13%), and ending corruption (26%). He indicates that citizens can, among others, anonymously report crime, provide actionable intelligence to the police, serve as witnesses in court proceedings, and take preventative measures.

2.8 Co-production, Crime Control and Community Policing

Citizens, including volunteers, watch groups, school teachers, religious groups faith-based organisations and others, have long participated in diverse ways in the fight against crime and disorder (Bullock & Johnson, 2016). Today, citizens across the world volunteer as community watch groups, form street patrols and, through collaborating with the police, identify and resolve crime, disorder and antisocial problems that include drugs issues in the name of community policing (Bullock & Johnson, 2016). While there was a clearly long history of citizen participation in the co-production of crime control, the role played by citizens and the level of participation varied markedly in different contexts. The benefits from such collaboration also varied markedly in different countries. Similarly, the challenges accompanying such collaboration were never the same.

For example, in England and Wales co-production of public safety was situated within the neo-liberal Conservative administrations of the 1980s and 1990s, which stressed the desirability of rolling back the state, improving the efficiency of public services and promoting volunteerism and community/citizen action (Crawford, 1999; Bullock, 2014). It was into this political and economic context that Neighbourhood Watch (NW) became established in England and Wales. Neighbourhood Watch brings neighbours together to act as the ‘eyes and ears’ of the police through watching out for suspicious behaviours in their neighbourhoods and reporting them, and to protect their properties and those of their neighbours (Rosenbaum, 1987). On the other hand, in most African countries Neighbourhood Watch was mainly as a result of community willingness in a social cohesion to protect themselves and their properties, such as cattle.

Further, while co-production has been promoted as a way of increasing the effectiveness and cost efficiency in crime control in most developed countries (Ostrom, 1996; Pestoff, 2009; Osborne et al., 2016; Van Eijk et al., 2017), in most African countries, Malawi inclusive, the objectives and achievements of co-production have varied markedly. For example, some literature from Mexico and South Africa argues that for governments to encourage citizens to collaborate and get more involved in the production of public safety and security, was tantamount to acknowledging its inability to resolve issues fundamental to a government's basic obligations on provision of public safety and security. Thus, by inviting private citizens to co-produce public safety and security the government declared itself ineffectual (Szescilo, 2017).

On the other hand, some argue that the production of public goods, including public safety, is a joint responsibility of government and citizens.

In a democratic context, they argued, citizens were obligated to get involved in the decision-making process and the implementation of efforts geared towards the production of public goods, including public safety.

2.9 Public Value or Benefits of Community Policing

After discussing the concepts co-production and community policing, this section briefly discusses the concept public value in relation to co-production and community policing, and how this public value can be measured in the area of community policing.

The rise of the concept of public value can be seen as part of a historical trend in the shift from top-down government towards more collaborative governance, in which the focus is

more on the relations between government and other actors including private citizens (Pierre, 2000; Klijn & Koppenjan, 2016). In the Traditional Public Administration, the representative bodies of elected politicians were most important in defining the public interest with little to no input from the public or common citizens (Stoker, 2006). The New Public Management approach that followed was more focused on the belief in the efficacy and efficiency of markets, belief in economic rationality, and the push away from large centralised government agencies (Moynihan, 2006). Under the New Public Management, the public interest was defined based on the individual preferences of the client or customer of the public organisation, so the experience of the customer was also an important input (Stoker, 2006). However, in the emerging Public Value Management approach that we see nowadays, governing is not seen as buying and selling goods in a market economy.

That is why in defining the public interest in this approach, individual and public preferences are produced through complex processes of interaction that involves deliberative reflection over inputs and costs (Stoker, 2006). With this Public Value Management approach, the public sector can contribute to a good society, and does not see it as the result of 'market failure' (Tablot, 2011). In order to determine public value created by community policing as a means of co-producing public safety and security, it was important the study pays some attention to the concept of public value using Moore's Strategic Triangle (Moore, 1995). Public value theory emphasises that to achieve greater benefits, the public sector should be guided by needs and demands of citizens when delivering public services. Moore's strategic triangle was, therefore, used to analyse public value benefits that were created when the community was involved in the provision of community safety and security in their localities.

2.9.1 Different Approaches to Public Value

There are diverse approaches to the notion of public value, and we can identify different streams. The first major scholar to explore the concept of public value was Mark Moore (1995) and he stated that public managers are the ones that should try to create public value (Moore, 1994). He developed this approach as a counterpart of management in the private sector. According to Moore, the public sector was more ambiguous since it was harder to measure if value had been created since making a profit was not the aim of public organisations.

Besides that, the role of managers was less clear because what was being produced and valued in the public sector was not always a physical product or service consumed by individual beneficiaries (Moore, 1995). In order to appreciate if public managers are creating public value, Moore developed a strategic triangle that guides public managers.

Another scholar who has written a lot on public value creation is Bozeman. Unlike Moore, Bozeman (2007) puts more emphasis on the policy and societal level, instead of the managerial level. Bozeman (2007) defines public value as: ‘those providing normative consensus about: 1) the rights, benefits and prerogatives to which citizens should (and should not) be entitled; 2) the obligations of citizens to society, the state and one another; and 3) the principles on which governments and policies should be based’ (p.17). Besides that, he talked about public value failure when neither the market nor the public sector provides goods and services required to achieve public values. Unlike Moore, Bozeman puts more attention on how to understand public values.

The third and less well-known approach to understanding public value was by Timo Meynhardt (2009), which was mainly based on psychology. He stated that public value was created out of: "values characterising the relationship between an individual and "society", defining the quality of the relationship" (Meynhardt, 2009, p. 206). He states that public value is value for the public, and this is the result of evaluations of how the basic needs of individuals, groups and the society as a whole are influenced in relationships involving the public (Bryson et al., 2014).

In this study, the focus was on the approach taken by Moore. This approach had been chosen because the study looked at the influence of co-production on the creation of public value in the area of community policing. This means looking at what led to the creation of public value as in the approach advocated by Mark Moore, and not specifically looking at what public values are as in the approach of Bozeman or how the relationships work as in the approach of Meynhardt. Based on the different approaches discussed above we used the definition of public value by Benington (2011): 'what was valued by the public and what enhanced the public sphere'. The public sphere was defined by Benington (2011, p. 32) as a democratic space that included the web of values, places, organisations, rules, knowledge, and other cultural resources held in common by people through their everyday commitments and behaviours, and held in trust by government and public institutions. This definition also considered the public sphere, which was important when looking at how public value was held.

2.9.2 The Strategic Triangle by Moore

To help managers perform their tasks Moore developed a strategic triangle. The public value triangle of Moore (1995) consists of three circles as shown in Figure 1 below. All these three elements were necessary for creating public value, and the arrows between the circles show the interdependencies between all the elements.

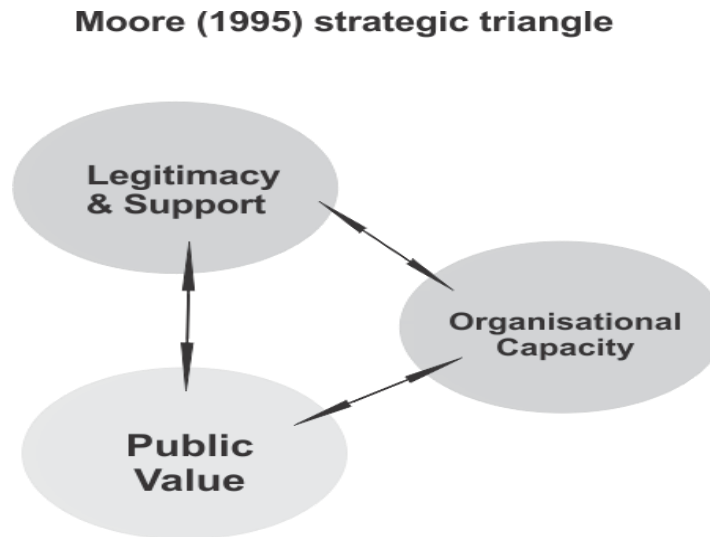


Figure1. Moore M. Strategic Triangle.

Figure 1. Moore M. Strategic Triangle

Firstly, the circle labelled 'public value proposition' refers to the idea that the initiative introduced by public managers must be substantively valuable in the sense that the organisation produces things of value to clients and beneficiaries at low cost in terms of money and authority (Moore, 1995). So, the public organisation must deliver value to the citizenry. To establish this, managers need a reason for the organisations' existence and have a story of what value or purpose the organisation is producing (Moore, 2003). Public value has a wider range than public goods, because it is more focused on the outputs. Besides that, it is about what gives meaning to the people, rather than what a public sector

decision-maker might presume is best for them (Alford & O'Flynn, 2009). However, it must always be acknowledged that the nature of public value is never fixed (Moore, 1995, p. 55). This is the case because citizens' aspirations and needs are highly mutable.

Secondly, the circle labelled 'legitimacy and support' indicates that the initiative or strategy introduced by public managers must be legitimate and politically sustainable. This means that the public organisation must be able to continually attract both authority and money from the political authorising environment in which it is ultimately accountable. They have to get the approval of elected officials, but also do this in a legitimate way (Moore, 1995). Not only is the political environment important, other actors that provide financial resources and authorisation also have to give their support. This so-called authorising environment is beyond the scope of public managers, but important since they need to give their permission or they are needed to produce the desired result (Moore, 1995).

These other actors include citizens, elected representatives, interest groups and the media (Heymann, 1987; Moore, 1995; Moore, 2003). Furthermore, it is important to be legitimate towards other stakeholders (Stoker, 2006).

Third, the circle labelled 'operational capacity' indicates that the initiative or strategy introduced by public managers must be operationally and administratively feasible in the sense that the authorised, valuable activities can actually be accomplished by the existing organisation with help from others who can be induced to contribute to the organisations' goals (Moore, 1995). It refers to whether the organisation has enough knowledge and capacity to produce the proposed public value. These capacities can consist of financial

means, the occupancy rate of employees, the capacities and technologies that are necessary to achieve the desired outcomes. It can be outside the boundaries of the organisation and in that case, the desired results can be achieved by creating partnerships (Moore, 2003). Another part of the operational capacity is the capacity to have organisational learning. This means that the organisation learns by evaluation, testing and stimulating innovations and the institutionalisation of successful innovations (Moore, 2013).

All three elements are necessary for the production of public value, and public managers must strive to achieve all three. If one is missing, this can lead to the failure of the strategy (Moore, 1995). The use of this triangle encourages managers to look at their authorising environments for potential changes, search their substantive task environment for problems they may contribute to and review the operations of their own and other organisations to look for new technologies or programmes to improve their performance (Moore, 1995). The strategic triangle is designed to influence how managers distribute their attention, thought, and actions when performing their duties.

2.10 Community Policing and Public Value Benefits: The Context of Malawi and Beyond

According to the Community Policing Manual for the Malawi Police Service (2019, p. 24), community policing was introduced in Malawi to bridge the gap between the police and community it serves through creation of partnerships, thereby allowing the communities to actively and effectively participate in the creation of safer and crime freer communities. The feeling of security in the community helps the police to establish trust within that community. Additionally, as citizens become more active in taking care of their

community, they start to understand what officers actually do on a day-to-day basis, thereby improving the relationship between the police and citizens.

Community policing allows the community to come up with solutions that will successfully work within their own neighborhood and to change or eliminate those that do not work. This helps to improve police-community relations. Ultimately, crime is reduced and the quality of life for the community improves (Mutupha & Zhu, 2022; Ngwala & Adebe, 2023).

2.11. Community Policing and Public Value Benefits: The Context of Malawi and Beyond

Every effort by community policing as a form of co-production aims at contributing towards reducing crime rate and improving the feeling of safety and security of the communities (Schorer, 2007 as cited in Borovec et al., 2021, p. 137). In fact, the goal of community policing can reduce crime and disorder by carefully examining the characteristics of problems in the neighborhoods and then applying appropriate problemsolving remedies (US Department of Justice, 1984). Studies show that major ways through which community policing contributes towards crime reduction and prevention include community partnerships and joint problem solving. According to the US Department of Justice (1984), community partnerships include any form of relationship between the police and citizens as well as community groups. These groups may be religious, businesses or schools. These partnerships are meant to continuously foster interaction between police and the communities.

In such partnerships, community members provide information to police, identify problems and jointly provide solutions, partnerships also allow police to speak with neighborhood watch groups, CPF, schools and other community groups to share crime prevention tips. In this regard, by working together, police and community members can prevent crime, rather than reacting to crime and disorder once it has happened.

For example, in western Nigeria, a study by Olusegun (2016) found that both the police and the community agreed that the police force alone, given their observable inadequacies, cannot successfully tackle crimes in the society without adequate support of the members of the community. Olusegun (2016) found that community policing as a co-production had positively contributed towards improving people's perception on the level of safety and security in Nigeria.

In a study on whether community policing has any impact on community safety and security, Grace (2022) found that 80% of the respondents affirmed that community policing positively contributed towards improved community safety. Masogo et al. (2014) also stated that implementation of community policing as a form of policing style helped to reduce the high rate of crime in Soshanguve Township in South Africa. Police visibility and joint patrols were among the key reasons why citizens' cognitive perception of safety and security improves. However, in some jurisdictions such as Uganda, the benefits of community policing on crime control remain controversial.

In their recent study on 'The Impact of Community Policing on Citizen Trust, Police

Performance, and Crime in Uganda’, Blair et al. (2019, p. 1) found that community policing had no impact on crime control and other aspects such as trust in the police”. It can, therefore, be argued that much as research results from many studies across the world indicate that community policing as a form co-production improves citizens cognitive perception of safety, security and crime control, in some countries the results remain controversial (Blair et al., 2019). In this regard, every study on community policing must critically be looked at from the context in which it is conducted because the results are likely going to differ from country to country.

2.11.1 Community Policing, Police Visibility, and Feeling of Safety

Police visibility in the neighbourhood is a very important aspect of community policing and is a key public value benefit of community policing (Yesberge et al., 2023). ‘Visibility involves police officers being easily approachable by community members through a visible and non-threatening presence within the neighbourhood’ (OSCE, 2022, p. 16). Daily personal contacts can help to familiarise communities with their community police officers. Police visibility enhances public trust and legitimacy (Skogan, 2019). That is, when police are visible in the neighbourhood, criminals are scared of committing crimes because of fear of being apprehended. Police visibility also helps the police and the community to build good relations. Studies argue that the presence of uniformed police officers in the neighbourhood remains a number one symbol of government security and protection to its citizens (Innes, 2005, p. 160; Kochel & Weisburd, 2019).

Yesberg et al. (2023, p. 721) argues that police presence in neighbourhoods greatly contributed towards building trusted police, which in turn was associated with collective efforts to combat crime and disorders.

Concurring with Yesberg, Ejoc et al. (2018, p. 1013) also argues that:

To regain the public trust and confidence in this law enforcement agency, there is therefore need for strengthening and making more evident the police visibility in every area as a means of preventing crimes and maintaining law, peace and order.

Ejoc et al further argues that in the Philippines, the omnipresence of law enforcers in their respective areas of responsibility had substantial impact on the crime prevention strategy of the Philippine National Police. In their study, Ejoc et al argue that police visibility created a feeling of security on the part of the law-abiding citizen, a feeling of confidence that the policemen are available to respond when called upon to any situation, and a feeling of fear on the part of the would-be violators.

Studies from the United Kingdom also show that there is significant evidence to support the idea that police visibility positively contributes towards improved trust in the police, in the UK at least (Sindall & Sturgis, 2013 as cited in Yesberg et al., 2023). Further studies indicate that targeted and intensive foot patrol efforts in violent hotspots may achieve deterrence at a microspatial level, primarily by increasing the certainty of disruption, apprehension, and arrest (Ratcliffe et al., 2011). However, other scholars argue that there is still not much evidence as to whether enhanced visibility of police officers on foot, instead of in cars, serve a significant and measurable deterrent function on crime (Ratcliffe et al., 2011).

2.11.2 Community Policing, Citizen Participation in Co-production

The hallmark of community policing is the involvement and participation of various categories of citizens in the co-production and enhancement of public safety and security (OSCE, 2022, p.16; Federman, 2020; Weisburd & Braga, 2006).

According to Ludman (2010), citizen participation remains a key public value benefit in co-production of public safety and security, and must always be promoted since it governs all aspects of community policing from inception through to implementation and monitoring of the different initiatives that make up community policing as a strategy. The goal of citizen participation is to fight crime more effectively and efficiently, and to improve the relationship between the police and the community (OSCE, 2022, p. 16). Citizen participation in the co-production of public safety and security is manifested in various ways such as direct involvement in neighbourhood foot and vehicle patrols, community police forums, sharing of crime information, supporting the police with resources and many more.

Citizen involvement in community policing directly contributes to the principle of good governance because citizen participation promotes transparency, openness, accountability and empowerment, and allows for public education on the part of the community being policed on matters of crime and builds the most wanted relationship between the police and communities (Bénit-Gbaffou, 2008; Otsi, 2004, p. 6).

Literature argues that it is important that co-production must be people-centered and ensure that beneficiaries of co-production take charge of the goals, design and implement the

initiative (Theron et al., 2007). The emphasis of co-production of public safety and security should be to encourage citizen involvement in crime prevention while increasing contact between police and local residents (Gill et al., 2014). Philip (2000 as cited in Nkwenyane, 2011), argues that citizen participation must ensure that people are equal and active partners in the decision-making process, have a better understanding of the issues and difficulties associated with their particular problem or need, and share responsibility to develop a practical solution to the issues raised. Community policing is expected to increase collective effectiveness and efficiency by providing more opportunities for residents to interact with the police and one another with the aim of stimulating ‘self-help’ within communities as well as increase resources for crime control (Yesberge et al., 2023). Citizen participation in community policing as co-production helps to ensure that policing is people-centered and this acts as an efficient and effective tool for analysing and addressing social problems including safety and security issues in a sustainable manner (Osti, 2004, p. 6). However, as argued by Blair et al. (2019), every study on community policing must be done with caution since the results have varied markedly across jurisdictions.

2.11.3 Community Policing, Accessibility and Reachability of Police Services

‘An important barometer in an era of community policing is the accessibility of police services that it has created in parts of the world where it is practiced’ (Masogo et al., 2014, p. 116). Accessibility as a key public value benefit of community policing as a coproduction means not only availability of police officers, but also the ability for the community members and citizens to obtain assistance and services from the police in terms of time and costs. According to the US Department of Justice (1994), a foremost tenet of

community policing is equity. Equity, as understood in community policing activities, has three dimensions: equal access to police services by all citizens, equal treatment of all individuals, and equal distribution of police services and resources among communities. The advent of community policing in any country is, therefore, expected to facilitate easiness in accessing and reaching police services by all the communities regardless of geographic location.

Evidence shows that accessibility of police services is sometimes hampered by damage to police infrastructure by members of the community. That is, when the police are perceived to be corrupt, citizens lose trust and confidence in them (Goldsmith, 2005). Results of loss of trust in the police due to various factors, in particular corruption, have been catastrophic. In Malawi, for example, due to the negative perception that Malawians have towards the police, many police stations have been looted and set ablaze. In 2016, a Police Unit in Chilomoni township was set on fire due to the fact that the police stopped the public from killing a murder suspect who was already in police custody (Nzangaya, 2016). The community wanted to take the law in their hands arguing that the accused would soon be seen amongst the community after being granted bail corruptly by the police. In Blantyre, Lundu Police Unit in Chileka was also torched down and vandalised by angry people after learning that police were keeping in custody a murder suspect who they wanted to be released for them to administer mob justice on him (Sande, 2022).

Vandalism and looting of police infrastructure, ultimately affects implementation of community policing in local areas since the communities lack proper infrastructure where they can report cases, access police service or work together in partnership. In turn, crime thrives and fear of crime increases in locations.

2.11.4 Community Policing and Police Friendliness or Approachability

According to Cordner (2010), the advent of community policing as a co-production around 1970s was seen as a tool to bring back the lost close contact and friendliness between the police and members of the community. Under community policing, police officers are required to be knowledgeable about their beat and they are required to know demographics, including people living in each community. Effective community policing depends on heightening positive contact between patrol officers and community members. Studies show friendliness, willingness to help, fairness, attention when listening to citizens, and willingness to explain to citizens what exactly is going on in their local communities greatly influences citizens' feeling of satisfaction and perception of safety (Borovec et al., 2021, p. 157). In-fact, in free and democratic society law enforcement agencies are most likely to obtain the citizen support and cooperation when they display interest to relate with citizens (Cordner, 2010). However, evidence from recent research shows that the majority of citizens (62%) in Malawi believed that the police were not as friendly as they expected and that for them to obtain assistance or services from the police, they had to pay a bribe, give a gift, or do a favour to a police officer (Chunga & Manthalu, 2022). This finding was a bit different from the results of Chipao and Probert (2019), who in their study found that residents from low density areas of Lilongwe perceived the police to be friendly.

It can, therefore, be argued that issues of police friendliness remain controversial and are not consistent in various contexts, such overgeneralisation of people's perceptions must be avoided.

2.11.5 Community Policing, Police Responsiveness and Rapid Response to Calls

Responsiveness is an essential principle of community policing. Based on both the NPS and decentralisation theories, police responsiveness forms the key pillars of community policing. Responsiveness means that ‘the police respond to the (instant) needs and concerns of all members of the public and strive to deliver their services promptly and in an evenhanded and impartial manner, showing empathy to those in need and respect for human rights’ (OSCE, 2022, p. 17). Studies conducted in early 1980 in the west, when community policing was just being introduced indicated that a large portion of serious crimes were not deterred by rapid response (US Department of Justice, 1984). In these early studies, it was argued that while prompt police response increased the chance of making an on-scene arrest, the time it took a citizen to report a crime largely predetermines the effect that police response time would have on the outcome. However, recent studies indicate that, with the advancement in information, and communication technology as well as improved mobility by the police, rapid response has been heralded as one key initiative that greatly deters criminals from loitering in local areas and commit crimes for fear of being easily apprehended by the police while still at the scene of crime (Sherman, 2016).

With alarm systems and CCTVs, criminals have to think twice before committing crimes. However, we must also be quick to mention that, responsiveness to be looked at from the perspectives of both police response and response by members of CPF and NHW groups.

2.11.6 Community Policing and Volunteerism

Community policing as a form of co-production is founded on the principle of volunteerism (Manual on Community Policing, 2018). Under community policing, members of the community freely form groups, sometimes called CPF or NHW, and freely, with support from the police and members of the neighbourhood, provide safety and security services to their neighbourhoods. ‘Volunteerism means engaging in an activity which involves spending time, unpaid (except for travel and other approved out- of- pocket expenses), doing something which aims to benefit some third party other than or in addition to a close relative’ (Wolf & Jones, 2018). According to the United Nations Volunteers Manual (2015, p. xxiii), the terms volunteering, volunteerism and voluntary activities refer to a wide range of activities ... ‘undertaken of free will, for the general public good and where monetary reward is not the principal motivating factor’. In community policing and co-production, volunteerism may occur when individuals join a neighborhood watch organisation, and walk the beat either alone or with police at no reward (Wolf & Jones, 2018). On the other hand, a volunteer may be described as an individual who provides time for a recognised organisation or governmental service without significant remuneration for his or her services or imposed requirement. However, the term ‘volunteer’ should not be confused with the term ‘amateur’. An amateur is an individual who may not be trained or accomplished or as professional as a non- amateur (Wolf & Jones, 2018).

2.11.7 Community Policing and Customer Care

Globally, all police agencies have an obligation to deliver effective services to the communities in which they operate (Sonderling, 2003). According to the Manual on Community Policing in Malawi (2018), one of the key objectives of community policing

is to contribute towards improved police-community relations. This entails that the police must, at all times, treat individuals who come with various issues at police stations with courtesy, empathy, responsiveness, assurance and reliability or with utmost customer care. Whenever there is no customer care to individuals who come to police stations for assistance, the level of trust in the police dwindles, in turn, there is limited level of public participation in safety and security matters. In the end, co-production of safety and security services is impeded (Jakoet-Salie & Ramolobe, 2023).

In his presentation on community policing to Tanzania Police Force, Kainja (2012) emphasised that one of the core objectives of community policing in Malawi was to ensure that the police adhered to all elements of customer care when delivering services to members of the public. Also, when addressing Chiefs and members of the community after a police unit was torched at Chitsime Police Unit in Lilongwe, Nyondo (2017) strongly advised police officers to embrace customer care if the police was to be trusted by the people. In a study on challenges of community policing and community safety in a slum community of WestPoint in Liberia, Grace (2022) found that poor customer service procedures within the police force significantly contributed towards poor performance of community policing as a co-production.

2.11.8 Recognition and Reward for Community Police Members

One of the motivators for members of the community to participate in co-production of public safety and security is recognising and offering of rewards to members of community police forums and neighbourhood watch groups (Mutupha & Zhu, 2022). In his study on community policing in Malawi, Mutupha and Zhu observed that:

Despite evidence showing that recognition and rewards acted as a motivator for people to put more efforts in community policing, many police officers involved in the implementation of community police had no regard and respect for community police members.

Recognition of members of community policing comes in many forms, including offering them tokens of appreciation for their contributions and time spent in fighting crime together with the police, providing members of community police groups with identity cards for ease of identification, providing them with reflective jackets and even supporting them with mobility.

2.11.9 Community Policing and Joint Patrols

Community policing as a form of co-production emphasises that the police must jointly work with citizens if the initiative is to be fully accepted by the community. In fact, joint patrols are a good source of human and material support to police.

According to OSCE (2022, p. 17) joint patrols are largely described as engagement with government, volunteer and community groups in a local area, including ethnic minorities and other marginalised groups, working together in partnership to resolve community problems, in particular, crime and disorders. Studies from countries like Kenya, particularly, the city of Nairobi, indicate that joint patrols between the police and private security companies where the police and their guns ride on private security vehicles benefit the police through material conditions and technologies, mobility and communication infrastructures (such as VHF radio networks) (Colona, 2020). Further, evidence from Uganda's town of Gulu showed that joint patrols with traditional leaders and local citizens which became a major police initiative motivated members of the community to lead the

police to problematic areas where criminals used to hide (Divon, 2012). In Sweden, Uhnöo and Löfstrand (2018) found that it was difficult for volunteers to maintain their legitimacy in police activities such as foot patrols, unless they were accompanied by uniformed police officers. Unaccompanied volunteers felt neglected and demotivated. Zikhali (2019) in Zimbabwe also found that communities were more willing to support the police with resources if they conducted joint patrols. Joint patrols between the police and the community are, therefore, a good source of community ownership of security in their areas.

2.11.10 Community Policing and Community Trust in the Police

Literature postulates that one aim of community policing is to enhance public trust and legitimacy of the police by making police more present, visible and engaged in local areas and thus strengthening relationships with residents (Skogan, 2019).

In a study conducted in South Africa, Pelser (1999, p. 11) argues that trust is regarded as a cornerstone for effective community policing. That is, when the public perceive the police as trustworthy, there is effective co-operation with them in co-production process (Goldsmith, 2005; Pelser, 1999, p. 11). Unfortunately, evidence from many parts of Africa, including South Africa, Nigeria, Ghana and Liberia shows that most people do not trust the police, particularly because of bad behaviour, corruption and ill-treatment of community members (Mthombothi, 2023, p. 71; Gjelsvic, 2020; Chunga and Manthalu, 2022). Such behaviour frustrates citizens from collaborating with the police.

In another recent study by Gyamfi (2022) in Ghana, a majority of the participants indicated that they had very little trust in the police. Among others, they attributed corruption as a

key reason they did not trust the police in Ghana. Participants in this important study by Gyamfi lamented that when criminals are arrested and sent to the police for court action and justice to prevail, they are soon released after offering bribes to police officers. In this study on ‘Exploring Public Trust in Policing at a Community in Ghana’ Gyamfi (2021) argues that ‘fractured relationship between a community and the police breeds social disorderliness’.

Grace (2022) in her study on challenges affecting implementation of community policing in Liberia also found that lack of trust in the police was among the reasons why citizens were demotivated to participate in community policing, sixty (60) percent of respondents responded as such. Studies in Kenya have also revealed that poor police visibility is another factor revealed by this study as a contributory factor to the lack of trust in policing at the community (Gjelsvik, 2020). However, other studies have argued that an apparent increase in reported crimes to police was an indicator of improving trust in policing and criminal justice (Nimmons, 2017). In Malawi, Chunga and Manthalu (2022) through the Afrobarometer Report indicated that fewer than half of Malawians trust the police. Issues of trust in the police remain controversial in many jurisdictions. Equally important to mention is the fact that, studies have shown that trust in police varies from location to location (Blair et al., 2019). This study is, therefore, important because it helps to look at issues of trust in the police from different locations within Lilongwe district.

2.11.11 Community Policing, Information and Communication Technologies, and Artificial Intelligence

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) and Artificial Intelligence (AI) are progressively becoming a point of interface between government departments, agencies and citizens, including the police and the communities (Maina, 2020). Chan (2001 as cited in Maiyo, 2020) states that police departments across the globe have largely responded positively to information technology and invested substantially in implementing e-policing systems. For example, a study on public value assessment of e-policing initiatives in Kenya revealed that e-policing had significant influence in increasing citizen satisfaction as well as trust in the police and improved citizen perception on public safety and security (Maiyo, 2020).

E-policing has been described as ‘the use of the internet such as web site, e-mail, fax and other similar means to deliver police services to the public through information and communication technologies’, and artificial intelligence such as drones (Ben & Schuppan, 2016). Maina (2020) further states that in Kenya, ICT has been used as a tool to increase efficiency in crime fighting strategies by police and other law enforcement agencies by making it possible for police officers to efficiently communicate and effectively exchange information with citizens.

ICTs may also be useful to break down the barriers of reporting for victims of crime associated with stigma such as gender-based violence and taboos (Cravell et al., 2018). Research shows that information and communication technologies can also be employed to foster a good relationship between the community and the police; it can also make police

work more relatable and transparent by communicating about everyday activities. For instance, in the US, the American Civil Liberties Union has released the freeware app Police Tape, which allows civilians to record law enforcement encounters (Cravell et al., 2018, p. 64). Nimmons (2017) argues that ICT in form of social media can also be used to ensure wide-spread public awareness of and engagement with members of the community. He argues that through ICT, police success stories should be celebrated and publicised, while minimising negative externalities such as bias, discrimination or a negative impact on social cohesion (Clavell et al., 2018, p. 63).

Most popular technologies used in policing include: car cameras, information-sharing platforms, like social media, body-worn cameras (BWCs), geographic information system (GPS) technology, cell phone tracking software, or investigative case-management softwares and analytical and visual-based technology (Strom, 2017).

Citizens in Malawi also expect the police to implement and utilise advanced technologies in crime prevention, conduct appropriate investigation, and respond effectively to citizen's needs. Nevertheless, there is little evidence that Malawi Police Service has made significant investment in the area of ICT and AI and community policing. However, the use of ICT and AI must always be with caution because if carelessly used, it can lead to policing strategies that benefit certain groups and disadvantage others, as digital literacy and access to technology is not equally distributed within a society and varies according to age, wealth, social class and other factors (Cravell et al., 2018, p. 63). ICT and AI use requires high degrees of accountability and data privacy and protection measures to safeguard that the technology does not compromise trust, safety, security or basic freedoms

of citizens (European Commission, 2020). The police must, therefore, balance between rumours and false accusations to avoid victimising innocent citizens.

2.11.12 Community Policing, Co-production and Corruption

Studies show that corruption remains a huge cancer that affects delivery of public services in Malawi (Mtuwa & Chiweza, 2023; Afrobarometer Report, 2022).

Police and citizen perceptions on the impact of corruption on community policing as a form of co-production from across the globe show that corruption greatly lowers the level of community trust in the police, demotivates the community from participating in coproduction of public safety and security, contributes towards poor police-community relations and damage to police infrastructure, thereby making police services not easily accessible to members of the public and increases cases of mob justice (Obeagu, 2014; Uhnnoo & Löfstrand, 2018; Shai et al., 2012).

The word ‘corruption’ has its origins from the Latin term ‘corruptus’ which literally means to disrupt, break, spoil or contaminate (Nicholls et al., 2006, p. 1, as cited in Singh, 2022). According to Kurer (2015 as cited in Singh, 2022), corruption simply means the misuse of power and authority for private benefit. Transparency International (2021) defines corruption as abuse of entrusted power for private gain, even if the returns are not attained. In Malawi, the Corrupt Practices Act (Cap 7:04, Section 3, Laws of Malawi) defines corrupt practice as offering, giving, receiving, obtaining or soliciting of any advantage to influence the action of any public officer or any official or any other person in the discharge of duties of that public officer, official or other persons. Coming to police corruption,

Bayley and Perito (2011, p. 3) define it as the ‘misuse of police authority for personal gain. For example, demanding money or gratitude for not writing a traffic ticket (extortion) and bribery (which is giving or receiving money or any item of value in exchange for not enforcing the law or even just releasing a criminal suspect on bail)’.

In April 2022, Chunga and Mathalu through Afrobarometer released results of the 2022 survey which revealed that the police were widely perceived as more corrupt than any other key state institutions in Malawi. Soon after the Afrobarometer report by Chunga and Manthalu (2022), the Malawi Police Service (2022) issued a statement acknowledging corruption challenges and indicating that the Service had been working to improve its professionalism and image (Chunga & Mathalu, 2022). According to the Afrobarometer report of April 2022, many citizens reported having to pay bribes to get police assistance or avoid problems with the police. The report indicated that among citizens who requested help from the police in 2021/22, 62% said it was difficult to get the assistance they needed, and 40% said they had to pay a bribe. Among those who had other types of encounters with the police, such as during traffic stops or investigations, 43% said they had to pay a bribe to avoid problems. Charges of corruption have on several occasions affected serving police officers of various ranks and positions (Anti-Corruption Bureau, Malawi, 2022, p. 20).

Once the police become involved in corruption, citizen participation is greatly affected and compromised. In Nigeria, for example, Osayande (2012) at the maiden edition of Etim Inyang International Lecture on Community Policing organised by Police Community Relations Committee at Port Harcourt, admonished Nigerian police officers for their

involvement in acts of negligence and collusion to collect monies and gratifications in order to facilitate release and escape of offenders or suspects from custody, leak vital security information, as well as to decline arrest of suspected criminals.

He lamented that such practices, in turn eroded community's trust in the police and ultimately reduced community's motivation to participate in co-production of public safety and security and support the police in various forms. Such practices, demotivated wellmeaning citizens from sharing vital crime information with the police, thereby making community policing a failure. Corruption contributes to loss of trust in the police; poor citizen participation in co-production; vandalism of police infrastructure; poor policecitizen relations as well as increase in cases of mob justice.

2.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reviewed literature covering several topics and sub-topics relevant to community policing as a form of co-production. The chapter focused on literature that covers conceptual understanding of community policing, co-production, public value benefits of community policing as a co-production, challenges and some opportunities affecting community policing as co-production. Both local and international literature has been reviewed. The chapter started with an overview of the concept co-production, its background and core components. From there, the concept community policing, its background and dimension were also discussed. After discussing each of the two key concepts that anchor the study, the chapter discussed the public value benefits that emanate from community policing as a form of co-production. The discussion on public value benefits of community policing as form of co-production started with brief discussion on

the concept public value and its components. This chapter has discussed the major public value benefits, challenges and opportunities of community policing as a form of coproduction from both an international and local level. Major research studies on the area were reviewed and will be compared with findings from this study. Of special interest, the chapter has looked at crime control and public safety and security, police visibility, citizen participation, police accessibility, police-citizen relations as key public value benefits that community policing aims to attain. The chapter also reviewed literature on challenges affecting community policing, such as mistrust between police and citizens, corruption, police responsiveness, volunteerism, customer care and joint patrols. Finally, the chapter has briefly looked at missed opportunities of community policing as a form of coproduction. Information and communication technology and Artificial Intelligence were discussed to this effect.

The major issue that has come out of this chapter is that, despite the many public value benefits that are created by community policing as a form of co-production, there remain a myriad of challenges that affect its implementation. There are also several opportunities that police institutions across the world can exploit to enhance the performance of community policing as a co-production.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

Studies on community policing have always been premised on some theoretical construct (Yero et al., 2012). A number of theories have been advanced by scholars in an attempt to

offer explanation in principle, and pave the way for a point of reference in academic discussion as well as a point of departure towards implementation initiatives of community policing as a form of co-production. In fact, a review of literature shows that community policing has been the subject of several theoretical interpretations of a general type (Ozkan, 2016). In this study, two theories have been used to explain the theoretical and philosophical bases of community policing.

The major theory that underpins this study is the New Public Service (NPS) theory of public management propounded by Denhart and Denhart (2000). Ozkan (2016) argues that the NPS theory of public management posits that both the police and members of the public acknowledge that for the police to be successful in crime control, there must be good cooperation, harmonious relationship and greater citizen participation in service delivery. The theory further posits that community policing is an implementation of 'The New Public Service' in the policing field (Ozkan, 2016). Simply put, the police cannot achieve any positive transformation without the support and engagement of the public.

The second theory that has been used in this study specifically to explain the relationship between community policing and citizen empowerment and participation in delivery of safety and security services, and to supplement the NPS theory is the Decentralisation theory (US Department of Justice, 1994). Based on this theory, public administrators, police officers inclusive, and citizens tend to agree that for the police to be effective and efficient in the delivery of safety and security services, the delivery of police services must be decentralised and citizens must be encouraged and motivated to co-produce safety and

security services jointly with the police. Literature describing the theoretical components of community policing generally have always held that decentralisation of service delivery and decision making are necessary attributes of any such effort (Russell & MacLachlan, 2012). Till today, any discussion on community policing always goes hand in hand with the decentralisation theory (Mudalige, 2019).

The choice of the two theories does not signify that the NPS and Decentralisation theories represent the only frameworks for understanding community policing. The two theories have been identified because both of them tend to conceive the idea of co-production of public safety and security from the citizens' angle and not just that of the state. That is, for citizens to enjoy robust security, they must support police efforts and participate at all levels from planning to implementation of crime control strategies.

From the two theories, community policing represents a drive which aspires to establish partnership between the people and the police in addressing contemporary challenges to safety and security such as social and physical disorder, crime and fear towards achieving overall quality of life (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1998).

3.2 New Public Service, Co-production, Public Service Reforms and Community

Policing

New Public Service (NPS) theory of public management was the main theory that was utilised to investigate public value benefits, challenges and opportunities of community policing as a form of co-production (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000). This theory is founded on the principles of active citizen participation and community partnership in the delivery of public services and goods. Active citizen participation and partnerships are also the key

principles that guide the implementation of community policing as a form of co-producing public safety and security. Both NPS and community policing promote citizen focused approaches in the delivery of public services. According to NPS, increased citizen participation or civic engagement are paramount at all levels of project implementation (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000, p. 554).

Before NPS took the central stage in public sector reforms, there were other key public management theories that remained a major influence of public sector reforms in many developed countries. These theories that formed the main thrust of public sector reforms include the Traditional Public Administration (TPA), New Public Management (NPM) and New Public Governance (NPG) (Gawłowski, 2018; Sicilia et al., 2016).

It is important, therefore, that any discussion on public sector reforms including community policing, co-production and public value must be looked at through the lens of transition from Traditional Public Administration to the modern new public service theory (Gawłowski, 2018; Sicilia et al., 2016).

3.2.1 Traditional public administration

The traditional public administration theory was modeled on a top-down and elitist approach in which public officials were instilled with values of hierarchy, independence, and integrity, and were insulated from politicians and citizens. Rather, government became another player, albeit an important player in the process of moving society in one direction or another. The traditional public administration which was inspired by a political theory (top-down approach) dominated by following the ‘rule of law’ (with a focus on administering set rules and guidelines; strict following of a bureaucracy in policy making

and implementation; the ‘politics administration’ split within public organisations; a commitment to incremental budgeting) and the hegemony of the professional. In the service delivery system, there was no much co-production in the creation of public value (Osborne, 2007, p. 378).

During this era, community policing was almost non-existent anywhere else in the world. Developing out of the early years of the public sector reforms in the late nineteenth century, TPA reached its highest point in the United Kingdom (UK) in the post-1945 era of the welfare state, when the state was confidently expected to meet all the social and economic needs of the citizenry, ‘from the cradle to the grave’ (Osborne, 2007, p. 378).

Public safety and security were the sole responsibility of the state in this period. During that era, government decided almost everything for its citizens. The failures of welfare state championed by Traditional Public Administration led to the introduction of New Public Management as a solution.

3.2.2 New Public Management

New public management or the market economy theory of management modelled the delivery of public service on public choice theory. This theory propagated that the role of government was to do the steering while the private sector was promoted to do the rowing. NPM as a theory drove the reform stage from the late 1970s onwards. In its most extreme form, NPM theory promoted the superiority of private-sector managerial techniques over those of TPA and with the assumption that the application of such business techniques to public services would automatically lead to improvements in the efficiency and effectiveness of these services (Robinson, 2015, p. 7). It promoted public choice by

allowing the private sector to drive the economy while governments provided a conducive environment and regulatory framework to do business. NPM promoted lean government. Unlike under TPA, NPM discouraged government's direct provision of services to the people, except for very few public services including policing and security services. Thus, community policing could not be promoted in this era because safety and security services were a sole responsibility of the state.

Under NPM, delivery of public services and goods was supposed to borrow lessons from private-sector management by following strict hands-on management; promotion of 'arm's length' organisations where policy implementation is organisationally distanced from the policy makers, with a focus on entrepreneurial leadership within public service organisations. NPM emphasised on inputs and output and performance management and audit; with the disaggregation of public services to their most basic units and a focus on their cost management. NPM emphasised on the growth of use of markets, competition and contracts for resource allocation and service delivery within public services (Osborne, 2007, p. 379).

Following the criticisms of both TPA and NPM there was need for a more holistic theory of Public Administration and Management (PAM), a theory that would move beyond the sterile dichotomy of 'administration versus management' and that would allow a more comprehensive and integrated approach to the study, and practice, of PAM. This resulted in the conception of New Public Governance (NPG) in the late 1980s and 90s (Osborne, 2007, p. 380).

3.2.3 New Public Governance

The birth of New Public Governance (NPG) around the 1980s and 90s brought a paradigm shift in the way delivery of public services was looked at. NPG in academic discussion of public administration studies emerged in 1980s and early 90s and was brought to attention by Osborne (2007), who presented it in contradiction with NPM and its predecessor PA.

Osborne argued that NPG was a theoretical model to complement NPM and PA. NPG started to seriously recognise common citizens, civil society organisations, non-profit organisations and communities as having a pertinent, if not an equal role in planning, designing, delivery and management of public services (Gawłowski, 2018). New Public Governance was the first era to introduce elements of citizen participation and third sector provision of social or public services. It was during this era of NPG that community policing as form of co-production started to gain recognition as a best way of delivering public safety and security services. However, community policing had not yet been adopted in many countries during this era. To fill the few gaps observed in the NPG era, new public service was born.

3.2.4 New Public Service

From 2000 there was a discernible trend towards an emerging theory of public management variously termed the 'New Public Service (NPS)', or the 'post-New Public Management' which was founded on principles of citizen participation in the delivery of public services and goods (Dunleavy & Hood, 1994; Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000; Osborne, 2007). NPS was further underpinned by three theoretical perspectives, viz: democratic citizenship, which demands greater citizen activeness and involvement; models of community and civil

society; and organisational humanism and discourse theory with a focus on the needs or preferences of citizens (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2015b).

NPS theory promoted collaboration and partnerships through an open and accessible system of governance, and where citizens play a crucial role throughout the entire public service delivery cycle (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000).

It is argued that NPS was the first public management theory that fully embraced coproduction in the delivery of public service. Under the New Public Service, the primary role of government shifted from merely being seen as directing the actions of the public servants through regulation and decree (though that may sometimes be appropriate), or from simply establishing sets of rules and incentives (sticks or carrots) through which people would be guided in the "proper" direction (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000), to promotion of collaborative efforts and partnerships. According to NPS scholars, government is responsible for enabling collaboration and participation through the establishment of deliberative structures for service delivery (Jun & Bryer 2017).

New Public Service brought to the peak the concept of co-production by advocating for governments that act and deliver public services in concert with citizens, private and nonprofit groups and organisations, to seek solutions to the problems that communities face in the delivery of services that the communities desire (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000). In this process, the role of government transformed from one of controlling to one of agenda setting, bringing the proper players to the table and facilitating, negotiating, or brokering solutions to public problems (often through coalitions of public, private, and non-profit agencies).

Most importantly, under NPS public managers started to play a role of transformative leaders, who fostered active citizenship through dialogue and citizen empowerment (Ozkan, 2016). Their role was supported by structural changes through new systems of accountability and deliberative processes, which were meant to institutionalise active citizenship (Jun & Bryer 2017). Within the NPS narrative, co-production emphasises relationships of mutual trust, cooperation and shared responsibility for public service production (Ozkan, 2016).

NPS, therefore, presented a total paradigm shift in the way public services were delivered. That is, whereas traditionally, government simply responded to needs of citizens by saying ‘yes, we will provide that service,’ or ‘no, we will not provide,’ the new public service suggested that elected officials and public managers should respond to the requests of citizens not just by saying yes or no, but by saying, ‘let's work together to figure out what we are going to do, then make it happen’ (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000). This was the heart of co-production. It is this spirit of active citizen participation and greater partnership with the community that made NPS the best theory to guide this study.

The New Public Service theory demands that the process of establishing a vision for society is not something merely left to elected political leaders or appointed public administrators (Denhart & Denhart, 2000). Instead, the activity of establishing a vision or direction is something in which widespread public dialogue and deliberation are central. Community policing takes the same approach of active citizen participation when making any decisions

that affect the citizens (Ozkan, 2016). Thus, public value achievement is dependent on good democratic interaction between the citizens and public service providers.

The following table, therefore, presents a comparative perspective of the transition from TPA, through NPM, NPG to NPS theories of public management and how they link to community policing as discussed above.

Table 1. Comparing Perspectives: Old Public Administration, New Public Management, New Public Governance and New Public Service.

	Old Public Administration	New Public Management	New Public Governance	New Public Service
Theoretical inspirations	Political theory, native social science. PoliticsAdministration dichotomy.	Economic theory, positivist social science. Mechanization of work and public choice theory.	Organizational sociology and network theory.	Democratic theory.
Rationality and models of human behaviour	Administrative rationality, public interest was claimed to drive delivery of public services.	Technical and economic rationality, self-interest. Private sector interests.	Collaborative governance and collaborative relationships and citizen participation.	Strategic rationality, citizen interest and active participation.
Conception of the public interest	Political, enshrined in law and rule of thumb.	Aggregation of individual interests.	Community values.	Dialogue about shared values.
To whom are civil servants responsive?	Clients and constituents	Customers	Places citizens rather than government at the center of its frame of reference.	Citizens
Role of government	“Rowing”, implementation focused on politically defined objectives. Just do what politicians say.	“Steering”, serving as catalyst to unleash market forces. Provide regulatory environment for private sector to provide service.	Implementation with community participation at all levels.	“Serving”, negotiating and brokering interests among citizens.
Mechanisms for achieving policy objectives	Administering programmes through government agencies	Creating mechanisms and incentives through	Citizen participation and third sector provision of social services. Emphasizes inter-	Building coalitions of public, non-profit private agencies

		private and non-profit agencies	organizational relationships and the governance of processes.	
Approach to accountability	Hierarchical - administrators responsible to elected leaders	Market-drive-outcomes result from accumulation of self-interests	Community accountability.	Multifaceted-public servants guided by law, values, professional norms and citizen interests
Administrative discretion	Limited discretion granted to public. Follow the law and rules and procedures.	Officials' Wide latitude to meet entrepreneurial goals. Managerial discretion to achieve results.	Discretion needed but managers are accountable to community and civil society.	Discretion needed but constrained and accountability is an obligation to managers.
Assumed organizational structure	Bureaucratic organizations with topdown authority and control of citizens. Citizens have no say on services being delivered.	Decentralized public organisations with primary control within agency. Let managers manage and take control for results.	Consumers have been reconceptualised as coproducers.	Collaborative structures with shared leadership between public servants and community, fully blown co-production of public services.
Assumed motivational basis of public servants	Pay and benefits, civil service protections and permanent employment.	Entrepreneurial spirit, desire to reduce size and functions of government and take responsibility for success and results. Performance based pay.	Community and civil society desire to jointly co-produce public services with public servants.	Public service, desire to contribute to society and jointly work with citizens.

Source: Adapted from Denhardt and Denhardt (2000, p. 554)

In summary, the NPS theory of Denhardt and Denhardt (2003) basically points that ‘Government should not be run like a business; it should be run like a democracy.’ This means that citizens must be at the centre of anything that government including the police does. This is the basic principle that guides implementation of community policing as a form of co-production.

3.3 Decentralization and Community Policing

Having presented NPS as the main theoretical framework underpinning this study, this section presents the Decentralisation theory as a supplementary lens through which this study was done. Decentralisation is a tool used by most governments for enhancing participation and sharing of power and responsibilities with actors at the bottom stratum of society (Yasin, 2022).

A considerable quantity of research literature is available on the relationship between decentralisation and the delivery of public services (Hussein, 2004). According to Mudalige (2019) decentralisation was initially pursued as an administrative reform process to enhance service delivery and economic efficiency. Decentralisation has since become widely considered as an essential process for strengthening democratic practice in countries. Since its introduction, it was assumed that decentralisation would improve government's responsiveness to the public and increase the quantity and quality of the services it provides (Rondinelli et al., 1983).

3.3.1 Definition of Decentralisation

Being an old concept and theory, decentralisation has many definitions. According to Rondinelli (1981, p. 137) decentralisation has been defined as, ‘the transfer of legal and political authority to plan, make decisions, and manage public functions from the central government and its agencies to field organisations of those agencies, subordinate units of government, semi-autonomous public corporations, area-wide or regional development authorities, functional authorities, autonomous local governments, or non-governmental organisations.’ This definition demonstrates the transfer of central government power to government institutions or semi-autonomous government and the private sector. Coming to Malawi, Hussein (2004) and Yasin (2022) describe decentralisation as the transfer of authority and power to plan, make decisions, and manage resources, from higher to lower levels of the organisational hierarchy, to facilitate efficient and effective service delivery. In summary, decentralisation can be defined as the transfer of specific functions and responsibilities of the central government to governmental and non-governmental agencies from various sizes and qualities (Mudalige, 2019). In some countries and contexts, decentralisation is seen as a way of mobilising support for national development policies by making them better known at the local level and thereby increasing community participation and accountability in service delivery (Rondinelli et al., 1983).

3.3.2 Decentralisation and Community Policing

Decentralisation is another key to community policing. It helps police officers become part of the culture and community. Decentralisation allows the people to help in patrols, arrests,

investigations and other police work to target the problems of the community. Police are able to be more preventive and efficient in regard to helping with community issues using decentralisation (Russell & MacLachlan, 2012). In a decentralised policing organisation, neighborhood patrol officers are responsible for the daily policing needs of the community, with guidance and backing from supervisors. With the help of community policing structures at grassroot level, the police are able to function more efficiently and successfully by concentrating on other equally important activities (US Department of Justice, 1994).

3.3.3 Key Objectives of Decentralisation

Among others, decentralisation was introduced to create strong local institutions, to increase community participation in local development, planning, coordination and implementation of local projects with the aim of enhancing service delivery (Mudalige, 2019). Additionally, decentralisation aimed at moving government close to the citizens for increased efficiency and accountability in public service delivery (Yasin, 2022).

3.3.4 Types of Decentralisations

There is no common consensus among the scholars on what constitutes types of decentralisation (Hussein, 2004). This study isolated four main types of decentralisation that are popular amongst academic scholars and which were applicable to this study. These types of decentralisation are deconcentration, devolution, delegation and privatisation (Cheema & Rondinelli., 1983). The theoretical and practical use of each form of decentralisation depends on the context in which it is applied. Thus, in this study,

decentralisation has been applied in the context of devolution and delegation of some of the police powers to members of the community through community policing structures. In the paragraphs that follow, the study briefly discusses each of the above-mentioned types of decentralisation and how each of them is applicable to community policing as a form of co-production.

3.3.4.1 Deconcentration

Deconcentration, from the viewpoint of public administration, means the transfer of administrative responsibility for specified functions to lower levels within the central government bureaucracy, generally on some spatial basis (Trimurni, 2017). The policy and important decisions still remain at the central government and the lower governments or units are merely the implementers of the policy and decision. This allows the central government to penetrate the grassroots without necessarily relinquishing authority.

The practice of the deconcentration has been implemented since 1998 when Malawi enacted the Local Government Act. Deconcentration has few elements of community policing and is of minor significance in the present study.

3.3.4.2 Delegation

According to Rondinelli et al. (1983) delegation has been described as conferring of specified authority by a higher authority to lower authority. It is devolution of authority by a person to his agent or subordinate, subject to his right of supervision and control. It implies that legally delegated authority still belongs to the delegator or the person who delegates (Rondinelli, 1981). It concerns the shifting of managerial or any other type of

responsibilities for specific functions from central government to the statutory corporations or parastatals, which are normally outside the regular bureaucratic structure. Under community policing, section 122 of the Malawi Police Act of 2010, special powers of the police are delegated to members of community police forums (CPFs).

3.3.4.3 Privatisation

Privatisation is described as the transfer of authority and administrative responsibility or other public functions from government to a private or nongovernmental institutions in anticipation for more benefits and better service to the public (Bach, 2000). However, some scholars have argued that unlike other forms of decentralisation, privatisation cannot be regarded as a pure form of decentralisation because it simply transfers power from one bureaucratic machinery to another and does not devolve decision-making powers to the local people. In this regard, privatisation has not been fully applied and relied upon in this study.

3.3.4.4 Devolution

Devolution means the transfer of legalised 'elements of political power' to local government institutions or to specialised or functional authorities (Rondinelli, 1981). These bodies or structures are, therefore, vested with political powers to discharge certain functions and responsibilities within their areas of jurisdiction such as the provision of social services including safety and security services. Under the Decentralisation Policy in Malawi, in addition to political authority, fiscal authority and security authority are also devolved to local authorities. According to the Decentralisation Policy of 2000, community safety and

security must be achieved through community policing. This entails that the police must ensure that they work in partnership with different members of the community. From the discussion above, it shows that devolution entails conferring highest amount of power to local people. Typical devolution and partial delegation of authority can be seen from section 122 of the Malawi Police Act of 2010 which clearly devolves some of police powers to community police forums (CPFs) which include collecting and reporting of information on crime in local areas, organising neighbourhood watch groups at local level, report on common crimes affecting their communities, ensure regular visible police and CPF patrols and raising awareness on community policing in their local areas. In this regard, this study leans more towards devolution aspect of decentralisation and its influence on community policing as a form of co-production.

Thus, community policing as a form of co-production is seen as a form of devolution and partial delegation of authority that was aimed at enhancing community participation in the delivery of public safety and security.

3.4 Decentralisation and Community Policing in Malawi

The Constitution of the Republic of Malawi section 146 (3) and the Local Government Act (LGA) of 1998 devolved the power from the central government to local government units. Under the Local Government Act of 1998, section 6 (1)(e), the district councils have a duty to maintain peace and security in the district in conjunction with the Malawi Police Service. The district council have a duty to establish and manage community policing services and regulate and control municipal traffic. Furthermore, article 6 (e) of the Decentralisation

Policy (2000) places an obligation on local councils to maintain peace and security in the districts in conjunction with the National Police Force. Furthermore, section 119 of the Police Act of 2010 recognises community policing as a viable tool through which the Malawi Police Service must provide its services to the people. This section provides the principles that must guide the police when delivering safety and security to the people. Section 119 of the Police Act of 2010 makes it mandatory for the police to maintain partnership between the police and the community, promote communication between the police and the community, promote cooperation between the police and the community in fulfilling the needs of the community regarding policing. Additionally, the section urges the MPS to improve transparency and accountability to the community and promote joint identification of problems and solutions to such problems by the police and the community. It is clear from the above legal and policy frameworks that the principles promoted by decentralisation theory, particularly community participation, consultations, partnership, responsiveness in delivery of services, transparency and accountability have a great influence on delivery of quality safety and security services in Malawi.

In relation to community policing as a form of co-production, decentralisation of safety and security has enhanced community participation in local decision-making processes on issues of safety and security. Thus, enhanced representation of previously excluded people in community safety and security has motivated citizens to demand better services from the police. Furthermore, citizen participation in the delivery of public safety and security has greatly contributed to improved responsiveness to calls of distress from members of

the public. The central premise of community policing is that the public should be seen working along with the police as ‘co-producers of safety, security and order’.

3.5 Relationship between Local Councils and Community Policing

As discussed elsewhere, the Local Government Act of 1998, the Decentralisation Policy of 1998 and the Police Act of 2010 encourage the devolution of delivery of safety and security services to local authorities. The Local Government Act and the Decentralisation Policy specifically implore upon the local councils to ensure safety and security matters are well supported in their areas. On the other hand, part X of the Police Act of 2010 has been devoted to community policing. This part provides for community policing structures that correspond to local government structures at district, areal, group village and village headman levels.

This section provides for community policing structures that correspond to local government structures at district, areal, group village and village headman levels as provided for in the Decentralisation Policy 2000, Local Government Act 1998, and the Police Act 2010 (Hussein, 2004, Kainja, 2006):

Table 2: Community Policing Structures and Local Government Structures at District Council

Community Policing Structure	Local Council Structure
Station Executive Committee (SEC)	District Executive Committee (DEC)
Community Police Forum (CPF)	Area Development Committee (ADC)
Crime Prevention Panel (CPP)	Village Development Committees (VDC)
Crime Prevention Committee (CPC)	Village Development Committees (VDCs)

For successful delivery of social services at the local level, there are other many stakeholders and players that take part in the above structures. These include parastatals, non-governmental organisations and civil society organisations. From the discussion on decentralisation theory, it can be summarised that decentralisation simply means the transfer of power, authority and functions from central government to lower levels of government, and this is applicable in all sectors of government including the police through community policing. It was assumed that adoption of community policing model of decentralisation would result in a more accessible, friendly, responsive, trustworthy and responsible, efficient and effective police service.

3.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed two key theories that underpinned this study. These are the New Public Service (NPS) and decentralisation theories of public management. In summary, the two theories propound principles that encourage good cooperation, harmonious relationship and greater citizen participation in public service delivery. This chapter concludes that NPS and decentralisation theories are among major theoretical frameworks upon which discussions on community policing as a form of co-production are founded. The two theories conceive the idea of co-production of public safety and security from the angle of the citizens and not just that of the state. The two theories posit that for citizens to enjoy robust security, they must support police efforts and participate at all levels from planning to implementation of crime control strategies. New Public Service and Decentralisation theories embrace elements that form principles of community policing as a form of co-production.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Having developed the basis of the study in the preceding chapters, which included background of the study, introductory information, problem statement and objectives of the study, this chapter presents the proposed methodology that enabled the researcher to effectively answer the research questions and achieve the research objectives. This chapter is, therefore, dedicated to explaining and justifying the theory that underpins the whole research methodology, research approach, research strategy of enquiry, data collection, data analysis, study sample, data management, the justification for choosing Lilongwe district as a site for study and credibility and trustworthiness of the study. This chapter also covers the research instruments used in the study, how data was collected, managed, analysed and validated. It also covers how data reliability was measured, including ethical considerations.

4.2 Research Approach or Design

This study adopted a qualitative research approach or design. Research design is the procedure for collecting, analysing, interpreting and reporting data in a research study

(Creswell & Plano Clark 2007, p. 58).

It is the overall plan for connecting the conceptual research problem with the pertinent (and achievable) empirical research. The three most popular types of research approach or design are, qualitative (constructivist worldview), quantitative (post-positivist worldview) and mixed methods (pragmatic worldview) (Creswell, 2009, pp. 3; 10 -20). Creswell adds

that qualitative and quantitative designs should not be viewed as polar opposites, but rather they should be viewed as different ends on a continuum. A study may tend to be more qualitative than quantitative or vice versa.

The main distinction between qualitative and quantitative approach or designs is that qualitative design tends to use more of open-ended questions (qualitative interview) rather than closed questions (quantitative hypotheses). In this regard, qualitative research is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem, while quantitative research is a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2009, p. 4). Qualitative research aims at understanding a phenomenon. It primarily answers to the question, how? On the other hand, quantitative research aims at (causal) explaining the causal relationship between variables. It primarily answers to the question, why? However, at the end of the day, both qualitative and quantitative research aim at providing a description of social reality. Quantitative design allows the researcher to test a hypothesis by systematically collecting and analysing data. Common methods include experiments, observations recorded as numbers and surveys with closed questions.

Qualitative research approach or design best suited the design of this study because it relates to human experiences that could not just be counted or expressed in numbers (Gephart & Rynes, 2004). The study focused on exploring, analysing, observing and interpreting personal perceptions, behaviours, heard narratives and experiences through such methods as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions (FGD) and observations of the world view of the people in the society they live as they construct the meaning of public

value created by co-production using community policing as an example (Dawson, 2009, p. 23). The study was done in the natural environment where community policing was implemented in Lilongwe district and it used social actors' meaning and ideas to understand the phenomena (Gephart & Rynes, 2004). Police and community's construct of community policing was properly studied from such a natural environment. The study was very exploratory in nature by allowing the researcher to be fully immersed in the community and observe people in their natural environment or by studying structures and patterns that they had created in the course of doing community policing. The study generated some hypotheses that may need further testing using quantitative approach. There was no presumptive theoretical model to be tested. The researcher engaged in open coding (identifying and labelling passages of transcripts and documents that appeared to be of thematic or theoretical significance). This research was based on an interpretivist and constructivist position.

The study deployed a phenomenological strategy of inquiry to collect and analyse data. Phenomenology strategy of inquiry is an approach to qualitative research that focuses on the commonality of a lived experience within a particular group (Creswell, 2009). The commonalities of people's living experiences in Lilongwe district were properly studied.

4.2.1 Phenomenological Strategy of Inquiry

There are several research strategies of inquiry. However, in qualitative approach or design, the coverage of research strategies of inquiry is limited to most used forms which include phenomenology, ethnography, grounded theory, case studies, and narrative research

(Creswell, 2009). Phenomenological strategy of inquiry was chosen because in this study the researcher sought to get reality from individuals' narratives of their experience and feelings with community policing as a form of co-production and to eventually produce indepth description of community policing as a phenomenon. The researcher conducted indepth interviews with police officers, citizens, CSO leaders, community police forum members and neighbourhood watch groups. The researcher further wanted to understand the meaning of participant's lived experience in the era of community policing. Additionally, the researcher adjusted to new issues and ideas as they emerged. The researcher also wanted to gather data which was seen as natural rather than artificial. Phenomenological inquiry had also been preferred for this qualitative study because it allowed the researcher to ask broad questions without specific reference to the existing literature (probing). Participants were able to explain what they were experiencing with community policing in their specific contexts or situations in which they lived. Participants had an opportunity to describe their experiences by responding to descriptive questions. Since there was no priori theory or hypotheses to be tested, phenomenological inquiry was considered the best approach to the study.

To better understand why the researcher had chosen phenomenological strategy of inquiry, hereunder is a comparison of the various strategies of inquiry in qualitative study approach or design:

Table 3: Qualitative Strategies of Inquiry

Phenomenology	Ethnography	Grounded Theory	Case Studies	Narrative Research

Phenomenological research is a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher identifies the essence of human experiences about a phenomenon as described by participants. Understanding the lived experiences marks phenomenology as a philosophy as well as a method, and the procedure involves studying a small number of subjects through extensive and prolonged engagement	Ethnography is a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher studies an intact cultural group in a natural setting over a prolonged period of time by collecting primarily observational and interview data. The research process is flexible and typically evolves contextually in response to the lived realities	Grounded theory is a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher derives a general, abstract theory of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the views of participants. This process involves using multiple stages of data collection and the refinement and interrelationship or categories of information. Two primary characteristics of	Case studies are a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher explores in depth a program, event, activity, process, or one or more individuals. Cases are bounded by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures	Narrative research is a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher studies the lives of individuals and asks one or more individuals to provide stories about their lives. This information is then often retold or restoried by the researcher into a narrative
---	--	---	---	--

develop patterns and relationships of meaning. In this process, the researcher brackets or sets aside his or her own experiences in order to understand those of the participants in the study.	encountered in the field setting.	this design are the constant comparison of data with emerging categories and theoretical sampling of different groups to maximize the similarities and the differences of information.	over a sustained period of time.	a chronology. In the end, the narrative combines views from the participant's life with those of the researcher's life in a collaborative narrative.
---	-----------------------------------	--	----------------------------------	--

Adopted from Creswell, 2009, p. 13.

Since the goal of this study was to understand not one, but multiple realities about participants lived experiences with a phenomenon called community policing, phenomenological strategy of inquiry was best suitable.

4.3 Area of the study or Site

The study was conducted in Malawi's Lilongwe district. Precisely, the study was conducted in Lilongwe urban, peri-urban and Lilongwe rural. Lilongwe urban was represented by participants from locations such as Areas 43, 12, 9, 49 and 47. Lilongwe peri-urban was represented by participants from Area 25, Area 23 and Likuni.

Lilongwe rural was represented by participants from Traditional Authority Malili and part of Traditional Authority Njewa. Lilongwe was chosen because it represented a first practical experiment in which the professional police service, private citizens and

entrepreneurs co-produced and continue to co-produce public safety and security in urban, semi-urban and rural communities. Lilongwe offered a rare comparative view of how community policing was implemented and experienced by the communities in the two set ups, and helped to give the researcher perceptions from both police officers and members of the public. This helped the researcher to assess the true value benefits created by community policing in different demographic sites and as perceived by the police and citizens respectively.

The data collected from the three areas displayed some differences thereby giving insights into how best people experienced community policing as a form of co-production. Various aspects of community policing were analysed to appreciate the nature and type of public value benefits they create. Public value created by community policing was studied from its inception in 1997 to the present. Though the research was done between 2022 and 2023, participants included those individuals who were available at the time the concept of community policing was being introduced in Malawi's Lilongwe district in 1997.

4.4 Target Study Population

Active and retired police officers from all sections of the Malawi Police Service, civil society organisations (CSO) leaders, community policing forums (CPF), neighbourhood watch groups and community members with and without community policing knowledge were eligible to participate in this study. These participants were so sampled to participate in the study to give a mix and improve the quality of findings because the knowledge, experiences, perceptions and assumptions about community policing were diverse.

4.5 Sampling Method and Size

Based on phenomenological theory, the initial sample for the study comprised key informants who had experienced or who experienced community policing being implemented. These participants, who included both males and females, were drawn from active and retired police officers, members of the community who benefit from community policing and members of community policing groups and neighbourhood watch groups.

The research used snowballing sampling technique to identify and select participants. Snowball sampling refers to the use of contacts, key informants or initial research participants to recommend other potential participants (Burnham et al., 2008, p. 108). The intention to utilise snowballing sampling technique was to select participants in a strategic manner based on the research questions and aims (Bryman, 2016, p. 508). The first contacts were the Director for Community Policing at Area 30 Police Headquarters and his subordinates. He then led the researcher to current and previous active community police members in the aspect of the study. About four different individuals from the above categories of community members were identified at the start of the snowballing. Since the study was qualitative, it was not possible to predetermine the sample size. As such, sample size was determined by theoretical saturation.

However, the anticipated sample size of participants is presented in the table below, including the numbers and justification of their choices:

Table 4: Anticipated Sample Size of Participants

Participants	Urban	Rural	Total	Justification
Director & Deputy for Community Policing	2		2 (Males)	They helped in snowballing to identify other relevant participants.
Community policing officers	6	6	12 (4 Females)	They experienced community policing. They also participated in implementation of CP.
Civil society leaders	3	3	6 (2 Females)	These are Civil Society members that are greatly involved and experienced community policing.
Community police forums	6	6	12 (4 Females)	These experienced community policing
Neighbourhood watch groups	6	6	12 (4 Females)	These experienced community policing
Community members	3	3	6 (2 Females)	These are individuals who live in the community where community policing is active.
Retired police officers	2	3	5 (1 Female)	To get insights on the initial concept of community policing and compare with what is actually being practiced.
Total	28	27	55	

The total sample size comprised of 17 females (31%) and 38 males (69%). These study participants were drawn from urban, peri-urban and Lilongwe rural.

4.6 Data Collection Methods/Techniques

Data collection methods or techniques allow the researcher to systematically collect information about the objects of study (people, objects, phenomena) and about the settings and context in which these objects occur. In the collection of data, the researcher has to be systematic. If data are collected haphazardly, it will be difficult to answer the research questions in a conclusive way. Being qualitative in nature, the study deployed the following four methods to collect data:

- (a) Key Informant Interviews (face-to-face).
- (b) Focus Group Discussions.
- (c) Observations.
- (d) Document Review.

Voice recorders and note pads were used to record all the data and information that was collected by the interviewers.

4.6.1 Key Informant Interviews

The first data collection method that was deployed in this study was qualitative face to face or one on one in-depth interviews. This method involved in-depth or one on one interview or key informant interviews with individuals that were in some way involved in community policing (semi-structured way). To obtain as many perspectives as possible, participants with different roles were interviewed.

In-depth interviews helped to explore individual experiences and perceptions in a very rich detail and helped to overcome the shortfalls of the observation method (Hakim, 2000, p. 35). Using this method, key informants were interviewed.

Furthermore, key informant interviews were deployed because they have higher response rates, are not terminated early, and provide more complete answers to open-ended questions (Luloff & Elmendorfl, 2001). Key informant interviews also provide rich and spontaneous replies to open-ended questions, as well as personal interaction. Simply put, such interviews help to provide a better view of the social reality of a person, his or her place, and interactions. Key informants are spokespeople who, because of their participation in and knowledge of an area, were asked to describe events, actions, and beliefs, as well as express their attitudes about them (Luloff & Elmendorfl, 2001).

Key informants were identified on the basis of their organisational and community positions, reputations, knowledge of the issues under study, or the fact that they were individuals described by others as knowing a lot about this place or and the topic. Their insights, recollections, and experiences provided an important and logical starting point for the compilation of data about the social reality of community policing programme. Selection of key informants to provide information was accomplished by the use of a modified "snowball" procedure. First, a small number of initial key informants was identified which led the researcher to other individuals who had vital information on the area and subject under study.

4.6.2 Focus Group Discussions

The second method or technique that was deployed to collect qualitative data for this study was focus group discussions (FGDs). Focus group discussions afforded the researcher an opportunity to have unique insights on how groups experienced community policing and

the value that it created to the community collectively (Luloff & Elmendorfl, 2001). As the name suggests, a focus group is an informal discussion in which eight to ten people brainstorm and talk about a topic in their own terms with guidance from a skilled moderator. The main advantage of focus group discussions in this study was that it took the interactive benefits of an interview to the next level by bringing a carefully chosen group of people together for a moderated discussion on the subject of the study.

There were some limitations with the use of FGDs as a tool for data collection. Identifying group members and bringing them together was challenging. To counter this limitation, the researcher used stakeholder mapping to identify individuals who were included in the study's focus group discussions. Further, some critics argue that FGD results cannot be generalisable to a larger group of people. In our opinion, this criticism misses an important point in using focus groups since results of qualitative studies cannot be generalised (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, FGD was deployed to help gather in-depth information from individuals with similarities about their experiences with community policing in their locality. Strictly speaking, the results of FGDs aimed at a locality of interest and are not generalisable beyond Lilongwe district.

The other challenge observed during FGDs was that some participants tended to dominate the conversation while others were shy about expressing their feelings. We acknowledge that challenges such as these were difficult to address. To deal with these challenges the researcher, enlisted the services of a trained moderator familiar with the latest techniques and interventions. In conclusion, it is important to emphasise that FGDs conducted during

the study helped the researcher gain in-depth understanding about community's experiences with community policing as a form of co-production in their locality. FGDs helped generate insights on benefits, challenges and missed opportunities associated with community policing that were not possible to be elicited in one-on-one interviews.

4.5.3 Observations

Seeing is believing, they say. Making direct observations of simplistic phenomena can be a very quick and effective way of collecting data with minimal intrusion. The third method or technique of data collection in this study was observation. This method of data collection involved systematic selecting, watching and recording behaviour and characteristics of individuals as people experienced and engaged in community policing in their natural localities. As proposed by Luloff & Elmendorfl (2001), the researcher adopted both participatory and non-participatory approaches during observations.

Observations were very important in this study because by immersing himself deep into the community, the researcher had an opportunity to observe people's behaviour directly as they experienced community policing in their natural environment and also experienced the public value so created. The researcher was also able to observe good practices from other cities such as Blantyre and Limbe and compare with what was found in urban areas of Lilongwe. For example, the researcher observed that the city of Limbe was fitted with CCTVs which were donated by the communities there. Observation has been described as the 'closest to a gold standard' in qualitative research (Endacott, 2005, p. 125) as it enables comparison between stated and actual actions and often identifies issues that neither the

researcher or the ‘researched’ are overtly aware of. Observation can be carried out as exploratory work to identify themes for further exploration in a fuller study; alternatively, observation and interviews can be undertaken simultaneously or in a sequential manner (Endacott, 2005). In this study, observations were done in a simplified manner that did not require much interpretation of data that was collected. For example, the researcher observed the way community police members treated citizens as they passed through a maiden check point in the residential locations of Area 9 and Area 49. The main challenge with observation method was that data analysis and interpretation had to be done immediately because the observations were not video recorded.

4.6.4 Desk Review/Documentary Analysis

Document collection and review was the fourth method that the study deployed to collect data. This method is what is also known as desk research. Using this method of data collection, the researcher collected relevant documents, publications and other materials on community policing, public value as well as on co-production, read them and analysed their contents to determine the effects that they have on each other.

The above four methods were most appropriate for this study largely because, the study focused on human experiences and behaviours. Through these human experiences with community policing, the study was able to unearth, examine, describe and discover the real type of public value that community policing creates through community engagement. Remember, the study focused on those aspects of human experiences of co-production of public safety and security that cannot be counted or expressed in numbers.

Additionally, deploying four different methods of data collection helped to improve the reliability, credibility and trustworthiness of the collected data, as the four methods triangulated. The presence of several relevant people together at the same time in FGDs encouraged them to engage in a healthy discussion and helped the researcher uncover information that he may not have envisaged. Further-more focus group discussions afforded the researcher a chance to view both sides of the coin and build a balanced perspective on the study.

4.7 Data Collection Tools (see Appendices 1 & 2)

The main tools that were used to collect data in this qualitative phenomenological study included: in-depth interview guide or questionnaire that followed an unstructured or nondirective interview process, focus group discussion schedule and the observation check list. Literature mapping template was developed to help tabulate all the literature that was to be reviewed. The interview guide or questionnaire comprised of open-ended unstructured and semi-structured questions.

An unstructured interview or non-directive interview is an interview in which questions are not prepared in advance. Through unstructured interviews, the nature of conversation between the researcher and interviewee allowed for spontaneity and for questions to develop during the course of the interview which were based on the interviewees' responses. The approach was like engaging in an everyday conversation with the interviewee. The conversation was informal and allowed free flow of information between the two parties. Probing was a key part of the research process that differentiated the

indepth, unstructured interview from the everyday conversation. Using semi-structured interview, the interviewer did not strictly follow formalised list of questions. Instead, the interviewer asked more open-ended questions, allowing for discussions with the interviewee rather than a straight forward question and answer.

An observation tool was also developed to provide the researcher with a checklist of things to focus on during field visits to collect data. Unstructured and semi-structured questions were also deployed during focus group discussions. FGDs provided a rare group interaction amongst similar members of the community and the researcher on specific areas where the researcher wanted to elicit their views and perceptions. The whole FGD process was being directed by questions and themes supplied by the researcher. The group situation helped to stimulate people in making explicit views, perceptions on specific phenomenon as well as explain reasons for the specific behaviour they displayed or explain community behaviour in the course of participating in community policing.

4.8 Data Management

Data management in qualitative research is a designed structure of compilation, systematising, categorising and filing of many small materials that make your data easier to find or retrieve, easier to understand, less likely to be lost, and more likely to be usable during the study or ten years later (Briney, 2015). According to Steneck (2004), data management is fundamentally about taking care of one of the most important things created during the research process which is the data itself. Data management is important in both quantitative and qualitative research because it ensures the truthfulness of the data and

protects research participants (Lin, & Li-Chen, 2009). Data in qualitative research might include field notes, audiotapes or videotapes, transcriptions, memos, and analyses.

Data management is a process that a researcher ventures into before the start of a research study, during the study, and after the research study completion. Data management includes data identification and definition, clearly observing all collected data and properly categorising and organising it, properly recording and having adequate storage for its preservation and backup, as well as producing a report on the study findings and prudent sharing of the said collected data (Steneck, 2004).

Coming to research data, Spichtinger and Siren (2018) and Briney (2015) define it as ‘recorded factual material commonly accepted in the scientific community as necessary to validate research findings including data sets used to support scholarly publications. Concurring with Spichtinger and Siren (2018) and Briney (2015), Meredith (2017, p. 27) defines data as ‘facts represented as text, numbers, graphics, images, sound or video ...’ and goes on to say that ‘data is the raw material used to create information’.

Once data has been collected in a research study it must be properly managed. This study adopts Meredith’s (2017) data management framework to manage its data. This framework helped to guard against methodological omissions and ensured that data met specified needs of the study.

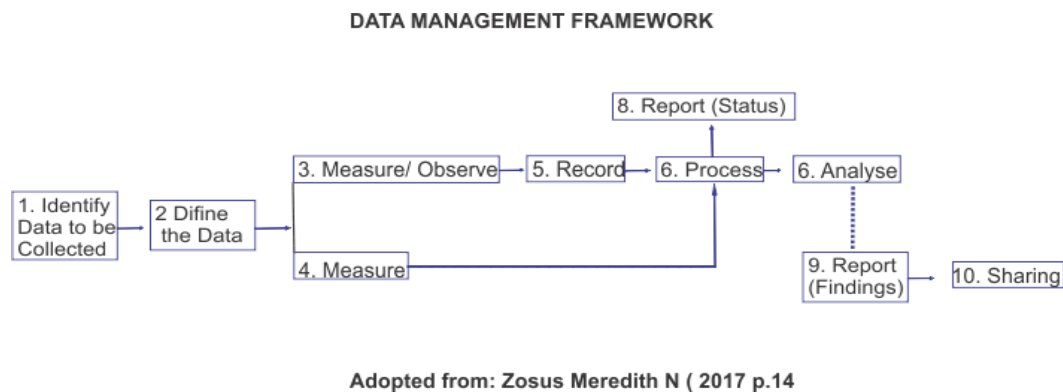


Figure 2:Data Management Framework

Any research data that was collected to validate or support research findings passed through the above stated framework and stages. The researcher started by carefully identifying data that was going to be collected and this was reflected through the data collection tools. It is this data which supported research findings and answered the research questions. Precise identification of data as well as definition were very crucial in ensuring that quality of data was credible and had no disparities or ambiguities. This step ensured that there was no variation in the construct being studied or investigated. This stage also ensured that the investigator did not inadvertently introduce unwanted variability in terms of data being collected. It set the perimeters for data collection.

Secondly, while in some research such as in clinical medicine, measurements are a key component of data management, in this study the focus was on observing the data being collected and how that data was being collected.

The researcher observed the behaviour of different participants during interviews so that their behaviour was correctly interpreted. The researcher also paid particular attention to

data that was collected through observing participants while doing community police work. Proper recording of such data was a priority to avoid contamination. Proper observation during data collection helped to ensure data quality was not compromised.

In terms of data recording, the researcher used an audio recorder to record most of the data collected during the study. Data that could not be electronically recorded was hand-written into a hardcover notebook. Such recording of data helped to preserve it by creating a permanent record. If questions about a study's findings arise, the researcher (and ultimately, the public) can then rely upon this source to reconstruct the research findings. During data recording, the researcher ensured that the source of any data was always clearly identified; protected from untoward alteration, loss, and destruction. To ensure that data quality was not compromised, the researcher recorded data with precision and kept or backed it up at a safe place at his offices.

Fourthly, data processing methods can cause a huge challenge to data quality and accuracy thereby distorting the whole process of converting data to meaningful information. To ensure that meaning of collected data was preserved and that collected data produced meaningful information, the researcher took due care throughout the process of data capturing, data cleaning, data sorting, data entry, summarising and reducing detailed data to main points. This was achieved through well-designed data collecting tools as well as data collection methods.

Fifthly, analysing, reporting of findings and sharing of data are all components of good practice in data management. Although errors in analysis and data presentation sometimes

occur, while potentially costly, they do not change underlying data. The researcher paid great attention to these processes because analysis and reporting data have a huge potential to misrepresent the data. To avoid such misrepresentation, the researcher used the data analysis tools and methods outlined under data analysis section that follows. In terms of data sharing, the researcher kept all data private and confidential. No data was shared with any third party except the University of Malawi for academic purposes only.

All the data collected using key informant interview questionnaires, focus group discussions, photographs, audio recordings, reviewed documents and direct observations as well as through personal experiences was well preserved. That is, the interviews were transcribed verbatim, the transcripts labelled and then stored in the computer and disks ready for analysis. Filed notes or researcher's commentary were arranged in chronological, genre, cast-of-character, event or activity order. All materials were then safely stored for future reference during writing or during editing of the thesis. The researcher kept track of all sources of all the collected data, such as by individual, site, and date. In the whole process of data management, confidentiality, protection of human subjects, data sharing, storage, and ownership was taken into consideration.

In conclusion, it is important to take reminiscence of the benefits of good data management practices. Good data management makes it easier for the researcher or any other person interested in the study data to easily find, or retrieve it and understand the information that it is conveying to the reader or any user of such data. Good data management also allows the research supervisor or any other person who is interested in a study to easily validate

the findings or conclusions by crosschecking such findings with the original data should they be in doubts. Furthermore, good data management allows the data to be retrieved and used long after the study has been conducted and can easily be shared with those who need it. Well managed data can also act as a reference in future as the risk of losing such data is mitigated through back-ups. Accurate findings of the study also depend on good data management.

If data is not properly managed, there are several associated risks. Poor data management may compromise the whole research data resulting into coming up with incorrect findings. Poor data management makes the findings untrustworthy. Poorly managed or recorded data may result in some data missing from the record. Data that is poorly managed risks being duplicated and wrongly entered. It is against the foregoing reasons that the researcher chose to abide by good data management practices throughout the study. It needs to be emphasised that failure to properly manage data may have a huge impact on the quality of the collected data and ultimately affect the validity of research findings resulting in failure by the researcher to answer the research question(s). The validity of research findings solely rests on foundation data.

4.9 Data Analysis

Before analysing the data, the interviews were first recorded and transcribed into readable form. The pauses, restarts, filler words and other unnecessary voices were excluded from the transcription because they did not provide extra information to this study. With the transcription of the interviews, codes, themes and theories were linked to the text. Besides

that, illustrative quotes were selected that could be used for the analysis of the data to depict what the participants had expressed. To code the data in a structural way, an open coding scheme was developed. This was not only done for coding the interviews, but also for the coding of the documents. The transcripts of the interviews and the documents were fully analysed based on the coding scheme and values were given to the text fragments. The coding went according to open and selective coding (Mills et al., 2010). This means that the transcripts were first read without connecting them to the data. In the axial coding the fragments were linked to one another and where necessary recoded. Finally, during the selective coding, the concepts were linked to the concepts of the theory. To systematically code the texts and to enhance the analysis, the programme ATLAS.ti was used. This programme provided opportunities for giving codes to the texts, but also to create code families for certain themes (Mills et al., 2010). Finally, content analysis was used to analyse the data and the discussion of the findings was based on the outputs from ATLAS.ti 8.

Data analysis was an on-going process, taking place throughout the data collection process. In fact, in qualitative research, data analysis is supposed to be an on-going process throughout the study. The researcher kept thinking about and reflecting upon the emerging themes, adapting and changing the methods where necessary.

Data analysis was done using a computer-based programme called ATLAS.ti and Microsoft word. All collected data in form of narrative transcripts, transcribed verbatim, was uploaded onto the computer programme from where it was to be coded after creating a code book. The discrete codes were generated from concepts that were derived from analysis of individual transcripts. The computer programme ATLAS.ti was then used to

generate reports from where summaries of outputs were generated by the researcher. These summaries, coupled with specific quotations that were extracted from the code book, were then used to generate findings of the study. Report summaries helped to generate themes that segmented and divided into meaningful analytical units. Open and thematic coding was used during data analysis (Saldaña, 2016; Gibbs, 2007). Open coding or inductive coding was used because the code book had codes that were developed from scratch and were created based on the qualitative data that was collected. These codes arose directly from the survey responses. Simultaneously, thematic coding was used because data analysis involved recording or identifying passages or texts and images that were linked by a common theme or idea allowing the researcher to index the text into categories, thereby establishing a ‘framework of thematic ideas about it’. Based on preliminary literature review, some data was pre-coded to speed up the analysis process. Since there were documents and literature review, documentary or content analysis was used in data analysis. This data was finally presented in tables and narrative forms.

4.10 Credibility and Trustworthiness of the Study

The purpose of academic research is to put some knowledge created through findings into practice (Rose & Johnson, 2020). This requires a high level of credibility and trustworthiness from the researcher. For qualitative research to yield meaningful and useful results, it must be conducted in a more rigorous and methodical manner (Nguyen et al., 2021). The researchers must demonstrate that data analysis has been conducted in a precise, consistent, and exhaustive manner through recording with enough detail to enable the reader to determine whether the researcher did not just impose what was expected when

reporting the findings (Nowell et. al., 2017). According to (Megheirkouni & Moir, 2023) there are four general criteria that can be used to establish trustworthiness and credibility in qualitative studies. These are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. To ensure that this study was credible and trustworthy to readers and other researchers, it relied on the same criteria as presented below.

4.10.1 Credibility

Credibility focuses on ensuring that views, perceptions and opinions of respondents are represented by the researcher in a manner that does not divert its meaning or intention (Leung, 2015). Anim-Wright (2024) suggested a number of techniques to address credibility including activities such as prolonged engagement with the study, persistent observation, data collection triangulation and peer debriefing to provide an external check on the research process. Credibility can also be operationalised through the process of member checking to test the researchers' findings and interpretations with the opinions and views of participants (Ahmed, 2024).

4.10.1.1 Prolonged Engagement with Data

During the present study, the researcher was personally involved in the field collecting data using multiple sources and multiple data collection tools to get different views. Since 2022, the researcher has been deeply immersed in data collection and was in direct contact with research participants to observe their experiences with community policing. The researcher also crosschecked the veracity of data using multiple data sources and data collection tools. Additionally, being a police officer, the researcher was part of the police community. The researcher was more knowledgeable of the participants. This increased the level of trust

between the researcher and the participants. The participants demonstrated a higher degree of honesty during interviews because they had trust in the researcher being known for some time. With such a higher level of trust between the researcher and participants, it is highly likely credibility of data and results was achieved.

4.10.1.2 Member Check or Validation Interview

The researcher collected data multiple times to ensure consistency and validity. Some participants who could not physically be revisited were sent text messages just to validate the findings and clarify things that the researcher missed during the initial data collection interview.

This was a continuous process throughout the study up to the time when the final conclusions were made. This helped to reduce the researcher's biases and assumptions about the data he collected.

4.10.1.3 Triangulation

To ensure the credibility of the data, triangulation was done through the use of multiple data collection methods and instruments as well as different sources by the researcher.

Triangulation is the use of multiplicity to test the credibility of one's research. In this study, the researcher used interviews, triangulated with focus group discussions, desk research, and direct observation to collect data from the subjects who freely consented to become participants of the study. The researcher also triangulated theories at the stage of data analysis by triangulating NPS and Decentralisation theories. Theoretical triangulation is the use of multiple theoretical orientations to understand findings or to direct the research. The researcher also did environmental or research site triangulation. This was achieved

through the use of multiple research sites which included Lilongwe urban, peri-urban, and rural. The researcher was confident that the more sources of data that were present, the more confident the researcher was about the credibility of the data used in the study. The use of multiple sources and data collection methods helped to confirm whether the various sources of data agreed on particular themes and findings of the research.

4.10.2 Transferability

The aspect of credibility and trustworthiness of the study was very important to the researcher, given that by design qualitative research does not (cannot) aim for replicability. Transferability refers to the generalisability of inquiry or the ability to transfer the results to other contexts. In qualitative research, this concerns only case-to-case transfer (Hadi & José Closs, 2016). However, the major way through which the researcher attempted to ensure the transferability of the present study was through the thick description. The thick description was adopted because it provided a rich circumstance for application to other situations, and usually at their request since the researcher cannot know the sites that may wish to transfer the findings to. It was important to provide thick descriptions so that those who seek to transfer the findings to their own site can judge transferability on their own. As part of the thick description, the researcher paid particular attention to the voices, feelings, actions, and meanings of opinions and perceptions of participants. For example, during interviews, participants were allowed to give long explanations and details of community policing which were later used as quotations in the narratives in the study. To enhance transferability, the researcher has also included a lot of contextual information about the fieldwork sites that he visited. As part of the thick analysis, the researcher read

all the data that was collected and analysed it. He produced direct, detailed and descriptive quotations to support the findings of the study.

4.10.3 Dependability

Dependability in qualitative research simply means that the findings would be consistent if the same study were conducted two or more times (Rose & Johnson, 2020). To achieve dependability, researchers must ensure the research process is logical, traceable, and clearly documented (Nguyen et al., 2021). When readers are able to examine the research process, they are better able to judge the dependability of the research (Ahmed, 2024). To ensure the dependability of this study, the researcher engaged the following methods:

4.10.3.1 Peer Debriefing

The researcher engaged an experienced researcher who had no prior knowledge on the research subject from the Malawi University of Business and Applied Science (MUBAS) to review several sections of the study including research methodology, data collection tools, problem statement, significance of the study and data analysis and confirmed if they were correctly done and helped to respond to research questions as reflected in the findings. The researcher also had an opportunity to discuss his findings with peer researchers who, at the time of the study, were pursuing PhDs from the University of Malawi. This helped to reduce the researcher's bias. These colleagues critically looked at the study and made comments that assisted to improve the credibility and trustworthiness of the final product.

4.10.3.2 Audit trail

To ensure dependability of the study findings, the researcher also kept an audit trail of all research related activities. He kept all audio recordings, transcripts, files and the researcher's notebook or diary so that these could be produced to anyone who may want to check and confirm with the findings and final conclusions of the study.

4.10.4 Confirmability

A fourth perspective on credibility and trustworthiness of a qualitative study is confirmability. (Anim-Wright, 2024). Confirmability is concerned with establishing that the researcher's interpretations and findings are derived from the data, requiring the researcher to demonstrate that study conclusions are based on data and not researchers' imaginations (Leung, 2015). According to Zia et al. (2023), confirmability of qualitative data can be assured when data are checked throughout data collection and analysis. To achieve confirmability, the researcher gave proper and clear reasons and justifications for the choice of the theoretical framework, methodology used, and other choices throughout the entire study. Like dependability, an audit trail of each step of data collection and data analysis was done. Further, data analysis was done in a very consistent and exhaustive manner by the researcher without being affected by his biases or attitude. For example, the researcher consistently provided direct quotations from participants throughout the study. It helped the researchers and the participants to understand how and why conclusions were made and easily accept them as credible (Nguyen et al., 2021).

4.11 Ethical Considerations

In any research study, ethical considerations are of paramount importance. Before embarking on data collection exercise, the researcher sought authority and approval from University of Malawi Research Ethics Committee (UNIMAREC). To ensure that respondents voluntarily participated in the study, the researcher sought their informed consent. Respondents were assured of their safety and confidentiality. This was done by ensuring that all participants sign the informed consent form before participating in the study. The researcher made sure and assured all respondents of their safety throughout the interview process. Respondents were also assured of maximum privacy and confidentiality. Considering the nature and context of the study, some respondents, particularly serving members of the police service, were not very willing to respond. However, they were all assured that the study was for academic pursuits only and that no information given would be used as evidence against them at any time in the future. Respondents were also informed about their right to withdraw from participating in the study at any point of their will and that no penalty would be charged on them. Most of the collected data has been electronically stored. Any data that was not required in the study was discarded.

4.12 Foreseeable and Unforeseeable Adverse Events

During the research period, COVID-19 remained a global health crisis. At the same time, Malawi was also heavily affected by other pandemics like cholera. Given the uncertainty and the breadth of the pandemic, risk mitigating measures were put in place to ensure that the spread of the disease was minimised amongst the researcher, research assistants and participants.

There remains no known cure for the COVID-19 virus. However, there are now some known effective vaccines that can help to improve the immune systems and thereby reduce the severe impacts of the virus. Considering that in this study, data was collected among retired and serving police officers, members of community policing, members of neighbourhood watch groups and members of the community, it was important that the researcher put in place measures that would help to mitigate the risks of people participating in the study from being exposed to COVID-19. In this regard and according to World Health Organisation guidelines, preventive measures such as physical or social distancing between research participants, ventilation of indoor spaces where interviews were conducted, covering the mouth and nose when coughing and sneezing, hand washing, keeping unwashed hands away from the face, the use of face masks or coverings were adhered to during the whole research process to protect individuals from the virus.

Additionally, the researcher, where possible, encouraged the screening of the research assistant prior to in-depth interviews and receive the vaccine few days before data collection exercise begun. The researcher provided research assistants with disposable face masks and hand sanitizers. Where possible, virtual interviews were conducted.

4.13 Dissemination of Findings

Research is of no use unless its findings get to the people who need it. This is part of policy and practical contributions of the study. In this study, some of the findings were and will continue to be disseminated through presentations at conferences. The findings will also be disseminated to staff and students at the University of Malawi.

As part of contribution to knowledge and literature, parts of the thesis have also been published in peer-reviewed journals including the Malawi Journal of Social Sciences. Feedback on the findings of the study will also be provided to individual participants from serving and retired police officers as well as members of community policing. Some of the most important findings were also shared with members of the Malawi Police Strategic Management Team and the High Command so that they can integrate them into policies and procedures of the Malawi Police Service. Remember, the police is the key beneficiary of the findings from this academic research.

The whole process of disseminating findings was done in a participatory manner without breaching confidentiality and rights of individuals who participated in the study.

Confidentiality of participants was assured via the informed consent and confidentiality forms which were signed by both the researcher and the participants. At data cleaning stage, the researcher tried to remove any information that may have breached confidentiality of the participants. This was done without altering or destroying the original meaning of the data. Where necessary, pseudo names were used during research findings dissemination. Much as it is important to share the findings of the study at different stages, dissemination of findings was done only at the end of the study. Time was the biggest limiting factor for the findings to be shared at various stages. The major risk with dissemination of findings of this study was biasness of the researcher. In some cases, it was difficult to share some findings with some stakeholders who the researcher felt could be aggrieved by the same.

4.14 Study Limitations

Firstly, the study was affected by the methodical and sample size limitation. Being qualitative in nature, the study was conducted using relatively small sample size, limited to only one district of Lilongwe. This sample may not have fully represented diverse perspectives of the people that are involved in the co-production of public safety and security in Malawi. However, the limitation from this small sample was off-set by use of various methods of data collection that the study deployed. Further-more, small sample size was also offset by the fact that the study was done in both Lilongwe rural and urban. This approach provided a true picture of people's behaviour in both rural and urban environments.

Time factor was a second limitation that affected the study. Qualitative studies require more time to collect and analyse data. The data collected was too huge and difficult to analyse. This being an academic thesis, it had to be completed within a specific period of time. To offset this limitation, the researcher directly got involved in data collection so that challenges that came with interpretation of huge amount of data were mitigated. By being directly involved in data collection, the researcher had a fair understanding of every process of data collection and was in a position to ascribe the correct meaning to each theme or segment of data.

The third limitation was inadequate prior research on this topic in Malawi.

A lot of research has been done on co-production as well as on creating public value in other African countries and the west, but there was not yet any in-depth research on coproduction, public value and community policing in Malawi. As such the study mainly relied on foreign literature to compare the real public value created by co-production on aspects of public safety and security as well as challenges and opportunities associated with the same.

4.15 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the methodology that was deployed when conducting this research study. This study adopted a qualitative research approach or design, and relied on both primary and secondary sources. Qualitative research approach best suited the study because the study focused on human experiences with community policing that could not just be counted or expressed in numbers. Snowballing sampling technique was used to identify respondents. In-depth interviews (IDIs), focus group discussions (FGDs) and observations were used to explore, analyse, observe and interpret personal perceptions, behaviours, narratives and experiences. Respondents included serving and retired police officers, civil society leaders, community policing and neighbourhood watch groups and common citizens.

The study deployed phenomenological enquiry to collect and analyse data. This method was most appropriate for this study because individuals who were directly involved with community policing spoke about their lived-experiences on benefits, challenges and missed opportunities associated with community policing as a form of co-production.

Interviews were conducted in a local language, Chichewa, and translated into English.

Secondary documents and interview transcripts and data were managed and analysed using ATLAS.ti. The researcher developed a codebook using inductive and deductive methods to identify and organise emerging themes. Being qualitative, the study was limited by sample size of 66 respondents which was relatively small. Inadequate academic and scholarly research on this topic in Malawi was another limitation. The following chapter presents findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5

BENEFITS OF COMMUNITY POLICING AS A FORM OF CO-PRODUCTION

5.1 Introduction

The first objective of this phenomenological qualitative study was to examine public value benefits of community policing as a form of co-production in Malawi's Lilongwe district. The analysis focused on views and perceptions of police officers and members of the public on their experience with community policing as a form of co-production. This chapter, therefore, presents the findings and discussion on public value benefits of community policing as a form of co-production in Lilongwe district. The chapter starts by presenting the response rate of the study and the demographic data of the respondents. Where necessary, the findings on each research area are disaggregated according to urban, periurban and rural set up.

5.2 Demographic Data

Fifty (50) respondents participated in the Key Informant Interviews (KII). Of these, seventeen (17) were active police officers of various ranks (9 from urban and 8 from rural), four (4) were retired police officers all of senior ranks (2 from urban and 2 from rural), seven (7) members of the Civil Society Organisations (CSOs), twelve (12) were members of community police forums/crime prevention panels (CPFs/CPPs), five (5) members of neighbourhood watch group (NHW), five (5) were ordinary members of the community. Three (3) FGDs (n=16) were conducted with active police officers, community police forum members and neighbourhood watch group members respectively. The total number of respondents for the study was 66, of which, 16 were females (24.2%) and 50 were males (75.7%). Respondents in the police officer's KII category were 21 while in the members of the public KII category there were 29 respondents who comprised 7 CSO members, 12 CPF members, 5 NHW members and 5 ordinary citizens.

Table 5: Demographic Data

Category	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	Age Group	Total
Police Officers (active)	14	3	9	8	25-60	17
Rt. Police	3	1	2	2	55-65	4
CSO	5	2	7	-	30-65	7
CPF	9	3	6	6	20-60	12
NHW	5	-	5	-	20-30	5
Community Members	2	3	3	2	30-50	5
FGD	12	4	11	5	30-55	16
Total	50	16	43	23	20-65	66

5.3 Knowledge and Understanding of the Concept Community Policing

5.3.1 Police Respondents

To assess police officers' level of knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing and how it was implemented, the researcher asked them three major questions which included describing the concept community policing; outlining key objectives of community policing and mentioning any three key initiatives through which community policing was implemented.

Responses were then grouped into level of knowledge and understanding: highest level, higher level, moderate/average level, lower level and poor level of knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing. Responses were rated on a scale of 1 to 5, with a rating of 5 representing highest level of knowledge and 1 representing poor knowledge.

The results revealed that there was higher level of knowledge and understanding amongst a majority of the active and retired police officers (n=16/21). Two (2) retired police officers demonstrated highest level of knowledge and understanding of the concept of community policing. Three (3) police officers demonstrated lower level of knowledge and understanding. For example, a police officer from Lilongwe rural ably described community policing as 'working collaboration between the police and the community policing forum'. On objectives of community policing, a senior police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

The objective is to make sure that the communities are taking part in law enforcement. I can say so, making their area safe and secure. They should be able to take part in policing. Otherwise in the past it's only the police who were just enforcing the law on them.

But the objective is to allow them to become part of policing. That's the main objective, I think. (Interview with senior police officer, urban, 22/06/2022).

A retired female police officer from Lilongwe urban also ably described community policing as 'a philosophy and organisation strategy that promotes a new partnership between police and members of the public and civil society'.

She added that for community policing to be successful, there has to be a relationship between police and the community, and civil society in that designated area. She further said that the essence of this partnership between the community and police is to make sure that safety and security is promoted in specific areas. According to her understanding, 'community policing was a policing strategy that mainly focused on developing relationship and partnership between police and the community'.

5.3.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

To assess the level of knowledge and understanding of the concept of community policing and how it was implemented amongst ordinary members of the public, the researcher asked respondents three major questions, which included describing the concept of community policing; outlining key objectives of community policing, and mentioning any three key initiatives through which community policing is implemented. Responses were then

grouped into highest level of knowledge and understanding, higher level, moderate/average level, lower level and poor knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing.

Responses were rated on a scale of 1 to 5, with a rating of 5 representing highest level of knowledge and 1 representing poor knowledge. The following were the responses from members of the CSOs, CPF, NHW and ordinary citizens:

5.3.2.1 Civil Society Organisations

Results from the KIIs with CSO members revealed that all seven (n=7) members of the CSO demonstrated higher level of knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing and how it was implemented in Lilongwe. When asked a series of questions regarding the concept of community policing, almost all of the CSO members were able to explain it as well as how they were involved in its implementation. Members of the Civil Society were also able to explain myriad benefits of community policing as a form of coproduction. One CSO member from Lilongwe urban described community policing as:

As policing which involves participation of the community in matters of security in their area, the creation of cordial working relationship between the police on one hand and community on the other hand. So that security issues are discussed jointly and it would also involve coming up with strategies to improve the prevailing situation in that particular community. (Interview with CSO member from the urban 28/06/2022).

Another member of the Civil Society from the urban said that she had heard the word of community policing for quiet long, since early 2000 when democracy came to Malawi. She indicated that her understanding of the concept community policing was that, citizens were

expected to work together with Malawi police on safety and security issues. She added that during initial stages, the concept sounded very theoretical and academic and that people talked about it because it was practical in South Africa and some countries in the West. She quickly added that though community policing was introduced in Malawi as a Department for International Development (DFID) initiative, over the years, it had opened up to everyone to participate, such that as of today she could sit at home and telephone an Officer In-Charge of police who could respond to the call.

5.3.2.2 Community Police Members' Knowledge of Community Policing

Results from in-depth interviews (IDIs) with CPF members revealed that a majority of CPF members (n=11/12) demonstrated higher level knowledge and understanding of the concept, how it is implemented as well as its benefits and challenges. Members of CPF were able to describe and explain the concept of community policing as well as define its objectives. CPF members were also able to describe their roles as community policing members. A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural narrated that:

In the past we had something called Vacabu (Rogue and vagabond) and we heard that Vacabu was abolished, and now there is community policing. Community policing was established because there was no relationship between police and members of the community. Police officers used to be chased by the members of the community. When police changed from Malawi police force to Malawi police service then it was when community policing was established to help amah, the main objective of community

policing is the relationship, sharing of information with the police.

Community policing was established for community forums to share information with police.... (Interview with CPF member from rural,

22/06/2022).

Another member of CPF from Lilongwe urban described community policing as a term that is used to describe a group of people that go to patrol their designated areas to make sure that there is calm in terms of security; to prevent burglary, fighting among people, and also to make sure that people were not getting lost. He added that community policing members assist the police to ensure that places where people abuse drugs and alcohol, including smoking Indian hemp or Chamba are known and raided by the police.

5.3.2.3 NHW Knowledge and Understanding of Community Policing

The study found that a majority of NHW group respondents (n=3/5) demonstrated moderate knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing. A few respondents from the group were able to satisfactorily respond to questions on community policing. The majority of the respondents from this group was not able to differentiate between community policing and vigilante groups. Most respondents reported that they had not been trained in the concept of community policing. There was no evidence to show that these NHW groups had a working relationship with community policing officers from the police stations that formed part of the study. The findings revealed that most NHW groups operated as paid-up vigilantes employed by members of the neighbourhood to guard or provide security within a specific precinct.

A member of Area 49 NHW indicated that, they had authority to detain or ‘sit down’ citizens who were found to be loitering at night and advise them about the dangers of loitering around at odd hours. He indicated that as NHW groups, they normally station themselves on the road and mount road blocks to question the people. Another member of Area 49 NHW FGD described their duties as not only to protect people, but also spread information about funerals and weddings. He added that NHW also facilitate familiarisation among community members.

He concluded by indicating that their job was not voluntary, but that they were paid by the people they worked for. The chairperson of Area 49 NHW group indicated that according to his knowledge, community policing represented people who were paid by local residents to offer security within the local area. He narrated that community police members were not employees of government and were not in any way connected to government. He indicated that community police members help to provide security during functions such as funerals and weddings.

5.3.2.4. Ordinary Citizens’ Knowledge and Understanding of Community Policing

The findings of this study reveal that a majority (n=4/5) of ordinary citizens in Lilongwe demonstrated moderate or average level of knowledge and understanding of community policing. They were able to describe the concept community policing as well as demonstrate how it was implemented. These respondents were also able to describe advantages and benefits of community policing as co-production. However, there were a few citizens who confused community policing with ‘Inkantha’ or vigilante groups. A male

citizen from Lilongwe urban was able to describe community policing as a grouping of individuals who live in an area and partner with the police at a particular time and are able to identify individuals who cause trouble and commit crimes in that area, are able to apprehend them and give information to the Malawi Police Service. He added that community police are individuals who make sure that there is peace in an area and they patrol around to ensure that crime is reduced; and also, to remove fear from the people. These are people that help with immediate protection, safeguarding of the community, he added. He concluded by asserting that community police normally have basic understanding of policing. A female citizen from Lilongwe urban also said:

Community policing is there to make sure that there is peace, secondly to make sure that they patrol and crime is reduced. And also, to remove the fear from the people. Is the security of the community by the community.
(Interview with female citizen from urban, 27/06/2022).

Only a few respondents demonstrated lower-level knowledge of community policing as a tool of co-production. One citizen confused community policing with ‘Inkantha’. However, he was still able to correctly describe the roles performed by community police groups as members of community who come together and discharge duties on behalf of the police.

In summary, the study found that a majority of the citizens from Lilongwe urban and rural who participated in the study demonstrated moderate or average level of knowledge about community policing.

5.3.3 Discussion on Knowledge and Understanding of the Concept Community Policing

Overall, the findings on participants' level of knowledge and understanding of the concept of community policing as form of co-production revealed that there was higher level of knowledge and understanding of the concept as a form of co-production amongst a majority of active and retired police officers. Sixteen (16) of the twenty-one (21) active and retired police officers were able to describe the concept community policing. Two (2) retired police officers demonstrated highest level of knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing. Three (3) police officers demonstrated lower level of knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing.

These results agreed with current international perspective on knowledge and understanding of community policing, particularly among police officers. For example, Olusegun (2016) in South West Nigeria found that all respondents demonstrated higher level knowledge of community policing as co-production and they were aware of its existence across Nigeria. Among other reasons, enhanced knowledge on community policing in South West Nigeria was attributed to its inclusion in the police curriculum and massive awareness among the communities. Similarly, Osayekemwen and Adeoluwa (2022) in a study on the 'The Involvement of Community Members in Community Policing in Nigeria' also found that due to considerable number of years that community policing had been implemented in Nigeria coupled with aggressive trainings, a bigger proportion of the population (including police officers) of Odeomus community in Nigeria, with 100% respondents, were very much aware of what community policing involved. Another study

conducted in Soshanguve Township in South Africa in 2014 also found that the perceptions of police officers on the extent to which the police understood the philosophy of community policing showed that irrespective of educational differences, the majority of police officers very well understood the philosophy of community policing and its implementation (Masogo et al, 2014). In their study Masogo et al, (2014) found that 92.3% of the respondents with grade 12 and 87.50% of the respondents with a certificate, diploma or degree agreed that police officers understood the philosophy of community policing.

Coming to Malawi, the findings of this aspect of the study differed markedly from the findings by Mutupha and Zhu (2022), who in their study on community policing in Malawi found that a majority of police officers lacked knowledge on the concept of community policing. According to Mutupha and Zhu, only 92 (30.6%) police officers attempted to explain the concept of community policing while 108 (54%) respondents indicated they did not know.

From the findings, it can be argued that, the three officers who demonstrated lower knowledge of the concept of community policing, did so because of sheer lack of interest to acquaint themselves with the philosophy of community policing.

From literature review, it was well documented that since 2004, community policing was integrated into basic recruit curriculum which was offered to all police training schools in Malawi. Community policing was also integrated into the Command and Leadership course which was offered at Police College in Zomba. Moreover, all refresher courses for police officers offer a module on community policing. It is therefore imperative that all

police officers must start demonstrating higher level of knowledge and understanding of the concept.

Coming to Civil Society respondents, community police members, neighbourhood watch members and citizen respondents, the study found that a majority of civil society respondents and CPF members demonstrated higher level of knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing. These respondents were able to describe community policing as well as mention some of its elements. The findings on the above three categories of respondents revealed that the introduction of community policing in 1997, enhanced people's uptake and understanding of the concept particularly amongst police officers, CSO members and CPF members. On the part of ordinary citizens and members of NHW groups, the findings of the study revealed that there was moderate to higher-level knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing and how it was implemented. This study therefore found that there was a huge positive trajectory (moderate to higher-level of knowledge and understanding) in Malawi as well as other African countries on knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing as a form of co-production.

The findings were consistent with NPS theory of public management which posit that police cannot achieve any positive transformation without the support and engagement of the public. However, for the police to meaningfully work in partnership with the public, they must have clear understanding of the phenomenon. Meaningful participation in any project starts with knowledge empowerment. Further, we cannot talk of decentralisation in

community policing without empowering both police officers and members of the public with requisite knowledge about community policing. The study therefore, argues that, training and capacity building are very crucial in project implementation. It is always important to start any project with capacity building and knowledge empowerment.

5.4 General Safety and Security

5.4.1 Police Respondents

Active and retired police officers shared their experiences and perception on how satisfied or dissatisfied they were with safety and security situation in Lilongwe in view of coproduction of safety and security through community policing. Likert scale of very satisfied, satisfied, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, dissatisfied and very dissatisfied were used to measure the level of satisfaction. The results show that no police officer rated general safety and security in Lilongwe as very satisfactory. The majority of active and retired police officers (n=20/21) perceived general safety and security in Lilongwe as being satisfactory or average. One retired police officer (n=1/4) perceived safety and security in Lilongwe as not satisfactory. The results from the police focus group discussions show that participants were averagely satisfied with general safety and security in Lilongwe.

No police officer was very satisfied. For example, a retired senior police officer from Lilongwe urban described general security in Lilongwe as follows:

I could say average or just satisfactory, I must be honest with you. Those days you could drive without fear your vehicle, you could open even the windows even at ten. You see someone standing at the stage, you stop pick that person up and you drop you go. But you cannot do that now because

you don't know what he is doing there. What's his intentions? That's why you make sure that windows, doors of your car are safe. It's a small prison. When you are walking you need to be conscious every time and be ready for any attack. Very unfortunate. (Interview with retired senior police officer from the urban, 20/06/2022).

An officer working in the criminal investigation department from Lilongwe urban also described general security situation in Lilongwe as a bit better than how it was in the past. However, he was quick to add that crimes that were giving the police headaches in Lilongwe mainly concerned robbery with violence.

5.4.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

Members of the public shared their experiences and perception on the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with safety and security situation in Lilongwe in view of the implementation of community policing as a form of co-production of safety and security. A likert scale of very Satisfied, Satisfied, Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, Dissatisfied and Very Dissatisfied was used to rate the responses. Responses on this area were grouped into Lilongwe rural and urban. A majority of members of the public (n=28/29) perceived general safety and security in Lilongwe as being satisfactory. Only one member of the public (n=1/29) who was from CSO rated general safety and security as very satisfactory. Results from CPF and NHW focus group discussions showed that participants were satisfied with general safety and security in Lilongwe. The following table presents views and perceptions from members of the public.

Table 6: Views and Perceptions from Members of Public on General Security

	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Dissatisfied.	Very Dissatisfied.
CSO	1	7			
CPF		12			
NHW		5			
Citizens		5			
FGD (CPF)		n=5			
FGD (NHW)		n=4			

A member of one Civil Society Organisation from Lilongwe urban described general security as satisfactory. She mentioned that in the upmarket area where she was staying, the police usually responded with speed whenever citizens had issues to do with security. She indicated that she was staying with two boys at her home. She added that her boys were alcoholics and they usually came back home very late. But none of the two boys had ever been attacked for a long period that she had resided in that area. She emphasised that in the old days they never used to see police officers in their location, but that during the time of the study, police were seen patrolling in their community.

She said that police visibility helped to prevent certain types of crimes and made them feel safe. A member of Crime Prevention Panel (CPP) from Lilongwe urban described general safety and security in Lilongwe as ‘average or just satisfactory’. He attributed his response to the fact that the area for which they were responsible to provide community security was wide and that despite implementation of community policing, there were still fewer people who fully supported the police in co-producing safety and security in the area. He further

indicated that security in Lilongwe was not very good because of street kids. Finally, a citizen from Lilongwe urban described security in his area of residence as satisfactory.

He emphasised that in areas where there were no CPF, there was more chaos and insecurity. But in areas where CPF were active, criminals were scared to commit crimes and issues of safety and security were also discussed in different gatherings.

5.4.3 Lilongwe Rural

Overall, a majority of respondents from Lilongwe rural (n=25/29) expressed satisfaction with general safety and security situation in rural areas. No respondent expressed strong satisfaction. Two (n=2/29) respondents were dissatisfied. A CPF member from Lilongwe rural described the safety and security situation in Lilongwe rural as follows:

Security is much better now; people are able to do their business without fear of losing their properties than before when crime was really high and also people were not that friendly with Police. I can say at individual level, security is good, I can walk freely without being attacked. (Interview with CPF member from rural, 22/06/2022).

CPF Members of FGD from Lilongwe rural described security situation as satisfactory or good. They attributed the situation to good collaboration and working relationship that existed between the police and citizens. They indicated that citizens were able to report crime and disorders to police without fear.

5.4.4 Lilongwe Urban

Despite a concern with an increase in cases of robbery, a majority of members of the public from Lilongwe urban expressed average satisfaction with safety and security situation prevailing in their areas, more especially those from low-density areas. For example, three members of CS from Lilongwe urban indicated that they were generally satisfied with the prevailing security situation in their areas. “Am satisfied with current security in our area”, said one civil society member from Lilongwe urban. Another member of the civil society said:

As of now am satisfied. But also, may be because of my position so am trying not to disassociate with others. Because for me if I call you (police), you will respond immediately saying, where are you and what has happened but others may not have that access that they can do that, so may be those levels we need to differentiate. At home you may have people that you live with who don't matter in society. As far as am concerned I live with a few relatives of mine and we have two nephews, they are bad boys because they drink and come at times late but we have not known of an attack meaning that they can walk in very late and at times walk out at eight but they come back. Either those people are their friends or it's just safe. (Interview with CSO members from urban, 30/06/2022).

A citizen from Lilongwe urban also described security in Lilongwe urban as generally good. He indicated that though there were some challenges, like late police response, he still perceived security as satisfactory. He raised concerns with gangs of some youth like ‘B30’ which he said were giving problems in his areas.

5.4.5 Discussion on General Safety and Security

The above findings demonstrated that co-production of public safety and security through community policing had greatly contributed towards attainment of satisfactory level of

general safety and security in Lilongwe. Through enhanced police visibility, CPF and NHW group visibility as well as through rapid response service provided by police, CPF members and NHW groups, respondents were able to be given timely safety and security services. Additionally, the results clearly demonstrated that there were several groupings of people, including Chinese, Nigerians, Burundians and others, who were always forthcoming with various forms of support to the police in form of cash donations for fueling police vehicles, reflective jackets for CPF and NHW members, torches, patrol vehicles as well as participating in joint patrols with the police.

These findings strongly agree with the findings of the most recent study on global peace index, which ranked Malawi as the eleventh (11th) safest country out 44 countries in SubSaharan Africa (Institute for Economics & Peace. Global Peace Index 2023, p.19).

At global level, Malawi was ranked as 74th safest country in the world (Institute for Economics & Peace. Global Peace Index 2023, p.9) According to the Global Peace Index (GPI) report of 2023, much as the world had become less peaceful for the 13th time in the last 15 years, Malawi's position on global peace though fluctuating, has generally taken a positive trajectory in the past twenty (20) years. This is a testimony that among others, community policing initiatives are bearing fruits in the areas of enhancing public safety and security.

The findings further agree with what Ngwala and Abebe (2023) found in their study on community policing in Malawi. In their study, the two authors found that community policing had a significant impact in terms of improving general safety and security in Lilongwe. In western Nigeria too, a study conducted by Olusegun (2016) also found that

about 93% of the respondents agreed that community policing as a form of co-production significantly contributed to improved perceptions of general safety and security among the communities.

Interestingly, some respondents from rural areas attributed satisfactory level of general safety and security in their areas to mob justice (Interview with FGD member from rural, 22/06/2022). These respondents argued that criminals were scared of being killed by the mobs once arrested. It can therefore be argued that much as mob justice must never be condoned; threats of mob justice act as huge deterrent to criminal activities in many locations in Malawi. However, it is important to acknowledge that the study also found that there was some disparity in terms of provision of general safety and security to the haves and have-nots (poor and affluent). The affluent living in low-density areas seemed to be accorded better security coverage than the poor living in high-density areas. The study revealed that citizens residing in low-density areas of Lilongwe enjoyed better safety and security services such as police rapid response system as well as easiness to access police facilities. One of reasons why residents from low-density areas of Lilongwe enjoyed better safety and security services was that, policy makers and individuals who matter in society including cabinet ministers, senior police officers and popular business people reside in these areas, as such the police paid more attention to these areas than any other area. Additionally, it was observed that a single act of criminality in low density area tended to have wider implications in terms of perception about crime.

5.5 Personal Safety and Security

5.5.1 *Views and Perceptions from Police Participants*

Individual active or serving and retired police officers shared their personal experiences and perception on how satisfied or dissatisfied they were with personal safety and security situation in Lilongwe. Likert scale of very satisfied, satisfied, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, dissatisfied and very dissatisfied was used to determine results. The results revealed that a majority of serving and retired officers (n=19/21), from both urban and rural areas expressed satisfaction with current personal safety and security situation, particularly during day time; although they indicated that they felt unsafe during the night. Only one retired police officer (n=1/21) expressed a very satisfactory perception with personal safety. Two respondents (n=2/21) were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the current personal security situation in Lilongwe. A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban described personal security situation in Lilongwe as satisfactory. He indicated that good collaboration between police and the members of the public was one of the reasons individual security had scaled up in his area. He indicated that he would put his personal security at 50 percent. He added that if one is not careful then he is gone. He gave an example of security challenge at Lilongwe bridge, where he argued that even around 6 or 7 pm, individuals needed to move with caution when crossing the bridge.

‘You need to check yourself. We have had defilement cases, rape cases perpetrated by street kids. So, I will put it at 50 percent’. During KII, a retired police officer from the rural area said that individual security was satisfactory in his area. He indicated that the fear of mob justice had helped to scare away criminals. A female retired police officer from the urban area put personal security at average. She said:

I could say average, I must be honest with you. Those days you could drive your vehicle; you could open even the windows even at ten pm. You see someone standing at the stage you stop pick that person up and you drop him off you go. But you can-not do that now because you don't know what he is doing there. What's his intentions? That's why you make sure that windows, doors of your car are safe. It's a small prison. When you are walking you need to be conscious every time and be ready for any attack. (Interview with female retired police officer from Lilongwe urban, 20/06/2022).

5.5.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

Participants shared their personal experiences and perception on how satisfied or dissatisfied they were with personal safety and security situation in Lilongwe in view of co-production of safety and security. Respondents' perceptions were assessed using a likert scale options of very satisfied, satisfied, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, dissatisfied and very dissatisfied. Responses on this area were further grouped according Lilongwe rural or urban.

The results reveal that the majority of respondents $n=27/29$ among members of the public from both urban and rural areas expressed satisfaction with current personal safety and security situation, particularly during day time. They indicated that they were free to walk about during the day time. However, they could not leave their homes unattended even during the day time. Albeit, the same majority of respondents ($n=27/29$) indicated that they felt dissatisfied and insecure with personal security during the evening and night time. Two respondents $n=2/29$ were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the current personal security

situation in Lilongwe. The results from three Focus Group Discussions show that participants were satisfied with personal safety and security in Lilongwe. A citizen from Lilongwe urban said that personal security was not 100%. He indicated that when one was moving around the city, one needed to exercise caution; one needed to be very careful particularly when moving at night. And when leaving home, one needed to make sure that the home is not left unattended. He insisted that personal security was on average and satisfactory. He attributed satisfactory security situation to vibrant neighbourhood watch patrols, among other reasons.

He expressed satisfaction with the presence of NHW groups in every street of his areas (Interview with female citizen from Lilongwe urban, 27/06/2022).

A member of CSO also described personal security in Lilongwe as average or just satisfactory. She said that, at some point she had a problem and the police could not quickly act, but upon hearing her name the police quickly responded and assisted her.

A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural indicated that he felt safe and secure, such that he could freely walk around without being attacked (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 23/06/2022).

Key findings on personal safety and security were as follows:

- (a) There was a general consensus amongst a majority of respondents from both urban and rural areas that the personal safety and security situation in Lilongwe was satisfactory, particularly during the day time. However, respondents expressed dissatisfaction with personal safety and security during the night time. Respondents

indicated that everyone needed to be very cautious when moving around town in the evenings and during the night time.

- (b) A big majority of respondents from up-market areas and rural areas of Lilongwe perceived personal safety and security in Lilongwe urban as satisfactory. On the other hand, a majority of respondents from high-density areas perceived personal safety and security as dissatisfactory.
- (c) Overall, the study found that personal safety and security was satisfactory in the aspect of the study.

5.5.3 Discussion on Personal Safety and Security

The findings on personal safety and security demonstrated that community policing as a form of co-production of public safety and security had significantly contributed towards improvement in perception of personal safety and security. A majority of the respondents rated personal safety and security in Lilongwe district as generally satisfactory.

A majority of respondents indicated that enhanced police visibility, availability of CPF and NHW groups patrolling in locations, as well as availability of police rapid response service gave citizens confidence that personal safety and security was satisfactory particularly during the day time. These findings strongly agree with the findings of the most recent study on global peace index (GPI), which ranked Malawi as the eleventh (11th) safest country out of 44 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and 74th safest country in the world (Institute for Economics & Peace. Global Peace Index, 2023). The findings further agree with what Ngwala and Abebe (2023) found in their study on community policing in

Malawi. In their study, the two authors found that community policing had a significant impact in terms of improving general safety and security in Lilongwe district. In western Nigeria too, a study conducted by Olusegun (2016) also found that about 93% of the respondents agreed that community policing as co-production significantly contributed to improved perceptions of general safety and security among the communities. However, it is important to observe that the study also found that personal safety was far too better in low-density affluent areas than in high-density impoverished locations. The affluent people living in low-density areas were more satisfied with the level of personal safety and security in their areas than the poor living in high-density areas.

This clearly demonstrated that there was some discriminatory approach to provision of safety and security between the rich and the poor. Police responded more rapidly to crime in low density areas than in high density areas. This was mainly attributed to the fact that policy and decision makers are resident in these low-density areas, as such any crime happening in these areas was treated with utmost seriousness.

5.6 Crime Reduction and Reduction of Fear of Crime

5.6.1 Police Respondents

Active and retired police officers shared their experiences and perception on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that co-production of safety and security through community policing had contributed towards reduction in crime as well as reduction of fear of crime. Responses were assessed using options of strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree or strongly disagree. A majority of active and retired police officers (n=11/13) from urban areas neither agreed nor disagreed that co-production contributed

towards reduction in crime and fear of crime. Results from Lilongwe rural showed that all active police officers (n=8) and all retired police officers (n=2) indicted that co-production had positively contributed towards reduction in crime. A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban said he would rate the contribution made by co-production in crime reduction and reducing fear of crime at 50 percent. He argued that if citizens did not exercise caution when moving around Lilongwe, particularly during sun set and evening hours, they would easily be attacked by criminals. He emphasised that individuals needed to be extremely careful when crossing Lilongwe bridge in the evening.

He further lamented the increase in violent crime such as rape and defilement which were perpetrated by street kids. A retired senior female police officer from Lilongwe urban also rated the contribution of community policing as a form of co-production to reduction in crime at 50 percent.

She indicated that, unlike in the past when one could drive their vehicles with windows rolled down at 10 pm in the evening, nowadays, if one sees any person walking down the road he or she is treated as a suspected criminal. ‘We live in a small prison’, she concluded. (Interview with retired female police officer from Lilongwe urban, 20/06/2022).

5.6.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

Members of the public or citizens shared their experiences and perception on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that co-production of safety and security through community policing had contributed towards reduction in crime as well as reduction in fear of crime. Responses were assessed using options of strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor

disagree, disagree or strongly disagree. All members of the public who participated in the survey (n=29) agreed that co-production had positively contributed towards reduction of crime in Lilongwe. No respondent strongly agreed, disagreed or strongly disagreed with the assertion that co-production had a positive impact on crime reduction. A member of CPF from the Lilongwe rural area indicated that the advent of community policing had contributed towards reduction in both crime and fear of crime particularly in rural areas. He rated crime reduction as one of the successes of community policing in his area.

A citizen from Lilongwe urban indicated that with NHW groups always available and patrolling in his area, the community felt much secure and safer. A member of NHW group from Lilongwe urban said that there was a huge difference in terms of crime in his area. He said that during the time when NHW groups were not available, crime and fear of crime was high. But with the introduction of NHW groups, there was now security.

He added that before the establishment of community policing, thieves were many and walking around freely, but at the moment they were afraid of meeting members of the community policing who were always around providing security. Cases of theft had reduced. A member of CSO from Lilongwe urban argued that they were experiencing lower crime rates in his area. He indicated that since the establishment of 'inkantha' or NHW group in his area, the rate of serious crimes had gone down. He explained that the availability of CPF and NHW groups in his area boosted foot patrols. 'In terms of patrolling, you could see them move around, so the patrols are done very frequent and that

gives the confidence to the community that they are doing their job. With that, cases of serious robberies had reduced’, he added.

5.6.3 Discussion on Crime Reduction and Reduction of Fear of Crime

The findings show that the majority of active and retired police officers as well as members of the public from urban areas were undecided on whether co-production contributed positively towards reduction in crime and fear of crime.

Such findings on the impact of community policing on crime reduction and reduction in fear of crime were not unique to Lilongwe district. These findings were similar to results of similar studies in other jurisdictions. For example, in Alexandra township in South Africa, a study by Mottiar and White (2003) on the effects of community policing as coproduction of safety and security service also found that it is difficult to quantify the impact of community police forums (CPF) on crime rate. Mottiar and White (2003) also found that official crime statistics gathered by the Alexandra police did not differentiate between police and CPF activities.

Sentiments from CPF members from Alexandra town suggested that township residents found it easier to impart information concerning crime in their vicinity to CPF members rather than to the police. In this connection, the same may have applied to the situation in Lilongwe district, where there were many CPF and NHW groups, as such there was high probability that many citizens reported their cases to these groups instead of police. In the end crime statistics at police could not easily be correctly quantified. Commenting on why

citizens in Alexandria reported some cases to CPF and not police, Mottiar and White (2003, p.20) gave two reasons:

- (a) Firstly, the CPF, being members of the community, are quicker to access than the police;
- (b) Secondly, township residents who do not wish to be divulged as sources of information, for example in having witnessed a rape, would rather impart their information to a CPF member than to the police, where a statement would have to be made and signed.

However, the finding from this study, particularly pertaining to urban areas and that of Mottiar and White differed from the findings by Masogo et. al (2014) in Soshanguve township in South Africa, where nearly all police officers in various rank categories and a majority of members of the public who participated in their study agreed that the implementation of community policing as a form of policing style reduced the high rate of crime in that Township. This was mainly attributed to the fact that in many incidences, CPF and NHW members easily and quickly responded whenever there was a call to assist.

Agreeing with the findings by Masogo et al. (2014), results of a review of performance of neighbourhood watch schemes in United Kingdom, United States of America, Australia and Canada which mainly focused on crimes against residents, crimes against dwellings houses and street crimes as well as other occurring in the watch area, based on police recorded crimes revealed that NHW groups which were a component of community policing had

greatly contributed to reduction in crime and victimization among the communities by 16% to 26%. Interestingly, five evaluations from the review found that neighborhood watch was associated with an increase in crime. According to the study, the increase in crime associated with neighborhood watch could be because some offenders think that availability of NHW groups in a neighbourhood is an indication that there was something worth stealing in the locality. It is also possible that NHW programmes increase recorded crime as a result of increases in reporting rates among residents Holloway & Farrington (2008, p.17). Overall, the majority of studies included in the above narrative review showed that neighborhood watch was associated with a reduction in crime.

In Lilongwe rural, all active police officers and all retired police officers and members of the public agreed that co-production had positively contributed towards reduction in crime. Surprisingly, rural respondents indicated that there was low police visibility in rural areas. It was clear from the results that there was no correlation between police visibility in rural areas and level of crime. There was no clear explanation for the difference in perceptions between urban and rural respondents. On police visibility, a majority of respondents indicated that there was inadequate police visibility in rural areas compared to urban areas, with higher CPF visibility in rural areas.

It can, therefore, be concluded that presence of CPF patrols in rural areas, plus the fear of being killed by the mob positively contributed to reduction in crime and perception of fear of crime in rural areas. Foot patrols deter criminals from committing crimes. These findings therefore clearly demonstrate that community policing greatly contributed towards

reduction in crime as well as reduction in perception of fear of crime in rural areas more than in urban areas.

This finding is consistent with postulates of both NPS and decentralisation theories of public management. The two theories posit that the success of co-production is dependent on community participation. It was clear from the findings that crime control was successful because of the different forms of support from members of the community. For example, it was evident from this aspect of the study that, much as there was low police visibility in rural areas, security was still guaranteed, courtesy of active patrols conducted by CPF, CPP, CPC and NHW groups.

Similarly, much as the police seemed to provide better security to low density residents of Areas 9, 12, 10, 43 and others, the complementary efforts by NHW groups were regarded as another success factor to improved safety and security in these locations.

5.7 Community Participation and Involvement in Safety and Security

5.7.1 Police Respondents

Active and retired police officers shared their opinions and perceptions on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that co-production had positively contributed towards enhanced community participation in the provision of public safety and security. Responses were rated using options to an extremely large extent, to a large extent, to a moderate extent, to a small extent and to an extremely small extent. All police participants (n=21) from both rural and urban areas indicated that community policing as a form of coproduction had to an extremely large extent contributed towards enhanced community

participation and involvement in the delivery of public safety and security in their areas. A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

Some objectives of community policing have been achieved, for example community empowerment, issues of effective communication between community and police, the friendliness of police, bringing police closer to the community. Brought in the trust between society and police where they can pick a call and report an incident and the like. Approach by police also changed where it changed from the force to a service that also brought in some benefits in terms of relationship between communities and police. (Interview with senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 01/07/2022).

A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban narrated that since the introduction of community policing, police had seen unprecedented level of citizen participation in the coproduction of public safety and security.

He explained that community participation was manifested through various ways such as neighborhood watch schemes, community police forums, crime prevention panels (CPP), crime prevention committees (CPC), Business Watch Schemes, Chinese community, Nigerian Community, youth and schools' outreach programmes and several other means. He also said that, at times members of the community use their vehicles to pick police for joint patrols. Community participation was also seen through periodic meetings between the police and members of that neighborhood watch, community police forums and other groups of citizens where they discussed safety challenges to find local crime preventions strategies like target hardening.

5.6.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

Members of the public shared their opinions and perceptions on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that introduction of community policing had positively contributed towards enhanced community participation in the provision of public safety and security. Responses were rated using options to an extremely large extent, to a large extent, to a moderate extent, to a small extent and to an extremely small extent.

Respondents were further asked to describe any major ways known to them, through which the community co-produced public safety and security jointly with the police. All members of the public (n=29) indicated that community policing as form of co-production had to an extremely large extent contributed towards enhanced community participation and involvement in the delivery of public safety and security in their areas. A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural said that one of the key achievements of community policing as a form of co-production was enhanced participation in issues of safety and security by citizens.

He stressed that, after civic education and massive awareness campaigns, many people realised that they had a duty to participate in solving community safety and security problems in their areas. He cited examples of community police forums, crime prevention panels and committees as among key ways that brought the community and the police together. He added that the police heavily relied on these police forums to bring them cases and suspects. He said, ‘in short, I would say that it is a bridge between the police and the community security forums’ (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 23/06/2022). A member of NHW from Lilongwe urban described the introduction of

community policing as a vehicle that helped them commission neighbourhood watch group in their location. He added that when the neighborhood watch was established in their area, they started apprehending criminals who used to steal building materials from homes that were under construction. The introduction of NHW made more people to start participating in the production of safety and security in the areas.

5.7.3 Discussion on Community Participation and Involvement in Safety and Security

On this aspect of the study, results revealed that all participants both from rural and urban areas indicated that community policing as a form of co-production had to an extremely large extent contributed towards enhanced community participation and involvement in the delivery of public safety and security in their areas. A majority of respondents, both police officers and members of the public narrated that through community policing, many groups of people and organisations were forthcoming to assist the police in different ways.

For example, respondents mentioned donations ranging from financial to material such as vehicles, reflective jackets and police infrastructure were being donated to police. These results agree with the findings of a study by Yesberg et al. (2023). In his study, Yesberg et al, (2023) found that one of the fundamental public value benefits of community policing was that, it greatly contributed towards improved community participation in the coproduction of public safety and security. He argued that when people are properly civic educated about the benefits of participating in issues that concern them, they are encouraged to put more efforts and commit themselves to do more on their own.

From our present study, respondents clearly indicated that the introduction of community policing stimulated many people to start getting involved in the co-production of public safety and security in their locations. Asked to give evidence on ways through which the community participated in co-production of public safety and security, respondents mentioned community police forums, crime prevention panels, crime prevention committees, neighbourhood watch groups, business watch groups, Chinese security groups, installation of CCTVs in their businesses and homes, Nigerian Community Groups as among the major ways through which members of the community participated in coproduction of public safety and security. The study also found that sharing information and citizen arrests were also key ways through which members of the community participated in the co-production of public safety and security.

As posited by both NPS and decentralisation theories, results on community participation and involvement in delivery of public safety and security clearly demonstrated that the advent of community policing had made many people to appreciate that they had a role to play in enhancing safety of their communities. Through community policing as a decentralised way of delivering safety and security services, citizens started to appreciate that it was not only the role of government and the police to provide public security; but everyone needed to play a role. Safety and security roles were now devolved to everyone in the community. As stated by Kiełek (2022, p. 23) that ‘the only way to ensure that there is security in our cities is by making sure all stakeholders, from government bodies to cities’ residents, work together toward creating safe environments where everyone feels secure and happy. This approach is exactly what is advocated by the new public service theory (NPS) of public management. According to NPS theory, public officials must allow

members of the public to fully participate in all projects and programmes that are being implemented by government. This allows members of the community to provide inputs into how the service must be delivered for their own benefits.

One of the key public value benefits of community policing as a co-production can, therefore, be argued to be the enhanced contribution of individuals, including the youth, the local community structures such as religious groupings, community policy forums, civil society, government agencies and traditional leadership, in the fight against crime in their local areas. In this way, community policing as a form of co-production is said to have greatly enhanced citizens participation in making their areas safe and secure.

It can also be concluded from our study that the introduction of community policing had made many people appreciate that they needed not leave everything in the hands of the police, but join the police in the co-production of public safety and security if the fight against crime was to be won. For CPF to be effective, there is a need for creation of joint partnership between the police and the community. It was, therefore, clear that one of the key public value benefits of community policing in Lilongwe district was enhanced community participation in the co-production of safety and security.

5.8 Accessibility and Reachability of Police Services

Accessibility and reachability of public services are key principles espoused by decentralisation theory. On this aspect of the study, respondents shared their opinions on the extent to which they felt the communities were satisfied or dissatisfied with ease of accessibility or reachability of police services in their areas following the introduction of

community policing as a form of co-production. The options of very satisfied, satisfied, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, dissatisfied and very dissatisfied were used to assess their experiences. For ease of analysis, views and opinions on this aspect of the study were disaggregated into rural and urban set-ups as presented below.

5.8.1 Accessibility and Reachability of Police Services - Urban

5.8.1.1 Police Respondents

Overall, more than half of active and retired police officers from Lilongwe urban (n=9/11) expressed satisfaction with accessibility and reachability of police services within the urban areas. A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban described accessibility of police facilities within urban areas as very satisfactory. Another police officer said: ‘There are a lot of police units within urban areas, and as such security is good, it’s just unfortunate that most of them are being closed due to vandalism’. The retired senior police officer added: ‘Yes. They were spread very far apart in the past, but now there the police units are in close proximity. And’.

5.8.1.2. Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

More than half of community participants (n=17/21) from Lilongwe urban expressed satisfaction with accessibility and reachability of police service within the urban areas. A member of civil society organisation from Lilongwe urban said:

I will rate it satisfactory so far. Because there is now that number, the 997 that we can call, and also in the city especially police have tried so much to put station at

Lingadzi so you would have a guarantee that if something happened that's easy to go to a police station and in 2 km, I will find police facility. (Interview with member of CSO from urban, 30/06/2022).

A Citizen from Lilongwe urban also described police accessibility in urban areas as satisfactory. She further said that, the police in her area were friendly and very accessible. She gave an example of a situation where her daughter was impregnated; and the man responsible for the pregnancy issued threats to her. She quickly accessed a police unit within her areas and the police assisted her in a friendly manner.

5.8.2 Accessibility/Reachability of Police Services - Rural

5.8.2.1 Police Respondents

The majority of active police respondents from Lilongwe rural (n=6/8) expressed dissatisfaction with accessibility and reachability of police services in rural areas. Only two (n=2/8) active police officers expressed satisfaction with police accessibility. Two (n=2) of the retired police officers from rural areas expressed dissatisfaction with police accessibility and reachability in rural areas. They indicated that police service points or police units were far apart, making it very difficult for members of the community to easily access police services.

A retired police officer from Lilongwe rural described accessibility of police services and facilities in Lilongwe rural as very dissatisfactory. He bitterly complained that there were no police facilities within reachable distance in his area: He said:

You are talking of Lilongwe, where the parent station is. When that incident happened, I talked to Inspector General (IG) and they gave me the

commissioner's numbers, when I talked to the commissioner, the IG also called and talked to the commissioner. It took almost an hour for them to come.

They know that I as the officer who was communicating is former IG, I was telling them that the situation here is bad. And they still came at that time. I had to be the one pacifying the situation to the relatives to say 'please don't break into the house' (Interview with retired male officer from Lilongwe rural Traditional Authority Malili, 17/06/2022).

A senior police officer from Lilongwe rural also complained of vastness of Lilongwe district. He indicated that there were few police units in Lilongwe district. He emphasised that most members of the community lacked a police unit or a police facility within their areas (Interview with male senior police officer from central region headquarters, 06/06/2022).

5.8.2.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

All six (n=6) members of CPF; two (2) local citizens and five (5) community members who participated in FGD from rural Traditional Authority Malili's area expressed dissatisfaction with police accessibility and reachability in Lilongwe rural. They indicated that police service points or police units were far apart, making it very difficult for them to easily access police services.

Members of a FGD from Lilongwe rural express great dissatisfaction with accessibility of police facilities. They further bemoaned the practice of lack of police patrols in their area. One member of the public said:

Even when we have a case and we want help from the police, they wouldn't come, instead they ask us to organize our own manpower and bring the suspects into their custody.

They are even afraid to come and make an arrest when the community is there baying for the blood of the suspect. (Interview with member of FGD from rural CPF, 23/06/2022).

A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural requested for quick re-opening of police units that were vandalised, including Chigwiri, so that police services were more accessible.

5.8.3 Discussion on Accessibility and Reachability of Police Services

The NPS theory of public management encourages public servants to put citizens at the centre of service delivery. Similarly, one of the key principles of decentralisation is to ensure public services are easily accessed and reached by the majority of citizens. Results on this aspect of the study reveal that accessibility of police services in urban areas was satisfactory and that it was easier for urban residents to access and reach police services. More than half of active and retired police officers from Lilongwe urban expressed satisfaction with accessibility and reachability of police services within the urban areas. Similarly, more than half of the members of the community who participated in the study from Lilongwe urban expressed satisfaction with accessibility and reachability of police services within the urban areas.

These findings agree with those of Chipao and Probert (2019). In their study on 'The Accessibility of Policing in Informal Settlements around Lilongwe, Malawi', Chipao and Probert similarly found that residents from affluent low-density locations of Lilongwe such as Area 3, Area 9 and others enjoyed better security coverage and accessibility as well as

quick response from the police than those people from high-density areas such as Mtandire and Chinsapo. These findings are not unique to Malawi's urban areas of Lilongwe. Literature shows a similar pattern in urban areas of other countries. For example, in a study conducted on 'Implementation of Community Policing Strategy in a South African Township' of Soshanguve by Masogo et al. (2014), it was found that, unlike in rural areas, accessibility of police stations and police services to urban dwellers was very satisfactory, courtesy of community policing which had promoted establishment of more police call centers within towns. In their study, Masogo et al. (2014) found that 69.23% of the respondents who had received police services at Soshanguve police station agreed that police services were easily accessible in urban areas.

On the contrary, the results from rural areas of Lilongwe showed that a majority of police officers as well as a majority of members of the community were dissatisfied with accessibility and reachability of police service in rural areas. Respondents indicated that police service points or police units were far apart in rural areas, despite community policing advocating for establishment of more rural police units. They indicated that police service points or police units were far apart, making it very difficult for them to easily access police services. This made it very difficult for members of the community residing in rural areas to easily access police services. The reality observed by the researcher on the ground was that Lilongwe district was very vast compared to the number of police units available in the district. Smith (2015), in his study on crime and victimisation under the Malawi Police Improvement Programme also found that accessibility to the nearest police

station was a challenge in many areas of Lilongwe. He argued that citizens walked long distances to reach a nearest police point.

These results were an indication that rural areas needed a lot of attention by government to improve community accessibility to police services compared to urban areas. Despite inadequate police units in rural areas, it can still be argued that community policing as a form of co-production had a huge impact in ensuring that people access police services as well as victim support services through locally established community policing structures such as CPF and Crime Prevention Panels. This is part of the delegation element of decentralisation. That is, in local areas where the police could not manage to be accessible at all times, some of the powers of the police were delegated to CPF and crime prevention panels. The only challenge with such delegation lies in the abuse of such powers.

In terms of urban areas, the study has revealed that community policing has been a major vehicle through which many police units were constructed in urban areas of Lilongwe. Many urban and peri-urban areas including Areas 12, 47, 49, Chinsapo, Chitsime, Chigwirizano, Area 28, Nsungwi and many others had improved access to police facilities courtesy of community policing. These police units usually started as community police gatherings which eventually turned into police units. They were constructed with assistance from members of the community. The findings on this aspect of the study were consistent with the devolution aspect of decentralisation as well as citizen-centric approach propagated by NPS.

5.9 Police Friendliness and Approachability

5.9.1 Police Respondents

Active and retired police officers expressed their opinions on the extent to which they felt the police were friendly/approachable or not friendly to the community they served. A Likert scale of very friendly, friendly, neutral, not friendly and not very friendly was used to rate police officers' perceptions. Slightly more than half (n=12/21) of the police respondents felt the police were friendly and approachable. Neither active nor retired police officers felt the police were very friendly and approachable. A majority of police officers indicated that the community no longer feared the police the way they feared them during one party era when community police was not there. A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

Our police are not also that friendly because of attitude issue that developed as a result of the background of demonstrations we are coming from because now the police have also been looking at the community as enemies. Average. The police were also affected by that background and some of them they also need to be taken through a process of changing and appreciating that we need to go back and work with the community (Interview with a senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 01/07/2022).

Several police officers also described police officers as not being too friendly to citizens. A majority of police respondents attributed non-friendliness of most police officers to personal attitude problems. One police officer said, 'there are some police officers who think being a police officer gives them all the powers to do everything as they wish' (Interview with a police officer from Lilongwe urban, 06/06/2022). It was observed that most CID officers believed that police officers were not expected to be too friendly to

citizens. It was a common argument from most CID officers that not everyone likes the police. One CID officer said:

Some people love the police because they were once assisted by it, and other dislike it because they were in the wrong side of the law or they have never had any encounter with the police. So, the relationship is good and the other side it is not, it depends on whom you have come in contact with at that point (Interview with a CID officer from urban, 23/06/2022).

A retired police officer from Lilongwe rural indicated that the relationship between the police and the community was a bit cordial. He argued that most times, it was politicians who were a source of animosities between the police and the community.

He urged that politicians should not abuse their authority, but instead they should preach peace (Interview with retired senior officer from Lilongwe rural, 16/06/2022).

5.9.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

Members of the public shared experiences and opinions on the extent to which they felt the police were friendly or not friendly to the community. A Likert scale of very friendly, friendly, neutral, not friendly and not very friendly was used. The majority members of the public (n=25/29) indicated that they had good interaction with police officers; that the police were now closer to the people and friendly to the community than before community policing was introduced. They indicated that the community no longer feared the police the way they feared them during one party era when community policing was not there. A small proportion of the total participants indicated that the police was not very friendly and approachable. The description that follows depicts how the participants expressed their opinions as part of lived experiences with the police.

A member of a civil society from Lilongwe urban observed:

They are friendly because police are staying with us, they are our neighbors and they can associate with the society and they fellowship together in churches and various communities. So, they are friendly unlike during one party era when it was force. Just looking at a police woman or man one wouldn't want to be closer to them. I think we must admit that with the advent of democracy we have seen Malawi police opening up to stakeholders on matters of security that were strictly for of police. We have seen how Malawi police has engaged with civil society, how the Malawi police has even engaged with private sector, roadblocks have been mounted by private sector, that's an indication that MPS is willing to collaborate and work with diversity of stakeholders. Which is very good (Interview with member of CSO from Lilongwe urban, 01/07/2022).

A citizen from Lilongwe urban described police officers as approachable and satisfactorily friendly. She observed that maybe it was the military type of training which many people did not like in the police.

It was reported in a FGD from Lilongwe rural that:

In the past, when there were no police forums, when the police come into the community, everybody was running away, so, it was always hard for the police to work. But now, if the police come into the community, people will be calm because one of them is there also. The relationship was disturbed by the time that we had demonstrations fired up by Msundwe. It is that time where most youths developed an attitude of not fearing the police. So, at the moment we are dealing with that attitude, and now the police are even cautious to come and work in our communities because of that tendency (Interview with CPF FGD from Lilongwe rural, 22/06/2022).

5.9.3 Discussion on Police Friendliness and Approachability

The results indicate that a majority of police officers (slightly more than half) felt the police were somehow friendly and approachable. They indicated that the community no longer feared the police the way they feared them during one party era when community police was not there. A majority of members of the public equally indicated that they had good interaction with police officers; that the police were now closer to the people and friendly to the community than before community policing was introduced. They indicated that the community no longer feared the police the way they feared them during one party era when community police was not there. This view agreed with the findings by Smith (2015), who in his study on crime and victimisation under the Malawi Police Improvement Programme also found that 78.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that police in Malawi treated them with respect, fairness and understood issues affecting their communities.

In the present study, only a small proportion of the total participants indicated that police were not very friendly and approachable. However, these findings slightly differed with the findings by Chipao and Probert (2019). In their study, Chipao and Probert found that residents from high-density areas like Mtandire and Chinsapo in Lilongwe were not very friendly to the police. Their study revealed that, often times the police were afraid to make arrests in most ghettos due to violence and hostilities from the people living in high-density areas. They cited an example where a police vehicle was torched by the community members when the police went to rescue a woman who was attacked on allegations that she had bewitched a person who had recently died in that area. It can, therefore, be concluded that, much as this study found that there was improvement in police-community

friendliness, there was no guarantee on the sustainability of such friendliness. Police friendliness was also based on how the community treated the police. The police could not be friendly to a community that has high propensity to violence as it had been witnessed in most high-density areas. In summary, the study findings on this aspect of the study were directly related to the NPS theory which puts citizens first in service delivery. Friendliness with service beneficiaries was a clear indication that community policing as a form of coproduction puts citizens at the centre of service delivery. This study, therefore, argues that for community policing as a form of co-production to continue to thrive, there was need to keep improving on the aspect of police friendliness particularly in high-density areas of Lilongwe where the levels of trust in the police tend to be low as evidenced in other sections of this study.

5.10 Police Visibility

Police visibility has always been closely linked to both preventive and reactive policing. When the police or members of CPF or NHW are visible in an area, they prevent crime from happening. At the same time their visibility makes it easy for them to provide rapid response to calls of distress. On this aspect of the study, respondents shared their views, opinions and experiences on the following key areas: the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with general police visibility and police foot patrols in Lilongwe; the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with community police and neighbourhood watch groups' patrols or visibility; joint patrols; the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with police response to calls for distress; the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with community police and neighbourhood watch

groups' response to distress calls. On the areas of 'general visibility and foot patrols and response to calls of distress' views, opinions and experiences were disaggregated according to rural and urban areas.

5.10.1 Police Visibility: Foot Patrols - Lilongwe Urban

5.10.1.1 Police Responses

Views, opinions and experiences on police visibility and foot patrols in Lilongwe urban areas were highly polarised and very inconsistent. Due to such variations, respondents' perceptions were further divided into low-density and high-density areas. One (n=1/9) active police officer expressed very satisfactory opinion with police visibility in Lilongwe urban. Six (n=6/9) active police officers expressed satisfactory result with police visibility and foot patrols in Lilongwe urban. One active police officer (n=1/9) expressed dissatisfaction. Another one (n=1/9) active police officer expressed very dissatisfactory result with police visibility and foot patrols in urban areas. One (n=1/2) retired police officer expressed satisfaction with police visibility in urban areas, while the other retired police officer who participated in the study was very dissatisfied with police visibility in urban areas. Overall results show that a majority of police officers were satisfied with police visibility in Lilongwe urban.

A police officer from Lilongwe urban who described police visibility in Lilongwe urban as satisfactory said he wished it improved to very satisfactory level. He indicated that police visibility was a bit better because in the past they had a lot of cases of attacks on citizens as they walked around the city. He added that police visibility in strategic points as well as general foot patrols had increased resulting in controlled crime rate in the city. He added

that in the past it was difficult for the police to conduct operations to arrest criminals in uniform in communities. He further indicated that the police were able to freely interact with citizens and collect information during foot patrols. Another senior police officer from Lilongwe urban indicated that he could not describe police visibility in Lilongwe urban as very satisfactory but only satisfactory. He said, ‘Police deployment in the urban area is average (Interview with retired senior officer from Lilongwe urban, 16/06/2022). “No, we are not yet there. We need police visibility. You can walk in the area, today is Friday, it’s a busy day. It’s a very busy day. You can go around the town you won’t see a police uniform”. He argued that it was not that Lilongwe was short of human resource, but that it was an issue of deployment. He further said it was sad that sometimes police management was hiding behind shortage of human resource. A retired senior officer from Lilongwe peri-urban describe police visibility in Lilongwe semi-urban as not satisfactory. He said:

No. I have never seen the police officers that patrol on foot this side. I haven’t seen foot patrols. The foot patrols are even very helpful. In Karonga we used to pick two police officers or three officers and assign them to certain neighborhood watch. I have never seen that in Lilongwe. No. I already said that in the two years that I have been here I have never seen a police officer on foot. Even the tower side. If I see a police officer on foot patrol, then at the stadium when I go to watch soccer or meet them in town (Interview with retired senior officer from peri-urban, 16/06/2022).

5.10.1.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

A majority the members of the public (n=16/21) from Lilongwe urban expressed satisfaction with police visibility and foot patrols. Four (n=4/21) members of the public were dissatisfied. One (n=1/21) was very dissatisfied with police visibility and patrols in

Lilongwe urban. The table below depicts opinions from various participants:

Table 7: Police Visibility in Lilongwe Urban

Category	Very Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Neither Satisfactory nor dissatisfactory	Dissatisfactory	Very Dissatisfactory
CPF/CPP	0	5	0	1	0
Citizens	0	2	0	0	1
CSO		6	0	1	0
NHW	0	3	0	2	0
Total	0	16	0	4	1

Five (5) members of CPF/CPP from Lilongwe urban described police visibility in Lilongwe urban as average or just satisfactory. Six (6) members of civil society from Lilongwe urban also described police visibility in Lilongwe urban as average or just satisfactory. A member of CPF from Mgoni in Lilongwe urban said, ‘Yes, they come, police officers come to patrol in our area. They come on vehicles at night and I have seen them on foot as well’ (Interview with member of CPF from Mgoni location in Lilongwe urban, 26/06/2022). A citizen from Lilongwe urban also said police officers frequently patrolled the area from where she stayed (Interview with female citizen from Lilongwe urban, 27/06/2022).

5.10.1.3 Discussion on Police Visibility: Foot Patrols in Lilongwe Urban

A majority of police officers and members of the public who participated in the study rated police visibility in Lilongwe urban as just satisfactory. One active police officer expressed very satisfactory opinion with police visibility in Lilongwe urban.

One active police officer expressed dissatisfaction. Another one active police officer expressed very dissatisfactory result with police visibility and foot patrols in semi-urban areas. One retired police officer expressed satisfaction with police visibility in urban areas, while the other retired police officer who participated in the study was very dissatisfied with police visibility in urban areas. Although studies from urban areas of some countries like Ghana (Gymfi, 2022) found police visibility to be a challenge, results from Lilongwe urban showed the contrary. Overall results revealed that a majority of respondents in the survey were satisfied with police visibility in Lilongwe urban particularly in low-density areas. These findings agreed with the findings by Chipao and Probert (2019). In their study, Chipao and Probert similarly found that residents from affluent low-density locations of Lilongwe urban such as Area 3, Area 9 and others enjoyed better security coverage and police visibility as well as quicker response from the police than residents from highdensity areas like Mtandire and Chinsapo.

However, it was of great concern to note that a sizable number of police officers expressed dissatisfaction with police visibility in Lilongwe urban. Dissatisfaction expressed by a sizable number of police officers on police visibility in Lilongwe urban may be a clear sign that the issue of police visibility may just be superficial and that management needed to seriously consider putting strong monitoring strategies to ensure that once officers are deployed on patrols, they remained in their precincts without leaving their positions. Community policing aims at improving police visibility. In turn, visibility enhances police responsiveness. Responsiveness is an indicator of police efficiency as posited by the decentralisation theory and must be promoted.

5.10.2 Police Visibility: Patrols - Lilongwe Rural

5.10.2.1 Police Responses

No active or retired police officer (n=10) drawn from Lilongwe rural areas expressed satisfaction with police visibility or foot patrols in rural areas. Half (n=5/10) of active and retired police officers from Lilongwe rural were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with police visibility and patrols in rural areas. Half (n=5/10) of active and retired police officers expressed dissatisfaction with police visibility and patrols in rural areas. For example, when asked about how frequent police officers from a police unit in a rural area patrolled villages in their jurisdiction, a senior police officer from Lilongwe rural said, ‘We have been going there for patrols on our vehicle, but not beat patrols as we used to call them in the past, this is because it is very far’. Another senior police officer from Lilongwe rural added that in rural areas, police foot patrols were conducted once in a while. He indicated that, instead, the police often engaged local communities and community police forums to conduct foot patrols in rural areas. Responding to a question on police visibility in rural areas, a retired senior police officer from Lilongwe rural complained that police officers did not conduct frequent patrols in his area around Njewa and Chitedze. He indicated that members of the community were doing patrols while police officers were sleeping in their homes (Interview with retired senior police officer from rural, 17/06/2022).

Another retired senior police officer from the rural area complained that police beat or patrols were not seen in his area. He narrated that the police officers were rarely seen in rural areas, claiming that they do so once in seven days or once in fourteen days. He added that the purpose of community policing is diluted because the police were rarely seen in

the community to work with the communities. He indicated that the only time they see police officers is when they were proceeding to collect a dead body somewhere.

5.10.2.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

A majority of members of the community from rural areas (n=7/8) were not satisfied with police visibility and foot patrols in Lilongwe rural as follows:

Table 8: Police Visibility in Lilongwe Rural

Category	Very Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Neither Satisfactory nor dissatisfactory	Dissatisfactory	Very Dissatisfactory
CSO	-	-	-	-	-
CPF	0	1	0	5	
Citizens	0	0	0	2	0
Total	0	1	0	7	0

The results indicated that five (n=5/6) members of CPF; two (n=2) local citizens who participated in KII were dissatisfied with police visibility and foot patrols in rural areas. The FGD from the rural area in Traditional Authority Malili indicated dissatisfaction with police visibility and foot patrols in rural areas. A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural said:

As the vice chair, what I can say is police work is administration. The only time police officer goes to the village is to inspect his farm if he has a farm there. Members of the community forums are the ones doing most of the work like apprehending suspects.

But the unfortunate part is that when members of the community apprehend those suspects and are handed over to police, just after you left the police formation, the suspect is out of custody. Police officers are only writing letters to community forum to bring a suspect when there is a complaint and

not the ground work (Interview with a member of CPF from rural, 22/06/2022).

Another member of CPF from Lilongwe rural lamented that police visibility was very low in rural areas. He insinuated that police officers only go to rural areas when there is a dead body or to collect criminal suspects who were already apprehended by members of the community police forum.

Despite community policing being introduced in Lilongwe district more than two decades ago, results of this study reveal that all active and retired police officer (n=10) drawn from rural areas expressed dissatisfaction with police visibility or foot patrols in rural areas. A majority of public respondents from rural areas (n=7/8) were also not satisfied with police visibility and foot patrols in Lilongwe rural. FGD results from rural areas also indicate dissatisfaction with police visibility and foot patrols in rural areas.

5.10.2.3 Discussions on Police Visibility: Patrols in Lilongwe Rural

It was clear from this study that community policing on its own does not improve police visibility in rural areas. However, it is important to mention that police visibility positively contributes to improved community participation in issues of safety and security. This view agrees with the finding by Yesberg et al. (2023) who found that community willingness to participate in community policing was linked to elements of police visibility in the neighbourhoods. When the police are more present or visible in neighbourhoods, people feel more secure and, therefore, inclined to co-produce public safety and security. Police visibility remains one of the core benefits of community policing.

In summary, the results reveal that the majority of respondents, both police and citizens, expressed satisfaction with police visibility within Lilongwe urban only. Results from Lilongwe peri-urban and Lilongwe rural reveal that a majority of respondents were not satisfied with police visibility. This view agrees with the findings of Smith (2015), who in his study on crime and victimisation under the Malawi Police Improvement Programme concluded that police visibility remained very limited and police patrols were reported as rare in many communities in Malawi. It must be underscored that one of the key objectives of community policing is to ensure the police are visible in all areas and jointly solve security problems with the communities. The above findings might mean there is a discriminatory approach in terms of service provision between the urban rich and the rural poor, with a favour of the urban rich. The findings on low police visibility in rural areas of Lilongwe particularly in Traditional Authority Malili and Njewa were inconsistent with the decentralisation principles of deconcentration and devolution which promote decentralisation of resources. Such findings were a real cause of concern. The findings also inform the police to deploy more police officers in rural areas.

5.10.3 CPF and NHW Visibility and Foot Patrols

5.10.3.1 Police Responses

Overall, a majority of active police officers (n=15/17) and all retired police officers (n=4) indicated that they were satisfied with visibility and foot patrols conducted by CPFs and NHW groups both in urban precincts and in rural areas. A police officer from Lilongwe urban described CPF and NHW visibility and patrols as very satisfactory:

Almost, I will say almost every day. Yes. Yes. So, as coordinator of community policing, we have a time when we call block leaders around our policing area, just to check if they have a neighborhood watch group with them which we can move along with the. If they don't, we make sure we establish one with them. Two weeks ago, a police community group captured one with drugs. Two months ago, someone was caught with electrical installations around 3 AM. A month ago, someone was caught with, 4 crates of beer at around area 25 sector 7 (Interview with a police officer from urban, 19/06/2022).

A police officer from Lilongwe rural indicated that members of the community policing worked so hard throughout the nights just as did neighborhood watch groups, and that their presence had a great impact on crime prevention. Another police officer commented that CPF and NHW groups were so strong in their locations and they provided the much-needed foot patrols and rapid response (Interview with a police officer from urban, 16/06/2022). He emphasised that CPF and NHW patrols were filling the gaps left by police patrols.

5.10.3.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

Members of the public shared views, opinions, experiences and perceptions on the extent to which they either were satisfied or dissatisfied with visibility and foot patrols conducted by community police structures, in particular community police forums (CPF) (for rural areas) or crime prevention panels (CPP) (urban) and neighbourhood watch groups (NHW) (urban areas).

Overall, a majority indicated that they were satisfied with visibility and foot patrols conducted by CPFs/CPPs and NHW groups within both urban and rural areas. The table below shows how members of the public responded to the above question:

Table 9: CPF and NHW Visibility

Category	Very Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Neither Satisfactory nor dissatisfactory	Dissatisfactory	Very Dissatisfactory
CPF/CPP	0	12	0	0	0
Citizens	0	5	0	0	0
CSO	0	7	0	0	0
NHW	0	5	0	0	0
Total	0	29	0	0	0

All members of FGDs also expressed satisfaction with visibility of community police members as well as with visibility of NHW groups. A member of CPP from Lilongwe urban described visibility and foot patrols conducted by members of CPF and NHW as satisfactory adding that:

Before the establishment of community policing, thieves were many and walking around freely, but at the moment they are afraid of meeting members of the community policing who are always around providing security (Interview with CPP member from urban, 26/06/2022).

A member of NHW from Lilongwe urban described the visibility and patrols done by NHW groups as satisfactory as well as very reliable. He narrated that they usually converged at their agreed point at 2000 hours. And at 2200 hours they assigned duty stations to each other with each station being manned by a minimum of two watchers. He stated that they

moved around the areas knocking at big gates and sharpening their phanga knives on the ground to symbolise their presence. This scared away criminals and made the areas safe. He added that in some areas, they had put road barriers and they searched everyone passing by. A citizen from Lilongwe urban indicated that they were satisfied with patrols done by CPF, and in particular, NHW groups. She said that NHW patrols were always available and that they quickly responded to calls for help.

5.10.3.3 Discussion on CPF and NHW Visibility and Foot Patrols

One of the key objectives of community policing was to enhance community involvement in the co-production of public safety and security in our community. Community involvement in service delivery is also a key element of the decentralisation theory. Once the authority has been devolved to lower establishments in the service delivery chain, the assumption is that there would be enhanced involvement from the communities to whom power and authority have been devolved. From the findings of this study, it has been revealed that a majority of respondents, both police officers and members of the public expressed satisfaction with visibility and foot patrols provided by CPF and NHW groups both in urban and rural areas of Lilongwe. Through community policing, CPF and NHW groups were given authority to conduct patrols either on their own or jointly with the police. It is clear from the findings of the study that CPF and NHW visibility was a real source of confidence in the people and helped to reduce both crime and fear of crime in the communities under study. People felt safer and secure when they heard or saw CPF and NHW patrols. On the other hand, the study reveals that a majority of members of the public expressed satisfaction with police visibility only in urban areas of Lilongwe. These

findings agree with those of Mottiar and White (2003) who also found that residents in Alexandra township in South Africa found it easier to share information concerning crime in their locations with CPF members rather than with the police. This was mainly attributed to visibility and quick reaction provided by CPF and NHW members. It was, therefore, argued that visibility of CPF and NHW groups through foot patrols was one of the key benefits of community policing as co-production. With a small number of police officers in Lilongwe district, it was apparent that CPF and NHW would continue to be more visible in rural areas than the police. Additionally, it was observed that CPF and NHW members took pride in being associated with the police. Their association with police was a source of power and prestige. This prestige motivated them to be more visible in their communities.

5.11 Rapid Response to Calls of Distress

The Decentralisation theory promotes responsiveness in service delivery. Responsiveness means both being responsive to citizens' needs as well as quick response to calls of distress. Responsiveness puts a citizen at the centre of service delivery. That is, any service to the community must be responsive to what the people desire. On this issue, participants shared their views, opinions and experiences on the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with the Police, CPF and NHW response to calls of distress and as to who amongst the three groups of security providers provided the most rapid response. Participants were asked to choose from the options of strongly satisfactory, satisfactory, neutral, dissatisfactory and strongly dissatisfactory.

5.11.1 Police responses

The results show that a majority of active and retired police officers (n=18/21) expressed strong dissatisfaction with the police response to calls of distress.

A few active police officers (n=3/21) were undecided on police response to calls of distress.

A retired senior police officer from Lilongwe rural described police response to calls as dissatisfactory. He indicated that when reports reach the police, they do not respond. He added that the majority of citizens in the area where he was staying never spoke highly of the police. He further said that for him to get attention, he always had to call the Inspector General at Area 30 Police Headquarters. He complained that the police never arrived on time whenever they were called to the area for assistance. He also said that the other challenge was that the police unit that was close to his area had no motor vehicle.

A majority of serving police officers (n=5/9) from Lilongwe urban indicated that NHW groups provided most rapid response to calls of distress. The remaining serving police officers were undecided. Similarly, two (n=2) retired police officers who participated in the study from Lilongwe urban indicated that NHW groups, which were largely available in urban and semi-urban areas provided the most rapid response to calls of distress compared to police officers and CPF or CPP. A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban described Neighbourhood Watch (NHW) groups as most efficient and effective compared to both the police and CPF in providing response to calls of distress by citizens:

Neighborhood watch groups are more effective, whilst if you look at community police forums, for them mostly they give us information as police on what is happening in the area. But in terms of responding to

incidences, neighborhood watch groups are the best and more efficient compared to police and CPF (Interview with senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 26/06/2022).

He added that, it was very common to find a criminal suspect already apprehended by NHW members when the police arrive at the scene of the crime. A retired senior police officer from Lilongwe peri-urban also described NHW groups as very swift in responding to calls for assistance, particularly during the night:

Yes. Neighborhood watch group responds very fast. We have these groups in every street here. So, what we did was combine Mbeye and Mwangulu into one neighborhood. We have people who patrol and monthly every household contributes K5000 to pay the people. So, we have security in this area. You find that only three houses have watchmen, the rest of the houses are depending on neighborhood for patrol. The neighborhood watch, I gave an example, the time that I fired the gun, the neighborhood watch arrived here in less than three minutes even though they only have clubs (Interview with retired senior officer from peri-urban, 16/06/2022).

In rural areas, a majority of serving and retired police officers (n=9/10) described CPFs, which were largely synonymous with rural areas and some peri-urban areas as swifter compared to police in the provision of responses to calls of anguish. For example, a retired senior police officer from Lilongwe rural said:

Sadly, the problems that we are facing here, when reports reach the police, they don't respond. ... the majority don't speak highly of the police. It has gotten to appoint where by when an incident happens here, for us to get the attention of the police I have to call their bosses. I had to call the IG to ask for the commissioner's number because I didn't know who was the

commissioner for the central region that time. So, he gave me Chasweka's number and said: please send the CID number immediately because the culprit is hiding in a house anytime people want to break into his house and they will kill him. My friend, let's not lie that there is any police rapid response mechanism in place, that if anything happens you can be able to call them and they come? No. (Interview with retired senior police officer from Lilongwe rural, 17/06/2022).

5.11.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

The results show that a majority of members of the public (n=27/29) were strongly dissatisfied with police response to calls of distress. A majority of CSO leaders, (n=5/7) expressed strong dissatisfaction. All CPF members (n=12) were strongly dissatisfied. All citizens (n=5) expressed strong dissatisfaction with police response to calls for assistance. Results also revealed that all five (n=5) members of NHW group expressed strong dissatisfaction with the rate at which police responded to calls of distress. Participants in all three FGDs expressed strong dissatisfaction with police response to call for assistance.

A member of civil society from Lilongwe urban said:

Because sometimes the 997, I don't know where it is and the other numbers which they have given us sometimes take forever for you to get through. So, I think those are the things that sometimes I think would give a change of narrative for the community police (Interview with member of CSO from Lilongwe urban, 30/06/2022).

A citizen from Lilongwe urban said:

We know if we call police officers, if there is a crime and you call police, it will take hours for them to come or they will not even come. But when you call the inkantha guys (community policing), they will come immediately.

So, to us this is more efficient than the police itself (Interview with a citizen from Lilongwe urban, 27/06/2022).

A majority of public respondents from Lilongwe urban (n=17/29) indicated that NHW groups provided most rapid response to calls of distress. These NHW groups were largely available in urban and semi-urban areas, and were labeled as rapid responders to calls of distress compared to police officers and CPFs. A member of civil society organisations from Lilongwe urban indicated that NHW groups were normally the first to respond to calls for help. He added that the reason was very basic: 'if you call the Police, they will say my friend we have so many cases'. They will come after one hour and after the issue has been solved or the criminals are gone (Interview with a citizen from Lilongwe urban, 26/06/2022). A citizen from Lilongwe urban described NHW groups as very rapid in terms of responding to calls for assistance:

Neighbourhood watch. There are always available, when you call them even very late, they will quickly come to your rescue. We are much secure with them. They come first, and then call the police to notify them. They are the first to arrive because they operate from within. Police take a bit long to arrive when you call them (Interview with a citizen from Lilongwe urban, 27/06/2022).

However, few members of the civil society described police response as satisfactory. They indicated that with the introduction of 997 toll free numbers, especially within the city and low-density areas, police were putting some effort to respond to calls of distress a bit faster. In rural areas, all respondents (n=8) rated CPF members as providers of most rapid response to calls for assistance. CPFs were largely found in rural areas and peri-urban areas. A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural said:

Before community policing was established, mob justice was rising, people were being murdered anyhow. When we call police then, their response was untimely, very late response. It was easier for the members of the forum to arrive first since they were already in the village and closer to the people than police. They have phones. They later call police to come (Interview with a member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 22/06/2022).

During FGDs with members of the public from Lilongwe rural, respondents showed clear dissatisfaction with police response to calls for help. They expressed amazement that whenever there was a dead body somewhere or when someone had committed suicide, the police quickly showed up. But when the same police were called to help with a difficult situation involving dangerous criminals, they (police) either never turned up or they turned up very late when the criminal had already gone (Interview with member of FGD from rural CPF, 23/06/2022).

5.11.3 Discussion on Rapid Response to Calls of Distress

Responsiveness is an essential principle of democratic and decentralised policing, meaning that the police must respond to the (immediate) needs and concerns of all members of the public and strive to deliver their services promptly, and in an even-handed and unbiased manner, showing empathy to those in need and respect for human rights. On this aspect of the study, a majority of police officers as well as a majority of members of the public from both urban and rural areas expressed dissatisfaction with police response to calls of distress.

Police dissatisfactory response was confirmed by the researcher through practical experience when he once called the police to go and help Area 49 NHW members who had arrested a criminal. All police rapid response and zone numbers for the nearest police station (Lingadzi) were not reachable. It took more than forty-five minutes for the police to arrive at the scene, after the researcher had called a friend from Lilongwe Police Station. These findings were inconsistent with both the NPS and decentralisation theories which put citizens at the heart of service delivery including being responsive to their needs. Being responsive is a crucial element of decentralised service delivery. Services are decentralised so the providers should be within reach in times of need. One of the challenges with rapid response was lack of resources such as vehicles for mobility. Additionally, there was little use of ICT as well as telephones to inform the police in the event of distress.

The study also revealed that NHW and CPF provided most rapid responses to calls of distress both in urban and rural areas. Respondents attributed this to the fact that NHW and CPF members were usually the first to receive crime information from the community since they were always available within the community. NHW and CPF groups also had strategic points where they operated from at all times. This made it easy for the community to access them. It was also evident from the responses that NHW and CPF members were easily reachable by phones such that they provided personalised services to the communities. Citizens were always sure that if they called NHW and CPF members, they would quickly respond, unlike if they called the police. These findings agree with those of Mottiar and White (2003) who also found that residents in Alexandra township found it easier to impart information concerning crime in their vicinity to CPF members rather than

to the police, the reason being that CPF are members of the community are easier to access than the police.

The spirit of community policing as co-production is to provide quick services to the community. This service has to be jointly provided by the police and members of the community. This is the spirit of decentralisation. When power has been devolved, people must use it accordingly. It is, therefore, clear from the study that community policing had stimulated the communities, in particular CPFs and NHW groups, to act swiftly whenever there was a safety and security problem in the society. It was disappointing that at the time CPF and NHW groups were doing better, the police response system had wadded behind.

5.12 Citizen or Public Trust in the Police

5.12.1 Police Respondents

Citizen trust in service providers is at the heart of decentralisation. Decentralisation cannot be successful if the service providers are not trusted by the communities. On this aspect of the study, active and retired police officers shared experiences, opinions and perceptions on the extent to which they felt members of the public trusted the police or not. The options of strongly trusted, satisfactorily trusted, neither trusted nor not trusted, not trusted and strongly not trusted were used to assess participants responses. The results show that a majority of police respondents (n=18/21) felt members of the public residing in low-density areas had satisfactory level of trust in the police. Further, the results reveal that a majority of police respondents (n=19/21) felt that the members of the community living in highdensity areas did not trust the police. It was also revealed that a majority of police

respondents (n=17/21) were undecided on whether citizens living in rural areas trusted the police or not. For example, a police officer from Lilongwe rural said that in town, particularly in low-density areas, people with money and status trusted the police, they were able to call the police for help and trusted that they would rapidly be assisted. Members of police focus group discussion rated level of community trust in the police as below average at 4% in high-density areas and at 70% in low-density areas. A police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

In low-density areas we can say public trust is satisfactory. But in high density areas it is average or below average. This is so because in highdensity areas the type of people that are found there are illiterate, their level of understanding is low making it hard for them to understand how police work. And most of them are jobless hence their means of living is stealing.

(Interview with a police officer from Lilongwe urban, 01/07/2022).

It was clear that most police officers rated community trust in the police as satisfactory for citizens living in low density areas, and below dissatisfactory for citizens living in high-density areas of Lilongwe district.

5.12.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

A majority of members of the public (n=20/29) who participated in the survey felt citizens living in low-density areas displayed satisfactory level of trust in the police. A citizen from Lilongwe urban said that in urban areas residents from low and medium density areas trusted the police, while residents from high-density had no trust in the police. In high density areas that is where the problem is. He also indicated that in rural areas people who

were wealthy trusted the police, while people who did not have money did not trust the police. He added that, ‘for those that have money the cases will just go through without any trouble. The poor are able to see those things happening’.

Further, the results reveal that all members of the public (n=29) felt that the communities living in high-density areas did not trust the police.

For example, a member of CPF from Lilongwe urban lamented that people in high-density areas of Lilongwe did not trust the police that much. He observed that there were some areas where criminal activities took place, and at one point you would see a police officer visiting such places thinking that they would arrest the culprits without knowing that he only went there to collect money from them. This removes trust from the people, and a member of community policing cannot apprehend those people. A citizen from Lilongwe urban also indicated that in high-density areas people did not trust the police (Interview with citizen from Area 49, 26/06/2022).

A majority of the members of the public (n=16/29) felt that people living in Lilongwe rural areas did not trust the police. For example, a member of CPF from Lilongwe rural said that most police officers were corrupt; they personalised their work, they took sides and forgot that police officers were not supposed to receive bribes, but were employed by government and they were paid to serve the people professionally. Because of bribes, most people did not trust them (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 16/06/2022). Another member of CPF from the rural area said that nowadays, people know that, it was not the

role of Police to give judgment but only to write a statement when there was a complaint and bring a suspect before the court of law. He lamented that this does not happen anymore. Frequently, cases were dealt with at the police station and suspects were released right there at the police station, a practice that brought doubt to the public, and eventually people started to take the law into their own hands. A member of civil society from Lilongwe urban said:

In my community they do may be because is low-density even in my village people trust police. Police is just there and when something is wrong, they will rush there (Interview with a member of CSO from Lilongwe urban, 27/06/2022).

A citizen from Lilongwe urban also said:

Yeah, in urban areas they do, in medium-density yes, but high-density no. In high density areas that is where the problem is. When you look at the economic activities in the three categories, you find that in low-density most of them are rich, they can afford good security on their own. In rural areas the case is the same, you have people who have money and the people who don't have money. For those that have money the cases will just go through without any trouble. The poor are able to see those things happening. It appears they cannot get the same service from the police officers. So, when somebody has committed a crime, they take the law into their hands (Interview with a citizen from Lilongwe urban, 26/06/2022).

5.12.3 Discussion on Citizen or Public Trust in the Police

One of the key objectives of community policing was to improve public trust in the police. Public trust was in turn aimed to improve police legitimacy. On this aspect of the study, the results were so diverse or mixed across various categories of respondents. Intriguingly,

the study found that a majority of police and ordinary citizens felt that citizens from low-density areas demonstrated satisfactory to strongly satisfactory levels of trust in the police.

This might be the case because as already explained somewhere in this study, residents from low-density areas tend to get better police services than those from rural and high-density areas. On the other hand, the results reveal that the same majority of respondents felt that citizens from high-density and rural areas of Lilongwe did not trust the police. These findings were particularly unique and needed further and in-depth enquiry. However, it was clear from the same study findings that corruption, poor attitude by police officers and poor customer care were among the key factors that contributed to poor policecommunity trust. For example, a police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

There are issues of corruption. The issues of corruption are bringing trust down. Corruption is seen in traffic but for me it's across the board. Issues of police bail, how we grant bail. Police bail is free. As community police officers, we preach that police bail is free. But out of 10, I don't think 6 will go on bail for free. So that is depleting trust on the community towards the police. And the way we do our work, what we call professionalism. Sometimes we lose track, they expect something from police and we deliver a different product. (Interview with a police officer from Lilongwe urban, 01/07/2022).

In addition to police corruption, poor attitude among police officers and lack of customer care, literature shows that the way the police handled the protests resulting from the disputed 2019 presidential elections greatly contributed to perceived deteriorating

policecommunity trust (Nyasatimes Online, Interview with Former Deputy Inspector General

(DIG) Duncan Mwapasa, 31st October 2019). Buttressing these perceptions, in October 2019, former DIG of Police Mwapasa publicly confirmed that the public had lost trust in the police. In his statement, Mwapasa stated, ‘it is indeed true that some quarters of the society have lost trust in the Malawi Police Service’, and that the police services were working towards winning back the public trust (DIG Mwapasa interview with Nyasatimes Online, October 31, 2019).

These findings were similar to the findings of recent studies in Malawi done by Mtuwa and Chiweza (2023); Afrobarometer Report (2022), Mutupha and Zhu (2022) and Kayuni and Chunga (2021). Studies by Mtuwa and Chiweza, Afrobarometer, and Mutupha and Zhu found that the level of trust in the police was generally low amongst many Malawians, and that corruption was among the main contributors of low trust in the police. In fact, Kayuni and Chunga (2021) in their webinar presentation titled ‘Two Decades of Governance in Malawi: Examining Citizen Trust in Malawi from 1999-2019’ observe that almost all government and state institutions in Malawi, including the presidency, parliament, judiciary and the police, received increasing public approval levels of trust between 1999 to 2005. In their presentation, the two authors argue that during this period many Malawians were still excited with multiparty democracy and had high expectations on the performance from state institutions.

Further, literature from other countries such as Nigeria, Ghana, Liberia and South Africa also show that citizen trust in the police was generally not satisfactory and that corruption had a significant negative impact on citizens' trust in the police (Govender & Pillay, 2022; Uhnnoo & Löfstrand, 2018; Obeagu, 2014). Sabet (2014) also found that corruption reduces the incentive for citizens to report crime to police. Gyamfi (2022), in a study on 'Exploring Public Trust in Policing at a Community Level in Ghana' also found that many people did not trust the police. The majority of the participants in the study by Gyamfi (2022) in Ghana indicated that they did not trust the police because the police officers were not trustworthy. According to Gyamfi (2022), many respondents in his study did not trust the police, because the police were often corrupt when handling criminal matters, and they divulged information about complainants and whistleblowers to criminal suspects.

The reasons advanced for low level of trust in Ghana were very similar to reasons for low level of trust in police in Lilongwe, Malawi. The main danger of dwindling level of trust in the police is that it reduces the motivation and drive in members of the community to give information to police as well as shunning from reporting cases to police. This may result in wrong capturing of crime data by the police.

5.13 Trust in Community Police Groups

5.13.1 Police Respondents

Active and retired police officers shared their views and opinions on the level of trust people had in community police groups viz; CPF, CPP and NHW that worked with the police in co-production of public safety and security in Lilongwe.

Overall, the results reveal that a majority of serving and retired police officers (n=18/21) felt that to a larger extent people trusted CPF, CPP and NHW groups that participated in co-production of public safety and security in Lilongwe. A police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

In terms of trusting, we believe that they are discharging responsibilities that could have been left for the police alone. The presence of neighborhood watch groups, I trust them. It's a good thing. Yes. I trust them, because these people are identified by residents in their areas, so when residents have identified people, we trust these are the people who can bring results in the area. (Interview with a police officer from Lilongwe urban, 01/07/2022).

Another police officer from Lilongwe urban indicated that many people trusted and respected CPF and NHW groups because they responded so swiftly whenever they had issues in their communities. A police officer from Lilongwe rural rated his trust in community police groups at 70%. He indicated that he had only 30 percent distrust in these groups. He said, 'here is where I don't trust them, there are situations where they catch a suspect, and instead of bringing him to the police, they coerce him so that they can let the issue slide under a carpet' (Interview with police officer from Chinsapo, 01/07/2022). But his overall view was that people generally had above average trust in community police groups, except on certain isolated incidents.

5.13.2 Views and Perceptions of Members of the Public

Members of the public shared their views and opinions on their level of trust in community policing groups (CPF, NHW and CPP) operating in Lilongwe. Overall, the results indicate

that a majority of community respondents (n=24/29) trusted CPFs, NHW and CPPs in their areas. The results reveal that in some cases members of the public strongly trusted community police groups. A member of CSO from Lilongwe urban said:

We trust them; that's the only way those people can trust you, they will say these people trust us let's work but if you start doubting them, they are the ones who can organize other people to bring problems. So yes, I do. I can rate them on average (Interview with member of the CSO from Lilongwe urban, 30/06/2022).

Another member of CSO from Lilongwe urban indicated that, the community had a lot of trust in these community police groups. She said that, for example, in her area, no criminal incidents had been reported for the period of three years that she had stayed there because of NHW group which provided good security.

5.13.3 Discussion on Respondents' Trust in Community Police Groups

From the study findings as well as from the literature that was reviewed, it was clear that the majority of respondents felt that the level of trust in CPFs and NHW was satisfactory.

The study revealed that respondents perceived that a majority of police officers and members of the public trusted community police groups (CPF and NHW) more than they trusted the police. This was another interesting finding that needs further enquiry. One of the reasons community police groups were more trusted than the police was because respondents felt that CPF and NHW groups responded very swiftly to calls of distress. One

police respondent said, ‘Yes. They have enough respect. At the same time, they are trusted because they will respond to issues immediately than the police’. Another police officer indicated that a majority of members of the community trusted CPF and NHW groups more than the police simply because these groups were locally recruited and well known in the communities where they operate; ‘Yes. I trust them, because people are identified by residents in their areas, so when residents have identified people, we trust these are the people who can bring results in the area’. These findings agree with the views by Diphooorn et al. (2019). In their study on ‘Policing for the Community? The Mismatch between Reform and Everyday Policing in Nairobi, Kenya’, Diphooorn et al. (2019) similarly found that many people in the Kenyan communities of Mathare and Majengo, two poor areas in Nairobi, trusted the local security structures established by chiefs called Nyumba Kumi more than they trusted the police. Much as the police did not like these local parallel structures to run community police forums, the communities from the ghettos had more trust in them and they continued to gain more popularity than police run CPF.

Finally, these findings also reveal that trust in the police or community police groups is only earned when the police are professional and available to the community at all times. This study aspect further reveals that when the police lose trust of the community, people will resort to members of community policing groups to provide them with safety and security. As advocated by NPS, for the police to earn trust and respect of the community, they must treat people as citizens and not just as customers. Citizens would like to enjoy all their rights while maintaining a good relationship with the service provider.

5.14 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed some of the main public value benefits of community policing as a form of co-production in Lilongwe district. Key public value benefits revealed by the study include:

Firstly, there was improved police and citizens' knowledge on the concept of community policing. The study concludes that community policing had greatly contributed to improved knowledge and understanding of the concept by both police officers and members of the public. The results agree with current international perspective on knowledge and understanding of community policing particularly among police officers. For example, Olusegun (2016) in South West Nigeria found that all respondents demonstrated higher level knowledge of community policing as co-production and they were aware of the existence across Nigeria. Once the citizens' knowledge has improved, community participation in co-production increases.

Community participation is a key tenet propagated by both the NPS and decentralisation theories of public management and is key to successful implementation of community policing.

Secondly, there was improved general and personal security, reduction in crime and fear of crime. Co-production of public safety and security through community policing had greatly contributed towards attainment of satisfactory levels of general as well as personal safety and security in Lilongwe. Community policing has always promoted police

visibility, CPF and NHW group visibility as well as rapid response service provided by police, CPF members and NHW groups. Evidence of improved general and personal security could be found in the recent study on global peace index, which ranked Malawi as the eleventh (11th) safest country out of 44 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (Institute for Economics & Peace. Global Peace Index, 2023). The findings further reveal that coproduction contributed towards reduction in crime and fear of crime in Lilongwe. All active police officers and all retired police officers agreed that co-production had positively contributed towards reduction in crime.

Thirdly, there has been enhanced community participation and involvement in safety and security. Community policing as form of co-production had to an extremely large extent contributed towards enhanced community participation and involvement in the delivery of public safety and security in Lilongwe. These results agree with the findings of a study by Yesberg et al. (2023). In their study, Yesberg et al. (2023) found that one of the fundamental public value benefits of community policing was that, it greatly contributed towards improved community participation in the co-production of public safety and security. Through community policing, citizens started to appreciate that it was not only the role of government and the police to provide public security; but everyone needed to play a role as propagated by new public service theory of public management as well as the decentralisation theory. Citizens must not be passive recipients of public services; they must actively participate at every stage of service delivery. As Kiełek (2022, p. 23) stated, ‘the only way to ensure that there is security in our cities is by making sure all stakeholders,

from government bodies to cities' residents, work together toward creating safe environments where everyone feels secure and happy'.

There has also been enhanced accessibility or reachability of police services. From the findings, it was concluded that accessibility of police services in urban areas was satisfactory and that it was easier for urban residents to access and reach police services. However, respondents indicated that police service points or police units were far apart in rural areas, despite community policing advocating for establishment of more rural police units. This made it very difficult for people to easily access police services.

Another benefit is improved police friendliness and approachability. It was clear from the findings that community policing had greatly helped to improve police friendliness and approachability to members of the community. This finding was very consistent with the NPS and decentralisation theories which put citizens at the centre of service delivery. Both police officers and members of the public agreed that community policing was key in improving police-community relations. This view agreed with the findings of Smith (2015), who in his study on crime and victimisation under the Malawi Police Improvement Programme also found that 78.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that police in Malawi treated them with respect, fairness and understood issues affecting their communities. However, other studies indicate that improved police friendliness was only available in low-density urban areas (Chipao & Probert, 2019).

Enhanced police visibility is another benefit. Community policing aims at improving police visibility. Although studies from urban areas of some countries like Ghana (Gymfi, 2022),

found police visibility to be a challenge, results from Lilongwe urban showed the contrary. The results from this aspect of the study indicate that a majority of police officers and members of the public who participated in the study rated police visibility in Lilongwe urban as just satisfactory. On the other hand, it was clear that police visibility was dissatisfactory in Lilongwe peri-urban and Lilongwe rural. This view agreed with the findings of Smith (2015), who in his study on crime and victimisation under the Malawi Police Improvement Programme concluded that police visibility remained very limited and police patrols were reported as rare in many communities in Malawi. Chipao and Probert, (2019) also found that police visibility was found wanting in ghettos and high-density areas in Lilongwe. On CPF and NHW visibility and foot patrols, it was concluded that community policing greatly contributed to improved visibility of CPF and NHW foot patrols only in urban areas.

Rapid response to calls of distress by CPF and NHW groups was another public value of community policing that was revealed from the study. The study revealed that NHW and CPF provided the most rapid responses to calls of distress both in urban and rural areas. The spirit of community policing as co-production is to provide quick services to the community. This service has to be jointly provided by the police and members of the community.

On Citizen or public trust in the police and community policing groups, it was concluded that community policing greatly contributed towards improving police-community trust, particularly in the low-density areas of Lilongwe. It was concluded that both police officers

and members of the communities trusted community police groups (CPF and NHW) more than they trusted the police. One of the reasons community police groups were more trusted than the police was because of their swift response to calls of distress.

Finally, it was concluded that although there are some challenges affecting community policing as a form of co-production (Mutupha & Zhu, 2022; Jenny, 2008), the concept has produced many public value benefits.

CHAPTER 6 CHALLENGES AFFECTING COMMUNITY POLICING AS A FORM OF CO-PRODUCTION

6.1 Introduction

The second objective of the study was to analyse challenges associated with community policing as form of co-production. To achieve this objective, respondents were asked to express their views, opinions and experiences on the key challenges that were associated with implementation of community policing as a form of co-producing of public safety and security in Lilongwe district. This chapter presents findings on challenges associated with community policing as a form as co-production:

6.2 Corruption

Participants shared their views, experiences and perception on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that corruption was a stumbling block in the co-production process of public safety and security. Options of strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree were used to rate participants' opinions. The table below represents the findings.

Table 10: Corruption as a co-production challenge

Category	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Police Officers	n=8/17	n=7/17	n=2/17	0	0
Rt. Police	n=4/4	0	0	0	0
CSO	n=6/7	n=1/7	0	0	0
CPF	n=10/12	n=2/12	0	0	0
Community Members	n=5/5	0	0	0	0
NHW	n=4/5	n=1/5	0	0	0
Total	n=37/50	n=11/50	n=2/50	0	0

6.2.1 Perceptions of Police Officers

A majority of active police officers (n=8/17) strongly agreed while 7 active police officers agreed that corruption negatively affected community policing, and 2 officers remained neutral. All retired police officers (n=4) strongly felt that corruption negatively impacted on community policing. For example, a police officer from Lilongwe urban said that many citizens were not willing to work with the police because they perceived police officers as corrupt individuals who could hardly be trusted. He expressed dissatisfaction with the way police officers handled suspects. He expressed concern with the practice of releasing criminal suspects after the officers had pocketed bribes (Interview with a senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 22/06/2022). Another police officer from Lilongwe urban lamented that when people see traffic officers on the road, all they think is that they are there to collect bribes (Interview with a police officer from Lilongwe urban, 22/06/2022). Agreeing with the above sentiments, a retired police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

When people see every police officer, they just see a cruel person, a thief.

You know the way the way they say that the police are corrupt. So, every

police officer is just a thief. Yes, since they announce on TV that the police are number one of all departments in terms of corruption. So, when you move in the streets, especially if you board a minibus, the moment they see a police officer they just say “You see that police officer? He is about to steal; he left his house without food (Interview with a retired senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 16/06/2022).

6.2.2 Perceptions of the Public

The results revealed that a majority of CSO members (n=6/7); CPF members (n=10/12); community members/citizens (n=5) and NHW members (n=4/5) strongly agreed that corruption was a key challenge rocking implementation of community policing. A majority of participants from FGDs strongly agreed that corruption was a major issue that needed attention if co-production was to bear more dividends. A member of civil society from Lilongwe urban reported:

And also, there is that expectation that, something happened to this sister of mine, she wanted police help and she was told; ‘give us some money for us to come’. And some have also complained to me that for us to get assistance quickly we have to pay something (Interview with member of CSO from Lilongwe urban, 30/06/2022).

Commenting on the effects of corruption on implementation of community policing, a member of CPF from Lilongwe rural said that people view police officers as cruel; and they do not see them as people whom they can relate to. He further pointed out that sometimes they stone them when they have come to arrest their relative. He gave an

example whereby someone was arrested and police demanded K50,000 from that person for him to be released. After releasing him, the police claimed that the released suspect was mentally sick. The findings revealed that a majority of respondents agreed that corruption had a negative effect on provision of public safety and security to the communities.

6.2.3 Discussion on the Challenge of Corruption

Evidence from the findings indicates that a majority of participants strongly agreed that corruption was a major challenge that hindered performance of community policing as a form of co-production in Lilongwe. Many respondents believed that police corruption deflected members of the community and community policing groups from fully participating in co-production. These same sentiments were also echoed in the recent study by Mutupha and Zhu (2022). These findings agree with the findings by Smith (2015), who in his study on crime and victimisation under the Malawi Police Improvement Programme concluded that although only 29.9% of adults had personally seen a police officer take a bribe or involved in corrupt practices, a majority (73.8%) of adults felt that a lot or some of the police officers engaged in corrupt practices.

Literature from other countries, such as South Africa also support this finding.

In South Africa, a study by Govender and Pillay (2022) also found that corruption had a significant negative impact on people's trust in the police. This was also posited by Goldsmith (2005, p. 12) who argued that 'corruption poses absence of public trust in police and without public trust in police, the public safety suffers'. Once citizens perceive the

police to be corrupt, they lose trust in them. Loss of trust in the police has resulted in looting and torching of many police facilities as well as assaults on police officers across Malawi. Further, Sabet (2014), also argued that corruption reduces the incentive for people to report crime to police. The community does not like to associate with corrupt police officers who release suspects after receiving bribes. When citizens fail to relate well with the police, they cannot fully participate in co-production; they cannot share information with the police; they cannot join the police in crime fighting; this defeats the essence of community policing. Evidence from recent research shows that the majority of citizens (62%) in Malawi believed that the police were not as friendly as they expected and that for them to obtain assistance or services from the police, they had to pay a bribe, give a gift, or do a favour to a police officer (Afrobarometer, 2022). As a result of police corruption, it has been difficult for the police to create a friendly environment for citizens.

Interestingly, the findings of this study reveal that a reasonable number of serving police officers remained quiet on the issues of corruption. Such quietness from serving police officers was an indication that there are still some police officers who lived in denial on the existence of corruption amongst the ranks and file. This mindset has to be changed if the fight against corruption is to be won and if trust in the police is to be restored.

In summary, there are many other studies from Africa and beyond that buttress the perception that police corruption as well as corruption by CPFs and NHW groups remained a big barrier to community participation in issues of safety and security.

From this study, it has been established that when the police are corrupt, citizens lose trust in them and the police eventually find themselves isolated (Cordner, 1995). Once the police are isolated, citizens are not able to share with the police vital information on crime, and hence, the fight against crime cannot be successful. Co-production of safety and security service is dependent on high level of integrity of the police. Thus, any efforts to have successful community policing must be founded on the principle of corrupt free police.

6.3 Human Rights Abuse and Misconduct by CPF and NHW Groups

Participants shared their views, opinions and experiences on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that CPF and NHW members violated human rights and abused people they came into contact with especially during night patrols.

6.3.1 Perceptions of Police Officers

A majority of active and retired police officers (n=14/21) strongly agreed having witnessed or heard that CPF and NHW members abused peoples' rights, particularly those coming from night shifts, drinking joints and other entertainment places as well as from prayer houses.

A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban had this to say:

If you are a police officer and you staying in the location, for example Area 36, at night around 9, 10 or 12. If they tell you please sit, you have to sit down. You will sit down and explain yourself. "I am a police officer", 'Okay Sir, sorry, please proceed. So, they are powerful and they respond urgently. They are powerful because if they mount roadblocks, they close the area. They say "we have closed the area; you need enough permission

to pass (Interview with a senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 22/06/2022).

6.3.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

A majority of CSO (5/7) leaders strongly agreed that CPF and NHW members abused peoples' rights. A majority of members of the community (n=4/5) agreed that CPF and NHW members abused people's rights especially during the night. All five (5) members of NHW group from Area 49 remained neutral on this aspect of the study. FGDs also agreed that CPF members were involved in human rights abuses such as beatings and extortion. A human rights activist from Lilongwe urban indicated that on several occasions he had witnessed members of CPF and NHW participate in mob justice after criminal suspects had been arrested by members of the community. A rural member of a CPF said:

Secondly some members don't understand, like sometimes when they meet some at night, they can beat that person, so those are some of the challenges that we meet (Interview with a member of CPF from rural, 23/06/2022).

6.3.3 Discussion on Human Rights Abuse and Misconduct by CPF and NHW Groups

The study revealed that members of CPF and NHW groups were involved in violation and abuse of people's rights in the of course conducting community policing duties. Such findings were not unique to Malawi. For example, studies from elsewhere in Africa, such as Nigeria, also revealed that abuse of human rights by both the police and members of community policing forums and NHW groups were rampant and greatly affected community participation in the co-production of public safety and security (Obeagu, 2014).

Of interest was that CPF and NHW members did not respond to this question. Low response rate to questions on this aspect of the study by CPF and NHW members would be interpreted as silent admission of wrong doing and guilt to the allegations. These are establishments that were expected to serve citizens with integrity and protect their dignity. It was, therefore, important that members of CPF and NHW be properly trained and oriented before commencing their duties. Co-production can never be successful if the people you are expected to work with feel abused and harassed. To mitigate human rights violations and harassment by CPF and NHW members, the study proposed enhancement of joint patrols between police and community police groups, such as CPF and NHW.

6.4 Police Neglect of Their Duties to CPF and NHW

Participants shared views, opinions and experiences on the extent to which they felt introduction of community policing had made the police leave its crime prevention functions, arresting offenders and bringing them to justice, to members of community police forums and members of the community in general.

6.4.1 Police Respondents

A majority of active and retired police officers (n=16/21) felt introduction of community policing had to a large extent made the police leave most of their work to members of CPF, NHW and members of the community. For example, a retired police officer from Lilongwe rural said:

The police are now used to writing letters to those doing community policing stating that they are looking for a particular person and the

community should catch someone and deliver them to the police. So, it brought in some laziness in the police. We have abandoned our responsibility and left it for the people (Interview with a retired senior officer from Lilongwe rural at Traditional Authority Malili, 17/06/2022).

The above retired senior officer from Traditional Authority Malili indicated that people were disappointed to see that nowadays the police had left most of their duties to members of CPF, NHW and citizens. He emphasised that unlike in the past when police took foot patrols very seriously, these days, the police were rarely visible in most areas doing patrols; the police rarely conduct joint patrols with member of CPF or NHW. The retired senior police officer expressed a lot of disapproval with the way the police conducted itself.

However, a police officer from Lilongwe urban described the introduction of community policing as a great relief to the police work. He indicated that members of CPF and NHW groups were providing a rare synergy to the policing by arresting offenders and bringing them to police. He added that police work had been made easier with CPF and NHW groups. These groups did most of the work police was required to do in many locations, he added (Interview with senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 16/06/2022).

6.4.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

The results reveal that all members of CPF (n=12) felt that introduction of community policing had to a very great extent, created ‘a very lazy police officer’ who, instead of going to local areas to arrest criminals, had resorted to writing letters to village headmen

and other local leaders to arrest and bring the suspects to police. All five (5) members of NHW group who participated in the study felt that the police were no longer performing their functions as per their mandate. A majority of members of the community (n=3/5) also felt the police neglected their job by unnecessarily delegating their duties to members of the community. FGDs agreed with the views echoed by NHW groups. Respondents from rural areas described the introduction of community policing as an initiative that had made the police abrogate their duties to members of CPF, NHW groups and ordinary citizens. They cited an example where, when citizens came to police to lodge a complaint the police gave them letters addressed to CPF or NHW groups to arrest the offenders and bring them to police station. They described police work as ostensibly mere administration. They indicated that modern police officers spend most of their time in office, instead of working on the ground with the communities. One FGD member from Lilongwe rural said:

Just to add on that, there are cases when one goes with a complaint to them, and they issue a summon that we should be the one to bring the suspect to them, yet they have a vehicle on their disposal, and as for us we barely have resources (Interview with FGD member from rural, 23/06/2022).

6.4.3 Discussion on Police Neglect of their Duties to CPF and NHW

The study found that since the introduction of community policing, the police had demonstrated greatest tendency to neglect their duties by delegating most of their responsibilities to the community and CPF. When the researcher visited Lilongwe police station, he found some people waiting to be attended to at the waiting shelter. During a chat with them, they showed the researcher letters written and signed by police officers,

directing them to go and arrest suspected criminals who had offended them. Literature from foreign jurisdictions such as South Africa attests to this finding. In South Africa, Pelser (1999) found that community policing made the police abandon some of their legislative functions to CPFs. Community members in the FGDs argued that laziness by the police to carry their legislative functions was a demotivating factor for community participation in co-production. Citizens would like to see the police work together with people.

The study further revealed that police abdication of their duties, more especially when CPF and NHW groups are left to conduct foot patrols alone, they tend to get involved in violations and abuse of human rights.

Interestingly, the study showed that a reasonable number of police respondents regarded involvement of members of community forum and NHW in policing as an initiative that created a synergy that added human resource in the co-production process. This view was shared by Stamper (2006), who in his study found that the involvement of communities in policing their local areas was not meant to compromise the integrity of the police but rather it was meant to be used as a platform to educate citizens about neighbourhood crime and how to deal with it. It can, therefore be argued that, much as quality service delivery is needed, decentralization itself in the form of devolution and delegation of authority to coproducers, does not lead to quality service provision if implemented without proper checks and quality control. Thus, if implemented without proper checks and quality control, community policing as a form of decentralised policing would have some of the worst results such as abuse of authority by CPF and NHW groups as well as abdication of duties by police officers.

6.5 Volunteerism

Participants shared their views, opinions and perceptions on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that volunteerism contributed to poor performance of community policing.

The following table depicts overall findings:

Table 11: Volunteerism

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Police officers	n=17/21	n=4/21			
CPF	n=12				
NHW	n=5				
CSO	n=7				
Citizens	n=5				
FGD (police)					
FGD (CPF)					
FGD (NHW)					

6.5.1 Police Respondents

The results show that a majority of active and retired police officers (n=17/21) strongly agreed that volunteerism contributed to demotivation among CPF and NHW members. A police officer from Lilongwe urban described motivation as key to optimal performance of CPF and NHW groups. He indicated that performing safety and security services on voluntary basis, as is the case under community policing, presents a major motivation challenge for community policing groups in the co-production process. He added that motivating members of community policing in various ways would greatly improve their commitment and performance. These community policing members perform some of the risky functions and work in very dangerous situations, such that a token of appreciation for

their services would be a great motivation. Another senior police officer from Lilongwe urban said that besides the need for monetary motivation in form of honorarium, these community policing groups need other forms of motivation, including working equipment such as batons, whistles, reflective jackets and transport. He added that providing community policing groups with such equipment would act as a great motivation. A police officer from Lilongwe rural said:

So far, the work they do is voluntary, and they don't get anything, as such they are not motivated to dedicate much of their time and energy to it, had it been that there would be some funding to help them with allowances, it would have improved some aspects of it (Interview with a police officer from Lilongwe rural, 18/06/2022).

Member of police FGD from Lilongwe urban said:

Yes, it is good that people contribute something for members of the community police forum, because lack of motivation to the members of the forum make them vulnerable to corruption and abuse of authority. They might just collect the money from suspects and release them without taking them to police. It is good but it can bring problems at the end because if the people won't contribute then the community forum will not work. And some are poor that they can't afford to contribute (Interview with member of police FGD from Lilongwe urban, 23/06/2022).

6.5.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

All members of community policing (n=12); all NHW member (n=5); all members of CSOs (n=7); citizens (n=5) and all three FGDs strongly agreed that volunteerism strongly contributed to low motivation thereby reducing productivity of community policing as a co-production. A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural described the practice of

coproducing safety and security on voluntary basis as extremely sad. He said, ‘it's very sad that all that we do, we do it for free. There is no single day that we were given even a bonus for the job well done but we work day and night’.

He added that because they were not paid anything, many young and energetic citizens shunned away from participating in community policing activities. ‘They would rather go and do piece works than participate in non-paying activities’, he concluded. A member of CPF from Lilongwe urban indicated that, they were aware that according to law, their work was voluntary. However, he added that they still needed resources like reflectors, transport and protective gear. “Even though this work is voluntary but they should have been giving us something, it can motivate us”. He concluded. Another member CPF from Lilongwe rural responded that:

Community policing was introduced for us to be volunteers but the world is changing, community policing should have changed too. For example, CPF should be given a motor cycle because we cover a wide area like Chinsapo, Mpingwi, Kanthulu, if there is an emergency it won't be successful using a bicycle, I will definitely be late (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 22/06/2022).

Members of a FGD from Lilongwe rural indicated that the area they were responsible for in Traditional Authority Malili was too vast. They traveled long distances to hold meetings as well as to arrest suspected criminals. They added that they usually spent their own resources in the process of co-production without getting anything in return as compensation. They further added that, this practice demotivated many people from

participating in community policing (Interview during FGD at Traditional Authority Malili, 26/06/2022).

6.5.3 Discussion on Volunteerism

A majority of respondents strongly believed that volunteerism demotivated citizens from actively participating in co-production of public safety and security in Lilongwe. All respondents from the rural areas strongly agreed that volunteerism was a great hindrance to success of community policing. Rural CPF and NHW members expressed strong dissatisfaction with the current policy where CPF and NHW members perform such dangerous security functions without any compensation. From the findings, it was very clear that although the Police Act of 2010 states that members of CPF and NHW groups shall provide their services on voluntary basis, a majority of respondents proposed that volunteers performing community policing work must be given some reasonable honorarium as a token of appreciation for the dangerous job that they perform day and night. The proposal that community police volunteers be compensated with a small token of appreciation was in agreement with Mistry's (1996 as cited in Van Graan, 2005) work, where the findings in that study also showed that members of CPF felt that they should be compensated financially for the service rendered. For example, in Kenya, Diphoorn et al. (2019, p. 33) in their study on 'Policing for the community? The mismatch between reform and everyday policing in Nairobi, Kenya' found, that most Nyumba Kumi members volunteered to join community police activities partly because they were incentivised with a small compensation fee of around KES 2 000 ($\pm$ USD 20) from the provincial administration for the safety and security work they did jointly with the police.

Diphorn et al. (2019) further mentioned that Nyumba Kumi members were also often invited to meetings with NGOs and the government where they received some per diems as compensation. Such per diems were often referred to as transport money, but these per diems typically surpassed transport costs by a significant margin. This was a clear indication that members of community police groups and neighbourhood watch groups, just like any human being would be more motivated if they were paid some small per diem or honorarium, than working on voluntary basis as was the case.

Another study in Kenya by Amuya (2017) titled ‘community policing in Kenya: Examining the Challenges Derailing Police-Civilian Relations in Teso South Sub-County’ established that community police forums were not paid anything for their job. The study found that lack of rewards for community police forums made it difficult for the police to fully control them since they were not paid a salary. Actually, the Kenyan study revealed that some CPF members resorted to soliciting bribes from the citizens as compensation for the work they were doing.

Lack of proper compensation could, therefore, be one of the main reasons some community members were not willing to join community police forums and participate in coproduction of public safety and security.

Actually, during the study, the researcher observed that just like Nyumba Kumi in Kenya, in many locations in Lilongwe, Malawi, including Area 9, Area 47, Area 49, Area 3 and

many other locations, residents were already making monthly contributions which they used to pay individual NHW and CPF members who were patrolling in their locations. This was a clear testimony that NHW and CPF members needed to be compensated for the job they were performing.

6.6 Lack of Joint Patrols as Motivational Challenge

On this study aspect participants discussed the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that inadequate or lack of joint patrols between police and members of the community contributed to demotivation and poor performance of community policing as a form of coproduction.

6.6.1 Police Respondents

A majority of active police officers (n=13/17) agreed that lack of joint patrols was a major demotivating factor to community participation in co-production. All retired police officers (n=4) strongly agreed that lack of joint patrols demotivated community police and neighbourhood watch groups from putting optimal efforts in co-production of public safety and security. A police officer from Lilongwe urban described joint patrols as a great source of motivation to various community police groups such as CPF and NHW. He indicated that joint patrols afforded the police a rare opportunity to know crime hot-spots which needed special police attention.

He further said that members of CPF and NHW felt more secure and empowered when patrolling with the police. Additionally, members of CPF and NHW felt highly recognised whenever the police regularly visited them, particularly during the night. He indicated that

community members were not as armed as the police, as such police support was important to these community police groups.

Another police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

Joint patrols are necessary. Firstly, as I already say, it acts as motivation to the members of the forum, and also when the community members see that they are encouraged, and also at the same they learn on how they should work (Interview with police officer from Lilongwe urban, 18/06/2022).

Commenting on why joint patrols were not common, a senior police officer from Lilongwe rural said:

We don't do joint patrols, but we do meet when we are both doing patrols. Last time we wanted to do an operation, and we asked for their participation, but they refused because of fear of being targeted, instead they just gave us intel (Interview with a senior police officer from Lilongwe rural, 27/06/2022).

Interestingly, a majority of active police officers (n=12/17) indicated that they never conducted joint patrols with community police groups. One police officer indicated that the police did not really trust community police groups.

6.6.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

All members of community policing (n=12) strongly agreed that lack of joint patrols demotivated them when performing their duties. A majority of respondents from urban areas (n=23/32) agreed that joint patrols acted as source of motivation to community police and neighbourhood watch groups. A majority of respondents from rural areas (n=14/18) agreed that lack of joint patrols contributed to low motivation among community police

members. A citizen from Lilongwe urban described joint patrols as very important since they make CPF members get motivated whenever they patrolled together with police. Joint patrols are necessary. They are a motivation to the members of community forum. People may know also that members of the community forum are not alone, police got their back he narrated.

A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural said:

Between police and us, there is a gap. Most of the times when we want to do joint operation with them it's mostly not possible. I would have loved that they should not take community policing as being done by unworthy people, if we put together our views we do better. They don't ask us our views on some issues, it's like they command us on what to do may be just because they undergo a police training and we didn't. In my experience we do most of the work than them. No, it's been long since we patrolled together (Interview with a member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 23/06/2022).

A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural indicated that members of CPF and police officers rarely patrolled together. He emphasised that for a couple of years that he had stayed in remote areas, they had never done any joint patrols with the police. However, he said that, in areas that are close to town, the police and members of CPF sometimes conducted some joint patrols, 'not in a month but may be after some months they conduct joint patrols', he said. He added that even vehicle patrols with police never took place. A member of the civil society described joint patrols as very important as they help to hold both the police and members of CPFs accountable to each other. He added that CPF members did not

undergo any kind of training, as such joint patrols helped the police to exercise control over them.

6.6.3 Discussion on Lack of Joint Patrols as Motivational Challenge

It was clear from the responses that joint patrols have a myriad of benefits to both police officers and members of community policing groups. For example, some of the respondents argued that joint patrols can help control the community policing structures and help watch over them. Joint patrols also help to instill confidence in community policing members. For example, police have guns, this makes their response more effective. Joint patrols also help to motivate members of the community to easily report incidents of crime. Mottiar and White (2003) also found that residents in Alexandra township found it easy to impart information concerning their crime to their vicinity to CPF members rather than to the police because CPF are members who live right in the community and are quicker to access than the police.

A majority of active police officers (n=13/17) agreed that lack of joint patrols was a major demotivating factor to CPF and NHW performance.

Joint patrols help to enhance accountability on both police officers and CPF and NHW groups (USAID, 2020). A majority of the members of the public (n=18/29) indicated that they had never experienced or seen police officers conducting patrols jointly with members of community security groups. However, it was clear that members of community policing groups were more interested and willing to conduct patrols with the police. One member of CPF said:

Between police and us, there is a gap. Most of the times when we want to do joint operation with them it's mostly not possible. I would have loved that they should not take community policing as being done by unworthy people, if we put together our views we do better. They don't ask us our views on some issues, it's like they command us on what to do may be just because they undergo a police training and we didn't. In my experience we do most of the work than them. No, it's been long since we patrolled together (Interview with CPF member from Lilongwe rural, 23/06/2022).

An aversion of joint patrols by some police officers may be viewed as an indicator that there was a portion of police officers who had not yet fully embraced community policing. Such police officers may also be shunning accountability from members of CPF or NHW during joint patrols. For example, a CID officer at Lilongwe police station clearly said, Sometimes, you can encourage them (CPF) to do something but being civilians, they can run away and leave you alone. Respondents also indicated joint patrols as a source of motivation to CPFs and NHW groups. One citizen said:

Joint patrols are necessary. They are a motivation to the members of community police forums. And also, people may know that members of the community forum are not alone, police got their back.

The finding that joint patrols motivate and give legitimacy to CPF and NHW groups was also echoed by Uhnöo and Löfstrand (2018) in Sweden, who also found that it was difficult for volunteers to maintain their legitimacy in police activities, unless they were accompanied by uniformed police officers.

Similarly, Zikhali (2019) in Zimbabwe found that the community members were more willing to support the police with resources if they conducted joint patrols. Joint patrols between the police and members of community policing groups provided a great synergy in dealing with crime. Joint patrols also helped to reduce attacks, assaults, injuries and intimidation among CPF and NHW groups when executing their duties. This sentiment was echoed by several respondents during the study. In the spirit of decentralised policing, joint patrols must be encouraged and promoted.

6.7 Attacks, Injuries and Intimidation on CPF and NHW Members

6.7.1 Perceptions of Police Officers

The results show that a majority of police officers (n=17/21), both active and retired indicated that the police had registered several reports of attacks, assaults, injuries and intimidation on members of CPF and NHW. A police officer from Lilongwe urban police unit said:

They are threatened as they stay within the communities. They are sometimes assaulted. And they also lack resources (Interview with a police officer from Lilongwe urban, 18/06/2022).

6.7.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

The results show that all the 12 participants drawn from CPFs indicated that members of community policing groups were often attacked, assaulted, injured and intimidated when executing community police and neighbourhood watch duties. The same views were shared by members of NHW groups whereby all the 6 participants drawn from NHW groups complained of frequent attacks, assaults and injuries while participating in night patrols.

Members of the community and CSO did not say anything on this matter. A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural described community policing as a very dangerous endeavour that requires those participating in co-production to put the interest of society before self. He cited an example of dangers associated with involvement of members of CPF when jointly arresting criminal suspects with the police.

He argued that whenever the suspects recognise you, once he is released from police custody, he comes back home to intimidate members of CPF. This puts lives of members of CPF at great risk (Interview with CPF member from Traditional Authority Malili, 16/06/2022). A member of CPF from Lilongwe urban said:

If we apprehended a person and two or three days later the person is released from police custody, for sure we will not see eye to eye with that person and leaving our lives at risk. what I have said is the critical one, people want to see community policing failing.

Another challenge is that our lives are at risk. We face intimidation from community members who are not comfortable with community forum (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe urban, 19/06/2022).

6.7.3 Discussion on Attacks, Injuries and Intimidation on CPF and NHW members

The results from this aspect of the study indicate that a majority of respondents agreed that individuals who participated in co-production of public safety and security were exposed to various risks including attacks, assaults and intimidation from criminals. In Malawi, literature on attacks, injuries and intimidation on CPF and NHW members is still very limited. Much as there is limited literature on attacks and intimidation on CPF and NHW

members, there is a lot of literature which attest to the fact that police officers have suffered such attacks on numerous occasions. For example, Chipao and Probert (2019) reported that in 2017 in Mtandire, police officers who had intervened in a situation where people wanted to set ablaze a house belonging to a woman, they accused of practicing witchcraft were attacked, injured and their marked police motor vehicle was torched. Despite the police officers being armed with rifles, they could not just use their firearms to avoid aggravating the situation. This is a clear indication and testimony that nothing could stop angry people from attacking CPF and NHW members.

This finding on attacks, injuries and intimidation on members of community police forums and neighbourhood watch agrees with the findings by Gyamfi (2022) who, in his study on ‘Exploring Public Trust in Policing at a Community in Ghana’, also found that a majority of respondents complained that they were victims of attacks by suspected criminals whom they had once reported to police. In his publication Gyamfi (2022, p. 1258) cited one respondent (member of community police group and police informant) who said, ‘her trust in the police personnel at the community was very low that she decided not to report any criminal to the police at their station because she perceived that most of the criminals had some acquaintances with the police’. She further complained that the thieves who were arrested by the police, based on her report to the police, later on came back to physically attack her for reporting her to the police. These findings further agree with what Bediako (2023) reported that in Asante Juaben district in Ghana, two community police members were seriously attacked by Indian hemp drug dealers simply because they assisted the police in the co-production of public safety and security in their area in Ghana.

Another study done in Kenya by Amuya (2017) titled ‘Community Policing in Kenya: Examining the Challenges Derailing Police-Civilian Relations in Teso South Sub-County’ also found that CPF members were being targeted by criminals for working with the police. Furthermore, when the researcher visited Lilongwe police station, there were a number of assault and attack complaints registered by members of community police forums. Some members of CPF indicated that their houses were demolished by people who were not amused with their participation in community police activities. Such reports were also common in the media (Sande, 2022).

Challenges of attacks on police officers and police infrastructure remain serious and need to be dealt with holistically throughout the service delivery chain. As discussed elsewhere in this study, there are many causes of the vice such as corruption by police officers, low trust in the police and justice delivery system, poor customer care and bad police attitude. It was, therefore, important that all these factors that contribute to attacks on police officers be addressed. Additionally, attacks on police were a result of poor conflict resolution skills by the police. It was, therefore, important to enhance conflict resolution skills in the police.

6.8 Lack of Police Feedback

Participants shared their views, opinions and perceptions on the extent to which they were satisfied with feedback they received from police whenever they had reported complaints or on any other issues at a police facility, and how this affected community participation in the co-production of public safety and security.

6.8.1 Perceptions of police officers

A majority of active and retired police officers (n=14/21) indicated that many people were dissatisfied with the level of feedback they received from police whenever they had issues with the police. A majority of police respondents indicated that the police rarely provided feedback on matters they were handling, such that complainants were usually left in the dark on progress of their cases. A majority of police respondents further indicated that lack of feedback by the police had to a greater extent affected community's participation in coproduction of public safety and security.

For example, a police officer from Lilongwe urban described the police as having an attitude problem when it came to giving feedback or progress reports on complaints people lodge with the police. He gave an example of a citizen who was killed by robbers in Mitundu area. The police responded in the morning, and thereafter the police never provided any feedback on progress of the case.

6.8.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

A majority of members of the CSO leaders (n=5/7) indicated that the police were very poor at providing feedback to members of the community on matters reported to them. They indicated that lack of feedback on issues that affected complainants and other members of the community to a greater extent negatively affected people's participation in community policing.

A majority of members of the community police forums (CPF) (n=10/12) and members of the community (n=4/5) to a greater extent felt betrayed by the police actions of not providing feedback, especially where they (CPF) brought a suspect to police or where members of the community complained about crime and the police failed to give feedback or updates. For examples, members of CPF from Lilongwe urban narrated that one of the causes of poor relationship between the police and members of CPF was the tendency by the police to release criminal suspects who CPF had arrested without giving them any proper explanation and feedback on how the cases were progressing. One had this to say:

The way they release people we have apprehended, that is where the problem is. We work the whole night for that and they end up releasing that person just like that without even informing us. Only if they communicated to us the reasons. Sometimes the complainant also complains. This is the main reason why our relationship is sour (Interview with CPF member from Lilongwe urban, 26/06/2022).

Members of the civil society also complained that they were dissatisfied with the level of feedback they received from police whenever they had registered complaints with the police. They complained that the police occasionally gave them feedback on progress of the cases they were handling. For example, a member of CSO indicated that he once experienced a break-in at his house. However, the police never gave him any progress of the case for more than a year. It's like they don't care, he complained. A citizen from Lilongwe urban also complained:

Oh okay. I think in terms of safety so far, in my opinion, they don't give feedback. They asked you what happened but they don't come back to give

information about what they have done so far (Interview with a citizen from Lilongwe urban, 27/06/2022).

6.8.3 Discussion on Lack of Police Feedback

Feedback is a form of accountability. Lack of feedback is inconsistent with accountability principles propounded by the decentralisation theory. The findings show that lack of feedback from the police on complaints lodged by individuals and on general issues of safety and security was a huge challenge and remained a great concern to citizens who had matters at police stations. Most respondents expressed frustration and total dissatisfaction with lack of feedback on progress of police investigations into their cases.

Respondents indicated that they felt most police officers did not appreciate the importance of giving feedback or progress on complaints they had received from victims and other citizens. In a democracy, citizens always expect more information and feedback from public service providers. Feedback puts citizens at the center of service delivery.

Lack of feedback was not only unique to Malawi Police Service. But it is inconsistent with principles of decentralisation. These findings are similar with the findings done in Bangladesh, South Africa and Indonesia where lack of police feedback to the community they served as well as to members of community policing and NHW groups was equally found to be a huge challenge in implementation of community policing (Islam, 2018; Rakgoadi, 1995; Amu et al., 2023). For citizens to have trust in the police and its systems, there is need for constant feedback to the community. The US Department of Justice (1994) also postulated that for any form of policing to be successful, feedback was essential.

Without adequate feedback, agencies can encounter implementation problems that could have been avoided. For citizens to have trust in the police and its systems, there is need for constant feedback to the community. The study also revealed that there were no accountability systems and mechanisms to check and follow up if complaints lodged by victims were being properly handled by the police and by individual police officers. It was, therefore, important that the Malawi Police develop complaints handling and feedback protocols to ensure that complainants and victims received timely feedback on their cases.

6.9 Inadequate Training in Community Policing

On this aspect of the study, participants shared their views, opinions and experiences on the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with the training that had been offered to both police officers and community police members on the theory and implementation of community policing in Malawi. Options of strongly satisfactory, satisfactory, neutral, dissatisfactory and strongly dissatisfactory were used to rate responses. Results on this area were disaggregated into police officers training, community police members' training and neighbourhood watch groups training.

6.9.1 Perceptions of Police Officers

Overall, the results show that a majority of active and retired police officers (n=13/21) expressed dissatisfaction with the quality of training that had been offered to police officers in the area of community policing. They were also not satisfied with training that had been offered to various community policing groups. A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban had this to say:

Working as community policing coordinators, they have only been exposed to a 1 day, 2 days, 3-day workshop. So, we can't develop a performer in that way. It seems as if we are not that serious. On that side there is need for the leadership commitment to make sure that all coordinators are well and fully trained. We have CID officers that go for full intake. We have traffic officers; they go for three months. Why not them. I think I have already said the capacity to effectively work with the community (Interview with senior officer from Lilongwe urban, 22/06/2022).

A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban described training provided to community policing coordinators as inadequate compared to trainings offered to their counterparts in other police branches such as CID and Traffic. According to him, there were no specialised trainings designed for community policing coordinators. He added that inadequate training had greatly contributed to challenges in mainstreaming community in the whole police service. A retired senior police officer from Lilongwe rural said:

No. that needs to start from the training. They need to change the syllabus. In police training this should insist that every police officer is a member of community policing. He can initiate community policing issues. Everybody must be regarded as such; no special clique should say we are the community policing officers (Interview with retired senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 19/06/2022).

6.9.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

All members of the civil society (n=7) and all community members (n=5) expressed dissatisfaction with training offered to police officers, CPF members as well training offered to members of NHW groups. The results also show that a majority of members of community policing (n=8/12) were dissatisfied with training that had been offered to them

in the area of community policing as a form of co-production. A majority of NHW members (n=5) expressed strong dissatisfaction with training they received from the police and other stakeholders in the area of co-production.

The following descriptions depict views and experiences of some of the participants on this area of the study. A CSO member from Lilongwe urban observed:

The police are very mean on that (training) or they have no initiatives at all. I have no kind words for police on that one. Because if they were serious every community now could have been providing those trainings but I can't remember exactly when these community policing initiatives were being introduced in the country, as I told you have lived in different communities, I made a conclusion that police are not serious with community policing. Yes, so on that there is a gap how people understand certain principles like bail, adjournment of cases, sentencing and all that, the community is not fully aware. Therefore, they decide that they should take the law into their hands and administer justice (Interview with CSO member from Lilongwe urban, 30/06/2022).

A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural complained that 'there had never been any real training like the way it was done in other government departments where officials go somewhere for some days to be trained in different areas but police officers usually come here and talk to us. No one from here has ever attended such kind of training'.

A member of CPF from Lilongwe urban collaborated with the above CPF member and had this to say:

Mostly on trainings and there are some people that do not understand about community policing. Also, some politics in the communities, some think they are better citizens than others so it creates some challenges. It is better if police could come and sensitize the people often. The committee should be reminded of its roles and responsibilities. if you have cried for help there, people are willing to come and help you but when you cry and nobody is there to help because there is no community forum in that area (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe urban, 18/06/2022).

A citizen from Lilongwe urban said:

I think the training. I don't know whether those people are really trained or they are just there to alert because at times, in my case, they have somehow never stopped me. Okay. Maybe they know me. But in other areas, like in old Gulliver, they have never stopped me to say "You are driving this unregistered vehicle. Stopping me to ask me where I am going (Interview with a local citizen from Lilongwe urban, 26/06/2022).

Members of NHW groups complained that they had never attended any training since they became members of the grouping. They indicated that the police had never reached out to teach or orient them on best practices about community policing and how best to conduct themselves as NHW members.

6.9.3 Discussion on Inadequate Training in Community Policing

For any initiative to be successfully implemented, it must be founded on good training and capacity building of those who will be involved in its implementation. In the same way, it was imperative that police officers and members of community police groups implementing community policing are knowledgeable enough about the philosophy and concept of community policing.

Overall, results on this aspect of the study revealed that a majority of participants expressed dissatisfaction with the level of training given to police officers, community police members as well as to members of neighbourhood watch groups on implementation of community policing as a co-production tool. The study further revealed that lack of proper training for CPF and NHW members was a major contributing factor for human rights abuses perpetrated by CPF and NHW members. These findings partly agree with the findings by Mtupha and Zhu (2022, p. 50), who in their study found that:

Lack of knowledge on the concept and benefits of community policing affected the implementation of the concept. Lack of knowledge was attributed to lack of short workshops and trainings in relation to the community policing. Worse still, all police training schools in Malawi did not formally include police community as a subject in their syllabus. As a result, police officers could not even attempt to define or explain the concept of police community.

Although Mutupha and Zhu (2022) found that there was lack knowledge on community policing among police officers and members of the community, the present study found that despite in-adequate formal trainings on community policing, both police officers and members of community police groups had satisfactory knowledge on the concept of community policing. On the other hand, members of NHW displayed dissatisfactory knowledge of the concept community policing. This dissatisfactory knowledge was a result of inadequate training and capacity building on the concept community policing amongst most such group of respondents.

Due to inadequate training, some members of CPF and NHW were not aware of their code of conduct, they were even involving themselves in matters that were beyond the scope of their work. These findings fully agree with the finding by Olusegun (2016) in South-West Nigeria who also found that lack of proper training for both police and members of community policing was a major challenge affecting implementation of community policing. It is, therefore, clear that for community policing as co-production to be successfully implemented, it must be founded on proper training for both police officers and members of CPF and NHW groups. Civic education among the communities is another necessity. It needs to be emphasised that training and capacity building must always be prioritised during any kind of project implementation. No project will succeed with untrained implementers.

6.10 Attacks on and Intimidation of Police Officers

6.10.1 Perceptions of Police Officers

The results show that all active and retired police officers (n=21) lamented that police officers were an endangered category of public service providers. They all indicated that police officers were often attacked, injured, killed by members of the community and even had their offices, official and personal vehicles damaged for simply doing their work. The Police FGD also indicated that police officers suffered assaults and damage to police infrastructure in the course of their duties. A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban indicated that he had witnessed people attacking traffic police officers on the roads. For him, that was an indication that there was a problem between the police and citizens. He suggested the problem could emanate from loss of trust in the police and poor police

attitude towards citizens. A female police officer from Lilongwe urban also complained that police officers were often verbally insulted; attacked and stoned sometimes for merely doing police work. She added that sometimes people have attacked the police or a police station simply because they want to snatch a criminal suspect from the police. A retired police officer from Lilongwe rural said:

Respect for authority, respect for the law, respect for the rule of law has been removed, has been diluted. Now the moment you go into town, police in uniform does not carry the authority that they are supposed to get when they are wearing a uniform. People removed their fear in police. I am not saying they should fear the person, but respect. I will not hide it Noel... before 1994, going backwards, Malawians, the community that we were serving had respect for police officers. Overtime, Malawians have no respect for police officers. And the challenge that we will have in the future if this continues, police work will also be very dangerous. So, there was a time when I joined the police service, I have served different people, I have patrolled in different villages to conduct vetting and I received respect from people in the villages that a police officer has come (Interview with retired senior police officer from Lilongwe rural, 17/06/2022).

During police FGD, participants indicated that they did not put on police uniform when going to work for fear of civilians who shouted at them.

They indicated that they were scared that criminals could know where they stayed and eventually, they could be attacked.

6.9.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

Seven (n=7/12) participants drawn from CPF and 4 (n=4/5) members of NHW indicated that the police were often attacked, assaulted, injured and intimidated when executing their duties. Three (n=3/5) members of the community and four (n=4/7) members of CSO indicated that the police suffered lots of assaults from members of the community. Sometimes their properties were damaged by members of the community for simply doing their job. The following responses depict some of the sentiments from the participants:

Yes, there are some challenges that they meet. Mostly during arrests. Community usually intimidates police officers during arrests, the members protect the suspect from being arrested. Mostly relatives will not allow their family member to be arrested and even the suspects themselves (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 23/06/2022).

A citizen from Lilongwe urban said:

It reached a point in the past years where people ransacked the Mvama Police Unit, at Dubai, because of similar issues. It is now that people have become aware that whenever we have a suspect, we should not be taking them to nearby police stations, but far places like Lingadzi Police Station or Kanengo Police Station (Interview with a citizen from Lilongwe urban, 26/06/2022).

6.10.3 Discussion on attacks on and intimidation of police officers

The results on this aspect of the study indicate that a majority of the respondents agreed that police officers were often attacked, assaulted and sometimes police infrastructure destroyed in the process. These findings agree with what Chipao and Probert (2019) found in their study in 2017, where they reported that police officers who had intervened in a

situation where people wanted to set ablaze a house belonging to a woman who they accused of practicing witchcraft in Mtandire location were attacked, injured and had their marked police motor vehicle torched. This attested to the assertion that people had little trust in the police as well as the justice system, and also that the relation between citizens and the police needed more efforts to reach better levels. These findings further agree with the findings by Chunga and Manthalu (2022) through the Afrobarometer report who also found that a majority of Malawians believed that the relationship between the police and citizens was generally poor. Among other reasons, the poor relationship was attributed to bad police attitude and the tendency to seek bribes, gifts, or different forms of gratifications from members of the public (Chunga & Manthalu, 2022). Corder (1995) also argued that when the police are perceived to be corrupt, citizens lose trust in them and the police find themselves isolated resulting in sour relationship between the police and citizens. Strained relations between the police and the community defeat one of the key tenets of community policing as a co-production which is to improve police-community relations. Corruption breeds citizen dissatisfaction in the police and makes it difficult for the police to create a friendly environment with citizens. As a result, citizens tend to attack police officers and damage police infrastructure.

Damage to police infrastructure renders police services inaccessible to the community, thereby defeating the very tenet of community policing which is to bring the police close to the people (Masogo et al., 2014, p. 116). Poor citizen-police relations, attack on police officers and vandalism and looting of police infrastructure affects implementation of community policing in local areas since the community lack proper infrastructures where

they can report cases, access police service or work together in partnership. In turn, crime thrives and fear of crime increases in locations.

6.11 Lack of Recognition and Rewards as a Motivational Challenge

On this area participants discussed the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that lack of recognition and rewards to CPF and NHW members by the police, policy holders and other members of the community such as traditional leaders were a source of demotivation which in turn contributed to poor performance of community policing.

6.11.1 Perceptions from Police Officers

A majority of police officers did not agree that CPF and NHW members lacked recognition. A sizable number of active police and retired police officers (n=7/21) agreed that lack of recognition for CPF and NHW members was a source of demotivation. A police officer from Lilongwe rural suggested:

They wouldn't manage on their own, but as the police, if we are to have other ways to try and help them with their needs, it would be good. They need offices to operate on, resources like motor bikes, and also, they should have a well-recognized dress code (Interview with police officer from Lilongwe rural, 26/06/2022).

6.11.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

The results show that only members of CPFs, NHW groups and police officers responded on this area. Responses reveal that a majority of members of CPF (n=10/12) from both rural and urban areas agreed that lack of recognition and rewards from authorities was a big source of demotivation amongst them. Similarly, a majority of NHW members (n=4/5)

agreed that lack of recognition was a big source of demotivation among them. A member of CPF from Lilongwe urban said:

What am saying is if there is peace in this country is because of these community forums but they are not recognized. And there are no rewards for the well job done for members of forums. Secondly lack of trainings. Thirdly lack of resources while police officers have all the resources. Firstly, enough training to members of the forum, secondly, those people need to be given enough resources thirdly these people need to be recognised (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe urban, 19/06/2022).

Another member of CPF from Lilongwe rural complained that as members of CPF they were not well recognised by both the police and other civil society organisations. He cited an example where they were not provided with any type of identification by the police.

‘Apart from the reflectors that we are given, can't they provide us with another item for us to be recognised as members of community forum such as an ID?’.

He further indicated that sometimes as members of CPF, they were not treated well by the police, a thing that heavily demotivated them (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 17/06/2022).

6.11.3 Discussion on Lack of Recognition and Rewards as a Motivational Challenge

Responses reveal that a majority of members of CPF from both rural and urban areas agreed that lack of recognition particularly from police officers as well as lack of rewards from authorities was a big source of demotivation amongst them. Similarly, a majority of NHW members agreed that lack of recognition was a big source of demotivation among them.

During key informant interviews, the researcher clearly noticed that CPF and NHW members craved to be recognised by the police as well as by other authorities like the Ministry of Homeland Security for the contribution they were making in the area of public safety and security. These findings agree with the findings by Mutupha and Zhu (2022, p. 24) who also found that ‘despite doing a good job in preventing crimes and bringing about order in the communities, Community Police Forum members did not receive much recognition from the police officers.

Lack of recognition was not a phenomenon unique to Malawi. In his study titled ‘Community Policing is a Potential Strategy to Combat Crime: Community Police Forums Purpose is for the Monitoring of the Implementation of the SAP's Community Policing Strategy’, Modise (2023) also found that the police in South Africa occasionally refused to work with CPFs.

This was a sign that much as the police were aware about the legislative provisions of establishing CPFs in South Africa, they did not fully recognise them as essential partners in the co-production process. Such lack of recognition may make it challenging to establish rapport and trust between the police and CPFs and may reduce the CPF's effectiveness.

The study on “Community Policing in Kenya: Examining the Challenges Derailing PoliceCivilian Relations in Teso South Sub-County” by Amuya (2017) also found that police officers often did not fully recognise community contributions on issues of safety and security including contributions from members of CPF in Kenya. Further to that, there was little support to CPF from government of Kenya. Lack of recognition of CPF and NHW members reflects a perception that the police still think they were the only dominant

force in the provision of public safety and security, a thinking that is a threat to the modern democratic way of policing.

Recognition is important because evidence shows that some people volunteered to participate in co-production because they wanted simple recognition in the community and by the police. They took pride in associating with police. They also amassed some power by associating with police. However, a majority of police officers did not agree that CPF and NHW members were not recognised by the police. Police officers argued that CPFs were well recognised as legitimate both by the police as well as by the Police Act of 2010, as such there was no need for members of CPF to seek any other form of recognition again. However, a majority of CPF members who participated in the study indicated that they could have loved if the police or government produced special identification cards for them.

With continued demand by CPF members for special identification cards, the police may need to consider modalities of how best to implement this demand. Provision of identification cards to CPF may not necessarily mean they would be abused. These are individuals who do a lot of police work on trust. As such recognising them in such a way would be a motivation.

6.12 Poor Customer Service and Attitude of Police Officers

Participants shared views, perceptions and experiences as to the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that in some formations or police service centers, the police offered poor customer service and displayed bad attitude towards clients which eventually contributed

to low community participation in co-production of public safety and security. Options of strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree were used to rate their views.

6.12.1 Perceptions of Police Officers

The results reveal that (n=14/21) all active and retired police officers strongly agreed that most police officers had poor customer service skills and displayed bad attitude towards customers. They indicated that this practice negatively affected community participation in the co-production process. A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

There could be a number of reasons, on the part of traffic officers it can be lack of customer care, how they handle clients when discharging their duties. In terms of our traffic officers, I have heard a scenario where police stopped a vehicle that was heading to a funeral, instead of just advising them, he told them to park the vehicle and arrested the driver. These are some of the issues that we can easily avoid. I would say he could just take note of the registration number and confiscate other documents and allow them to proceed afterwards they will come and pay (Interview with senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 23/06/2022).

The retired officer from Lilongwe rural described general duties officers that were in roadblocks as amongst many police officers who damaged the image of the police due to poor customer care and bad attitude.

He indicated that as he passed through roadblocks, if he did not quickly mention his name, he could see a lot of bad treatment that road users received. He said that at times one could stay at a roadblock for more than 7 minutes just waiting for a police officer to open the barrier. A senior police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

Our profession demands that we engage with people in all our areas of our work. Okay. Just this morning I had a visitor who was complaining about attitude of police officers. Where the attitude of the police officers was not good according to this person, they will forget about the individual. What they will say is that “this is how the police treated me” okay? And that the kind of picture that he goes back with. Alright? So, if he goes back with that kind of picture, he will tell it to 2 or 3 people. Someone wanted to come and report something to the police.... (Interview with retired senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 16/06/2022).

6.12.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

Five (n=5/7) members of the CSO agreed that poor customer care was detrimental to the implementation of community policing. Eight (n=8/12) members of CPF and four (n=4/5) members of NHW groups agreed that police lacked proper customer care skills. All five (n=5) citizens agreed that police lacked customer care when approached. A member of CPF from Lilongwe rural said:

Firstly, there should be good communication between police and community policing forum. For example, it may happen that police have released a suspect who was arrested by community forum without letting the members of CPF know of the reasons for the release (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 22/06/2022).

A member of the civil society from Lilongwe urban said:

Some police officers who have bad attitudes needs to change as well because they are meeting aggressive people so you need to be a police officer who can calm down, understand and be able to handle things

properly (Interview with member of CSO from Lilongwe urban, 30/06/2022).

6.12.3 Discussion on Poor Customer Service and Attitude of Police Officers

Improved customer care and attitude of police officers towards members of the public has always been one of the main objectives of community policing in Malawi.

When police officers display good customer care and good attitude towards members of the public the image of the police improves and many people get attracted to support the police in various ways.

During the key informant interviews and FGDs, active police officers, retired police officers and civil society leaders decried increased poor customer service as one of the major challenges hampering community participation in the co-production of public safety and security. These participants mentioned police roadblocks, traffic checks and police reception areas (the OB) as amongst major areas where people are not fairly treated by the police. As a result of unfair treatment, the community shun from participating in coproduction of public safety and security. During physical observation, some police officers were seen executing their duties in total contrast with the principles of community policing.

At a police station visited by the researcher, it was observed that officers who were on duty demonstrated lack of customer service at the reception. They also lacked friendliness to customers.

Lack of customer care and unfriendliness was also observed when the researcher clandestinely observed how police officers operated at one of the roadblocks within Lilongwe. Police officers were hostile, rude and lacked customer service skills. Olusegun (2016) also found that poor customer care and police attitude was one of the major threats to community policing in South West Nigeria. In his study, he also found that bad attitude of the police had caused lacuna between the stakeholders involved in community policing and the police. Citizens do not like to associate or support arrogant institutions.

The study by Amuya (2017) in Kenya also established that the police had poor customer service procedures, and thus the community was often discouraged from associating with the police or merely reporting crime to police. In this regard, when the police do not exercise good customer relations and display bad attitudes towards the community and citizens, the objectives of community policing as a form of co-production can never be achieved since the community would never be willing to associate with the police. Bad attitude has always negatively affected delivery of public services. As such police officers must always guard against bad attitude towards citizens. The police is encouraged to do some research to establish the major causes of poor customer care and bad attitude among police officers.

6.13 Political Interference

Study participants also shared their views, opinions and experiences on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that political interference contributed to the dismal performance of co-production in the provision of public safety and security.

The participants were asked to choose from the options of strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree. Overall, results show that a majority of participants in the study (n=36/50) agreed that political interference had contributed towards poor performance of community policing as a form of co-production.

6.13.1 Police Respondents

A minority of active police officers (n=5/17) strongly agreed that political interference greatly compromised implementation of community policing in Lilongwe district.

The remainder (n=12/17) of active police did not say anything on political interference. Half (n=2/4) of retired police officers strongly agreed that there was great political interference in the implementation of community policing. The remaining two retired police officers did not say anything. For example, a senior police officer from Lilongwe urban indicated that political interference was one of the greatest challenges facing coproduction of public safety and security. He narrated that there are instances when Members of Parliament (MP) from opposition parties who are willing to donate or contribute valuable things to assist community policing, but they are given a cold shoulder by police management simply because they come from the opposition. He further said that when members of community police or the police arrest a person belonging to a certain political party, politicians make phone calls to police to release the suspect. ‘You might arrest someone and you will receive a call from a politician to release the arrested person. Even the top management fear the politicians’, he added (Interview with senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 16/06/2022). This demotivates CPF and NHW members. He gave a typical example of what happened in Nsundwe area where police were still

struggling to mend the relationship between police and the community because politicians at some point supported lawlessness that was perpetrated by people of Nsundwe. Further, a police officer from Lilongwe rural said:

The problem is that the politicians disturb this relationship, for example, in 2020 and 2021, we have seen demonstrations that has put tension between us and citizens. But after the change of government, there is a little bit of change in the relationship (Interview with a police officer from Lilongwe urban, 22/06/2022).

Members of a police FGD agreed that there was political interference in the implementation of community policing as a form of co-production.

6.13.2 Perceptions of Members of the Public

A majority of the members of civil society (n=4/7) agreed that political interference posed a challenge to the smooth implementation of community policing. No member of community police forum or NHW group from either rural or urban areas commented on political interference. A member of civil society from Lilongwe urban said:

I think some people opened this up that police can be insulted. I think politicians facilitated the disrespect to police, if police officers are beaten at the roadblock people laugh with nobody to complain. Then what message are you sending? When police complain then they say it is okay to insult police and nobody should be arrested for that. This will continue we stop this kind of behaviour, we can't disrespect every police officer because of one bad attitude (Interview with a member of CSO from Lilongwe urban, 31/06/2022).

Another member of civil society described politicians as people whose negative rhetoric about the police had fueled community's disrespect for the police. Negative remarks about the police from politicians were greatly contributing towards antagonism between the police and the community (Interview with member of CSO from Lilongwe urban, 30/06/2022).

6.13.3 Discussion on Political Interference

Overall, results showed that a majority of participants (n=36/50) agreed that political interference was one of the barriers to effective implementation of community policing as a form of co-production. However, during KII a majority of active police officers (n=12/17) did not say anything on this aspect of the study. It was clear that they were not comfortable to share their views on political interference. Despite the assurance that the study was for academic purposes, most of the active police officers did not want to comment on this matter for fear of reprisals from both police management and politicians. Members of the police FGD agreed that there was political interference in implementation of community policing as a form of co-production. The finding that the police FGD agreed that there was political interference in the implementation of community policing could be interpreted to mean that individual police officers were scared to be seen as being against politicians.

Members of the civil society were open enough, and the results showed that a majority of them (n=4/7) agreed that political interference posed a challenge to the smooth implementation of community policing. Interestingly, no member of community police forum or NHW group from either rural or urban areas commented on political interference.

When the researcher probed as to why they did not comment of this aspect of the study, members of a FGD from Lilongwe rural said that they usually dealt with village chiefs and not politicians.

The above findings agree with what Johnson (2019) found in his study on ‘Challenges of Security Sector Reform in Police Organisation in Malawi’, where he observed that implementation of police reforms in Malawi was heavily affected by political directives. He cited an example where in 2018 politicians ordered the police to disperse a political rally by throwing teargas at the people who had peacefully gathered. This was a great challenge to community policing as a reform tool because abuse of human rights in such a manner brings distrust in the police, consequently people become disinterested to offer support to the police.

These findings were similar to those of Siro (2016) who in his study on ‘Community Policing in Urban Kano, Nigeria’, found that the performance of community policing was adversely affected by political intrusions into community policing. Politicians tended to dictate on how community police activities were supposed to be implemented.

This brought distrust in the citizens, and they were discouraged from getting fully committed in community policing. Additionally, the fact that the Inspector General of Police is appointed by the State President who is a political leader, brings distrust in some people to associate with the police through community policing.

6.14 Resource Challenges

Participants shared their views and opinions on the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with human, financial and material resources that were deployed to promote co-production of public safety and security. Participants chose from the options of very satisfied, satisfied, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, dissatisfied and very dissatisfied.

6.14.1 Police Respondents

All active and retired police officers (n=21) expressed dissatisfaction with resources deployed to enhance co-production of public safety and security in this aspect of the study. All police respondents were dissatisfied with the numbers of police officers available in the community to make meaningful visibility as well as to fully participate in partnership building and community policing activities. A police officer from Lilongwe rural said:

What is happening is that the police have no structures as an office, they rely on people giving them shops as offices, and at the end of the day the owner start to demand some money. And as the police they cannot be paying rent but the community. And when the community fails, they are closed. No, they lack resources, transportation, reflectors and the likes. They are not well protected and sometimes assaulted for being suspected to be thieves. Secondly, they don't have benefits, not even an allowance, they do it as voluntary, as such, are not motivated (Interview with a police officer from Lilongwe rural, 26/06/2022).

A senior officer from Lilongwe urban described resource constraint as a key challenge that was stifling better performance of community policing as a co-production. He indicated that the number of police officers was too small to police huge areas. He further said that,

for CPF to fully assist the police, they need transport and other logistics. Furthermore, a retired senior police officer from Lilongwe urban:

It's all about resources. I can say what I would love the police to do things but the first thing is the police needs to be assisted. Community policing should have resources, they should be doing patrols, they should be having meetings like I said. There are many challenges. But what I can remember is that the police don't have resources. A police officer can't travel from here to Chitukula on foot or using their own money. No. they need the office to assist them. Even the rural patrols that we are talking about can't work without resources. When they go on patrol, they will need food. So, the first challenge is resources. The other challenge is what I already said, the relationship with members of public is not good. Like at this moment the relationship isn't good (Interview with retired police officer from Lilongwe urban, 16/06/2022).

6.14.2 Views from Members of the Public

All twelve (12) members of CPF, seven (7) CSO leaders, five (5) members of NHW, five (5) citizens as well as the two (2) FGDs expressed dissatisfaction with the human, financial and material resources available in the police organisation for the promotion of community policing as a form of co-production. A member of civil society from Lilongwe urban described resource challenge in the implementation of community policing as dire. He indicated that, it was sad to observe that the police were so under-resourced in terms of human capital, finances and even working equipment such as motorcycles. He had this to say:

Another challenge is the human resource; the numbers are very low and you expect visibility that is a nonstarter. If the number is 1 to 2000 people, what do you expect? The other element is, they have no space or even

infrastructure for them to operate from. I went to Chisepo to assess what we should give them then I noticed he was writing on the OB, no chair, no bench but people are committing themselves to work but there is an issue of infrastructure. People don't have conducive environment. That is affecting progress of things we started so we like going back. I don't expect police that it will provide a security for 17 million people in Malawi when the officers are just very few, I don't expect that (Interview with member of CSO from Lilongwe urban, 30/06/2022).

Further, a citizen from Lilongwe urban said:

Another issue where they need to improve is the visibility. These people don't have a proper PPE. What they have is only a reflective jacket. When they want to chase someone, some of them literally put on slippers. So, they need those safety boots. If they are chasing someone, they should be able to chase, if the person goes to the bush, they are able to follow him (Interview with a citizen from Lilongwe urban, 26/06/2022).

6.14.3 Discussion on Resource Challenges

In order for community policing as a co-production to be successful, resources are needed to support activities being conducted by co-producers.

The findings from the study reveal that human, material and financial resources remained key challenges in the implementation of community policing as a form of co-production in Lilongwe. Literature shows that at the inception, community policing was funded by donors. During that time, there were enough financial resources from the donors. With time, the donors stopped funding community policing and pushed everything to government through Other Recurrent Transactions (ORT). That are the time challenges started. Resources such as transport to ferry CPF members from one place to another and

airtime for communication was also mentioned as types of resources that the communities were lacking. Such lack of resources threatened the process of community involvement as the police were physically unavailable to meet community expectations and needs. A majority of respondents from all categories were very dissatisfied with the current police versus population ratio. Respondents' views agreed with the figures obtained from national police human resource database, which put the current police-population ratio at 1:1400. This was against the internationally recommended ration of 1:500. Low numbers of police officers made it very difficult for the police to make very meaningful visibility in the precincts as well as to fully participate in partnership building and community policing activities. These findings agree with the findings of Nkwenyane (2011) who found that, although resources were allocated to support CPF activities in police stations or communities in South African Police Service (SAPS), not much was provided to enable CPF to do their work properly. The Western Cape Government Community Safety (2011) also stated that the effect of lack of resources in CPF threatened the process of the community involvement as the SAPS was physically unable to meet communities' expectations and needs in some cases.

These findings also agree with what Ngwala and Abebe (2023) found in their study on community policing in Lilongwe. They found that lack of resources such as monthly funding, vehicles for transporting officers and CPF members to carry out community policing activities as well as inadequate police officers were among the key constraints that affected implementation of community policing in Lilongwe.

Olusegun (2016) also found that infrastructure was a major challenge affecting implementation of community policing in South West Nigeria. He cited lack of transportation to move police officers to attend to crime scenes as an example. 72.5% of the respondents in the study believed the police did not have enough equipment to fight crime in South West Nigeria, though 27.5% believed the police was well equipped. Based on this, Olusegun (2016) determined that the police were not well equipped to fight crime effectively in the South West Nigeria. Considering the magnitude of resource challenges facing the police in Malawi, the present study proposes that members of the community must consider contributing something to pay community police volunteers for the job they do in the society.

6.15 Chapter Summary

Although community policing as a form of co-producing public safety and security is heralded as a major philosophy and strategy on crime control in Malawi, it continues to be affected by a myriad of challenges. These challenges include: corruption, mistrust in the police, slow police response, human rights abuse, police neglect of their duties, volunteerism, lack of joint patrols, attacks and injuries on community police members, inadequate resources, poor customer care and lack of feedback from the police (Obeagu, 2014; Uhnnoo & Löfstrand, 2018; Divon, 2012). Ikuteyij (2008) argued that the citizen's belief that the police are corrupt and cannot be trusted, was a threat to the success of community policing. In Nigeria, Obeagu (2014) found that abuse of human rights by both the police and members of community policing and neighbourhood watch groups greatly affected community participation in the co-production of public safety and security. Absence of joint patrols was another challenge affecting implementation of community

policing in many countries including the area under study. Uhnöo and Löfstrand (2018) in Sweden found that it was difficult for volunteers to maintain their legitimacy in police activities. Unless they were accompanied by uniformed police officers, they felt neglected and demotivated. Zikhali (2019) in Zimbabwe found that the communities were more willing to support the police with resources if they conducted joint patrols.

Divon (2012) argued that in the Ugandan town of Gulu, joint patrols with traditional leaders became a major police initiative after members of the community were able to lead the police to problematic areas where criminals were hiding.

Literature also shows that elements of police neglecting their responsibility was evident at the time community policing was being introduced in South Africa (Pelser, 1999). Pelser argues that Community Police Forums (CPF) began to function as the means by which additional resources were provided to the police to enable them enhance their service delivery, and at that juncture, the police left some of their duties to CPFs. Lack of police feedback to the community they serve as well as to members of community policing and neighbourhood watch groups and lack of joint patrols have also been detailed as challenges in other countries (Islam, 2018; Pakiso et al., 1995).

From the literature above, which is predominantly from foreign jurisdictions, a number of challenges facing implementation of community policing as a form of co-production have been revealed and collaborated.

CHAPTER 7

MISSED OPPORTUNITIES OF COMMUNITY POLICING AS A CO- PRODUCTION

7.1 Introduction

The third objective of the study was to explore missed opportunities of community policing as a form of co-producing public safety and security. Participants mentioned the following as key missed opportunities in the co-production of public safety and security: Community willingness to conduct joint patrols with police; community willingness to make financial contributions towards volunteers; and usefulness of information and communication technology (ICT) and artificial intelligence (AI). The following sections explore and discuss the findings based on views, opinions, perceptions and lived experiences of respondents.

7.2 Community Willingness to Conduct Joint Patrols with Police

Respondents shared their views, perceptions and experiences on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that the community was willing to conduct joint patrols with the police. Respondents were asked to choose from the options strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree and strongly disagree.

7.2.1 Police Respondents

A majority of respondents agreed that the communities in Lilongwe had demonstrated great willingness to conduct joint patrols with the police. Fourteen (n=14/21) active and retired police officers agreed that there was more willingness from members of CPF, NHW group and other citizens to conduct joint patrols with the police but the police were not

forthcoming on the initiative. Participants from the police FGD also agreed that the police occasionally conducted joint patrols with members of the community or with CPF and NHW groups. For example, a retired senior officer from Lilongwe rural described joint patrols as something was missing in his area:

None. I have not come across them. I would have known. So instead of our officers patrolling together with the people so that they can be visible, they left the members of the community to be patrolling alone because they abandoned them, went back home and sleep so that the community will do community policing alone. So, we transferred our responsibility to local people, yet people want us (Interview with retired senior officer from Lilongwe rural, 17/06/2022).

Several police officers from Lilongwe urban indicated that most police officers were not interested to conduct joint patrols with members of the public. As a result, joint patrols were very rare, and were sometimes conducted once in a month.

7.2.2 Views from Members of the Public

All six (n=6) members of CPF from Lilongwe rural areas agreed that police were not so willing to conduct joint patrols with them. They indicated that there was so much willingness from members of CPF to be joined by the police during night patrols, but the police rarely turned up to join them. Similarly, all five (n=5) members of the FGD from rural areas agreed that police were not willing to conduct joint patrols with members of the community. All five (n=5) members of NHW groups from urban areas agreed that the police were never available to conduct joint patrols with members of the community. Three (n=3/7) members of the CSO indicated that they had never seen nor heard that police were

doing joint patrols with members of community policing groups. Four (n=4/5) of the citizens expressed ignorance on whether police joined the community in conducting patrols.

The following descriptions depict views and experiences of some of the participants on this area of the study. A member of the civil society organisation from Lilongwe urban expressed disappointment that the police were not forthcoming to conduct joint patrols with members of the community. He indicated that joint patrols acted as a form of training to members of CPF and NHW groups and gave them confidence. He added that joint patrols improved citizens' feeling of security in their areas. Citizens felt more secure when they saw police patrolling together with their local CPF. A member of a CPF from Lilongwe rural said:

Between police and us, there is a gap. Most of the times when we want to do joint operation with them it's mostly not possible.

I would have loved that they should not take community policing as being done by unworthy people, if we put together our views we do better. They don't ask us our views on some issues, it's like they command us on what to do may be just because they undergo a police training and we didn't. In my experience we do most of the work than them. No, it's been long since we patrolled together. They only come here to pick up a suspect, but we would have loved if they could join us when patrolling (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 22/06/2022).

7.2.3 Discussion on Community Willingness to Conduct Joint Patrols with

Police

On this aspect of the study, it was revealed that both police officers and members of the public in particular CPF and NHW groups agreed that the police were not forthcoming to join members of CPF and NHW groups during night patrols. However, evidence showed that most members of CPF and NHW groups as well as local citizens were so willing to team up with the police and conduct joint patrols particularly on foot in crime prone areas. A citizen from Lilongwe urban described joint patrols as very important since they made CPF members get motivated whenever they patrolled together with police. ‘Joint patrols are necessary. They are a motivation to the members of community forum. And also, people may know that members of the community forum are not alone, police got their back’ he narrated (Interview with citizen from Lilongwe urban. 26/06/2022)

Another citizen from Lilongwe urban also described police unwillingness to conduct joint patrols with members of the community as a great missed opportunity. She indicated that police talk about joint patrols, but they do not do them. She added that police appreciate the importance and advantages of joint patrols, but for reasons best known to themselves, they chose not to do them (Interview with citizen from Lilongwe urban, 22/06/2022). The finding that joint patrols were a missed opportunity that could provide synergy to police patrols agree with what Uhnöo and Lofstrand (2018) found in their study in Sweden. Uhnöo and Lofstrand found that joint patrols were a great source of legitimacy for community police volunteers. It was clear in their study that community police volunteers felt more legitimate and motivated once accompanied by uniformed police officers. Similarly, Zikhali (2019) in Zimbabwe found that the communities were more willing to join the

police to conduct joint patrols, but the police showed not much willingness to do the same. In Malawi, Mutupha and Zhu (2022) also found that the police were less willing to conduct joint patrols with members of community police. Evidence from the present study and from the study by Mutupha and Zhu (2022) reveal that the police had a tendency to look down upon community police volunteers as people who did not receive any security training and hence not fit to join them during patrols. The approach by the police demonstrated lack of appreciation on the contributions and sacrifices made by community volunteers to ensure the communities are safe. Joint patrols are founded on the principle of community participation which is a key principle under NPS theory of public management.

7.3 Community Willingness to Contributions Honorarium for CPF & NHW

Volunteers

On this area, participants shared their views, opinions and experiences on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that members of the community were willing to make financial and other resource contributions towards community policing and neighbourhood watch members who patrolled in their areas.

7.3.1 Police Respondents

The results indicate that a majority of active and retired police officers (n=20/21) as well as the police FGD agreed that members of the community were willing to make financial contributions to be paid as honorarium to community policing and neighbourhood watch volunteers who patrolled their locations. For example, a senior police officer from Lilongwe urban said:

You know what, community policing is doing well in town because members of the community in urban areas are incentivizing community policing groups. What am trying to say is that, you will see that if its NHW group in area 6, the members of that community contribute something to buy community policing essential equipment for neighborhood watch scheme. But in rural areas members are failing to contribute. When it was introduced, the intention was to be voluntary but as time goes by things have changed. You will not expect people to be doing this voluntary for the whole month when they are unable to support their families. On the other hand, police are also failing to provide essentials for community policing especially in the rural areas and this is also affecting operational wise of community policing (Interview with senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 21/06/2022).

A retired senior police officer from Lilongwe rural said that there were many citizens in the community who were willing and ready to make financial contributions so that CPF and NHW members should be getting some honorarium for time and energy they spent in providing security by guarding them when they were sleeping. He added that paying them would act as a way of motivating them, 'I am ready to pay towards that because it's like we are paying towards our own security', he concluded (Interview with retired senior officer from Lilongwe rural, 17/06/2022).

Another retired senior police officer from Lilongwe urban had this to say:

With the way things are, I think it's good that we contribute towards community police and neighbourhood patrols. The town is different from the village. In the village they can do the work for free but here in town you have to buy everything. So, the money is just a token of appreciation (Interview with a senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 02/07/2022).

7.3.2 Views from Members of the Public

All CPF respondents (n=12), all NHW group respondents (n=5), all community members (n=5) and all CSO leaders (n=7) as well as FGDs from both urban and rural areas strongly agreed that they felt members of the community were willing to contribute some finances to be paid to CPF and NHW groups as honorarium for the voluntary work they provided in co-producing safety and security in their areas. A member of civil society from Lilongwe urban said:

I am always.... Actually. people think it's too little. When I was a treasurer, we were then contributing K2000. So, when you count the houses, you find that we have paid everything and we have nothing left (Interview with member of CSO from Lilongwe urban, 27/06/2022).

7.3.3 Discussion on Community Willingness to Contributions Honorarium for CPF & NHW Volunteers

A majority of citizens from Lilongwe rural indicated that, it would be good that CPF and NHW members were paid some form of honorarium. They said that they were willing to make contributions towards that cause mainly because CPF and NHW members sacrificed their time and energy which needed to be compensated. It was interesting to note that a majority of respondents both police officers and members of the public strongly agreed that community police volunteers must be paid something as a token of appreciation for the job they did. It was a consensus that the time and energy spent by CPF and NHW members providing safety and security during the night and day time needed to be compensated.

According to the Police Act of 2010, implementation of the concept of community policing in Malawi is founded on the principle of volunteerism.

From the study it was very clear that a majority of respondents understood that people who participated in community policing as a co-production tool did so on voluntary basis. Respondents were aware that apart from NHW groups that operated in urban areas, there was no direct reward to CPF members who volunteered to provide safety and security particularly in rural areas. Community police volunteers needed to be incentivised and motivated with a little allowance to buy food and also assist their families. Such an initiative would also reduce their temptations to seek and accept bribes.

In conclusion, it was clear from the findings on this section that both police officers and members of the public unanimously agreed that CPF and NHW members needed to receive some form of honorarium for the tremendous job they were doing by sacrificing their time to protect the neighbourhoods. Respondents agreed that a small monthly stipend would be reasonable to be paid to community police volunteers. It was clear that co-production that was dependent on altruism attracted little interest of members of the community, as the concept was primarily seen as an approach that did not mesh well with the market principles. A member of CPF from rural areas wondered why they were not paid anything for the good job they were doing in providing safety and security while their counterparts who volunteered to teach in adult literacy schools were getting paid. The finding on this aspect of the study was novel. There was no known prior research that had a similar finding. It is, therefore, recommended that further research be done on this area.

7.4 Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and Artificial Intelligence (AI)

Respondents shared their views, opinions and perceptions on the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that police had embraced information communication technology to enhance co-production of public safety and security in Lilongwe. The options strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree and strongly disagree were used to assess responses.

7.4.1 Police Respondents

Results indicate that a majority of active and retired police officers (n=20/21) strongly disagreed that police had embraced information and communication technology to support community policing activities. A police officer from Lilongwe urban described the uptake and use of information and communication technology to promote community policing and policing activities in general as pitiful. He indicated that information and communication technology would improve police capacity to share information with the public as well as among police officers, it would help to track criminals as well as assist in civic education on emerging and contentious issues affecting the police. ‘The police in Malawi seem not use information technology in most of its initiatives. “Yes, to track criminals, may be to arrest beer drinkers. But to deal with crime, I don’t see any real engagement with information technology’ (Interview with senior police officer from Lilongwe urban, 22/06/2022).

A retired police officer from Lilongwe urban also had this to say:

I worked in various branches, but to large extent we are failing to use information technology to our advantage. For example, I hear of google phones, trackers, GPS and many modern ways of tracking criminals and

monitoring them. Unfortunately, not much of these have been adopted by the police. May be due to resources. But security is not cheap (Interview with retired senior police officer from urban, 16/06/2022).

7.4.2 Views from Members of the Public

All members of the CSO (n=7) strongly disagreed that police had embraced information and communication technology in policing matters. A majority of CPF (n=8/12) agreed that information and communication technology was less used in community safety and security matters. A majority of members of NHW group (n=3/5) also disagreed that information and communication technology was being fully utilised in safety and security matters. All local citizens (n=5) strongly disagreed that police adequately exploited information technology to its advantage. All FGDs disagreed that information technology was used in the delivery of safety and security in Lilongwe. For example, a member of CPF from Lilongwe rural said:

I don't think our police use (Information Technology) IT at all. When I get to their office at Chinsapo, I don't see any computer. I hear of computers. Even the cars, I see they are not advanced. They just give us summons to deliver to chiefs if they want a criminal. I am not impressed (Interview with member of CPF from Lilongwe rural, 22/06/2022).

A member of civil society indicated that the police did not fully take advantage of ICT to explain many issues that the public does not understand about police strategies and operations. He indicated that the police could take advantage of ICTs to disseminate correct information about a lot of misinformation on many issues affecting police work (Interview with member of CSO from Lilongwe urban, 27/06/2022). Another member of civil society described the media as a powerful tool that had not been fully embraced by the Malawi Police to assist in the co-production of public safety and security. He indicated that, there

was a lot of misinformation on security and crime matters which the police could easily have clarified using various media outlets, but such was not the case. There was very little publicity about the media platforms being used by the police, he added. He further indicated that the police could use the various media platforms to change people's perception about the police (Interview with CSO member, 02/07/2022).

A citizen who participated in the study said that she felt the police were underutilising ICT in the implementation of community policing as a co-production tool. She indicated that communication platforms offered by TNM and Airtel were not fully utilised by the police to assist in providing rapid information and response to calls for distress. She said, 'you see, previously we used to dial 997, now if you dial it, it just rings for-ever. I ask myself a question, why is TNM and Airtel not helping the police?' (Interview with citizen from urban, 26/06/2022).

7.4.3 Discussion on Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and AI

Information and communication technology (ICT) and Artificial Intelligence remain the most prominent means of mass communication and delivery of services and goods in the modern world Kumwenda et al. (2023). It affords users diverse ways of relaying information in a most rapid manner. It also allows information to reach a vast majority of people within a short period of time. On this aspect of the study, it emerged that community policing as a form of co-production had not fully taken advantage of ICT such that ICT devices such as computers, softwares as well as other main means of mass communication such as broadcasting (TV and Radios), publishing or print and the internet were uncommon at most police formations that were visited during the study. Respondents indicated that

the police had not taken advantage of the ICT and AI to collect and share information on crime trends as well as to survey criminals. Respondents further indicated that there was minimal use of ICT and AI such as drones to improve interaction between the police and members of the public. According to Kumwenda et al. (2023), ICT platforms offer police an opportunity to participate digitally in security issues affecting community security before they can be physically present on ground. In their study, Kumwenda et al. (2023) found that there was more usage of mobile phones in community policing compared to other ICT gadgets in Muloza border (a town at the border between Malawi and Mozambique). ICTs used in Muloza were basic mobile phones and some smart phones (basic phones at 74.07% and WhatsApp enabled phones at 41.20%). Laptops and desktops were mainly found to be used by police officers. These findings clearly demonstrate that much as some form of ICT was being used by the community around Muloza border in Malawi, its usage had not been fully embraced in community policing. The study by Kumwenda et al. (2023) does not give any information on how these phones played a role in community policing. Information and communication technology (ICT) represents a powerful mechanism by which to communicate with the community. It can assist with publicising community concerns and share available solutions, such as services from the police or new laws or codes that will be enforced. Observations done by the researcher showed that there were many WhatsApp, Facebook, twitter and Instagram groups formed by citizens according to locations. However, it was rare to find community police coordinators or other senior police officers included as members of such groups.

Studies show that in some countries like the United States of America, existing community engagement platforms on community policing were non-limited, and the popular ones

included 'Nextdoor' (Brewster et al., 2018). 'Nextdoor was an online platform which brought geographic communities together to discuss local issues as well as offer help, support and advice to those who asked for it. In the US, Nextdoor had been touted as a very effective community policing tool' (Waddell, 2016, p. 3), which provided individuals and communities an opportunity to contribute to local community safety and security issues. In Malawi, police could equally use similar platforms to share and collect information on crime and other security issues that affect the communities. In addition, ICT and AI can have a significant impact on public perceptions of the police, crime problems, and fear of crime. It is, therefore, imperative that the police should be able to develop various mobile apps that should bridge the gap between police and the people.

However, the main challenge with such ICT platforms is that they have a high potential to amplify community tensions by misrepresenting crime statistics and reports, thereby instilling fear in the community. From the results, it was clear that the use of ICT to encourage community participation in community policing as co-production was still a huge challenge.

Further observations by the researcher revealed that the urban areas of Lilongwe were not installed with CCTVs to help monitor crime and disorderly conduct in the city. The researcher had an opportunity to visit the city of Limbe in Blantyre, where CCTVs had been installed in all streets and major highways. These CCTVs played a huge role to reduce crime and disorderly conduct within Limbe urban areas. It was revealed that the whole CCTV system in Limbe was donated by residents and business individuals from Limbe. It

was, therefore, important that urban areas of Lilongwe quickly embrace such technology to deal with crime and disorder.

7.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the missed opportunities of community policing as a form of co-producing public safety and security. Key missed opportunities that were highlighted by a majority of respondents included: Community willingness to conduct joint patrols with police; community willingness to make financial contributions towards volunteers; and usefulness of information and communication technology and artificial intelligence.

Firstly, the findings of this study reveal that members of the community had demonstrated a great willingness to partner with the police and conduct several activities jointly with them. However, the police seemed not very ready and willing to embrace members of the community in most of their activities including joint patrols. The police preferred to conduct their patrols alone and not jointly with members of the CPF or NHW groups. This conclusion agrees with what Mutupha and Zhu (2022) found that the police in Malawi were less willing to conduct joint patrols with members of community police, mainly because the police in Malawi had a tendency to look down upon community police volunteers as people who did not receive any security training, hence not fit to join them during patrols. Similarly, Zikhali (2019) in Zimbabwe found that the communities were more willing to join the police conduct joint patrols, but the police did not show much willingness to take advantage of this gesture.

Secondly, although the Police Act (2010) provides that implementation of the concept of community policing in Malawi is founded on the principle of volunteerism, the study concluded that a majority of participants from both Lilongwe urban and rural were willing to make financial contributions to be paid as compensation to CPF and NHW members. Respondents felt it was important to compensate CPF and NHW members for the sacrifice they were making to ensure their communities were safe and secure. It was concluded that both police officers and members of the public unanimously agreed that CPF and NHW members needed to receive some form of honorarium for the tremendous job they were doing by sacrificing their time to protect the neighbourhoods. The police had not fully exploited this great opportunity to their advantage.

Thirdly, the study concluded that community policing as a form of co-production had not fully taken advantage of ICT such that ICT devices such as computers, softwares as well as other main means of mass communication such as broadcasting (TV and Radios), publishing or print, CCTVs and the internet were uncommon at most police formations visited during the study. Respondents indicate that the police had not taken advantage of the ICT and AI to collect and share information on crime trends as well as to survey criminals. From the results, it emerged that the police had not yet fully embraced the use of ICT and AI in its efforts to co-produce public safety and security.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

The research study focused on public value benefits, challenges and opportunities of community policing as co-production. The findings differ depending on location and demography of the area from which the respondent was identified. The respondents from low-density areas of Lilongwe rated the level of trust in the police as satisfactory while the respondents from high-density areas of Lilongwe rated the level of trust in the police as unsatisfactory.

The three research questions that the study undertook to address are: What are the public value benefits of community policing as a form of co-production? What are the challenges affecting implementation of community policing as a form of co-production? And, what are the missed opportunities in the implementation of community policing as a coproduction tool in the area of public safety and security in Malawi's Lilongwe district. This study made a deeper investigation into how police officers and members of the public had experienced community policing as a means of co-producing public safety and security in

Lilongwe district for the many years it has been implemented. Due to the nature of the research questions, which mainly aimed at soliciting participants' opinions, perceptions and experiences with community policing, phenomenological strategy of enquiry was adopted by the researcher.

Two theories were used to explain the theoretical and philosophical bases of community policing. The major theory that underpinned this study was the New Public Service (NPS) theory of public management propounded by Denhart and Denhart (2000). The second theory that was used in this study specifically to explain the relationship between community policing and citizen empowerment and participation in the delivery of safety and security services, and to supplement the NPS theory was the Decentralisation theory (US Department of Justice, 1994). The choice of the two theories did not signify that the NPS and Decentralisation theories represent the only frameworks for understanding community policing. The two theories were identified because both of them tend to conceive the idea of co-production of public safety and security from the angle of the citizens and not just that of the state. That is, for citizens to enjoy robust security, they must support police efforts and participate at all levels from planning to implementation of crime control strategies.

At the end of this qualitative research study, it was found that there was only one known previous study by Ngwala and Adebe (2023) that had attempted to address the issue of public value benefits of community policing in Malawi's Lilongwe district. However, the study by Ngwala and Adebe (2023) only addressed two benefits of community policing in Lilongwe.

On the other hand, the present study addresses twelve (12) public value benefits of community policing as a form of co-production in Malawi's Lilongwe district, going a step further by addressing eight (8) additional benefits.

The present study also found that there were only two known previous studies by Smith (2015) and Mutupha and Zhu (2022) that had attempted to address the issue of challenges of community policing in Lilongwe and Malawi's Central Region respectively. However, both studies were superficial and addressed only six (6) challenges of community policing altogether. On the other hand, the present study goes a step further to addresses thirteen (13) challenges of community policing in Lilongwe district.

On the third study objective, the present study found that there was no known study in Malawi's Lilongwe district that had addressed the issue of missed opportunities of community policing as a form of co-production of public safety and security. The present study is novel on addressing missed opportunities associated with community policing in Lilongwe district. The following conclusions were, therefore, made on the three objectives of the study:

8.2. Public Value Benefits of Community Policing as Co-production

On objective number one which focused on public value benefits of community policing as a co-production, a majority of respondents cited the following as the benefits: enhanced knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing among both police officers and members of the public; satisfactory level of general and personal security; crime reduction and reduction in fear of crime, particularly in urban areas; enhanced community participation and involvement in public safety and security; improved accessibility, reachability of police facilities in Lilongwe urban; improved police friendliness; satisfactory level of police visibility and satisfactory level of police response

rate in Lilongwe urban and satisfactory level of trust in police in affluent areas of Lilongwe urban. In many instances, public value benefits of community policing identified by the police did not differ from the benefits identified by members of the public. However, in certain aspects and locations, the perceptions and opinions of the police and members of the public differed markedly.

8.2.1 Enhanced Knowledge and Understanding of the Concept of Community Policing

On this key public value, it was concluded that there was a general higher level of knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing as a form of coproducing public safety and security among both police officers and members of the public in Lilongwe. This improvement in level of knowledge and understanding of the concept of community policing was mainly attributed to continuous training, inclusion of community policing concept into various police curricula and civic education that was conducted by the police and other stakeholders. This finding was particularly important because it was an indicator that since the introduction of community policing as a form of co-production in 1997, there has been progressive improvement on the level of knowledge and understanding on the implementation of community policing by both police officers and members of the public. This means that trainings and civic education were paying dividends. In modern times, such conclusions are not unique to Malawi.

Similar conclusions were drawn in Nigeria. At this juncture, it is important to reiterate that the conclusion on this aspect of the study differed from the conclusions that were drawn

by other scholars in previous studies. For example, Mutupha and Zhu (2022) found that the level of knowledge and understanding on community policing by both police officers and members of the public was low.

8.2.2 General and Personal Security, Crime Reduction and Reduction in Fear of Crime

Despite a concern with the increase in cases of robbery and criminality perpetrated by street kids in Lilongwe urban, the study concluded that there was satisfactory level of general and personal security in both Lilongwe urban and rural. The study further concluded that there was very satisfactory level of general security in low-density areas. The study also concluded that there was satisfactory level of crime reduction and reduction in fear of crime among people of Lilongwe generally. The study also shows that both police officers and members of the public perceived general security and individual security as satisfactory in Lilongwe. Satisfactory to very satisfactory (in low-density areas) level of security in Lilongwe was attributed to active involvement of community police forums, neighbourhood watch groups, police patrols as well as rapid response provided by the police (in urban areas).

The conclusions on general security, individual security, crime reduction and reduction in fear of crime agree with the conclusion that was made in the most recent study on global peace index where Malawi was ranked 11th safest country out of 44 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (Institute for Economics & Peace).

Global Peace Index, 2023). Ultimately, the present study concludes that co-production of public safety and security through community policing had greatly contributed towards satisfactory level of safety and security in Lilongwe as well as reduction in crime and fear of crime particularly in low-density urban areas. This conclusion is very consistent with both the NPS and decentralisation theories that underpinned this study. It has been demonstrated that citizen participation which is a key element of both NPS and decentralisation theories was crucial to enhance safety and security in Lilongwe. Citizen participation through CPF, NHW and different forms of support from stakeholders greatly contributed towards enhanced safety and security. However, the study also concludes that both police officers and members of the public were dissatisfied with general and individual security during the evening and night times. This may be an indicator that there were low police and citizen activity during the night, an issue that needs urgent attention.

8.2.3 Community Participation and Involvement in Public Safety and Security

The main conclusion on this aspect of the study is that introduction of community policing as a means to co-produce public safety and security had satisfactorily motivated many people and stakeholders to appreciate that they had a role to play in improving safety and security in their communities.

This was consistent with the postulates of the decentralisation theory, which promotes citizen participation in service delivery. It was clear from the study that since community policing was introduced, citizen participation in the provision of safety and security had increased.

Unlike during the one-party era when the police worked apart from the community, with the introduction of community policing, citizens satisfactorily appreciated that it was not only the role of government and the police to provide public security; but everyone needed to participate. It was, therefore, concluded that one of the key public value benefits of community policing was enhanced community participation in the co-production of safety and security. Main ways through which members of the public co-produced public safety and security included community police forums, crime prevention panels, crime prevention committees, neighbourhood watch groups, business watch groups, Chinese Security Groups, installation of CCTVs in their businesses and homes and Nigerian Community Groups. The study also concludes that community policing had satisfactorily contributed towards enhanced information sharing between the police and citizens.

8.2.4 Accessibility, Reachability and Friendliness of Police Services

On this aspect of the study, it was concluded that accessibility of police services in urban areas of Lilongwe was satisfactory and that it was easier for urban residents to access and reach police services. In rural areas of Lilongwe, it was concluded that accessibility and reachability of police service was dissatisfactory. Both police officers and members of the public shared the same experiences on this aspect of the study.

It is also concluded that despite community policing having been implemented in Lilongwe for more than two and half decades, police service points or police units remained far apart in rural areas. This was contrary to the principles and objectives of community policing which advocated for establishment of more rural police units.

The police have even established a branch called Community Policing and Rural Police Units, specifically to champion establishment of more police units in rural areas because rural areas are often neglected. It can be concluded that Lilongwe was very vast compared to the number of police units available in the district. Smith (2015), in his study on crime and victimisation under the Malawi Police Improvement Programme also found that accessibility to nearest police station was a challenge in many areas of Lilongwe and that citizens walked long distances to reach a nearest police point.

On the issue of police friendliness and approachability, the study concludes that police officers were satisfactorily friendly and approachable to community, though a few members of the public felt police officers were not very friendly to the community. Improved police friendliness and accessibility was very consistent with citizen centered service deliver as espoused by both the NPS and decentralisation theories.

8.2.5 Police Visibility and Response to Calls of Distress

On this aspect of the study, the study concludes that community policing as a form of coproducing public safety and security had satisfactorily contributed towards improved police visibility through foot and vehicle patrols as well as enhanced rapid responses to calls of distress, particularly in urban areas. Both police and community respondents expressed satisfaction with police visibility in urban areas, which has always been one of the key objectives of community policing.

In rural areas, the study concludes that despite community policing being introduced in Lilongwe district more than two and half decades ago, police visibility or foot patrols were still dissatisfactory, a nightmare and that community policing was still more rhetoric than practice. On visibility and response rate by CPF and NHW groups, the study concludes that there was satisfactory level of visibility and rapid response to calls of distress both in urban and rural areas by these community police groups. This was one of the greatest public value benefits of community policing as co-production in Lilongwe district and one of the major contributions of the present study. Ultimately their visibility greatly contributed towards enhanced feeling of safety and security by citizens in both urban and rural areas.

The study also concludes that there was dissatisfactory level of police response to calls of distress both in Lilongwe urban and rural. Unlike CPF and NHW groups which responded so swiftly when citizens called for help, the police proved to have huge challenges to provide similar rapid response. As a result, the community felt let down by the police in terms of providing safety and security, a thing that eroded citizen trust in the police.

The study further concludes that there was no relationship between police visibility in rural areas and level of crime in these areas. Police visibility was generally inadequate in rural areas. Only CPF visibility was high in rural areas. The study, therefore, concludes that presence of CPF patrols in rural areas plus the fear of being killed by the mob (mob justice) were the main drivers towards reduction in crime and reduction in perception of fear of crime in rural areas.

It was clear from the findings on this aspect of the study that should the conventional police remain complacent with the way it is operating; community policing groups such as NHW, CPF and CPPs will slowly take over the role of the police and make the police redundant and continue to lose trust in the eyes of the public.

8.3 Challenges Affecting Community Policing as Co-production

On objective number two which focused on challenges affecting implementation of community policing as a co-production, a majority of respondents cited police corruption, extortion and bribery; human rights abuse and misconduct by police officers and community police members; police neglect of their job, lack of joint patrols; volunteerism, attacks and injuries on community police members; lack of feedback from the police, public mistrust in the police; political interference; damage to police infrastructure and attacks on police officers; lack of CPF and NHW members recognition by police; and slow police response to calls of distress.

Evidence from the study has shown that these challenges were not only unique to Malawi, they were prevalent in many countries. In many instances, challenges of community policing identified by the police did not differ from challenges identified by members of the public. However, in certain aspects of the study and locations, it was revealed that perceptions and opinions of the police and members of the public differed markedly.

The study therefore concluded that, although community policing as a form of coproduction continues to be heralded as the best approach to solve community safety and

security problems, it remains affected by a myriad of challenges for it to produce tangible results in the area of improving the quality of life of the people in many jurisdictions, including Lilongwe in Malawi (Mutupha & Zhu, 2022; Jenny, 2008). The study therefore made the following conclusions on objective number two:

8.3.1 Corruption and Citizen Mistrust in the Police

On this aspect of the study, it can be concluded that corruption strongly contributed to underperformance of community policing as co-production in Lilongwe. The study found a direct link between police corruption and public mistrust in the police. The study further concludes that corruption to a greater extent demotivated members of the community and community policing groups from fully participating in co-production. Once citizens lose trust in the police, the police eventually find themselves isolated from the people (Cordner, 1995). Once the police are isolated, citizens are not able to share with them vital information on crime, hence, the fight against crime cannot be successful.

Corruption by service providers and low trust negatively affect delivery of public services. As shown elsewhere in this study, corruption demotivates citizens from actively participating in co-production of public service. Corruption and low levels of trust negatively affect implementation of decentralisation strategies.

It can also be concluded that the level of trust in the police was generally dissatisfactory, except for residents in low-density areas, where the results proved otherwise. The study also concludes that a majority of citizens living in high-density as well as those living in rural areas did not trust the police due to corruption.

These conclusions are similar to the conclusions made in recent studies in Malawi (Mtuwa & Chiweza, 2023; Chunga & Manthalu, 2022; Mutupha & Zhu, 2022) which concluded that the level of trust in the police was generally low amongst many Malawians, and that corruption was among the main contributors of citizen mistrust in the police.

The study further concludes that citizen mistrust in the police was the major cause of mob justice in Malawi. Mistrust had resulted in many community members refusing to testify as witnesses in criminal offences. Lack of trust and confidence has also made many community members refuse to assist the police with information and investigations. Further, mistrust had also resulted in communities damaging police infrastructure. The study also concludes that citizens suspected of being police informants were being intimidated, harassed and assaulted to such an extent that some had lost their properties from violence perpetrated on them.

The study, therefore, concludes that when the police are professional, citizens' trust in individual police officers as well as trust in the whole police system improves.

8.3.2 Police Neglect of Duties

On this aspect of the study, it was concluded that since the introduction of community policing, the police in Lilongwe district had greatly neglected their duties by delegating some of their key statutory responsibilities such as 'arresting of offenders and conducting foot patrols' to members of the community, CPF and NHW groups. Police neglect of their duties is inconsistent with principles of decentralisation particularly delegation and devolution of authority.

It was revealed from the study that since the advent of community policing, the police misunderstood the concept of delegation and started to delegate even some of their core duties such as arrests and patrols to members of CPF, NHW groups and local citizens. This defeats the spirit of community policing as a form of decentralised service delivery. For example, the study reveals that when citizens came to police to lodge complaints, the police gave them letters addressed to village leaders, CPF or NHW groups to arrest the offender and bring them to the police station; at times the police even asked the victim to go and arrest the suspect. This practice, to a greater extent, contributed towards dismal performance of community policing as co-production. The practice greatly demotivated members of the community from participating in community policing. Citizens would like to see the police work together with people.

Police abdication of their duties, more especially where CPF and NHW groups were left to conduct foot patrols alone contributed to increase in violations and abuse of human rights by community police groups. As a matter of fact, the finding on this aspect of the study exposed a huge failure by the police to deliver better service to the community according to its mandate. It was, therefore, important for the police to quickly rise to the occasion in the delivery of police services. Otherwise, the need to have more professional police officers would start to diminish.

8.3.3 Volunteerism and Lack of Recognition and Rewards of CPF and NHW

Groups

Much as decentralisation promotes citizen participation in service delivery, this study concludes that volunteerism that goes without a token of appreciation and recognition strongly demotivated citizens from actively participating in co-production of public safety and security in Lilongwe district. It was established from the study that unlike other forms of services that require citizen participation, provision of safety and security services was an extremely dangerous endeavour. To this end, citizens including members of CPF and NHW groups greatly disagreed with the current statutory approach to community policing where people participate in dangerous endeavours like late night foot patrols, without any token of appreciation.

The study also concludes that lack of recognition and rewards to members of CPF and NHW groups greatly demotivated members of these groups from fully participating in community police activities.

There was a general feeling among CPF and NHW members that police and government authorities did not properly recognize these groups. This phenomenon was also prevalent in South Africa where much as the police were aware about the legislative provisions of establishing CPFs, they did not fully recognise them as essential partners in the coproduction process. Such lack of recognition may make it challenging to establish rapport and trust between the police and CPFs and may reduce the CPF's effectiveness.

8.3.4 Lack of Joint Patrols and Human Rights Abuse by CPF and NHW

Groups

On this aspect of the study, it can be concluded that lack of joint patrols between the police and members of the community was a demotivating factor towards community's enthusiasm to participate in community police activities. Members of CPF and NHW groups were greatly motivated when they conducted patrols together with the local police. Joint patrols provided a better cover to CPF and NHW groups during patrols, especially during the night. Joint patrols were an indicator that the police, who have the ultimate statutory mandate to provide public safety and security, did not leave their job to members of the public. It can also be concluded that joint patrols were a great source of accountability on both police officers and members of community police groups. For example, in situations where the police conducted joint patrols, there were fewer human rights abuses committed by both the police and members of the public. In the spirit of promoting accountability as espoused by the decentralisation theory, the study encourages the police to ensure that they conduct joint patrols with members of the community.

8.3.5 Attacks on CPF, NHW Members, Police and Damage to Police

Infrastructure

On these aspects of the study, it is concluded that attacks and intimidation on members of CPF and NHW as well as on police and police facilities to a very great extent demotivated members of CPF and NHW groups from actively participating in co-production of public safety and security in Lilongwe. It was generally revealed that individuals who participated in co-production of public safety and security were exposed to various risks including attacks, assaults and intimidation from criminals making community policing a very

dangerous undertaking that required those participating in co-production to put the society before self.

The study also reveals that police facilities and infrastructure were often vandalised and destroyed whenever there were disagreements between the police and members of the community. Vandalism to police facilities was mainly influenced by citizens perception of police corruption. The study, therefore, concludes that perception of police corruption, and suspicion that the police would release criminals on bail after receiving bribes was one of the major causes of vandalism to police infrastructure. It was further concluded that corruption was a major source of citizens' dissatisfaction with the police and made it difficult for the police to create a friendly environment with the citizens. As a result, citizens developed a culture of attacking police officers and damaging police infrastructure whenever there were differences. Damage to police infrastructure renders police services inaccessible to the community, thereby defeating the very basic tenet of community policing which is to bring the police close to the people.

Damage to police infrastructure was an affront to principles of decentralisation and NPS. The two theories envisage improved accessibility to police services. As such, any damage to police infrastructure contributed to poor service delivery to citizens. There was need to find better ways of conflict resolution whenever there were differences between the police and the people.

8.3.6 Inadequate Training on Implementation of Community Policing On this aspect of the study, it is concluded that both police officers and members of the public were

dissatisfied with the level of training that was provided to police officers, community police members, members of neighbourhood watch groups as well as to the community on implementation of community policing as a co-production tool. Inadequate training resulted in knowledge deficiency on the code of conduct for CPF and NHW groups. As a result, they were often involved in human rights abuses and in matters that were beyond the scope of their work. Inadequate training was a general challenge to implementation of community policing in many countries including Nigeria (Olusegun, 2016).

8.3.7 Poor customer Service, Attitude of Police Officers and Lack of Feedback from Police

Putting citizens at the heart of service delivery is the key principle of the NPS theory. On these aspects of the study, it can be concluded that customer service and attitude of many police officers was very dissatisfactory. This was inconsistent with the principles promoted by the NPS theory. Poor customer service and bad police attitude were detrimental to the successful implementation of community policing. It can, therefore, be concluded that poor customer service was one of the major challenges hampering community participation in the co-production of public safety and security. The study reveals that police roadblocks, traffic checks and police reception areas (the OB) were amongst places where people were not fairly treated by the police. The study also concluded that most police officers were not friendly to customers. There is an immediate need to conduct more customer care trainings for the police. This would contribute towards attitude and behaviour change among police officers. The study also concludes that a majority of the people were very dissatisfied with

feedback they got from the police on issues of safety and security they had reported to police or when they needed assistance from the police. There was a lot of frustration with the way the police provided progress reports on matters where citizens had complained to police. This greatly contributed to poor community participation in co-production.

8.3.8 Political Interference

On this aspect of the study, it can be concluded that political interference was one the barriers to effective implementation of community policing as a form of co-production. Politicians tended to dictate on how community police activities were supposed to be implemented in their areas. This caused distrust in the citizens, and they were discouraged from being fully committed in community policing activities. Additionally, the fact that the Inspector General of Police is appointed by the State President who is a political leader, brings distrust such that some people do not want to associate with the police through community policing.

8.3.9 Resource Challenges

On this aspect of the study, it can be concluded that lack of resources remained a key challenge in the implementation of community policing as a form of co-production in Lilongwe. The study concludes that human, material and financial resource remained very limited to anchor successful implementation of community policing. For example, low numbers of police officers made it very difficult for the police to make very meaningful visibility in the precincts as well as to fully participate in partnership building and community policing activities. It is also concluded that in the initial years of community policing, most of its activities were funded by donors. With dwindling donor support,

community policing suffered a major blow. Lack of resources threatened the process of community involvement in co-production.

8.4 Missed Opportunities of Community Policing as Form of Co-production

On objective number three, which focused on opportunities that needed to be exploited to enhance the performance and outputs of community policing as a co-production, the study established that community willingness to conduct joint patrols; willingness by the community to make financial and material contributions towards community policing; and potential use of information and communication technologies (ICT) and artificial intelligence (AI) were the major opportunities that community policing had not fully exploited to its advantage. The study, therefore, makes the following conclusions on objective number three:

8.4.1 Community Willingness to Conduct Joint Patrols with Police

On this aspect of the study, it was established that many people agreed that the citizens in Lilongwe had demonstrated huge willingness to conduct joint patrols with the police in crime prone areas but the police were not forthcoming on the initiative. It can, therefore, be concluded that failure by the police to take advantage of readily available and willing human resource to assist them with patrols was a great missed opportunity. Joint patrols have a force multiplier effect.

The study further concludes that joint patrols between the police and members of the public were a great source of motivation for members of CPF and NHW groups to participate in the co-production of public safety and security and needed to be encouraged. It was

important for the police to recognise that community policing is founded on the principle of community partnership and involvement. It is these principles that are propounded by the new public service theory of public management. The community must be encouraged to participate in any form of development taking place in their areas. Having a willing community was, therefore, an added advantage that the police needed to quickly exploit.

8.4.2 Willing Community to Make Financial and Material Contributions On community willingness to contribute financial and material support towards community policing, the study concludes that the police had failed to take full advantage of this opportunity and develop legislative framework or a policy and procedures on how best to make such contributions more legitimate for the benefit of volunteer CPF and NHW group members. Using money contributed by willing communities, volunteers could be compensated with some token of appreciation. Community police volunteers needed to be incentivised and motivated with a little allowance or honorarium to buy food and also support their families. Such an initiative would also reduce their temptations to seek and accept bribes.

8.4.3 Information and Communication Technology and Artificial Intelligence On this aspect of the study, it can be concluded that community policing as a form of coproduction had not taken full advantage of ICT and ICT devices such as computers, softwares as well as other means of mass communication such as broadcasting (TV and Radio), publishing or print, Artificial Intelligence (AI) such as drones, CCTVs and the internet to improve community participation in co-production. Information and

communication technology remains the most prominent means of mass communication in the modern world. It affords users diverse ways of relaying information in a most rapid manner. It also allows information to reach a vast majority of people within a short period of time.

8.5 Contributions of the Study

This section focuses on contribution to the body of knowledge by this study. The present research has made a number of contributions to theory and practice of community policing as a form of co-production concept. Collaboration between the police and the community to improve safety and address crime is widely used in Malawi and elsewhere. However, available information regarding outcomes of community policing varies widely.

It is evident that the success is influenced by several factors including trust, commitment, resources, and tailored approaches. Therefore, application of the concept may not be generalised.

8.5.1 Theoretical Contributions

There is limited research that confirms the applicability of the NPS theory of public management in community policing studies across the world. By investigating police and community experiences with community policing in Lilongwe, Malawi using NPS and decentralisation theories, the study has confirmed that the two theories are relevant and offered significant guide in various contexts of community policing. Community policing represents implementation of the New Public Service theory (Ozkan, 2016; pp.166-157). The outcomes from the present study such as enhanced public trust and community

participation and involvement in public safety and security affirms that police departments cannot successfully implement crime prevention strategies without cooperation and involvement of the community. It was interesting to note that public trust was more evident in Lilongwe urban. The study has further demonstrated that many elements of the decentralisation theory such as community empowerment, accountability and citizen participation are applicable when conducting studies on community policing as a form of co-production. Much as co-production has always been associated with markets, the concept forms part of broad police reform and in community policing as revealed in the present study. Findings suggest that co-production can equally be applicable in other sectors that deliver public services.

8.5.2 Contribution to Policy and Practice

The study has demonstrated that police visibility and rapid response to calls of distress are among key attributes of community policing that can significantly contribute to enhanced level of trust in the police. This finding suggests that the police must rethink and redesign its deployment and patrols strategies so as to improve people's trust and meet people's expectations. The findings of the study also suggest that inclusion of a module on community policing in police curricula could enhance police officers' knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing. This can be adopted in many jurisdictions as part of police reform. As propagated by the NPS and decentralisation theories of public management, it is only through knowledge and empowerment that people can meaningfully participate and contribute in any government project including community policing. This means that training, capacity building and community awareness must always form part of any project implementation.

This study has also shown that compensating members of CPF and NHW with a token of appreciation for their time, risks and energy spent to co-produce public safety and security in Malawi's Lilongwe district or anywhere in Malawi was a good practice that must be adopted in various jurisdictions. Much as the law and policy on community policing in Malawi regards community policing as a voluntary undertaking, the present study found that the policy has not responded to prevailing social and economic dynamics of Malawi. The Malawi Police Act of 2010 may need to be reviewed so that it responds to the practice prevailing on the ground in real-time.

The study has also revealed that failure by public officials such as police officers in the performance of their statutory duties results in loss of trust by citizens. It was therefore, important for public officials including police to refrain from abdicating their duties to other partners under the guise of decentralisation or co-production. Failure by public officials to diligently perform their statutory functions would slowly make functions of such public officials redundant.

The findings from present study contribute directly towards achievement of Agenda 2063 by proposing recommendations that will help improve the efficiency and effectiveness of community policing in the creation of a safer and more secure society.

8.5.3 *Contribution to Literature*

Firstly, this study has presented additional literature on community policing by providing in depth empirical evidence on benefits, challenges and missed opportunities of community

policing as a form co-production in Lilongwe. The study has provided a comprehensive understanding of how community policing as a form of co-production works in Lilongwe, Malawi. Two peer reviewed journal articles have been published thereby adding recent literature in the field of community policing, new public service, decentralisation and coproduction.

8.5.4 *Contribution to Methodology*

Evidence shows that most of the studies on community policing are dominated by case study strategy of enquiry with large sample sizes. By adopting phenomenological strategy of enquiry with smaller sample size, this study has simply demonstrated that studies on community policing can be conducted using methodologies other than case study strategy of enquiry. The use of phenomenology strategy of enquiry makes the researchers provide deeper insights into the opinions and experiences of participants thereby generating results that can be different and richer than findings from previous studies which predominantly deployed case study strategy of enquiry which may not unlock significant number of issues regarding community policing in Lilongwe, Malawi.

8.6 Recommendations

From the foregoing findings, discussions, research contributions and conclusions, the study makes the following recommendations for policy makers, law enforcement practitioners and other stakeholders:

- (a) For community policing as a form of co-production to be successfully implemented, it must be founded on proper training for both police officers and members of CPF, NHW as well as civic education among the communities. Although the study

revealed that there was satisfactory level of knowledge and understanding of community policing among both police officers and members of the public, this level of knowledge can only be sustained through continuous training. CPF and NHW group members need to be properly trained on their roles and responsibilities so that they do not abuse people's rights. These trainings must be done regularly and must continue to be part of various police trainings. It is therefore, recommended that more resources be deployed for continued civic education, awareness and training among police officers, ordinary citizens and members of CPF and NHW groups in order to enhance the productivity of community policing as a form of co-production in Lilongwe.

- (b) The study strongly recommends that all volunteers performing community policing work (CPF and NHW) must be rewarded with some reasonable honorarium as a token of appreciation for the dangerous job that they perform day and night. Although the Police Act of 2010 states that members of CPF and NHW groups provide their services on voluntary basis, this study proposes that this law must be reviewed. Lack of proper compensation was one reason why some community members were not willing to be members of CPF or NHW groups.
- (c) The police must improve on its feedback system when dealing with citizens, members of CPF and NHW groups as well as other stakeholders. For citizens to have trust in the police and its systems, there is need for constant feedback to the community. Without adequate feedback, the police and community police will continue to encounter implementation problems that could have been avoided.

- (d) The study recommends that members of the Malawi Police Service must quickly embrace the use of various forms of ICT, AI and social media spaces that would help to improve community participation in co-production of public safety and security. Through social media space and ICT, information regarding crime will easily be disseminated and shared in local communities. This may include quick introduction of CCTVs in urban areas of Lilongwe to monitor criminal activities.
- (e) The study recommends change of mindset, behaviour and attitudes among the police and community police groups. The police must always appreciate that they are no longer a “Force” but a “Service”, and that in democratic policing, views of the citizens matter (OSCE, 2023). Successful implementation of community policing as a form of co-production demands that both the police and members of the community embrace mindset change. Police also need to change their mindset towards the poor. The police must avoid associating the poor with crime.
- (f) Political interference must be discouraged in the implementation of community policing as a co-production.
- (g) On visibility, the study recommends that police authorities must ensure nondiscrimination between the haves and have-nots in terms of deployment. The spirit of community policing as a form of co-production was to provide equitable services to all members of the community.
- (h) Rural areas needed a lot of attention by government to improve community accessibility to police services compared to urban areas.

8.7 Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the study findings, research contributions and conclusions, the researcher suggests that further research be conducted on the following areas:

- (a) Knowledge and understanding of the concept community policing as co-production among both police officers and members of the public.
- (b) Disparities in citizen trust in the police in rural areas, low and high-density areas need further investigation.
- (c) Police friendliness needs to be confirmed by a larger sample size and probably a quantitative study would triangulate the findings.
- (d) Disparity in terms of provision of safety and security to the affluent population living in low-density areas and the poor living in high-density areas.
- (e) Willingness by the community to compensate community policing groups.

Overall, the study argues that although the implementation of community policing as a form of co-production in Lilongwe was associated with many public value benefits, it was also marred by a myriad of challenges, many of which concern the practices, trust, behaviour and attitude of police officers and insufficiency of resources. The study has also highlighted some of the missed opportunities that community policing has failed to exploit to its advantage. To mitigate these challenges and make co-production of public safety and security more vibrant, strong sanctions must be put on corrupt police officers as well as on community police members who abuse people's rights. Police officers must follow laid down procedures when conducting their duties, they must not be lazy. Police officers must also be encouraged to conduct patrols jointly with members of CPF and NHW groups in

order to instill confidence in them. Much as the Police Act of 2010 presents co-production of public safety and security as a voluntary undertaking, that approach is proving less productive and this study recommends immediate review of the police to respond to suggestions made by participants in this study. Finally, the findings showed that, for community policing to be sustained, those involved must be compensated. The study also concludes that trust was one of the key motivators for members of the public to join the police in co-production of public safety and security, and that this trust could only be earned if the police and members of community police groups did the right things when executing their duties.

Police visibility, rapid response, integrity, being accessible and friendly were some of the attributes that would earn the police trust from members of the public. Once these attributes are lost, people lose trust in the police and start to seek police services elsewhere.

REFERENCES

- Ahmed, S. K. (2024). The pillars of trustworthiness in qualitative research. *Journal of Medicine, Surgery, and Public Health*, 2, 100051.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.glmedi.2024.100051>. Accessed October 2024.
- Anim-Wright, K. (2024). Trustworthiness and Rigor in Qualitative Research in the Marketing Discipline. *Journal of Humanities, Arts and Social Science*, 8(1), 41–53.
<https://doi.org/10.26855/jhass.2024.01.007>. Accessed October, 2024.
- Anti-Corruption Bureau, Malawi, (2022). ACB Newsletter. Vol. 016/Issue 1/21st Edition/December 2022. <http://acbmw.org/publications-newsletters/>. Accessed September, 2023.
- Afrobarometer Survey, (2019). *Malawi Round 8 summary of results*
- Amu, R.W; Hanapi, Y; Kodai, D.A & Tumuhulawa, A. (2023). The Role of Community Policing in Crime Prevention and Management Effort (Study at Gorontalo Resort Police). *International Journal of Educational Review, Law and Social Sciences*. IJERLAS 2808-487X <https://radjapublika.com/index.php/IJERLAS>. Accessed in December 2023.
- Amuya, L. (2017). *Community Policing in Kenya: Examining the Challenges Derailing Police-Civilian Relations in Teso South Sub-County*.
<file:///C:/Users/LENOVO/Downloads/SSRN-id3015740.pdf>. Accessed February 27, 2024.
- Bach, S. (2000). *Decentralization and privatization in municipal services: The case of health services*. Sectoral Activities Programme. Working Paper 164.

- Bayley, D. (1988). Community Policing: A Report from the Devil's Advocate. In *Community Policing: Rhetoric or Reality*. Jack R. Greene and Stephen D. Mastrofski, 225–238. Praeger, New York.
- Bayley, D and Perito, R. (2011). *Police Corruption: What Past Scandals Teach about Current Challenges*. United State Institute for Peace. <https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/134108/SR%20294.pdf>. Accessed January, 2024.
- Bediako, I. (2023). A/R: Alleged 8 weed dealers attack community police personnel at Juaben. <https://starrfm.com.gh/2023/04/a-r-alleged-8-weed-dealers-attackcommunity-police-personnel-at-juaben/>. Accessed, February 21, 2024.
- Ben, E. R., & Schuppan, T. (2016). E-Government and the Transformation of Professionalism: The Case of the Police. In *System Sciences. Hawaii International Conference* 2667-2676.
- Bennett, T., Holloway, K. & Farrington, D. (2008). *The Effectiveness of Neighbourhood Watch*. Campbell Systematic Reviews. file:///C:/Users/LENOVO/Downloads/Bennett_Neighborhood_watch_user_abstract.pdf. Accessed September, 2023.
- Benington, J. (2011). From Private Choice to Public Value. In M. M. H. Benington J. (Ed.), *Public Value Theory & Practice* (pp. pp. 31-51). Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bénit-Gbaffou, C. (2008). Community Policing and Disputed Norms for Local Social Control in Post-Apartheid Johannesburg. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 34(1): 93-109.

- Blair, R., Grossman, G. & Wilke, A. (2019). *The Impact of Community Policing on Citizen Trust, Police Performance, and Crime in Uganda. Innovation for Poverty Action*. <https://poverty-action.org/study/impact-community-policing-citizen-trust-policeperformance-and-crime-uganda>. Viewed October, 2024.
- Birchall, J., & Simmons R. (2004). *User Power: The Participation of Users in Public Services*. London: National Consumer Council.
- Bovaird, T. (2007). Beyond Engagement and Participation: User and Community Co-Production of Public Services. *Public Administration Review*, (67, 5), 846–860.
- Bovaird, T., & Loeffler, E. (2012). “From Engagement to Co-Production: The Contribution of Users and Communities to Outcomes and Public Value.” *International Society of Third Sector Research* 23 (4), 1119–1138.
- Brandsen, T., Steen, T. & Verschuere, B. (Eds). (2018). *Co-Creation and Co-Production in Public Services: Engaging Citizens in Public Services*. Routledge Critical Studies in Public Management. Routledge. New York.
- Brandsen, T., & Honingh. M. (2015). Distinguishing Different Types of Co-Production: A Conceptual Analysis Based on the Classical Definitions. *Public Administration Review*, 5 2020.
- Briney, K. (2015). *Data Management for Researchers: Organize, Maintain and Share your Data for Research Success*. Exeter: Pelagic Publishing, UK. www.pelagicpublishing.com.
- Borovec, K; Balgač, I. and Mraović, I.C. (2021). Police Visibility as an Influencing Factor on Citizens’ Perception of Safety. *VARSTVOSLOVJE. Journal of Criminal Justice and Security*. 2, 135–160.

- Brewster, B., Gibson, H. & Gunning, M. (2018). *Policing the Community Together: The Impact of Technology on Citizen Engagement*. Palgrave
- Brudney, J. L. and England, R. E. (1983). Toward a Definition of the Co-production Concept. *Public Administration Review* 43(1), 59–65. Accessed August 2020.
- Bryson, J., Sancino, A., Benington, J., & Sørensen, E. (2017). Towards a multi-actor theory of public value co-creation. *Public Management Review*, 19(5), 640-654.
doi:10.1080/14719037.2016.1192164.
- Bullock, K. & Johnson, P. J. (2016). Faith in Policing: The Co-Production of Crime Control in Britain. *British Journal of Criminology*. pp. 1-20.
<http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/108309/>. Accessed July 2022.
- Burnham, P., Gilland Lutz, K., Grant, W., & Layton-Henry, Z. (2008). *Research Methods in Politics*. (2 ed.) Houndmills Palgrave Macmillan.
<https://research.birmingham.ac.uk/en/publications/research-methods-in-politics>.
- Carter, D.L., and Radelet, L.A. (2002). *Police and the Community* (7th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall. New York.
- Chipao, D., & Probert, T. (2019). *The accessibility of policing in informal settlements around Lilongwe, Malawi. Policing the urban periphery in africa*, 41.
Available at <http://apcof.org/wp-content/uploads/apcofpolicingtheurbaneng.pdf#page=48>. Accessed, February, 2024.
- Chirwa, W. C. (2009). *Democracy and Political Participation*. A review by AfriMAP and Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa Researched and written by. 1–150.

- Chowdhury, I.I. (2015). Issue of Quality in a Qualitative Research: An Overview. *Innovative Issues and Approaches in Social Science*. 8(1). 142-162.
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/272431547>. Accessed, October 2024.
- Chunga, J.J. & Manthalu C.H. (2022). *Afrobarometer Dispatch No. 581 | AD581: Malawians cite lack of professionalism, integrity, responsiveness among police failings*. <https://www.afrobarometer.org/publication/ad581-malawianscite-lack-of-professionalism-integrity-responsiveness-among-police-failings/>. Viewed in September 2023.
- Clavell, G., Zamorano, M., & Zavala-Pérez, J. (2018). *ICTs and Community Policing: An Ethical Framework*. Palgrave.
- Clegg, I; Hunt, R. & Whetton, H. (2000). *Policy Guidance on Support to Policing in Developing Countries*. Centre for Development Studies University of Wales, Swansea Swansea SA2 8PP. <http://www.swansea.ac.uk/cds>. Accessed March 4, 2022.
- Colona, F. (2020). Police guns and private security cars. Ordering the state through sociomaterial policing assemblages in Nairobi. *Society and Space*. 38(3), 436–452. sagepub.com/journals-permissions. DOI: 10.1177/0263775820923374.
- Cordner, G. (2010). *Reducing Fear of Crime: Strategies for Police*. U.S. Department of Justice Office of Community Oriented Policing Services. <https://portal.cops.usdoj.gov/resourcecenter/RIC/Publications/cops-p173-pub.pdf>.
- Cordner, G. (2014). *Community Policing*. *The Oxford Handbook of Police and Policing*: Oxford University Press. New York.

- Cordner, G.W. (2016). *Police Administration*. Routledge (9th ed.). New York.
- Creswell, J.W. (2009). 3rd ed. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. Sage Publications. London.
- Denhardt, R. & Denhardt, J. (2000). The New Public Service: Serving Rather Than Steering. *Public Administration Review*. 549-559.
- Dawson, C. (2009). *Introduction to Research Methods. A practical guide for anyone Undertaking research project*. Sage.
- Divon, S.A. (2021). Police, Policing, and the Community: Community Policing in Theory and Practice in Gulu, Uganda. *Journal of Human Security*. 16(2), 149–164
- Ejoc, J.M., Arnold, J. & Alferez, L. (2018). Police Visibility in Prevention of Crime, Pinamungajan Police Station. CEBU: Implications to Law Enforcement Service. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanities Research*. 6(4), 1013-1016).
- European Commission, (2020). *How Can ICT promote COP?*
- Evers, A., & B. Ewert. (2012). “Co-Production: Contested Meanings and Challenges for User Organizations.” In *New Public Governance, the Third Sector and CoProduction*, edited by Fugini, M; Bracci, E. and Sicilia, M. Eds. (2016). Coproduction in the Public Sector Experiences and Challenges. Springer International Publishing AG. Switzerland.
- Federman, P.S. 2020. Police performance as symbolic politics? Public recognition and the value of awards. *Performance of Management Review* 43 (2), 363–387.
- Gawłowski, R. (2018). Co-production as a tool for realization of public services. *Public Governance* 2 (44), 12-18.
- Gephart, P. R. & Sara L. Rynes, S.L. (2004). Qualitative Research and the Academy of

- Management Journal. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47 (4), 454.
- Gibbs, G.R. (2007). *Thematic Coding and Categorization, Analysing Qualitative Data*. SAGE Publication Ltd., London. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781849208574>. Viewed September 7, 2022.
- Gill, C; Weisburd, D. & Telep, C.W, et al. (2014). Community-oriented policing to reduce crime, disorder and fear and increase satisfaction and legitimacy among citizens: A systematic review. *Journal of Experimental Criminology* 10 (4), 399–428.
- Gjelsvik, I.M. 2020. Police reform and community policing in Kenya: The bumpy road from policy to practice. *Journal of Human Security* 16 (2), 19–30.
- Goldsmith, A. (2005). Police reform and the problem of trust. *Theoretical Criminology*. 9(4), 443–470; 1362–4806 DOI: 10.1177/1362480605057727. www.sagepublications.com. Viewed September 18, 2023.
- Govender, D. and Pillay, K. (2022). Policing in South Africa: A Critical Evaluation. *Insight on Africa*. 14(1) 40-56. <https://doi.org/10.1177/09750878211048169>.
- Government of Malawi (1998a), *Malawi National Decentralization Policy*. Decentralization Secretariat.
- Government of Malawi (1998b), *Local Government Act No. 42 of 1998*.
- Grace, B. (2022). *Challenges of Community policing and community safety in slum Community of WestPoint, Liberia. Degree project in Criminology 15 Credits*. Malmö University: Faculty of Health and Society, Department of Criminology. <https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:1692750/FULLTEXT02>. Viewed on June 20, 2023.
- Grant, P.D., Longhurst, J.M and Their, M. (2024). Rural Definition

- Triangulation: Improving the Credibility and Transferability of Rural Education Research in the United States. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*. <https://jrre.psu.edu/sites/default/files/2024-04/40.01.pdf>. Accessed October 2024.
- Gyamfi, G.D. (2022). Exploring public trust in policing at a community in Ghana. *Security Journal*. V35 (4), 1249–1262. Doi: [10.1057/s41284-021-00325-y](https://doi.org/10.1057/s41284-021-00325-y). <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC8742685/>. Viewed March 2023.
- Hadi, M. A., & José Closs, S. (2016). Ensuring rigour and trustworthiness of qualitative research in clinical pharmacy. *International Journal of Clinical Pharmacy*, 38(3), 641–646. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11096-015-0237-6>. Accessed October 2024.
- Hakim, C. (2000). *Research Design: successful designs for social and economic research*, (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Herath, T. N. (2009). Decentralization of Governance and Economic Development: The Sri Lankan Experience after Establishment of Provincial Councils. *South Asia Economic Journal*, 10(1), 157-185.
- Hood, C. (1991). A public management for all seasons? *Public Administration*, 69 (1), 3-19.
- Howell, S. (2019). Policing the Urban Periphery in Africa: Developing safety for the marginal. *African Policing Civilian Oversight Forum (APCOF)*. <http://apcof.org/wp-content/uploads/apcofpolicingtheurbaneng.pdf>. Accessed, February 15, 2024.
- Hussein, M.K, (2004). *Decentralisation and development: the Malawian experience*. SRIA Africa Development, Vol. XXIX, No. 2, 2004, pp. 106-133. [5 - Decentralisation and](#)

Development: The Malawian Experience | Africa Development. Viewed October, 2024.

Innes, M. (2005). ‘Why “Soft” Policing is Hard: On the Curious Development of Reassurance Policing. How it Became Neighbourhood Policing and What This Signifies About the Politics of Police Reform’. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 15,156–169.

Institute for Economics and Peace. Global Peace Index (2023). *Measuring Peace in a Complex World*, Sydney. Available from: <https://www.visionofhumanity.org/wpcontent/uploads/2023/06/GPI-2023-Web.pdf>. (Accessed on 23rd December 2023).

Irawan, B., Andy, S., Wijaya, F., Nurfitriyah, H. (2024). Implementation of E-Government in Public Service: A Study in Population and Civil Recording Agency in Samarinda Municipality. *Public Policy and Administration Research*. 4(6)-18.

Islam, S. (2018). Community Policing (CP): Challenges on Preventing Crime and Human Security in Bangladesh. *Review Pub Administration Management*: 6(3)-12. Doi: 10.4172/2315-7844.1000253.

Jacobs, M. S., Malange, J. & Olutola, A.A. (2021). Implementing a community policing strategy in crime prevention: A case study of Lomanyaneng, Mahikeng, and Mmabatho police stations. *European Journal of Economics, Law and Social Sciences*. 5, 3-12

Jakoet-Salie, A. & Ramolobe, K.S. (2023). Necessitating the Need for Co-production of Public Services A Tool for Promoting Political Trust in Local Government.

Administratio Publica. 31. 4.

https://journals.co.za/doi/full/10.10520/ejcadminpub_v31_n4_a3. Accessed June 2024.

Jenny, C. (2008). *Community Policing: An International Literature Review, Evaluation Team*. Organizational Assurance, New Zealand Police, Wellington.

Jones, N.A., R. Ruddell, & T. Summerfeld. (2019). Community policing: Perception of officers policing indigenous communities. *Canadian Journal of Criminal Justice* 61 (4), 41–65.

Johnson, O. (2019). Challenges of Security Sector Reform in Police Organization in Malawi. <https://gradesfixer.com/free-essay-examples/challenges-of-securitysector-reform-in-police-organization-in-malawi/>. Accessed 14 December 2023.

Jun, K. N. & Bryer, T. (2017). Facilitating Public Participation in Local Governments in Hard Times. *The American Review of Public Administration*. 47(7).
<https://journals.sagepub.com/toc/arpb/47/7>. Accessed January, 2024.

Jütting, J. P., Kauffmann, C., McDonnell, I., Osterrieder, H., Pinaud, N., & Wegner, L. (2011). Decentralization and Poverty in Developing Countries: Exploring the Impact. *SSRN Electronic Journal*, 236. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.583762>. Viewed October 16, 2024.

Kainja, G. (2012). *Presentation on Community Policing to Tanzania Police Force*.

<https://www.slideserve.com/tana/community-policing-and-customer-care-fortanzania-police-force>. Viewed on September 12, 2023.

- Kakar, Z., H., Rasheed, R., Rashid, A., & Akhter, S. (2023). Criteria for Assessing and Ensuring The Trustworthiness in Criteria for Assessing and Ensuring the Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research Qualitative Research criteria for assessing and ensuring the trustworthiness in qualitative research. *International Journal of Business Reflections*, 4(2). <https://doi.org/10.56249/ijbr.00.00.00>. Accessed, October 2024.
- Kayuni, H. & Chunga, J. (2021). *Two Decades of Governance in Malawi: Examining Citizen Trust in Malawi from 1999-2019*. <https://www.scotland-malawipartnership.org/assets/img/general/Governance-Webinar-3-Presentation.pptx>. Accessed, February 10, 2024.
- Kelling, George L., & Moore (1988). *The Evolving Strategy of Policing. Perspectives on Policing*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice and John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University.
- Kelling, G. L. (1988). "Police and Communities: The Quiet Revolution." *Perspectives on Policing*, no. 1. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice and Harvard Uni.
- Kiełek, K. (2022). The importance of safety and security in urban space. *Humanities & Social Sciences Reviews*, 10(6), 21-23. <https://doi.org/10.18510/hssr.2022.1063>. Accessed February 2024.
- Kochel, T. R, & Weisburd, D. (2019) The impact of hot spots policing on collective efficacy: Findings from a randomized field trial. *Justice Quarterly* 36 (5), 900–928.
- Kumwenda, D; Tembo, M; Mphande, Benard, Nalivata, C; Nundwe, V; Chazema1, T.A; Ngilazi, H. & Kalinga, M. (2023). Digital Community-Policing Application at Muloza Border of Malawi and Mozambique in Mulanje. *International Journal of Membrane Science and Technology*.

- https://www.researchgate.net/publication/375541999_Digital_CommunityPolicing_Application_at_Muloza_Border_of_Malawi_and_Mozambique_in_Mulanje. Viewed December, 2023.
- Lau, H. P. & Ali, K. (2019). Citizen Participation in Crime Prevention: A study in Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia. *Journal of Criminology Research, Policy and Practice*. 5(2).
- <https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/JCRPP-01-2019-0005/full/html?skipTracking=true>. Accessed September 2020.
- Leung, L. (2015). Validity, reliability, and generalizability in qualitative research. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, 4(3), 324. <https://doi.org/10.4103/22494863.161306>. Accessed October, 2024.
- Lin, Li-Chen. (2009). *Data Management and Security in Qualitative Research. Dimensions of critical care nursing*.
- https://www.researchgate.net/publication/24350607_Data_Management_and_Security_in_Qualitative_Research/citation/download.
- Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). Naturalistic inquiry. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*. 9(4),438-439.
- <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/0147176785900628?via%3Dihub>. Accessed October, 2024.
- Loeffler, E. (2009). *Opportunities and challenges for innovative services delivery. Presentation to OECD /CRC workshop on Designing services for rural communities: The role of co-design and co-delivery. Paris. OECD*.
- Loeffler, E. & Watts, P. (2009). *Understanding Efficiency implications of co-production*. Unpublished paper.

Loeffler, E. & Bovaird, T. (2019). Assessing the Impact of Co-Production on Pathways to Outcomes in Public Services: The Case of Policing and Criminal Justice.

International Public Management Journal.2(4), 9-18.

Ludman, B. (2010). *City of Johannesburg CPF*.

<http://www.joburg.org.za/index.php?option=comcontent&dopdf=1&1d=88>.

Accessed 10 May 2023.

Luloff, A.E. & Elmendorfl, W.F. (2001). Qualitative Data Collection Methods when Planning for Community Forestry. *Journal of Arboriculture* 27(3).

Maina, E.G. (2020). *Influence of Information Communication Technology on Police Officers' Performance in Nyandarua County, Kenya*.

<http://erepository.uonbi.ac.ke/handle/11295/153266>. Accessed November 1, 2023. Maiyo,

H. (2020). *Public Value Assessment of E-Policing Initiatives in Kenya: A Strategy*

Towards the Realization of a Citizen Centered Police Service

https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3504559. Sungkyunkwan

University, Graduate School of Governance. Accessed November 1, 2023.

Malawi Government, (1998). *Local Government Act 1998. Laws of Malawi*.

<https://www.resakss.org/sites/default/files/Malawi%201998%20Local%20Government%20Act%2042%20of%201998.pdf>. Accessed October 19, 2024.

Masogo, M.P; Obioha, E.E., & DeVries, I.D. (2014). Implementation of Community Policing Strategy in a South African Township. *J Soc Sci*, 40(1), 107-121.

Mawhood, P. (1983). Decentralization: The Concept and the Practice”, in Mawhood. P., (ed). *Local Government in the Third World the Experience of Tropical Africa*. John Wiley and Sons, New York.

- Megheirkouni, M., & Moir, J. (2023). Simple but Effective Criteria: Rethinking Excellent Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Report*, 28(3), 848–864. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2023.5845>. Accessed September 2024.
- Meredith, Z. N. (2017). *The data book: Collection and management of research data*. CRC Press. Taylor & Francis Group. 6000 Broken Sound Parkway NW.
- Modise, J. M. (2023). Community Policing is a Potential Strategy to Combat Crime: Community Police Forums Purpose is for the Monitoring of the Implementation of the Saps's Community Policing Strategy. *International Journal of Innovative Science and Research Technology*. 8(7), J2023.
- Moore, M. (1995). *Creating Public Value: Strategic Management in Government*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. New York.
- Moore, M.H. (1992). Problem-Solving and Community Policing. *Crime and Justice*. 15-20.
- Mottiar, S & F, White (2003). *Co-production as a form of service delivery: community policing in Alexandra Township, Research Report 101*, Centre for Policy Studies. Available from: <http://sds.ukzn.ac.za>. Accessed 20 September 2022.
- Mthombothi, S. I. (2023). The roles that the community can play to fight crime in their areas of residence. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Invention*. (IJHSSI) ISSN. 12(3), PP.2319-7714. www.ijhssi.org. Viewed in August, 2023.
- Mudalige, P.W. (2019). *The Discussion of Theory and Practice on Decentralization and Service Delivery*. <https://www.google.com/search?client=firefox-bd&q=the+discussion+of+theory+and+practice+on+decentralisation+and+service>

+ delivery. European Scientific Journal. Vol.15, No.14 ISSN: 1857 – 7881 (Print)
e - ISSN 1857- 7431. Viewed, October 15, 2024.

Mutharika, A. P. (2003). Accountability for Political Abuses in Pre-Democratic Malawi:
The Primacy of Truth. *third world legal studies*, 17.

Mutupha, J. & Zhu, Y. (2022). Community Policing in Malawi: Citizen Involvement, Satisfaction and
Challenges. *African and Asian Studies* 21(1-2):1-32.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/358004953_Community_Policing_in_Malawi_Citizen_Involvement_Satisfaction_and_Challenges. Accessed June 2022.

Nabatchi, T., Sancino, A. & Sicilia, M. (2017). Varieties of Participation in Public
Services: The Who, When, and What Co-Production. *Public Administration Review*, (77, 5), 766–776.

Nalla M, G. (2013). *Community policing in indigenous communities*. CRC Press pp:

Navarro, F. M. (2016). Citizens and Local Government Management Innovations.

*Implementation of the New Public Service (NPS) in Municipal Institute Family, San
Pedro Garza García, Nuevo León, México.*
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/309046061>. Viewed October 2024.

Nimmons, S. (2017). *Improving Community Safety and Security through Community
Policing. Strategic Thinking in a Complex World*. Nimmons Consulting, London.
Page 1 of 18. <https://www.nimmonsconsulting.com>.

Nguyen, H., Ahn, J., Belgrave, A., Lee, J., Cawelti, L., Kim, H. E., Prado, Y., Santagata,
R., & Villavicencio, A. (2021). Establishing Trustworthiness Through Algorithmic
Approaches to Qualitative Research. *Communications in Computer and
Information Science*, 1312, 47–61. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-67788-6_4.
Accessed September 2024.

- Ngwala, A. and Abebe, A. (2023). An Assessment of Community Policing Concept Value and Contribution to Safety and Security: A Case of Lilongwe District. *International Journal of Research Publication and Reviews*, 4(4), 1091-1099, April 2023. www.ijrpr.com. Accessed October 4, 2023.
- Nkwenyane, E.B. (2011). *Community Participation in the establishment of Community Policing Forum: A case study of Nelspruit police station, Mpumalanga Province*. <http://www.ul.netd.ac.za/bitstream/10386/499/1/EB%20Nkwenyane%20MPA%202011.pdf>. Accessed 28 November 2020.
- Nowell, L.S., Norris, M.J., White, D.E. & Moules, N.J. (2017). Thematic Analysis: Striving to Meet the Trustworthiness Criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods* 16, 1–13. <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/1609406917733847>. Accessed October, 2024.
- Nyondo, J. (2017). *Address to Chitsime and Kapiri Chiefs and Communities*. https://web.facebook.com/malawipolice/posts/commissioner-of-police-forcentral-region-interacts-with-kaphiri-chiefs-andbusi/653499751509655/?_rdc=1&_rdr. Accessed on September 12, 2023.
- Nyasatimes Online (2019). Police Designing Ways to Regain Lost Public Trust. Ziwadi Chilunga. <https://www.nyasatimes.com/police-devising-ways-to-regain-lostpublic-trust-mwapasa/>. Accessed, February 10, 2024.
- Obeagu, C.C. (2014). Community Policing in Nigeria: Issue and Challenges. *World Journal of Management and Behavioural Studies* 2 (3), 58-68. DOI:

- 10.5829/idosi.wjmbs.2014.2.3.1311. Enugu State University of Science and Technology, Agbani, Enugu, Nigeria.
- OECD. (2011). *Together for Better Public Services: Partnering with Citizens and Civil Society*, *OECD Public Governance Reviews*. OECD Publishing. Available at: <http://dx.doi.org>. Accessed August 4, 2020.
- OECD (2007). *OECD DAC Handbook on Security System Reform. Supporting Security and Justice*. www.oecd.org/dac/conflict/if-ssr.
- OECD. (2011). *Together for Better Public Services: Partnering with Citizens and Civil Society*, *OECD Public Governance Reviews*. OECD Publishing. available at: <http://dx.doi.org>. Accessed August 4, 2020.
- OSCE, (2008). *Good Practices in Building Police-Public Partnerships*. OSCE Secretariat. Wallnerstrasse 6, A-1010 Vienna, Austria. <http://www.osce.org/policing>. Accessed October 3, 2023.
- OSCE (2022). *Good Practices in Building Police–Public Partnerships*. SPMU Publication Series,
- OSCE, (2008). *Good Practices in Building Police-Public Partnerships*
- Olusegun, O.J. (2016). Community Policing in South-West Nigeria: Finding a Nexus between the Police and the People. *Journal of Education and Practice*.7(2),2023.
- Osborne, S.P. (2007). New Public Governance? *Public Management Review*. 8(3), 2006 377 – 387. DOI: 10.1080/1471903060085302.
- Ostrom, E. (1996). “Crossing the Great Divide: Co-production, Synergy, and Development,” *World Development* 24(6). 1073-87.

- Ostrom, E., R. Parks, G. Whitaker, & S. Percy. (1978). The Public Service Production Process: A Framework for Analyzing Police Services.” *Policy Studies Journal* 7 (S1): 381-381. doi: 10.1111/psj.1978.7.issues1.
- Osti, R. (2004). Forms of community participation and agencies’ role for the implementation of water induced disaster management: protecting and enhancing the poor. *Journal for Disaster Prevention and Management*. 13(11)6-12.
- Ozkan, M. (2016). Implementation Of New Public Service in Policing: *The Role of Citizen Police Academies. European Scientific Journal*. Vol.12, No.11. URL:<http://dx.doi.org/10.19044/esj.2016.v12n11p156>. Accessed October 2024.
- Parks, R. B., Baker, P., Kiser, L., Oakerson, R., Ostrom, E., Percy, V., Vandivort, M., Whitaker, G. & Wilson. R. (1981). Consumers as Coproducers of Public Services: Some Economic and Institutional Considerations. *Policy Studies Journal*, 9 (7), 2020.
- Paruliani, M. & Siyafri, W. (2023). Application of the New Public Service (NPS) Principles in Population Administration Service in Tangerang Regency. *Russian Law Journal*. XI, 13s.
- Pelser, E. (1999). *The Challenges of Community Policing in South Africa*. Institute for Security Studies.
- Percy, L.P. (1987). Citizen Involvement in Coproducing Safety and Security in the Community. *Public Productivity Review*, 10(4) (Summer, 1987), 83-93
- Pestoff, V. (2006). Citizens and co-production of welfare services: Childcare in eight European countries. *Public Management Review*, 8(4), 503-519.
- Pestoff, V. (2011). Co-production, New Public Governance and the Third Sector Social

- Services in Europe. *Ciencias Sociais Unisinos* 47 (1), 15-24.
- Portland State University. Criminology and Criminal Justice Senior Capstone, "Police Community Partnerships: A Review of the Literature" (2011). *Criminology and Criminal Justice Senior Capstone Project*. 7.
- Pino, N. W. (2001). Policing. *An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*. 24(2). 200-215.
- Rakgoadi, P.S. (1995). *Community Policing in Gauteng: Policy issues. Research report written for the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation. South Africa.*
- Ratcliffe, J. (2008). Intelligence-Led policing. Chapter 14 of *Environmental Criminology and Crime Analysis. Willan Publishing. International Criminal Justice Review*. 263-282.
- Ratcliffe, J.H; Taniguchi, T.; Groff, E. and Wood, J.D. (2011). The Philadelphia Foot Patrol Experiment: A Randomized Controlled Trial of Police Effectiveness in Violent Crime Hotspots. *American Society of Criminology*. 49(3), doi:10.1111/j.1745-9125.2011.00240.
- Renauer, B., Duffe, D. & Scott, J. (2000). Measuring police-community co-production Trade-offs in two observational approaches. *An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management* 26(1,), 9-28.
- Robinson, M. (2015). *From Old Public Administration to the New Public Service – Implications for Public Sector Reform in Developing Countries. Global Centre for Public Service Excellence. Block A 29 Heng Mui Keng Terrace Singapore.*
- Rondinelli, D.A., Nellis, J.R., & Cheema, G.S. (1983). *Decentralization in Developing Countries: A Review of Recent Experience. World Bank.*

- Rose, J., & Johnson, C. W. (2020). Contextualizing reliability and validity in qualitative research: toward more rigorous and trustworthy qualitative social science in leisure research. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 51(4), 432–451. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.2020.1722042>. Accessed, September 2024.
- Rosenbaum, D. P. 1988. Community crime prevention: A review and synthesis of the Literature. *Justice Quarterly*, 5 (3).323-395.
- Russell, G. D., & MacLachlan, S. (2012). Community Policing, Decentralised Decision Making and Employee Satisfaction. *Journal of Crime and Justice*, 22(2), 31–54. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0735648X.1999.9721094>. Accessed October, 2024.
- Sabet, D. (2014). *Co-Production and Oversight: Citizens and Their Police*. Woodrow Wilson Center for International Scholars, Mexico Institute. Woodrow Wilson Centre.
- Saldaña, J. (2016). *The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers*. SAGE Publications.
- SEESAC, (2006). *Philosophy and principles of community-based policing*.
- Sherman, L. (2016). *Policing for Crime Prevention*. Sage.
- Sicilia, M., Guarini, E., Sancino. A., Cattaneo, M. & Cattaneo, R. (2016). Public services management and co-production in multi-level governance settings. *International Review of Administrative Sciences* 82(1), 8–27.
- Sikwese, L.P. (2013). *Public Sector Reforms in Malawi: How to Support Successful Implementation of the Economic Recovery Plan*. Paper presented at the Annual Economic Conference. 5th to 7th September, Nkopola Lodge, Mangochi. https://assets.websitefiles.com/5be8fc6d1307941d41051ae1/5be8fc6d13079409f0051baf_Mr%20Sikwese%20ECAMA%20PPT%20FINAL.pdf. Accessed January 10, 2010.

- Siro, A. (2016). Community Policing in Urban Kano, Nigeria: Reasons behind its failure. *Greener Journal of World Peace, Security and Development*. 2354-2365 2 (1), 001-011. <file:///C:/Users/LENOVO/Downloads/102816180%20Siro.pdf>. Accessed, December 13, 2023.
- Silvestre, H.C., Catarino, J.R., & de Araújo, E.J. F. (2016). Evidence of co-production in Public service provision. The case of the administrative arbitration Centre in Portugal. *Revista de Administração* 51 (2016) 355–365.
- Sparrow, M. K., Moore, M. & Kennedy, D. (1990). *Beyond 911: A New Era for Policing*. Oxford. New York.
- Sabet, D. (2014). *Co-Production and Oversight: Citizens and Their Police*. Woodrow Wilson Center for International Scholars, Mexico Institute. Woodrow Wilson Centre.
- Skogan, W. G. (2019). *Advocate: Community policing*. In: Weisburd D, Braga A.A (eds) *Police Innovation: Contrasting Perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Smith, A. (2015). *Crime and Victimization Survey Final Report. Malawi Policing Improvement Programme*. Adam Smith International. London.
- Sonderling, N. E. (2003). *Scoping and developing the potential for SAPS online service delivery*. Unpublished dissertation submitted to the Department of Information Science, University of Pretoria.
- Soratto, J., D.E.P. Pires, D.E.P & Friese, S. (2020). *Thematic content analysis using ATLAS. ti software: Potentialities for research in health*. *Revista brasileira de enfermagem*.
- Sparrow, Malcolm K., Moore, M. & Kennedy, D. (1990). *Beyond 911: A New Era for Policing*. Oxford. New York.
- Spichtinger, D., Siren, J. (2018). *Research Data Management – A European Perspective*.

- Filip Kruse, Jesper Boserup Thestrup (Eds.). *The Development of Research Data Management Policies in Horizon 2020* (p. 13). Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110365634>.
- Stahl, N.A. & King, J.R. (2020). Expanding Approaches for Research: Understanding and Using Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research. *Journal of Development Education*. 44 (1). <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1320570.pdf>. Accessed October, 2024.
- Steneck, (2004). *NH. ORI: Introduction to the Responsible Conduct of Research: US Department of Health and Human Services*. Washington, DC.
- Stamper, N. (2006). *Policing is Everybody's Business*. Winnipeg Free Press (MB), 13. (Newspaper, 07th April).
- Strom, K. (2017). *Research on the Impact of Technology on Policing Strategy in the 21st Century*. Office of Justice Programs (.gov). <https://www.ojp.gov>. Accessed November 1, 2023. Accessed October 3, 2023.
- Szescilo, Dawid (2017). Citizen's Co-Production of Public Safety as a Symptom of State Failure: The Case of South African Vigilantism. *Journal of Comparative Urban Law and Policy*. 1(1), Article 11. Available at: <https://readingroom.law.gsu.edu/jculp/vol1/iss1/11>.
- Theron, F., Ceaser, N. & David, I. (2007). *Participation according to IAP2 principles: Opportunity or challenge for integrated Development Planning in South Africa*. 1-20.
- Tobin, G. A., and Begley, C. M. (2004). Methodological rigour within a qualitative framework. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 48, 388–396. DOI: [10.1111/j.13652648.2004.03207.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.13652648.2004.03207.x).
- Trajanowicz, R., Kappeler, V.E, Gaines, L.K, & Bucqueroux, B. (1998). *Community*

- Policing: A Contemporary Perspective*, (2nd ed.). Anderson Publishing Co.
- Trojanowicz, R. & Bucqueroux, B. (1998). *Community policing: how to get started*, (2nd ed.), Cincinnati: Alderson publishing co.
- Trimurni, F. (2017). *Deconcentration Practice and Disintegration Threats in ACEH and North Sumatra. Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research (ASSEHR)*, 141. <https://www.atlantis-press.com/proceedings/icoposdev17/25889814>. Viewed October 18, 2024.
- Trone, J., Miller, J., & Thornton, M. (2005). *Supporting Security, Justice, and Development: Lessons for a New Era*. Sage.
- Tuffin, R., Morris, J., & Poole, A. (2016). *An evaluation of the National Reassurance Policing Programme. Home Office*. Sage.
- Lon-don Szescilo, D. (2017). Citizen's Co-Production of Public Safety as a Symptom of State Failure: The Case of South African Vigilantism. *Journal of Comparative Urban Law and Policy*: 1(1), Article 11. Available at: <https://readingroom.law.gsu.edu/jculp/vol1/iss1/11>. Accessed on 17th July 2020.
- UD Department of Justice (1994). *Understanding Community Policing: A framework for Action*.
- Uhnöo, S. & Löfstrand, C.H. (2018) Voluntary policing in Sweden: media reports of contemporary forms of police–citizen partnerships. *Journal of Scandinavian Studies in criminology and crime Prevention*, 18(1), 41–60 <https://doi.org/10.1080/14043858.2018.1439635>.
- United Nations Volunteers (2015). *State of the world's volunteerism report: Transforming Governance*.

- USAID. (2020). *The Effectiveness of Police Accountability Mechanisms and Programs: What works and The Way Ahead*. 1300 Pennsylvania Avenue, NW Washington, D.C. 20523 www.usaid.gov.
- US Bureau of Justice Assistance (1994). *Understanding Community Policing: A Framework for Action*. Bureau of Justice Assistance. 633 Indiana Ave. NW. Washington, DC 20531 202–514–6278.
- Van Eijk, C. (2017). Helping Dutch Neighborhood Watch Schemes to Survive the Rainy Season: Studying Mutual Perceptions on Citizens’ and Professionals’ Engagement in the Co-Production of Community Safety. *International Society for Third Sector Research*. *Voluntas* 29,222–236.
- Van Eijk, C., & Steen, T. (2014). Why People Co-Produce: Analysing citizens' perceptions on co-planning engagement in health care services. *Public Management Review*, 16(3), 358-382. doi:10.1080/14719037.2013.841458.
- Van Graan, J. (2005). *Obstacles impeding the transformation process in South Africa*. UNISA.
- Waddell, K. (2016). The Police Officer “nextdoor.” <https://www.theatlantic.com/technology/archive/2016/05/nextdoor-socialnetwork-police-seattle/481164>. Accessed, December 13, 2023.
- Western Cape Government Community Safety (2011). *Report on the functionality of CPF in Western Cape Province*.
- Weisburd, D., & Braga, A.A. (2006). *Police innovation: Contrasting perspective*. Cambridge, UK. Cambridge University Press.
- Wolf, R. & Jones, C.B. (2018). *Volunteer Police, Choosing to Serve: Exploring*,

Comparing, and Assessing Volunteer Policing in the United States and the United Kingdom.
Routledge 711 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017.

Yasin, I. (2022). Community Participation in Local Governance in Malawi: A Case of The Blantyre District. *International Research Journal of Modernization in Engineering Technology and Science*. 04(05), -2022.

Yero, A., Othman, J., Samah, B.A., Jeffrey, L., D'Silva, L.D., & Sulaiman, A.H. (2012). Re-visiting concept and theories of community policing. *International Journal of Academic Research*, 4 (4), 51-55.

Yesberg, J.; Smith I.B; & Bradford, B. (2023). Police visibility, trust in police fairness, and collective efficacy: A multilevel Structural Equation Model. *European Journal of Criminology*. 20(2),712-737.

Zikhali, W. (2019). Community policing and crime prevention: Evaluating the role of traditional leaders under Chief Madliwa in Nkayi District, Zimbabwe. *International Journal for Crime, Justice and Social Democracy* 8(4), 109-122.

<https://doi.org/10.5204/ijcjsd.v8i4.1179>. Accessed November 20,

ANNEXES

Annex I: Data Collection Tool for KII, English.

Annex II: Data Collection Toll for KII, Chichewa.

Annex III: Informed Consent Form, English.

Annex IV: Informed Consent Form, Chichewa.

Annex V: UNIMAREC Approval Certificate.

Annex I: Data Collection Tool (English)



Co-production and Public Value: A Case Study of Community Policing in Lilongwe

Doctor of Philosophy in Public Administration

Mlowoka Noel Frank Kayira PhD/PAM/05/19

Administered to purposively selected Serving and Retired Police Officers, Members of Community Policing Forums, Members of Neighbourhood Watch Groups Members of the Community, and Focus Groups.

SUPERVISOR:

Prof. Happy Kayuni:

0882436251

UNIMAREC CHAIRPERSON:

Prof. Alister Munthali:

December 9, 2021

Key Informant Interview Guide

Introduction

Good morning. My name is Mlowoka Noel Frank Kayira. I am a PhD student with the University of Malawi, Chancellor College. I am studying the views and perceptions on public value benefits, opportunities and challenges of community policing as a form of coproducing public safety and security services in urban and rural Lilongwe district. Target population in this study include serving and retired police officers of different ranks and positions, members of community police forums, members of neighbourhood watch groups and members of the community who benefit from community policing. Though I am a police officer, in this interview, I do not represent the government or the Malawi Police Service. Your answers will be confidential. They will be put together with responses from other people who we are talking to, to get an overall picture of people's views and perceptions about public value benefits created by community policing as a form of coproduction in Lilongwe. You have been selected using purposive snow-bowling sampling technique. The interview will take about 1 hour. It is not compulsory. Are you ready and willing to participate? Please indicate to me the language you would prefer to use during the interview.

The Interview.

Facts about the Respondent

Number of respondents: -----

Retired/Serving Police Officer/OTHERS SPECIFY: -----

Rank: Present or at Retirement: -----

Position: Current or at Retirement: -----

Branch: Current or at Retirement: -----

Overall Objective of the study

The overall objective of this study is to understand views and perceptions on public value benefits, the opportunities and challenges of community policing as a form of co-producing public safety and security services in Lilongwe.

Part A: General Questions

1. How long have you worked in the Malawi Police Service? (police only).
2. Which branch do you work with? (police only).
3. What is your current position and rank? (police only).
4. How long have you worked in your current branch? (police only).
5. What are your roles in that position?
6. Which area do you come from, Lilongwe urban or rural?

Part B: Safety and Security Situation in Lilongwe

1. In general, how would you describe the present security situation in Lilongwe?
 - a. Very Satisfactory
 - b. Satisfactory
 - c. Average
 - d. Below average
 - e. Poor.
2. How would you describe your own present personal security situation?
 - a. Very Satisfactory
 - b. Satisfactory
 - c. Average
 - d. Below average
 - e. Poor.
3. Looking at current security situation compared to last 2 years, how do rate it?
 - a. Very Satisfactory
 - b. Satisfactory
 - c. Average
 - d. Below average
 - e. Poor.
4. What do you think is the reason for your rating in 3 above?

Part C: Knowledge and Understanding of Community Policing

1. In your own words, describe community policing?
2. In your opinion, and in order of significance, mention any three key functions of community policing?

3. In your opinion, mention in order of significance any three key initiatives through which community policing is implemented? **Part D: Benefits of Community Policing**

1. In your opinion, do you think the key objectives of community policing have been achieved in the past 20 years?
2. In order of significance, where 1 is the most significant and 5 the least significant, what do you think is it that community policing has achieved in the past 20 years?
3. In your opinion, do you think community policing is beneficial to the police?
4. If yes, describe in order of significance using the rating scale of 1-5, where 1 is the highest beneficial and 5 the least beneficial, what are the benefits of community policing to the police? (*Rating scales of “very satisfied, satisfied, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, dissatisfied and very dissatisfied; strongly agree, agree, neither agree or disagree, disagree and strongly disagree; extremely large extent, large extent, moderate extent, small extent and extremely small extent and other ratings on the same scale were used in follow up questions”*).
5. In order of significance, where 1 represents the most significant and 5 the least significant, which areas would like community policing to focus on? **Part E: Police working in collaboration with the community**

1. How do you describe the relation between the police and the community police in your area?
 - a. Very Satisfactory
 - b. Satisfactory
 - c. Average
 - d. Below average
 - e. Poor.
2. How friendly is the police to the community?
 - a. Very friendly
 - b. Friendly
 - c. Average
 - d. Poor
 - e. Very poor.

3. What do you think is the reason for your answer above?
4. How friendly are the people in your community to the police? (use rating 1-5)
5. Give reasons for your answers above.
6. In the past 6 months how often did the police patrol local areas?
7. Do you think the level of police deployment is satisfactory in your area? Give your answer by rating in the scale of 1 to 5 where 1 is very satisfactory, 2 is satisfactory, 3 is average, 4 is not satisfactory and 5 poor.
8. Do you think people in your community trust the police, rate your answer as follows:
 - a. Strongly trust
 - b. Trust
 - c. Average
 - d. Not trust
 - e. Strongly not trust.
9. What is the reason for your answer in above?
10. Do you think that it is important for the police to continue working with the community?
11. Give reasons for your response.
12. From your personal experience, list in order of significance the areas that you think community policing has been beneficial in your society.
13. In the past 6 months, how often did the police conduct joint patrols with community policing members?
14. Do the police join community police and neighbourhood watch groups during patrols, use rating of 1-5 to describe your level of satisfaction or dissatisfaction as follows:
 - a. Very Satisfied
 - b. Satisfied
 - c. Average
 - d. Dissatisfied
 - e. Very dissatisfied.

15. In your opinion, do you think it is a good idea for the police to conduct joint patrols with members of the community, use a rating scale of 1-5 as follows:
 - a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Average
 - d. Don't agree
 - e. Strongly don't agree.
16. Between the police and community police groups or neighbourhood watch groups, who provides most rapid response during call of distress?
17. What do you is the reason for your answer above?
18. Do citizens pay or contribute money towards security of their areas?
19. Do you think it is alright for citizens to pay or contribute money towards security, use the rating scale of 1-5 for your response as follows:
 - a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Average
 - d. Don't agree
 - e. Strongly don't agree.

Part F: Challenges and Opportunities of Community Policing

1. From your personal experience, are there any challenges that the police face when working with the community police groups and the community in general?
2. If the answer to the above question is in affirmative, what are some of the challenges that the police face when working in collaboration with community groups? (*Rating scales of "very satisfied, satisfied, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, dissatisfied and very dissatisfied; strongly agree, agree, neither agree or disagree, disagree and strongly disagree; extremely large extent, large extent, moderate extent, small extent and extremely small extent and other ratings on the same scale were used in follow up questions"*).
3. What do you think are the reasons behind these challenges?
4. Do you trust community police groups when doing your work as a police officer?
 - a. Strongly trust

- b. Just trust
 - c. Average
 - d. Don't trust
 - e. Strongly don't trust.
5. In your opinion what are the most important areas that community policing should focus on?
 6. Given an opportunity, which areas of police-community collaboration would change?
 7. In your opinion, are there any areas that you feel either the police or the community is not fully utilizing to increase the benefits of police community collaboration?
 8. Do you have any other comments on the interview?
 9. In your opinion, are there any areas that you think either the police or the community is utilizing to increase the benefits of community police?

Co-production and Public Value: A Case Study of Community Policing in Lilongwe Data collection Tool: Observation

Observations will be conducted by the researcher to confirm and compare information given during in-depth interviews and focus group discussions with what exactly what is obtaining on the ground in terms of police and community's view and perceptions on what is encapsulated in public value benefits. The researcher will join community police gatherings and meetings such as Regional Executive Committee (REC) meeting, Station Executive (SEC) meeting and Community Police Forum (CPF) meetings to collect and document first-hand information on what is it that is regarded public value benefit of community policing to these various groups of people. The researcher will also spend time patrolling together with community police forum members, members of neighbourhood watch groups and police officers as they execute their duties as to see how the police and community collaborate in the delivery of safety and security services. The researcher will then record and semblances and differences in what was given during the interviews and what really is observed on the ground. Data collected during observations will help to triangulate with information gathered during the data collection process.

Annex II: Data Collection Tool, Chichewa.

MAFUNSO AM'CHICHEWA

**(Co-production and Public Value: A Case Study of Community Policing in
Lilongwe)**

KUTENGAPO GAWO POGWIRA NTCHITO KUTI TONSE TIPINDULE:

**TIUNIKA NTCHITO YACHITETEO CHAM'MADERA NGATI KUGWILIRA NTCHITO
LIMODZI PAKATI PA APOLISI NDI ANTHU
AKUMUDZI/M'MADELA KUMAPINDULITSA.**

**CHIDA CHOSONKHANITSIRA MAGANIZO AWANTHU OMWE
AKUTENGAPO MBALI.**

**MAFUNSO KWA A APOLISI, ACHITETEO CHAM'MADERA, ANTHU
WAMBA KOMANSO MAFUNSO A PA GULU.**

CHIYAMBI

Poyamba ndipereka moni. Ine dzina langa ndine Mlowoka Noel Frank Kayira. Pakali pano ndikuchita maphunziro a Ukadaulo (PhD/Doctoral of Philosophy) ku sukulu ya zaukachenjede ya Chancellor ku Zomba. Ndikuchita kafukufuku wofuna kudziwa maganizo ndi malingaliro awanthu pa phindu, ubwino komanso mavuto omwe anthu amakumana nawo komanso kuwaona pamene iwo akutengapo gawo pogwira ntchito zomwe zimapindulira anthu. Pofuna kupeza maganizowa, tidzaunika ngati kugwilira limodzi ntchito zachitetezo chammadera pakati pa apolisi ndi anthu akumudzi kuli ndi phindu mumzinda wa Lilongwe ndi madera akumidzi m'boma la Lilongwe. Chachikulu ndikufuna nditadziwa phindu lomwe anthu akulipeza kuchokera mu dongosololi. Ndikufunanso nditadziwa mavuto ndi ubwino omwe magulu omwe amagwira ntchito yachitetezo mothandiza a police amakumana nawo.

Pochita kafukufukayu ndidzacheza ndi apolisi omwe adapuma ntchito komanso omwe akugwira ntchito pakali pano omwe ali mm'audindo osiyanasiyana. Ndichezanso ndi anthu ogwira ntchito zachitetezo m'madela amtown komanso amumadera akumidzi, komanso anthu wamba omwe ntchito zachitetezo zimawapindulira.

Ngakhale ine pakali pano ndimagwira ntchito ya upolisi, mukafukufukuyu sindikuimira Boma kapenanso nthambi ya Polisi ayi. Choncho ndikupemphani kuti mumasuke. Chilichonse munganene mokhudzana ndi kafukufukuyu chidzakhala chachinsisi. Mayankho anu adzaphatikizidwa ndimayankho a anthu enanso amene tikulankhulanso nawo makamaka pofuna kuti tidziwe kuti maganizo awanthu achuluka ndiotani pankhani yakuti kodi phindu lakugwilira limodzi ntchito yachitetezo ndilotani m'boma la Lilongwe?

Inuyo mwasankhidwa kutenga nawo gawo mukafukufukuyu poyang'ana gawo lomwe mumatengatepo pokhudzana ndi ntchito yachitetezo chammadera. Kucheza kwathu kutenga pafupifupi ola limodzi. Simuli okakamizidwa kuchita nawo kafukufukuyi. Kodi muli okonzeka kutenga nawo mbali? Ngati ndinu okonzeka, chonde tandiuzeni chilankhulo chomwe mungamasuke kulankhula nane.

Chingerezi:.....

Chichewa:.....

MAFUNSO (INTERVIEW) ZOKHUDZANA NDI OYANKHA MAFUNSO

Nambala ya Oyankha mafunso: ----- Zaka:

Dzina la oyankha mafunso: -----

Udindo: -----

CHOLINGA CHACHIKULU CHAKAFUKUFU UYU

Cholinga chachikulu chakafukufuku uyu ndikufuna kudziwa maganizo ndi malingaliro awanthu pa phindu, ubwino komanso mavuto omwe anthu amakumana nawo komanso kuwaona pamene iwo akutengapo gawo pogwira ntchito zomwe zimapindulira anthu. Pofuna kupeza maganizowa, tidzaunika ngati kugwilira limodzi ntchito zachitetezo chammadera pakati pa apolisi ndi anthu am'madera kuli ndi phindu mumzinda wa Lilongwe ndi madera akumidzi m'boma la Lilongwe.

Gawo Loyamba: Mafunso okhudza mbali zina ndi zina

- 1) Kodi mwagwira ntchito yachitetezo kwa nthawi yotalika bwanji?
- 2) Pakali pano muli ndi udindo wanji kuntchito imeneyi?
- 3) Ntchito zanu ndizotani pa udindo umene muli nawo?
- 4) Kodi pogwira ntchito yachitetezo cham'maderayi, mumagwira mongodzipereka, mwaulere?
- 5) Mumachokera mdera la mtawuni kapena kumidzi?

Gawo LaChiwiri: M'mene Nkhani Yachitetezo Ikuonekera M'boma la Lilongwe

- 1) Kodi munganene kuti pakali pano, nkhani yachitetezo ili bwanji m'boma la Lilongwe, makamaka kudera lakwanu?
- 2) Mungalongosolepo bwanji pa nkhani yachitetezo chanu inuyo ngati munthu panokha?
- 3) Potengera ndi momwe nkhani ya chitetezo ilili pakali pano, mungasiyanitse bwanji poyerekeza ndi zaka ziwiri zapitazo?
 - a. Ndikukhutira nazo kwambiri/chili bwino kwambiri
 - b. Chitetezo chili pakatikati/ziliko bwino
 - c. Chitetezo ndiye chatsika kwambiri
 - d. Palibepo chabwino/palibe chitetezo.

- 4) Mukuganiza kuti nchifukwa chiyani ntchito zachitetezo zili monga mwayankhira mu funso lapamwambapa?

Gawo LaChitatu: Kumvetsa Kwanu tikamakamba za Ntchito zaChitetezo chaM'madera

- 1) M'mene inuyo mukudziwira, fotokozani, kodi chitetezo cham'madera nde kuti chiyani?
- 2) Mkuganiza kwanu, fotokozani ntchito zitatu zofunika kwambiri za chitetezo cham'madera m'mndandanda wakufunikira kwa ntchito zommwe mwalemba?
- 3) M'maganizo anu, komanso motsatira ndondomeko yakufunikira kwake, fotokozani njira njira zitatu momwe ntchito zachitetezo cham'madera chimagwiridwira mdera lanu?
- 4) Munapangapo maphunziro alionse ankhami zachitetezo cham'madera?

Gawo LaChinayi: Ubwino wa Ntchito za Chitetezo Cham'madera

- 1) Inuyo mukuona kwanu, mukuganiza kuti mu zaka 20 zapitazi, zolinga za ntchito yachitetezo cham'madera zikukwaniritsidwa?
- 2) Mukuganiza kuti ndi chiyani chomwe ntchito yachitetezo cham'madera yakwaniritsa mzaka 20 zapitazo? Lembani zomwe ntchitoyi yakwaniritsa polemba chomwe chili chofunikira kwambiri pa nambala 1, ndipo chomwe chili chosafunikira kwambiri pa nambala 5.
- 3) Mkuona kwanu, mukuganiza kuti ntchito yachitetezo cham'madera ndiyotheandiza kuntchito ya polisi/chitetezo?
- 4) Ngati yankho lanu pafunso lapamwambali ndi 'inde', ndi mbali ziti kapena kuti ndi zinthu ziti zomwe inu mukuona kuti ndi phindu la chitetezo cham'madera kwa a polisi. Lembani njira zomwe phinduli mumalionera poyika chomwe chili phindu kwambiri pa nambala 1 ndipo chomwe chili phindu pang'ono kwambiri pa nambala 5.
- 5) Potengera kufunikira kwake, pomwe nambala 1 ikuyimira chofunikira kwambiri ndipo 5 chosafunikira kwambiri, mukuganiza kuti ndi zinthu zomwe anthu ogwira ntchito zachitetezo cham'madera akuyenera kuikapo chidwi/mtima kwambiri.

Gawo LaChisanu: Kagwiridwe Ntchito ka a Polisi Mogwirizana ndi Achitetezo Cham'madera

- 1) Mungaulongosole bwanji ubale omwe ulipo pakati pa a polisi ndi ogwira ntchito zachitetezo cham'madera a m'dera lanu?
- 2) Kodi a polisi amakhala kapena kuchezeke bwanji ndi anthu a m'dera lanu? 3) Nchifukwa chiyani mwayankha motero pa mwambapa?
- 4) Kodi ubale kapena kuti kuchezeke kwaanthu a m'dera lanu uli motani ndi a polisi?
- 5) Nchifukwa ninji mwayankha motero pamwambapa?
- 6) Kodi mu miyezi isanu ndi umodzi yapitayi, a polisi azungulirapo kangati mudera lanu kusungitsa chitetezo?
- 7) Mukuganiza kuti anthu ndiokhutira ndi momwe a polisi amazungulirazungulira kudera lanu kuno? Yankhani funsoli potsatila mndandanda uwu:
 - a. Anthu ndiokhutira kwambiri
 - b. Anthu ndiokhutira
 - c. Anthu siokhutira
 - d. Palibiretu kukhutira kulikonse.
- 8) Kodi mukuganiza kuti anthu a m'dera lanu ali ndi chikhulupiro mwa apolisi?
- 9) Nchifukwa chiyani mwayankha choncho pamwambapa?
- 10) Kodi mukuona kuti ndikofunika/koyenera kuti a polisi apitilize kugwira ntchito yachitetezo ndi anthu a m'madera?
- 11) Perekani zifukwa molingana ndi yankho lanu pamwambapa.
- 12) Potengera zomwe inu mukudziwa komanso mwakhala mukuona, lembani motsatira ndondomeko yachomwe chili chofunika kwambiri mbali zomwe mukuona kuti chitetezo cham'madera ndichofunikira m'dera lanu.
- 13) Mu miyezi isanu ndi umodzi (6) yapitayi, kodi ndikangati komwe a polisi akhala akubwera kudzayendera limodzi ndi anthu achitetezo cham'madera pogwira ntchito zachitetezo mdera lanu lino?
- 14) Kodi mumawaona apolisi akuyendera limodzi ndi magulu achitetezo pokhazikitsa chitetezo kudera lanu kuno?
- 15) Mukuganiza kwanu, kodi mukuona kuti ndibwino kuti apolisi aziyendera limodzi ndi achitetezo chammadera pokhazikitsa chitetezo?

- 16) Kodi pakati pa achitetezo chammadera ndi apolisi, ndindani amene amachita machawi kufika pamalo pomwe munthu waitana kuti ali pamavuto?
- 17) Nchifukwa chani mwayankha motero pamwambapa?
- 18) Kodi anthu wamba amasonkha ndalama iliyonse yokhudza chitetezo mdera lanu lino?
- 19) Mukuona kuti ndikoyenera kuti anthu wamba azisonkha ndalama zachitetezo mdera lanu lino?
- 20) Kodi ubale wanu pakagwiridwe ntchito ndi apolisi mungawulongosole kuti ndiotani?
- 21) Kodi mumalandira thandizo lina lililonse kuchokera kwa apolisi mukamagwira ntchito zanu zachitetezo?
- 22) Ngati lilipo, ndithandizo lanji?
- 23) Mumiyezi khumi ndi iwiri yapitayi, munayamba mwapempha thandizo lililonse kuchokera kwa apolisi?
- 24) Ngati munapemphapo, munapempha thandizo lanji?
- 25) Kodi thandizolo mungalilongosole kuti linali labwino motani?
- 26) Kodi kunali kovuta kapena kosavuta bwanji kuti mupeze thandizolo?
- 27) Kuchokera pomwe ntchito zachitetezo chammadera zinayamba mdziko muno, kupambana kwake munganene kuti nkotani?
- a. Ndiyopambana kwambiri.
 - b. Nzopambana
 - c. Sikuti zapindulitsa kwenikweni.
 - d. Nzosapindulitsa.
- 28) Kodi ndinu okhutira motani ndimomwe ntchito yachitetezo cham'madera ikuyendera mdera lanu?
- a. Okhutira kwambiri.
 - b. Okhutira.
 - c. Chomcho.
 - d. Osakhutira olo.
- 29) Perekani zifukwa zomwe mwayankhira chomwecho pamwambapa.

**GAWO La Chisanu ndi Chimodzi:
CHAM'MADERA**

ZOVUTA NDI MWAWI/UBWINO WA CHITETEZO

- 1) Kudzera mukugwira ntchito ya chitetezo, kodi pali mavuto ena alionse omwe apolisi amakumana nawo akamagwira ntchito yawo ndi achitetezo am'madera komanso anthu wamba?
- 2) Ngati yankho lanu pafunso lapamwambali ndi inde, tchulani ena mwa mavuto omwe apolisi amakumana nawo amakamagwira ntchito limodzi ndi magulu achitetezo?
- 3) Mukuganiza kuti ndi chiyani chomwe chimadzetsa mavuto amenewa??
- 4) Kodi mumawakhulupilira apolisi mukamagwira ntchito yachitetezo cham'madera?
- 5) Pakuona kwanu, kodi ndimbali ziti kapena kuti magawo ati ofunika kwambiri amene ntchito yachitetezo cham'madera ikuyenera kuikapo mtima kwambiri?
- 6) Patapezeka mwawi oti musinthe zina ndi zina zakagwiridwe ntchito pakati pa chitetezo chammadera ndi apolisi, ndi magawo ati okhuza ntchito zachitetezo cham'madera omwe mukonde atasinthidwa?
- 7) Mmaganizo anu, ndi magawo ati kapena kuti mbali ziti zomwe zili zofunika kwambiri kuti ntchito zachitetezo cham'madera chiziikapo chidwi kwambiri kuposa magawo ena?
- 8) Mukuona kwanu, kodi mukuganiza kuti pali magawo ena omwe apolisi kapenanso ogwira ntchito zachitetezo a'madera sakuwagwiritsa ntchito moyenera kuti phindu la ntchito yachitetezo chamm'adera ioneke yaphindu kwambiri?
- 9) Kodi pa zonse takambirana pano, muli ndi ndemanga yoonjezera?

Co-production and Public Value: A Case Study of Community Policing in Lilongwe
KUTENGAPO GAWO POGWIRA NTCHITO KUTI TONSE TIPINDULE:
TIUNIKA NTCHITO YACHITETEO CHAM'MADERA NGATI KUGWILIRA NTCHITO
LIMODZI PAKATI PA APOLISI NDI ANTHU
AKUMUDZI/M'MADELA KUMAPINDULITSA.

CHIDA CHOSONKHANITSIRA MAGANIZO AWANTHU OMWE
AKUTENGAPO MBALI

KUTOLERA NKHANI PONGOYAN'GANA ZOMWE ZIKUCHITIKA (F)

Mkulu amene akuchita kafukufukuyu adzakhala akuyendayenda ndikumaona zomwe anthu ogwira ntchito zachitetezo amachita akamagwira ntchito yawo. Zonse zomwe zizatoleredwe zizafanizidwa ndi zomwe zatoleredwa kudzera ku mafunso ozama omwe afunsidwa kale kwa anthu ena, komanso m'magulu a anthu. Izi zizachitika pofuna kudziwa modzionera yekha maganizo awanthu pankhani zachitetezo cham'madera ndizomwe ndikufananiza ndizomwe apereka mumayankho kuti tidziwe phindu lenileni lachitetezo cham'madera.

Mkulu ochita kafukufukuyu adzakhala akuyenda limodzi, kupanga misonkhano limodzi monga msonkhano waukulu wamzigawo, msonkhano waukulu wapaboma, komanso msonkhano wam'madera akumidzi ndicholinga chotolera zoona zenizeni pazomwe zimatchedwa phindu lachitetezo cham'madera kumagulu osiyanasiyana awanthu. Mkulu ochita kafukufukuyu adzakhala ndi nthawi yokwanira kuyenda limodzi ndi achitetezo chammdera pokhazikitsa chitetezo. Mkulu ochita kafukufukuyu, adzajambula zonse ndikuzifanizira komanso kuzisiyanitsa ndizomwe anthu anapereka munjira zina zotolera nkhani. Nkhani zomwe zatoleredwa zizathandizira kuti zonse zakafukufukuyu zikhale zodalirika.

**Annex III: Informed Consent INFORMED CONSENT Co-production
and Public Value: A Case Study of Community Policing in Lilongwe Data
collection Tool A: Key Informant Interview Guide Purposively snow-bowled
selected Participant Introduction**

Good morning. My name is Mlowoka Noel Frank Kayira. I am a PhD student with the University of Malawi, Chancellor College. I am studying the views and perceptions on public value benefits, opportunities and challenges of community policing as a form of coproducing public safety and security services in urban and rural Lilongwe district. Target population in this study include serving and retired police officers of different ranks and positions, members of community police forums, members of neighbourhood watch groups and members of the community who benefit from community policing. Though I am a police officer, in this interview, I do not represent the government or the Malawi Police Service. Your answers will be confidential. They will be put together with responses from other people who we are talking to, to get an overall picture of people's views and perceptions about public value benefits created by community policing as a form of coproduction in Lilongwe. You have been selected using purposive snow-bowling sampling technique. The interview will take about 1 hour. It is not compulsory. Are you ready and willing to participate? Please indicate to me the language you would prefer to use during the interview.

English:

Chichewa:

Facts about the Respondent

Number of respondent: -----

Retired/Serving Police Officer: -----

Rank: Present or at Retirement: -----

Position: Current or at Retirement: -----

Branch: Current or at Retirement: -----

Facts about the Respondent

Number of respondent: -----

Age: -----

Name of Community Police Group/Forum-----

Position: -----

CONSENT BY RESPONDENT

I have read and understood the provided information and had an opportunity to seek clarification and ask questions. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the interview at any time without giving any reason and without cost. I understand that my participation will not be compensated and that my responses will be confidential. I understand that I will be given a copy of this consent form.

I voluntarily agree to participate in this research program:

Yes:

No:

Name of Participant:.....

Signature:.....

Name of Witness:.....

Signature:.....

Person Obtaining Consent:.....

Signature:.....

Note: A copy of the signed, dated consent form will be kept by the Principal Investigator and a copy will be given to the participant.

Annex IV: Informed Consent Form, Chichewa.

CHICHEWA

CHIVOMEREZO KUTI MUTENGA NAWO MBALI MU KAFUKUFUKU

KUTENGAPO GAWO POGWIRA NTCHITO KUTI TONSE TIPINDULE:

**TIUNIKA NTCHITO YACHITETEO CHAM'MADERA NGATI KUGWILIRA NTCHITO
LIMODZI PAKATI PA APOLISI NDI ANTHU**

AKUMUDZI/M'MADELA KUMAPINDULITSA.

CHIDA CHOSONKHANITSIRA MAGANIZO AWANTHU OMWE

AKUTENGAPO MBALI.

CHIYAMBI

Poyamba ndipereka moni. Ine dzina langa ndine Mlowoka Noel Frank Kayira. Pakali pano ndikuchita maphunziro a Ukadaulo (PhD/Doctoral of Philosophy) ku sukulu ya zaukachenjede ya Chancellor ku Zomba. Ndikuchita kafukufuku wofuna kudziwa maganizo ndi malingaliro awanthu pa phindu, ubwino komanso mavuto omwe anthu amakumana nawo komanso kuwaona pamene iwo akutengapo gawo pogwira ntchito zomwe zimapindulira anthu. Pofuna kupeza maganizowa, tidzaunika ngati kugwilira limodzi ntchito zachitetezo chammadera pakati pa apolisi ndi anthu akumudzi kuli ndi phindu mumzinda wa Lilongwe ndi madera akumidzi m'boma la Lilongwe. Chachikulu ndikufuna nditadziwa phindu lomwe anthu akulipeza kuchokera mu dongosololi. Ndikufunanso nditanziwa mavuto ndi mavuto ndi ubwino omwe magulu omwe amagwira ntchito yachitetezo mothandiza a police amakumana nawo.

Pochita kafukufukayu ndidzacheza ndi apolisi omwe adapuma ntchito komanso omwe akugwira ntchito pakali pano omwe ali mm'audindo osiyanasiyana. Ndichezanso ndi anthu ogwira ntchito zachitetezo m'madela amtown komanso amumadera akumidzi, komanso anthu wamba omwe ntchito zachitetezo zimawapindilira.

Nngakhale ine pakali pano ndimagwira ntchito ya upolisi, mukafukufukuyu sindikuimira Boma kapenanso nthambi ya Police ayi. Choncho ndikupemphani kuti mumasuke.

Chilichonse munganene mokhudzana ndi kafukufukuyu chidzakhala chachinsisi. Mayankho anu adzaphatikizidwa ndimayankho a anthu enanso amene tikulankhulanso nawo makamaka pofuna kuti tidziwe kuti maganizo awanthu achuluka ndiotani pankhani yakuti kodi phindu lakugwilira limodzi ntchito yachitetezo ndilotani m'boma la Lilongwe?

Inuyo mwasankhidwa kutenga nawo gawo mukafukufukuyu poyang'ana gawo lomwe mumatengatepo pokhudzana ndi ntchito yachitetezo chammadera. Kucheza kwathu kutenga pafupifupi ola limodzi. Simuli okakamizidwa kuchita nawo kafukufujuyi. Kodi muli okonzeka kutenga nawo mbali? Ngati ndinu okonzeka, chonde tandiuzeni chilankhulo chomwe mungamasuke kulankhula nane.

Chingerezi:.....

Chichewa:.....

ZOKHUDZANA NDI OYANKHA MAFUNSO

Nambala ya Oyankha mafunso: -----

Wapolisi opuma kapena Ogwirabe ntchito: -----

Udindo: Panthawi yopuma kapena panopa: -----

Ntchito yanu: Pakali pano kapena panthawi yomwe munapuma: -----

Gawo lomwe mukugwirako ntchito: panopa kapena pomwe munkapuma: -----

ZOKHUDZANA NDI OYANKHA MAFUNSO

Nambala ya Oyankha mafunso: ----- Zaka:

----- Dzina la

gulu lanu lachitetezo Chammadera:-----

Udindo: -----

CHIVOMEREZO KUTI NDITENGA NAWO MBALI MU KAFUKUFUKUYU

Ine ndawerenga ndipo ndamvetsa zones zomwe ndauzidwa zokhudzana ndikafukufukuyu ndipo ndikunenetsa kuti ndinapatsidwa mpata ofunsa mafunso komanso kufunsitsa pomwe sisndinamvetse. Ndikudziwa kuti kutengapo gawo mukafukufukuyu ndachita mwakufuna kwanga komanso sindilipidwa kanthu. Ndili ndi ufulu osiya kutenga nawo gawo mukafukufukuyu nthawi ina iliyonse ndingafune opanda kuumirizidwa kupereka chifukwa komanso osalipira. Ndamvetsetsa kuti mayankho anaga adzasungidwa mwachisinsi ndipo kuti ndidzapatsidwa chimodzi mwadzikalata zomwe ndavomereza kuti nditenga nawo gawo mukafukufukuyi.

Choncho ndikuvomereza mwakufuna kwanga kuti nditenga nawo gawo mukafukufukuyu.

INDE:

AYI:

Dzina lawotenga nawo mbali:.....

Kusayinira:.....

Mboni:.....

Kusayinira:.....

Munthu yemwe wakupemphani chilorezo:.....

Kusayinira:.....

Mvetserani: Dziwani kuti chimodzi mwazikalata zomwe mwasayinira chidzasungundidwa ndi ineyo, ndipo china ndizakupatsani kuti mutenge.

Annex V: UNIMAREC Approval Certificate.



ACTING PRINCIPAL

CHANCELLOR

COLLEGE

Prof. Samson Sajidu, BSc MIw, MPhil Cantab, PhD Miw

P.O. Box 280, Zomba, Malawi

Our Ref: P. O 1/22/1 15

Telephone: (265) 524 222

Fax: (265) 524 046

E-mail:

pincipal@cc.ac.mw Your Ref.: 18th October 2022.

Mr. Noel Kayira
University of Malawi

P.O. Box 280 Zomba

Email: noel.kayira@yahoo.com

Dear Mr. Kayira

**APPROVAL OF AMENDMENTS TO PROTOCOL NO. POI/22/115.
CO-PRODUCTION AND PUBLIC VALUE: A CASE STUDY OF
COMMUNITY POLICING IN LILONGWE.**

Having reviewed your application for amendment(s) to the originally approved protocol, the University of Malawi Research Ethics Committee (UNIMAREC) hereby grants you a research ethics approval and regulatory permit to the requested amendment(s). This approval is valid for one year from the date indicated above.

Should the study go beyond one year you will be required to submit an application for annual review and continuation on the form available at the committee secretariat before the expiry date of this approval.

Wishing you a successful implementation of the study and the committee awaits a copy of the written technical report.

Yours Sincerely,



Prof Alister C. Munthali

CHAIRPERSON OF UNIMAREC

Yours

CC: Vice Chancellor

Acting Registrar

Acting Director of Finance and Investments

Dean of Research

Chairperson, UNIMAREC

UNIMAREC Compliance Officer