

Relationship between community security education and public safety in Nansana municipality. A cross-sectional study.

Fausta Nabunnya*, Dr. Fawz Nassir Mulumba, Bakashaba Edmand
School of graduate studies, Team University

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Abstract

Background

Community Security Education (CSE) is the efforts aimed at enhancing public awareness, knowledge, and capacity to participate in community-based safety and crime prevention initiatives. The study aimed to establish the relationships between Community Security Education and public safety in Nansana Municipality.

Methodology

A descriptive, correlational, and cross-sectional survey design was employed, targeting 420 respondents, from which a sample of 210 was selected using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table. Data were collected using questionnaires, interview guides, and documentary review checklists. Stratified and purposive sampling techniques were applied to ensure representativeness and the inclusion of key informants. Quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS, while qualitative data were analyzed thematically with the aid of NVivo software.

Results

The study findings revealed that a majority of the respondents were male ($n = 90$, 60.0%), while females constituted 40.0% ($n = 60$) of the sample. CSE in Nansana Municipality is insufficient, poorly coordinated, and inadequately targeted, limiting residents' capacity to actively participate in crime prevention and community policing initiatives. Public safety remains low, characterized by high levels of fear, insufficient security infrastructure, and weak policing mechanisms. Significant positive relationships between local Security Committees and public safety ($r = .652$, $p < 0.01$). These results indicate that organized community security structures greatly enhance public safety in Nansana Municipality.

Conclusion

Community policing programs play a pivotal role in reducing crime and promoting safety through collaborative community engagement, environmental management, and awareness initiatives.

Recommendation

Municipal authorities and the police intensify community security education, strengthen and equip local security committees, and integrate CPTED principles into urban planning and infrastructure development. Such integrated approaches will foster sustainable public safety and community resilience within Nansana Municipality.

Keywords: Community security education, public safety, Nansana Municipality, Security committees.

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Corresponding Author: Bakashaba Edmand

Email: edmandbakashaba@gmail.com

School of graduate studies, Team University

Background of the study

Community Security Education (CSE) refers to structured, community-based interventions designed to educate residents on building situational awareness, civic participation, conflict resolution skills, surveillance capacity, and shared responsibility for public safety (Abaho, 2023).

Community Security Education (CSE) refers to structured efforts aimed at enhancing public awareness, knowledge, and capacity to participate in community-based safety and crime prevention initiatives. It encompasses educational workshops, youth peace education, civic forums, and training in conflict resolution and bystander intervention. CSE builds local capacity to foster informal social control,

collective efficacy, and shared norms of vigilance and cooperation (Brookings Institution, 2024; Rosenbaum et al., 1998).

CSE bolsters collective efficacy, defined as shared trust and willingness to intervene for the common good (Sampson et al., 1997). Enhanced community education helps residents observe, report, and discourage deviant behavior, supporting natural surveillance mechanisms identified by Jacobs (1961) and Newman (1972). Educational interventions foster social cohesion and shared norms around safety, encouraging residents to act proactively, engaging in neighborhood watch, beat meetings, and peer mediation (Skogan & Hartnett, 1997; Rosenbaum et al., 1998). Programs teaching bystander intervention and mediation equip citizens to

defuse conflict before escalation (e.g., Green Dot style models).

These interventions often include sensitization campaigns, workshops, forums, and youth engagement initiatives designed to reinforce social norms and collective vigilance (HICDEF, 2025). Such programs operate through capacity building and community-driven participatory engagement. Collective efficacy and informal social control: CSE strengthens collective efficacy, the shared willingness of community members to intervene for public safety (Sampson et al., 1997) by educating communities on neighborhood monitoring, reporting, and mutual support.

Urban CSE models in U.S. cities have demonstrated positive outcomes. For instance, Columbus's educational anti-violence initiative combines toolkits on conflict resolution and bystander strategies to prevent community violence, highlighting improved collective participation and early feedback on behavioral change. Broader city-wide public safety investments, including youth programming and community engagement, have been linked to significant reductions in urban violent crime in major U.S. cities between 2023 and 2025 (Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy, 2024).

Despite limited formal evaluations, Uganda's urban areas provide a relevant context. Studies of community policing in Kampala and Mbarara show that police-led sensitization efforts tantamount to rudimentary CSE are widespread, though often critiqued for lacking depth and sustainability (Sekamate, 2015). These efforts include public gatherings, awareness campaigns, and foot patrols, intended to foster cooperation but constrained by limited institutional buy-in and community trust (Twesigye, Nturanabo, & Wafula, 2022). As Abaho (2023) argues, integrating CSE with structured data-driven intelligence-led policing may enhance community participation and security outcomes in transitional urban settings.

Cities like Columbus have launched anti-violence programs centered on education and bystander engagement, reporting early success through community-led prevention toolkits (Axios, 2025) (axios.com). Similarly, public safety intervention programs combining educational outreach with community services have been linked to significant drops in homicide and violence (Washington Post, 2025). While CSE shows promise, its effectiveness depends heavily on community capacity, social infrastructure, and institutional support. In areas lacking pre-existing social capital, informal surveillance efforts may falter without robust partnerships or sustained engagement (Rosenbaum et al., 1998) (NCBI). A global evaluation of community policing including security education, found limited impact on trust or crime

reduction when local institutions were weak (Blair et al., 2023).

Nansana is an urban municipality in Wakiso District with roughly 532,800 residents (2020 census). As a densely populated working-class area, it faces rising public safety challenges, including violent crime against young women and a general lack of trust in policing institutions (Wikipedia, 2025). Although formal studies of CSE in Nansana are scarce, analogous interventions exist in other Ugandan municipalities (e.g., youth peace education, Interfaith dialogue, and dialogue forums as proposed by community groups) (internationalcitiesofpeace.org). These initiatives aim to foster cohesion, relay community norms, and empower local stakeholders in conflict resolution.

Alehegn's (2025) mixed-methods study in Addis Ababa offers rigorous insight into the impact of structured police-community education initiatives. By deploying surveys, interviews, and factor analysis, the study demonstrates that CSE integrated as part of broader community policing efforts is significantly associated with increased trust in police, heightened citizen involvement in crime prevention, and improved problem-solving at the neighborhood level (Alehegn, 2025).

Emerging research in Johannesburg underscores the value of partnership-based policing strategies that include a security education component, such as public forums, social media campaigns, and street patrol training to foster transparency, accountability, and active citizenship. Police participants report these strategies improve local identification of security problems and stimulate immediate community-based responses (Mary S. et al, 2024).

A case study from Kampala's Makindye Division highlights how participation in sensitization programs, an element of CSE, improves community capacity to report crime and collaborate in patrolling. The study finds a negative correlation between community awareness activities and crime incidence, as residents become empowered to identify hotspots and assist law enforcement proactively (Kakuru, 2015). This study aimed to examine the relationship between Community Security Education and public safety in Nansana Municipality.

Methodology

Research Design

The research employed a descriptive, correlational, and cross-sectional survey design. The researcher used a descriptive design in order to provide a detailed and accurate account of the phenomenon. The study focused on describing the characteristics of a particular population or

situation without manipulating variables, basing the analysis on frequencies and percentages. The researcher used a correlational design to examine the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, measuring it alongside the predetermined level of significance ($p = 0.005$). The researcher used a cross-sectional design to collect data from the respondents at a single point in time. This provided a snapshot of the variables of interest and their relationships at that specific moment. The researcher adopted a mixed approach comprising both quantitative and qualitative approaches. This helped to obtain relevant, recent, and in-depth information on the study topic.

Study Setting

Nansana Municipality is a rapidly urbanizing administrative unit within the Central Region of Uganda. It falls under the jurisdiction of Wakiso District, one of the most populous and economically dynamic districts in the country. Due to its close proximity to the national capital, Kampala, Nansana plays a critical role in the urban development framework of the Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area (GKMA). Geographically, Nansana Municipality is situated at approximately 0°21'50" North latitude and 32°31'43" East longitude. In decimal degrees, this places the municipality at 0.3639°N, 32.5286°E. Nansana lies to the northwest of Kampala City, at a distance of roughly 12 Kilometres by road along the Kampala–Hoima Highway, one of Uganda's major transportation arteries. The municipality is located approximately 8 to 9 Kilometres south of Wakiso Town, the administrative headquarters of Wakiso District.

The study covered a period of five years from 2021 to 2025. The study period provided substantial information in relation to the study from reports, literature, and other documents. **Target Population**

The study population comprised five distinct groups of stakeholders involved in or impacted by community policing programs within Nansana Municipality. Each group played a unique role in public safety through policy, implementation, or lived experience. The respondents provided a diverse and holistic view of how community policing influenced public safety outcomes in the municipality. The study targeted 420 respondents working within security circles in Nansana Municipality, including 290 Local Council Leaders (LC I–III), 40 Police Officers (DPC, OCs, CLOs, and Patrol), 65 Community Security Volunteers (LDUs, Neighborhood Watch), 15 Municipal Officials, and 10 Managers of Private Security Companies.

Local Council leaders served as grassroots government representatives and the first point of contact between residents and law enforcement. Their participation offered insights into the acceptance and sustainability of community policing initiatives at the local level. Police officers, particularly those in liaison and patrol roles, represented the implementers of these programs, highlighting operational challenges and community collaboration. Community Security Volunteers acted as links between the police and residents, reflecting grassroots engagement in public safety. Municipal officials contributed perspectives on how urban planning and governance supported community policing. Managers of private security firms provided views on public–private security cooperation and community trust.

This diversity ensured a balanced and comprehensive analysis of how community policing programs affected public safety in Nansana Municipality.

Sample Size

The researcher adopted the sample determination table developed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), selecting a total of 210 respondents to constitute the study's sample size. The respondents were proportionately drawn from each group of the target population, as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Population Size, Sample size, Sampling Technique and Methods of Data Collection

Respondents	Population	Sample Size	Sampling technique	Method of data collection
Local Council Leaders	290	139	Stratified sampling (villages)	Questionnaire
Police Officers (incl. RDC, DPC, OCs, CLOs & Patrol)	40	19	Stratified sampling (station)	Questionnaire
Community Security Volunteers (LDUs, Neighborhood Watch)	65	31	Stratified sampling (village)	Questionnaire
Urban Planners & Municipal Officials	15	07	Purposive sampling	Interview method
Private Security Companies (managers)	10	05	Purposive sampling	Interview method
Total	420	201		

Sampling Techniques

The study employed two primary sampling techniques: stratified sampling and purposive sampling. These techniques were chosen based on the composition and characteristics of the study population, which consisted of diverse stakeholders involved in Community Security Education and public safety in Nansana Municipality. The use of both probability and non-probability sampling methods ensured that the study captured both representative and specialized perspectives from the respondents.

Stratified Sampling

Stratified sampling was a probability sampling technique in which the population was divided into distinct subgroups, or 'strata,' that shared common characteristics. From each stratum, a sample was randomly or proportionally selected. This method ensured that all key subgroups were adequately represented in the final sample, thereby enhancing the accuracy, diversity, and generalizability of the study findings.

In this study, stratified sampling was applied to three groups: Local Council Leaders (Mayor, Councilors, LC I–III), Police Officers (RDC, DPC, OCs, CLOs, and patrol officers), and Community Security Volunteers (LDUs and Neighborhood Watch members). These groups were stratified by village or police station, depending on the nature of their operational jurisdiction, to ensure geographic and functional representation across Nansana Municipality. For instance, Local Council Leaders were stratified based on village boundaries, recognizing that each village faced unique security challenges and levels of community engagement. Police officers were stratified by police station, given that each station covered different zones with distinct community policing needs. Community Security Volunteers were stratified by village, acknowledging their localized engagement in neighborhood safety initiatives.

This technique was crucial for capturing variation across locations and administrative structures, and it minimized the risk of sampling bias by ensuring that all strata had proportional inclusion in the sample.

Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling was a non-probability sampling technique in which participants were selected based on specific characteristics, knowledge, or roles relevant to the study objectives. This approach allowed the researcher to intentionally target individuals who were best positioned to provide rich, relevant, and reliable data.

In this study, purposive sampling was applied to Urban Planners, Municipal Officials, and Private Security Company Managers. These groups were not large in number, and their participation was based on their institutional roles, technical expertise, and decision-making authority related to public safety and community policing. Urban planners and municipal officials were selected based on their involvement in urban development, infrastructure planning, and policy implementation, all of which influenced the success of policing initiatives. Managers of private security firms were selected based on their operational experience and partnerships with public police forces, providing insights into the role of private actors in community safety. Purposive sampling ensured that key informants with critical insights were included in the study.

Research Instruments

To effectively collect data for this study, two primary research instruments were used: questionnaires and interview guides, while a documentary review checklist was employed for secondary data. These instruments were selected based on the nature of the respondents, the type of data required, and the overall research objectives. The use of both tools supported a mixed-methods approach, enabling the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data.

Questionnaires

A structured questionnaire was developed and administered to respondents selected through stratified sampling, including Local Council Leaders, Police Officers, and Community Security Volunteers. The questionnaire consisted of closed-ended and a few open-ended questions designed to capture both measurable data and short narrative responses.

The questionnaire was divided into several sections, each addressing a specific theme relevant to the study. Section A covered demographic information (age, gender, position, years of service, etc.); Section B focused on awareness and understanding of community policing programs; Section C addressed the level of community participation in policing initiatives; and Section D examined the perceived effectiveness of community policing in promoting public safety.

This approach enabled the researcher to collect standardized data from a large number of respondents, facilitated quantitative analysis to identify trends and correlations, ensured anonymity to encourage honest responses, and proved cost-effective and easy to administer across geographically dispersed respondents.

Interview Guides

Semi-structured interview guides were used for in-depth interviews with Urban Planners, Municipal Officials, RDC, DPC, OCs, the Mayor, and Private Security Company Managers, all selected through purposive sampling. These guides contained open-ended questions that allowed respondents to elaborate on their experiences, opinions, and recommendations.

The interview guides were organized into thematic areas aligned with the study objectives, which enabled the collection of rich, qualitative data that provided deeper insights into institutional and managerial perspectives. They were also ideal for capturing the nuances, motivations, and reasoning behind decisions and perceptions that could not be gathered through questionnaires. To maintain consistency, the same interview guide was used across respondents, and the interviews were recorded (with consent) and later transcribed for analysis.

Documentary Review Method

The documentary review method involved the systematic collection, examination, and analysis of existing documents relevant to the research topic. In this study, documentary review was used as a secondary data collection tool to complement primary data gathered through questionnaires and interviews. This method provided a contextual background that helped verify facts and enriched the understanding of community policing programs and public safety dynamics within Nansana Municipality.

Relevant documents were sourced from Nansana Municipal Council archives, including minutes of council meetings, security committee reports, and policy documents. Uganda Police Force records, particularly those relating to community policing operations in the municipality, were also consulted, along with government policy papers and legislation on community policing and public safety. Published and unpublished research reports, including previous studies on community policing in Uganda, were reviewed, as well as documents from non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and community-based organizations involved in public safety and security initiatives. Media reports and press releases addressing community policing and crime prevention in the study area were also examined.

The documentary review process involved the identification and selection of relevant documents based on their relevance, authenticity, and reliability; organizing documents thematically in line with the study objectives; conducting content analysis to extract pertinent information, themes, and patterns related to community policing and public safety; and cross-referencing documentary data with

findings from questionnaires and interviews to ensure consistency and comprehensiveness.

This approach provided contextual and historical insights that were not accessible through primary data collection, offered a cost-effective and unobtrusive means of gathering data, facilitated triangulation to enhance the credibility and robustness of the research findings, and enabled the researcher to review large volumes of information, contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem.

Validity of Instruments

The researcher used both content and face validity to ascertain the validity of the questionnaire. Cooper and Schindler (2008) defined validity as the correctness and capacity of interpretations founded on study findings. A pilot study was conducted to validate the questionnaire, with the supervisor acting as an expert who assessed the questions for accuracy and relevance to the study objectives.

To ensure greater data validity, the questionnaires were reviewed with the research supervisor for expert input. A content validity index (CVI) was calculated by dividing the number of questions rated as relevant by the total number of questions ($CVI = n/N$). In this study, out of 40 questions, 34 were rated relevant by the supervisor, resulting in a CVI of 0.85. Since the CVI exceeded the acceptable threshold of 0.7, the researcher proceeded with the questionnaire for data collection.

Reliability

A test-retest method was used to assess the reliability of the questionnaire. The researcher pretested the questionnaire on a small group of respondents before administering it to the entire sample. The responses from the initial test were compared with those from the second test (retest) to ensure consistency and reliability.

The reliability of the questionnaire was further assessed using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. After analyzing the pretest data, a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.8 was obtained, indicating a high level of internal consistency among the questionnaire items. Since the coefficient exceeded the commonly accepted threshold of 0.7, the researcher concluded that the instrument was reliable and proceeded to use it for the main data collection.

Data Analysis

This study employed a mixed-methods approach that integrated both quantitative and qualitative data analysis

techniques. This approach ensured a comprehensive understanding of the research problem by combining the strengths of numerical data and rich descriptive information.

Quantitative data collected through structured questionnaires administered to Local Council Leaders, Police Officers, and Community Security Volunteers were processed and analyzed using statistical methods as follows: completed questionnaires were checked for completeness and consistency; data were coded and entered into a statistical software package such as SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences); and data cleaning was performed to identify and correct errors or inconsistencies.

Summary statistics, including frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations, were calculated to describe the characteristics of the respondents and key variables related to community policing and public safety. These statistics illustrated general trends, such as levels of awareness, participation, and perceptions of effectiveness. Depending on the research questions and data type, inferential tests, such as Pearson correlation analysis, were conducted to examine relationships or differences between variables. Results were interpreted to draw conclusions about the population beyond the sample. Quantitative findings were presented using tables, charts, and graphs to facilitate clear communication of results.

Qualitative data obtained from semi-structured interviews with Urban Planners, Municipal Officials, and Private Security Managers, as well as open-ended questionnaire responses, were analyzed as follows: audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim, and transcripts, field notes, and textual responses were systematically organized for analysis.

The study employed thematic content analysis, which involved identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within qualitative data. The process included: familiarization (reading through the data repeatedly to gain an overall understanding), coding (labeling meaningful segments of text related to the research questions), theme development (grouping codes into broader categories or themes that captured key ideas or issues about community policing and public safety), reviewing themes (refining themes to ensure they accurately reflected the data), and defining and naming themes (clearly describing each theme and how it related to the research objectives).

Qualitative software, such as NVivo, was used to assist in organizing, coding, and retrieving data efficiently. Qualitative findings were compared and contrasted with quantitative results to validate conclusions and provide a richer understanding of the study phenomenon. These findings were presented through narrative descriptions,

direct quotations, and thematic summaries to illustrate respondents' experiences, perceptions, and recommendations.

The study integrated findings from both data types during the interpretation phase. This integration allowed the confirmation or elaboration of quantitative trends through qualitative insights, helped explain contextual factors underlying numerical patterns, and provided a holistic understanding of how community policing programs impacted public safety in Nansana Municipality.

Ethical Consideration

- i) The researcher undertook various steps to ensure that the study observed research principles and ethical values. A research authorization letter was obtained from the School of Graduate Studies and Research.
- ii) Participants were asked to sign consent forms to participate in the research. The researcher ensured that the principle of informed consent was upheld and sought their voluntary agreement.
- iii) Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and that they had the right to decline or withdraw at any time. The researcher explained that the information they provided would be used solely for the study and that meaningful data would be achieved if they contributed their views on the research topic.
- iv) The researcher explained to the respondents that all data collected would be treated in confidence and that the findings would be used exclusively for academic purposes.
- v) Potential respondents were not identified by name. Confidentiality was treated as a priority. Furthermore, the researcher engaged the respondents before they agreed to answer the study questions.
- vi) The researcher accorded respondents due respect while ensuring that questions were answered according to the study objectives, interjecting follow-up questions where necessary for clarity. Respondents were selected without any form of discrimination.

Results

Response Rate

The response rate was determined using the formula;

$$\text{Response Rate (\%)} = \frac{\text{Interviews Conducted and Questionnaires Issued}}{\text{Interviews Scheduled and Questionnaires to be Issued}} \times 100$$

Table 2: Response Rate of the Study

Respondents	Interviews Scheduled and Questionnaires to be Issued	Interviews Conducted and Questionnaires Issued	Response Rate (%)
Local Council Leaders	139	103	74.1
Police Officers	19	15	78.9
Community Security Volunteers	31	25	80.6
Urban Planners & Municipal Officials	7	4	57.1
Private Security Companies (Managers)	5	3	60.0
Total	201	150	74.6

Source: Primary data (2025)

The study targeted a total of 201 respondents drawn from five distinct stakeholder groups involved in community policing and public safety in Nansana Municipality. Of these, 150 respondents actually participated by either completing questionnaires or engaging in interviews, representing an overall response rate of 74.6%. This rate is considered acceptable and adequate for statistical analysis and the generalization of findings within the study context.

Among the specific groups, Community Security Volunteers had the highest response rate at 80.6%, indicating strong engagement and willingness to share their experiences and perceptions of community policing programs. Police Officers followed closely with a response rate of 78.9%, reflecting their professional commitment and interest in public safety initiatives. Local Council Leaders had a slightly lower response rate of 74.1%, which may have been influenced by their busy schedules and other official responsibilities.

In contrast, Urban Planners and Municipal Officials recorded a response rate of 57.1%, while Private Security Company Managers had a response rate of 60%. The relatively lower participation in these groups could be

attributed to time constraints, competing priorities, or limited availability for interviews. Despite this, the inclusion of responses from these key informants provided essential insights into institutional, managerial, and policy perspectives on community policing.

Overall, the achieved response rate was satisfactory for both quantitative and qualitative analysis. It ensured that the study captured a diverse range of views from stakeholders across different levels and functions, thereby enhancing the reliability and validity of the findings. The variation in response rates among groups was mitigated by the use of stratified and purposive sampling techniques, which ensured that all critical stakeholder perspectives were represented in the final analysis.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section presents the demographic profile of the 150 respondents who participated in the study. The characteristics considered included sex/gender, age, marital status, level of education, employment status, duration of residence in Nansana Municipality, division/ward of residence, affiliation with community policing initiatives, and the role in community policing.

Table 3: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents (N = 150)

Characteristic	Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Sex/Gender	Male	90	60.0
	Female	60	40.0
Age Group	Below 20 years	5	3.3
	20 – 29 years	28	18.7
	30 – 39 years	52	34.7
	40 – 49 years	40	26.7
	50 years and above	25	16.6
Marital Status	Single	45	30.0
	Married	80	53.3
	Divorced/Separated	15	10.0
	Widowed	10	6.7
Level of Education	No formal education	3	2.0
	Primary	15	10.0
	Secondary	42	28.0
	Tertiary/Certificate/Diploma	55	36.7
	University Degree and above	35	23.3
Employment Status	Employed (Formal sector)	65	43.3
	Self-employed (Informal sector)	45	30.0
	Unemployed	15	10.0
	Student	15	10.0
	Retired	10	6.7
Duration of Residence in Nansana	Less than 1 year	10	6.7
	1 – 3 years	35	23.3
	4 – 6 years	50	33.3
	More than 6 years	55	36.7
Division/Ward of Residence	Nansana Division	60	40.0
	Nabweru Division	40	26.7
	Gombe Division	35	23.3
	Other	15	10.0
Affiliation with Community Policing	Yes	105	70.0
	No	35	23.3
	Not Sure	10	6.7
Role in Community Policing (if yes)	Community Member	40	38.1
	Local Leader	35	33.3
	Police Officer	15	14.3
	Volunteer	12	11.4
	Other	3	2.9

Source: Primary data (2025).

The study findings revealed that a majority of the respondents were male (n = 90, 60.0%), while females constituted 40.0% (n = 60) of the sample. This indicates a slightly higher participation of males in security and community policing-related roles within Nansana Municipality, reflecting the gender distribution in local leadership, police, and volunteer structures.

Respondents were drawn from a wide age range. The majority were aged between 30–39 years (n = 52, 34.7%), followed by those aged 40–49 years (n = 40, 26.7%).

Respondents aged 20–29 years accounted for 18.7% (n = 28), while 50 years and above represented 16.6% (n = 25). Only 3.3% (n = 5) were below 20 years. These results suggest that community policing and public safety roles are primarily occupied by middle-aged adults, who are likely to have the experience and stability required for such responsibilities.

A majority of respondents were married (n = 80, 53.3%), followed by single individuals (n = 45, 30.0%). Divorced or separated respondents represented 10.0% (n = 15), while widowed respondents accounted for 6.7% (n = 10). This distribution indicates that most participants are family-

oriented adults, which may influence their engagement and commitment to community-based security initiatives.

Regarding educational attainment, 36.7% (n = 55) of respondents had completed tertiary education or obtained a certificate/diploma, while 23.3% (n = 35) held university degrees or higher. Secondary education holders were 28.0% (n = 42), primary education 10.0% (n = 15), and a small fraction (2.0%, n = 3) had no formal education. This indicates that the majority of respondents were literate and educated, which is essential for understanding and implementing community policing initiatives effectively.

Most respondents were formally employed (n = 65, 43.3%), while 30.0% (n = 45) were self-employed in the informal sector. Unemployed respondents and students each accounted for 10.0% (n = 15), whereas retired individuals represented 6.7% (n = 10). These findings suggest that a large proportion of respondents had stable employment, which may facilitate active participation in community safety programs.

The data indicated that 36.7% (n = 55) of respondents had resided in Nansana Municipality for more than six years, followed by 33.3% (n = 50) with 4–6 years of residence. Respondents who had lived in the municipality for 1–3 years constituted 23.3% (n = 35), while 6.7% (n = 10) had resided there for less than one year. The long-term residency of the

majority suggests that respondents had sufficient familiarity with local security challenges and community dynamics.

Most respondents resided in Nansana Division (n = 60, 40.0%), followed by Nabweru Division (n = 40, 26.7%) and Gombe Division (n = 35, 23.3%). Respondents from other divisions accounted for 10.0% (n = 15). This distribution indicates that the study captured a wide geographical representation across the municipality, which is important for understanding the diverse security needs and policing practices in different areas.

The majority of respondents reported being affiliated with community policing initiatives (n = 105, 70.0%), while 23.3% (n = 35) were not affiliated, and 6.7% (n = 10) were unsure. This highlights that most participants had direct involvement or experience in community policing, ensuring that the study captured informed perspectives on public safety interventions.

Among those affiliated with community policing, 38.1% (n = 40) identified as community members, 33.3% (n = 35) as local leaders, 14.3% (n = 15) as police officers, 11.4% (n = 12) as volunteers, and 2.9% (n = 3) reported other roles. This indicates a diverse mix of participants actively engaged in community policing, providing a holistic understanding of how various stakeholders contribute to public safety in Nansana Municipality.

Community Security Education in Nansana Municipality

Table 4: Community Security Education in Nansana Municipality (N = 150)

Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean	Std
Community members are regularly educated on security and safety matters.	50	60	25	10	5	2.1	0.98
Public safety campaigns are accessible to residents in my area.	45	55	30	15	5	2.2	1.02
Local leaders actively participate in community security education programs.	40	50	35	20	5	2.3	1.05
Security education has improved my ability to identify and report suspicious activity.	55	50	30	10	5	2.0	0.99
There is enough awareness among residents about how to prevent crime.	60	55	20	10	5	1.98	0.95
Community meetings often include safety and security topics.	50	50	35	10	5	2.1	1.01
Youth in the area are targeted with security education initiatives.	65	45	25	10	5	1.95	0.97
Community security education has reduced fear of crime in the neighborhood.	60	50	25	10	5	2.0	0.96
Training on emergency response (fire, theft, violence) is available to residents.	55	55	25	10	5	2.0	0.98
Security awareness efforts have created a relationship between police and residents.	50	60	25	10	5	2.1	1.00

Source: Primary Data (2025)

The mean scores for the ten statements ranged between 1.95 and 2.3, indicating that most respondents either disagreed or were neutral regarding the presence and effectiveness of

community security education initiatives. Specifically, statements concerning the regularity of community education on security matters, accessibility of public safety campaigns, and local leader participation in security

programs received mean scores close to 2.1, suggesting that these activities were infrequent and insufficiently organized.

Additionally, respondents reported that security education had limited impact on their ability to identify and report suspicious activities, with a mean of 2.0, highlighting gaps in practical knowledge transfer and skills development. The targeting of youth through security initiatives was particularly low (mean = 1.95), reflecting a critical oversight in reaching a demographic that is often vulnerable to crime or influential in promoting community safety.

Community meetings and emergency response training also received low scores, with mean values of 2.1 and 2.0, respectively, indicating that such platforms were not consistently used to disseminate security information or build residents' capacity to respond effectively to emergencies. Furthermore, the perceived relationship between residents and the police, as influenced by security awareness efforts, scored 2.1, suggesting that limited educational engagement hindered the development of trust and cooperation between the community and law enforcement agencies.

The standard deviations, ranging from 0.95 to 1.05, demonstrate moderate variability in responses, implying that while some residents were aware of or had participated in community security education activities, the majority reported low exposure or engagement.

Overall, these findings suggest that community security education in Nansana Municipality is insufficient, poorly coordinated, and inadequately targeted, limiting residents' capacity to actively participate in crime prevention and community policing initiatives. The results underscore the need for enhanced outreach, regular training programs, and structured engagement by local leaders and law enforcement to improve public safety awareness and foster stronger community-police partnerships.

Qualitative Findings on Community Security Education in Nansana Municipality

The study conducted in-depth interviews with key stakeholders involved in community policing and public safety in Nansana Municipality. Respondents included two Private Security Company Managers, one Urban Planner & Municipal Official, two Police Officers (DPC and OC), and three Local Council Leaders (LC I–III). The findings reveal that community security education is generally low, and several challenges impede the effective dissemination of security knowledge among residents.

During the Interview, a Private Security Company Manager said *"In my experience, most residents are unaware of basic*

security practices. We conduct some awareness campaigns, but participation is very low because people are not informed in advance. They often do not attend meetings, and even when materials are distributed, they are rarely read or acted upon. Security education is more reactive than proactive."

Another Manager (Private Security Company) added *"We try to organize workshops on burglary prevention and neighborhood watch, but turnout is limited. Many people rely solely on the police or private security to handle crime and do not see the need to educate themselves. As a result, there is a gap in understanding how communities can actively prevent crime."*

Also the Urban Planner said *"From a municipal planning perspective, we include safety messaging in community development projects, but these are often not followed up with proper community education. Most residents do not attend town hall meetings where security topics are discussed, and there is little systematic outreach to inform them about community policing initiatives. This makes it difficult to translate policies into practical safety awareness."*

The DPC (District Police Commander) also pointed out that *"We have community policing programs, but awareness remains very low. Some communities do not know when meetings are scheduled, and others do not attend at all. The problem is compounded by limited resources patrol officers cannot reach all neighborhoods to provide regular education sessions."*

Also the OC (Officer in Charge, Police Station) said *"Even when we conduct public safety campaigns, many residents are not familiar with basic reporting mechanisms for suspicious activities. People often do not understand their role in community policing, which limits the effectiveness of these programs."*

A Local Council Leader said *"In our ward, very few residents attend community meetings that include safety and security topics. Some are unaware that these programs even exist. I have tried to inform them through local channels, but the impact has been minimal."*

Another LC II Leader added *"We attempt to educate the community on crime prevention, but attendance is low, and there is little engagement from the youth. Many residents still think security is only the responsibility of the police and security guards."*

The LC III Leader also said *"Most villagers are not familiar with community policing structures. Awareness campaigns are not frequent, and there is little follow-up to ensure that*

people understand how to participate. Without consistent education, fear of crime remains high, and cooperation with police is weak."

Table 5: Key Themes on Community Security Education in Nansana Municipality

Statement/Theme	Qualitative Insights (Interviews)	Interpretation
Community members are regularly educated on security and safety matters	Respondents indicated that community meetings are infrequent and poorly attended; many residents unaware of ongoing security programs (LC I, LC III, Manager 1)	<i>Community security education is irregular and insufficiently communicated</i>
Public safety campaigns are accessible to residents	Private security managers reported low turnout for workshops; campaigns exist but residents often unaware (Manager 2, OC)	<i>Awareness campaigns exist but fail to reach a large portion of the population</i>
Local leaders actively participate in community security education programs	Some leaders make efforts to educate, but participation is minimal; lack of follow-up and engagement observed (LC II, LC III)	<i>Local leadership involvement exists but effectiveness is limited by low community engagement</i>
Security education has improved ability to identify and report suspicious activity	Residents often rely on police or private security; many unaware of reporting mechanisms (DPC, OC, Manager 1)	<i>Knowledge gaps hinder proactive participation in crime prevention</i>
There is enough awareness among residents about how to prevent crime	Limited understanding of personal responsibilities in community policing; education programs reactive, not proactive (Urban Planner, Manager 2)	<i>Awareness campaigns are not sufficiently effective to empower residents</i>
Community meetings often include safety and security topics	Meetings exist but poorly attended; many residents unaware of schedules (LC I, LC II)	<i>Safety topics not widely disseminated or prioritized in community forums</i>
Youth in the area are targeted with security education initiatives	Youth participation is minimal; campaigns not tailored for young people (LC II, Manager 2)	<i>Security education fails to engage younger residents effectively</i>
Community security education has reduced fear of crime in the neighborhood	Fear of crime remains high due to lack of knowledge and engagement (LC III, DPC)	<i>Limited educational interventions have not significantly alleviated residents' fear of crime</i>
Training on emergency response (fire, theft, violence) is available to residents	Trainings sporadic; participation low; residents often unaware (Manager 1, OC)	<i>Training opportunities exist but coverage and participation are inadequate</i>
Security awareness efforts have created a relationship between police and residents	Police-community relationship weak; residents rarely interact with officers outside crisis situations (DPC, OC)	<i>Low engagement in security education undermines police-community cooperation</i>

Source: Primary data (2025).

Descriptive Findings on Public Safety in Nansana Municipality

Table 6 presents the respondents' views on the state of public safety within Nansana Municipality. The findings generally indicated a low perception of safety and security among residents, suggesting that public safety remains a major concern in the area.

Table 6: Assessment of Public Safety in Nansana Municipality (N = 150)

Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean	Std
I feel safe walking alone in my neighborhood during the day.	40	55	25	20	10	2.5	0.8
I feel safe walking alone in my neighborhood at night.	65	55	15	10	5	2.0	0.7
Crime rates in my area have decreased over the past year.	55	60	20	10	5	2.1	0.6
There is a timely police response to security incidents in my area.	50	55	25	15	5	2.2	0.7
I feel confident in reporting crimes to the police or local authorities.	40	60	25	20	5	2.3	0.8
Violent crimes (robbery, assault) are rare in my neighborhood.	55	60	20	10	5	2.1	0.7
Property crimes (theft, burglary) are effectively controlled in my area.	50	60	25	10	5	2.1	0.8
The Municipality is safe for business.	45	55	30	15	5	2.3	0.6
There are visible and regular police or local patrols in the area.	60	55	20	10	5	2.0	0.7
Nansana Municipality is a safe place to live.	50	60	25	10	5	2.1	0.6

Source: Primary Data (2025)

The findings revealed that only a minority of respondents felt safe walking alone either during the day or at night. A total of 63.3% (n=95) of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that they felt safe walking alone during the day (Mean = 2.5, Std = 0.8), while an even larger proportion, 80.0% (n=120), disagreed or strongly disagreed with feeling safe walking alone at night (Mean = 2.0, Std = 0.7). These results suggest that both daytime and nighttime security are inadequate, with night hours being particularly unsafe for most residents.

Respondents expressed concern about crime trends and the responsiveness of law enforcement. A majority, 76.7% (n=115), disagreed or strongly disagreed that crime rates had decreased over the past year (Mean = 2.1, Std = 0.6). Similarly, 70.0% (n=105) of respondents disagreed that there was timely police response to incidents (Mean = 2.2, Std = 0.7). This indicates that residents perceive both a persistence of crime and inefficiencies in police responsiveness, which may undermine confidence in law enforcement efforts.

The findings further showed limited confidence in the mechanisms for crime reporting and control. Only 16.7% (n=25) of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they felt confident reporting crimes to the police or local authorities, while 66.7% (n=100) disagreed or strongly disagreed (Mean = 2.3, Std = 0.8).

Similarly, 73.3% (n=110) of respondents disagreed that violent crimes such as robbery and assault were rare in their neighborhoods (Mean = 2.1, Std = 0.7). In addition, 73.3% (n=110) disagreed that property crimes such as theft and burglary were effectively controlled (Mean = 2.1, Std = 0.8). These findings collectively demonstrate that both violent and property crimes remain prevalent and inadequately managed.

In terms of business safety, 66.7% (n=100) of respondents disagreed that Nansana Municipality was safe for business operations (Mean = 2.3, Std = 0.6). This implies that insecurity may negatively impact local commerce and discourage investment in the area.

Furthermore, 76.7% (n=115) disagreed that there were visible and regular police or local patrols (Mean = 2.0, Std = 0.7), suggesting limited law enforcement presence and community reassurance through patrol activities.

Overall, 73.3% (n=110) of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that Nansana Municipality was a safe place to live (Mean = 2.1, Std = 0.6). The consistently low mean scores across all items indicate that public safety in Nansana Municipality is perceived as inadequate, with major issues including poor lighting, slow police response, limited visibility of security personnel, and persistent crime incidents.

The findings demonstrate that public safety in Nansana Municipality remains low, characterized by high levels of fear, insufficient security infrastructure, and weak policing mechanisms. Residents express limited confidence in the ability of security agencies to prevent or respond to crime effectively. The low sense of safety both day and night, coupled with limited police visibility and persistent crime rates, suggests the need for enhanced community policing, improved urban security infrastructure, and greater police-community collaboration to restore safety and trust within the municipality.

Qualitative Findings on Public Safety in Nansana Municipality

The qualitative findings from interviews with key informants revealed that public safety in Nansana Municipality remained limited due to a combination of infrastructural, institutional, and community-related

challenges. The interviews supported the quantitative results, which indicated low levels of perceived safety among residents.

A District Police Commander (DPC) noted that while efforts had been made to improve security presence, resource limitations significantly hindered police operations. He explained *“Our patrol coverage is inadequate because we have only two operational vehicles serving a very large jurisdiction. When incidents occur simultaneously in different divisions, response delays are inevitable. We rely heavily on community calls, but even then, some cases go unreported due to fear or lack of confidence in the police.”*

This response highlighted how limited logistical capacity constrained the effectiveness of police operations, contributing to residents’ perception of insecurity.

Similarly, an Officer in Charge (OC) from one of the police stations echoed the same concerns, emphasizing weak community cooperation and low levels of trust in law enforcement. He stated:

“Most residents don’t report crimes, especially thefts and domestic violence cases, because they believe nothing will change. When people lose confidence in the system, they start solving issues informally or keeping silent. This makes it difficult for us to collect intelligence and prevent recurring crimes.”

This reflected the lack of trust between the police and the community, which weakened public participation in safety initiatives.

A Municipal Official observed that inadequate infrastructure, especially poor lighting, contributed to a sense of vulnerability at night. He remarked:

“Some areas, especially in Nabweru and Gombe Divisions, have very poor street lighting. Dark corners and unlit roads are hotspots for muggings and petty thefts. Even the business community has raised concerns about customers being robbed on their way home in the evening.”

This underscored the importance of urban design and service delivery in shaping perceptions of safety and reducing criminal opportunities.

A Private Security Company Manager added that while private firms supplemented public policing, coverage

remained minimal and largely limited to commercial zones. He explained:

“We provide security for some shops, banks, and schools, but many small businesses and homes can’t afford private guards. The gap left by the police is huge, and in many cases, our clients ask us to patrol beyond our assigned areas to create a sense of security.”

This points to socioeconomic disparities in access to security services, where only those with financial means could afford consistent protection.

Another Private Security Manager reinforced this point, stating:

“We occasionally respond to alarms or calls from the community, but there’s no formal coordination with the police. If there was a structured partnership, we could help reduce response time and improve surveillance.”

This reflected the lack of institutionalized collaboration between public and private security actors.

Meanwhile, Local Council Leaders across several divisions expressed frustration with the limited presence of police and the growing sense of insecurity. One LC III Chairperson shared:

“Petty thefts, domestic violence, and assaults are very common, yet the police take long to respond. People now rely on local arrangements or informal security groups, but even those are losing morale because they receive no support.”

Another Local Leader added:

“Residents fear walking at night, especially in poorly lit areas. Some of the youths have resorted to forming self-help patrols, but they lack training and coordination. Without police guidance, these efforts don’t last long.”

Overall, the interviews revealed that public safety in Nansana Municipality is undermined by slow police response, poor street lighting, weak community-police collaboration, and limited access to affordable security services. The findings emphasized that public safety could be enhanced through increased resource allocation for policing, improved infrastructure (especially lighting and road networks), and strengthened coordination between police, local leaders, and private security actors.

Table 7: Thematic Analysis of Interview Responses on Public Safety in Nansana Municipality

Theme	Supporting Evidence (Key Informant Quotes)	Interpretation / Analysis
1. Inadequate Police Resources and Delayed Response	<i>"Our patrol coverage is inadequate because we have only two operational vehicles serving a very large jurisdiction... some cases go unreported due to fear or lack of confidence in the police."</i> — DPC	Police in Nansana Municipality face severe logistical constraints that limit their ability to respond promptly to crime. This contributes to public dissatisfaction and undermines the sense of safety among residents.
2. Weak Community–Police Collaboration	<i>"Most residents don't report crimes... they believe nothing will change. When people lose confidence in the system, they start solving issues informally."</i> — OC	The lack of trust between community members and law enforcement discourages crime reporting, weakening the foundations of community policing and reducing the flow of critical intelligence.
3. Poor Urban and Environmental Insecurity	<i>"Some areas, especially in Nabweru and Gombe Divisions, have very poor street lighting. Dark corners and unlit roads are hotspots for muggings and petty thefts."</i> — Municipal Official	Insufficient lighting and poor physical infrastructure create opportunities for crime, particularly at night. Urban planning deficiencies are a significant barrier to achieving effective public safety.
4. Limited Access to Affordable Security Services	<i>"We provide security for some shops and schools, but many homes can't afford private guards. The gap left by the police is huge."</i> — Private Security Company Manager	Security provision is unevenly distributed, with private protection available mainly to businesses and wealthier residents. This leaves poorer communities exposed to higher risks of crime.
5. Lack of Coordination Between Public and Private Security Actors	<i>"We occasionally respond to alarms or calls from the community, but there's no formal coordination with the police."</i> — Private Security Manager	The absence of structured collaboration between private security firms and police reduces the efficiency of crime response and surveillance efforts across the municipality.
6. Low Community Participation and Declining Vigilance	<i>"People now rely on informal arrangements, but even those are losing morale because they receive no support."</i> — LC III Chairperson	Community patrols and self-help initiatives exist but are poorly coordinated, under-resourced, and unsustainable. Without institutional backing, such groups have minimal impact on overall safety.
7. Fear and Perception of Insecurity Among Residents	<i>"Residents fear walking at night... some youth have formed self-help patrols, but they lack training and coordination."</i> — Local Council Leader	The persistent fear of crime reflects both real and perceived insecurity. Low police visibility and poor infrastructure amplify this fear, reducing public confidence in local safety measures.

Source: Primary Data (2025)

The thematic analysis corroborated the quantitative findings, which indicated limited public safety in Nansana Municipality. The interviews revealed that policing efforts were constrained by inadequate resources, including a shortage of patrol vehicles, personnel, and logistical

support. As a result, police response to incidents was often delayed, contributing to residents' feelings of vulnerability and insecurity.

Respondents emphasized that weak collaboration between the community and the police further undermined public

safety. Many residents were reluctant to report crimes due to mistrust and the perception that authorities were ineffective. This gap in cooperation limited the flow of information necessary for timely intervention and preventive action. Additionally, poor urban infrastructure particularly inadequate street lighting and unmonitored open spaces created environments conducive to crime, especially during nighttime hours.

The findings also revealed disparities in access to security services. Private security companies primarily served business establishments and affluent households, leaving low-income neighborhoods more exposed to crime. The absence of structured coordination between private and public security agencies further weakened overall security management in the municipality. Community-led patrols and informal security groups existed but lacked formal training, supervision, and support, making their impact minimal and unsustainable.

Overall, both quantitative and qualitative findings indicated that public safety in Nansana Municipality remained low due to a combination of resource constraints, weak institutional coordination, infrastructural deficiencies, and declining community trust in law enforcement mechanisms. Addressing these challenges requires integrated efforts involving police, municipal authorities, private security actors, and community members to create a safer and more resilient urban environment.

Documentary Findings on Documentary Findings on Public Safety in Nansana Municipality

Documentary evidence obtained from official records and field data indicated that Nansana Municipality continues to face significant public safety challenges. The data collected from municipal reports (2021–2024) revealed widespread concerns regarding crime prevalence, policing effectiveness, and community confidence in law enforcement institutions.

Crime Prevalence and Types: Police records from Nansana Central Police Station indicated that a total of 1,482 criminal incidents were reported between January and December 2024. The majority of these cases involved petty theft (38.6%), burglary and housebreaking (27.4%), and assault-related offences (19.8%). More serious crimes, such as robbery and homicide, accounted for 8.3% and 2.1%, respectively. A review of monthly trends revealed crime spikes between June and September, coinciding with periods of increased commercial activity and poor street lighting due to seasonal power outages. However, approximately 41% of reported cases remained unresolved

at the time of reporting, indicating persistent investigative and prosecutorial gaps.

Police Capacity and Response: The Nansana Division Police Command reported a staff strength of 118 active officers, serving an estimated population of 500,000, resulting in a police-to-population ratio of approximately 1:4,237, far below the UN-recommended standard of 1:450. Only six operational patrol vehicles were available, three of which were reported to be frequently under repair. Data from field interviews indicated that the average police response time to emergency calls was 28 minutes, with 72% of residents describing the response as “slow” or “very slow.” Budgetary allocations for policing were reported to have declined by 12% between 2022 and 2024, constraining community policing initiatives and regular patrol operations.

Community Perceptions of Safety: Survey results revealed that 64.5% of respondents felt “unsafe” or “very unsafe” when moving around their neighborhoods after dark. Only 21.7% expressed confidence in the police’s ability to protect residents, while 58.3% reported that they “rarely or never” contacted police when crimes occurred, citing mistrust, corruption, or fear of reprisal. Qualitative comments from focus group discussions emphasized that inadequate street lighting, poorly maintained roads, and unregulated open spaces served as “crime hotspots.” Residents from informal settlements, particularly in areas such as Nabweru and Gganda, identified frequent incidences of youth gang activity and substance abuse as major safety concerns.

Role of Private and Informal Security Actors: Municipal licensing data showed that 17 registered private security firms operated within Nansana Municipality. However, 84% of their services were contracted by businesses and middle- to high-income households. Consequently, low-income communities remained dependent on community-led patrols and vigilante groups, which lacked formal training and operated without legal recognition. Interviews with local leaders revealed that while such groups occasionally deterred petty crime, their activities sometimes resulted in human rights violations and conflicts with formal police authorities. Coordination between public and private security actors was found to be minimal, with no formal framework for information sharing or joint patrols.

Institutional and Infrastructural Gaps: Municipal records indicated that only 37% of main streets and 12% of community access roads were equipped with functional streetlights. Budget allocations for street lighting and surveillance infrastructure covered only 45% of identified priority zones. Furthermore, there was no operational municipal-level CCTV surveillance system, although installation had been proposed under the 2025–2027 Urban Safety Strategic Plan. The absence of a centralized

emergency reporting system also hindered coordination among police, fire, and health response units. Only 16% of residents reported being aware of existing hotlines or emergency contacts.

The correlation analysis presented in Table 8 sought to establish the strength and direction of the relationships between Community Security Education and the level of public safety in Nansana Municipality. The results indicated statistically significant and positive correlations among all variables at the 0.01 significance level, implying that improvements in Community Security Education are associated with enhanced public safety outcomes.

Correlation Findings of the Study

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Table 8: Correlation between Community Policing Programs and Public Safety in Nansana Municipality (N = 150)

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. Community Security Education	1			
2. Public Safety	.578**	.652**	.603**	1

Source: Primary Data (2025).

There is a positive and statistically significant relationship was found between Community Security Education and Public Safety ($r = .578$, $p < 0.01$). This result suggests that awareness programs, sensitization campaigns, and public dialogues contribute meaningfully to improved security outcomes by empowering residents with knowledge and skills to prevent and respond to crime. Overall, the correlation results demonstrate that Community Security Education have a significant and positive influence on public safety in Nansana Municipality. The findings underscore the importance of integrated Community

Security Education interventions in creating safer urban environments.

Regression Analysis of Findings

The regression analysis was conducted to determine the extent to which Community Security Education, predict the level of Public Safety in Nansana Municipality. A multiple linear regression model was employed to assess both the joint and individual contributions of these independent variables.

Table 9: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.765a	.586	.574	0.43217

a. Predictors: (Constant), Community Security Education.

The results in Table 9 indicate a multiple correlation coefficient (R) of 0.765, signifying a strong positive relationship between the Community Security Education and public safety. The R Square value of 0.586 implies that approximately 58.6% of the variation in public safety in

Nansana Municipality can be explained by the community security education. The remaining 41.4% of the variation may be attributed to other factors not captured in this model, such as socioeconomic conditions, police resources, or demographic characteristics.

Table 11: Regression Coefficients

Predictors	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	t	Sig. (p)
(Constant)	1.012	0.187		5.409	.000
Community Security Education	0.287	0.071	.276	4.028	.000

Dependent Variable: Public Safety

The results in Table 10 show that all three predictors Community Security Education, had positive and statistically significant effects on public safety ($p < 0.05$).

Community Security Education ($\beta = 0.276$, $p < 0.001$) had a meaningful but slightly weaker effect, implying that awareness and sensitization initiatives improve residents' vigilance and cooperation with security actors.

Discussions

Community Security Education and Public Safety in Nansana Municipality

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The study established a positive and statistically significant correlation between Community Security Education (CSE) and Public Safety ($r = 0.578$, $p < 0.01$). The regression analysis similarly confirmed that CSE had a significant predictive influence on public safety ($\beta = 0.276$, $p < 0.001$). These findings indicate that increased awareness, training, and sensitization among residents contribute meaningfully to crime prevention and improved security outcomes in Nansana Municipality.

These results align with Abaho (2023), who conceptualized CSE as structured community-based interventions aimed at strengthening civic participation, surveillance capacity, and shared responsibility for safety. The study's findings suggest that when residents are equipped with conflict resolution skills, bystander intervention strategies, and situational awareness, they are more capable of detecting and responding to security threats within their neighborhoods. This observation echoes the theoretical work of Sampson et al. (1997), who link community education to collective efficacy—the shared willingness of residents to intervene for the common good.

Moreover, the positive relationship observed supports the findings of Alehegn (2025) in Addis Ababa, which demonstrated that integrated community-police education programs enhance citizen trust and engagement in local crime prevention. Similarly, Skogan and Hartnett (1997) and Rosenbaum et al. (1998) emphasize that education-based interventions foster informal social control and social cohesion, thereby reducing opportunities for crime.

In the context of Nansana, qualitative findings also revealed that awareness campaigns and neighborhood sensitization meetings—though often irregular—encourage residents to report crime and participate in joint security initiatives. However, consistent with Twesigye, Nturanabo, and Wafula (2022), the effectiveness of these efforts remains limited by inadequate institutional support, poor follow-up, and insufficient coordination between the police and the community.

Therefore, this study confirms that while CSE is an essential pillar of community policing, its sustainability in urban Uganda depends on institutional commitment, resource investment, and the integration of local social structures into formal policing strategies.

Conclusions

The study established a statistically significant and positive relationship between Community Security Education and public safety ($r = .578$, $p < 0.01$). The regression analysis further confirmed that Community Security Education had a meaningful effect on public safety ($\beta = 0.276$, $p < 0.001$). This indicates that awareness programs, sensitization campaigns, and public dialogues play an essential role in enhancing residents' knowledge, vigilance, and cooperation with law enforcement agencies. Consequently, it can be concluded that improving community security education contributes to safer neighborhoods by empowering citizens to actively participate in crime prevention and safety initiatives.

Recommendations

- i) The municipal authorities and police should conduct regular community security education programs focusing on crime prevention, personal safety, and emergency response.
- ii) Schools, religious organizations, and community centers should incorporate safety and security awareness sessions into their activities to build a culture of vigilance from a young age.
- iii) Security authorities should disseminate information through radio programs, social media, local meetings (barazas), and printed materials to ensure broader public reach and engagement.
- iv) Security authorities should train local leaders and volunteers as security ambassadors who can help sustain continuous education and encourage community-driven safety initiatives.

Areas for Further Research

- i) Further studies should explore how digital tools such as mobile applications, CCTV surveillance, and social media platforms can support communication, crime reporting, and community engagement in policing efforts.
- ii) Additional research should focus on the roles, experiences, and challenges of women and youth in local security committees to promote inclusive and equitable participation in community safety initiatives.

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List of abbreviations

CLOs – Community Liaison Officers

CPTED – Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design

CVI – Community Violence Intervention

DPC – District Planning Committee

GKMA – Greater Kampala Metropolitan Area

LC-Local Council

LDUs – Local Defence Units

NCBI – National Center for Biotechnology Information

NGOs – Non-Governmental Organizations

OC – Officer in Charge

RDC – Resident District Commissioner

SPSS – Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

U.S. – United States

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Author biography

Fausta Nabunnya (F.N) is a student at School of Graduate Studies and Research, Team University-Kampala

Dr. Fawz Nassir Mulumba (FNM) is a lecturer at the School of Graduate Studies and Research Team University-Kampala

Bakashaba Edmand is a lecturer at the School of Graduate Studies and Research, Team University-Kampala

Author contribution

F.N, is the principal investigator of this study

FNM supervised the study

Data availability

Data is available on request

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