



Facilitation and Service Delivery in the National Police Service in Nairobi County, Kenya

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: The purpose of the study was to evaluate the effects of facilitation on service delivery in the National Police Service (NPS), Nairobi County, Kenya. The study was anchored on the New Public Management Theory; it heralds the transformation of citizens into customers of public services who deserve feedback on police service delivery. **Methodology:** Pragmatic philosophical approach was used to support this study. The qualitative and quantitative methods of inquiry were used to generate evidence to support the evaluation. The target population for the study was 2100 police officers in Nairobi County from which a sample of 215 respondents was selected using simple random sampling techniques. While the members 105 of the public were purposely selected. Questionnaires and key informant interview guides were the main data collection tools used in the study. The qualitative data were thematically analyzed while the quantitative data were analyzed using frequency counts, means, standard deviation, multiple regression, chi-square tests, and Pearson and Spearman rank correlation. **Findings:** The majority of the respondents in the study were males aged between 26-35 years and over 60% of the respondents were of the opinion that police reforms had increased police mobility. Equally, the majority (64%) indicated that the infrastructure was poor, in addition to poor feedback mechanisms, which affected effective service delivery. **Contribution to Theory Practice and Policy:** The study points out the key factors which hinder effective service delivery in the Kenya Police service despite the implementation of police service reforms.

Key Words: Facilitation, Service Delivery, Police Reforms, National Police Service

INTRODUCTION

A country's police force can be either a protector or a predator to society. Regardless of their personal beliefs, individual police officers are sworn to uphold the law and their duty is just if the laws are aligned with the natural rights of man, and unjust if the laws infringe on these rights (Finkenbinder, Lowe, and Millen, 2013). The responsibility of a state to its citizens for public service delivery represents a central part of the democratic polity (Blair, 2018; Hope, 2015), and the participation of members of the public in the delivery of public services has time

and again been evident (Fledderus, 2016). Police reforms were therefore meant to remodel the police organizations into valuable and responsive to the desires of the public (UNODC, 2013).

The police service organizations were not immune from the public judgments in terms of ineffectiveness and wastefulness. Too often the police were oriented towards functions that diverted efforts away from crime-fighting and social order and many civil societies, elected leaders and academicians called for intensive and extensive meaningful police reforms (Crank, 2015). At present, most of these countries are now involved in the process of reforming key government institutions like the police guided by the pillars of liberalism, democracy, and capitalism, and are by principle faced with the challenge of ensuring the integrity of police (Smith, 2012). The reform in the police is due to the pressure for accountability on the governments by members of the public and other local and international stakeholders, government priorities, and members of the public changing needs and priorities among others (Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff, 2015).

Police reforms emphasize the alteration of the governing tenets of domestic security agencies and adopting the new face of a modern police service with the latest equipment, technology, and innovations, reorganization of the command structure, decentralization of decision-making organs, reporting channels, and delegation of authority (Ingrams, Piotrowski and Berliner, 2020). Further, this enhances a shift from reactive crime response to crime prevention and problem-solving and embraces the police public partnership by appreciating the role of the police and members of the public in public safety (Thompson and Payne, 2019). Police reforms, therefore, involve the creation and implementation of strategic measures that ensure a police service that meets the expectation of the members of the public guided by the best professionalism ideals (Hope, 2020; Skilling, 2016).

In developed countries such as the United States of America (USA), where democracy has a center stage, police reforms were necessitated by unwarranted brutality on members of the public that was characterized by the deadly use of force by the police. There was no pattern or control of police operations and the police officers exhibited extensive use of force in the performance of duty (Smith and Holmes, 2014). In Brazil, the police agencies served the interests of the metropolis and the owners of slaves during the colonial periods and there was no uniform and professional police structure as the police were not separate from the judicial system and military units (Bordin and de Moraes, 2017). These developments adversely affected service delivery in the police.

In England and Wales, the model of policing is a highly centralised state-controlled system. The local governance of the police remains enmeshed in an edifice of the central state or quasi-state institutions with the commissioners facing the challenge of achieving democratic legitimacy and effective service delivery (Jones and Lister, 2019). In France, the daily safety policing introduced in 2018 created a balanced approach between a tough-on-crime philosophy and better equipping of police forces that complained about their work conditions (Zagrodzki, 2017). These reform measures have not achieved much in terms of service delivery by the police. In Sweden, the proposal for police reforms favoured the creation of a unified police service with a view to addressing the disparities in the police service. The introduction of an independent oversight body to supervise both the police service and the security services is also a step in the right direction (Swedish Ministry of Justice, 2012). Since 2003, the post-Soviet

republic of Georgia has dismissed corrupt police officers and restructured the police agencies as part of police reforms (Light, 2013).

In the early 1990s, many African states took up democratic reforms and incorporated human rights training within their police forces (Bayeh, 2015) with crime prevention becoming an important part of strategies for public safety to deal with crime and victimization (Montesh and Basdeo, 2012). In Sub-Saharan Africa, the police are among the most dysfunctional institutions and the public has entirely negative perceptions of the police (Downie, 2013). As such the developing nations have been cautious with the security sector reforms since past security assistance by the development partners has not supported public security concerns (Detzner, 2017; Marenin, 2014).

In Sierra Leone police, positive gains have been realized since the police reforms began in many areas such as operational capability, and management structure among others to maximize efficiency (Merenin, 2014). The police commanders were tasked with post-operational reviews, to document learning lessons for the future. Training in public order at all rank levels provided the police with the urgency for planning and event management capacity and the police attitude and practice have changed significantly (Bangura, 2018; 2017; 2016).

Many constraints faced the police reforms agenda in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) due to the negative effects of the political patronage of the police on issues such as administration, promotion, management, and recruitment procedures (Boutellis, 2013). The police reforms handled security systems that protected members of the public by promoting the rule of law for efficiency (Mayamba, 2013). The security challenges in South Sudan continue due to being a concern due to the proliferation of small arms and light weapons, and inter-tribal conflict over natural resources among other factors and the security posture in South Sudan has only slightly improved following the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) in 2005 between the government of Sudan and the Sudan People Liberation Army (SPLA) (Wight, 2017). However, the South Sudan Police Service (SSPS) receives little attention from the GoSS and international Security Sector Reform (SSR) actors and it lacks the appropriate legal framework, an effective organizational structure, and basic equipment and infrastructure for police activities (Detzner, 2019).

With the new Constitution promulgated on 27th August 2010, Kenyans legitimately anticipated the robust security framework articulated under the law would guarantee them their safety and security (the Republic of Kenya, 2010). These were necessitated by various factors such as poor performance of the police, changes in threats in the operating environment, and the changes in the preferences and needs of the members of the public among others (National Police Service, 2016). Police reforms in Kenya that began in 2003 represented a paradigm shift towards people-centered police through community policing (Gjelsvik, 2020). Transforming the Kenya Police Force (KPF) into Kenya Police Service (KPS) and the Administration Police (AP) into Administration Police Service (APS), the Criminal Investigation Department (CID) into Directorate of Criminal Investigation (DCI), and to the creation of the umbrella body the National Police Service (NPS), under the command of the Inspector General (IG) of Police was an important aspect of reforms that was anticipated to reverse decades of police condescending culture of human rights abuse, impunity, and brutality into an acceptable police culture that is more transparent, responsive and proactive (Ogada, 2016). The reforms program thus

introduced new codes of conduct to the criminal justice system, the shifting of focus from reactive to proactive policing, evidenced-based crime reporting procedures, providing better equipment and technical assistance to the criminal justice system among others to improve service delivery (Haskins, 2019), hence, this study aimed at evaluating the effects of facilitation on service delivery in the NPS, Nairobi County, Kenya.

Theoretical Framework

This study was anchored on the New Public Management (NPM) Theory whose origins are in public choice theory and managerialism and began in the 1970s and early 1980s in the United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand. Since then, it has come to dominate thinking about the public sector reform and is hailed as a new paradigm as was conceptualized by Christopher Cropper Hood in 1991 to broadly speculate the government policies meant to enhance public sector reforms (Verbeeten and Spekle', 2015; Andrews and Van de Walle, 2013). The basic thrust of the reform process was and continues to be to build a professional meritocratic, and qualified public workforce to ensure effective and efficient delivery of public services and combat bureaucratic corruption (Mendel, Fyfe, and den Heyer, 2017).

The initial focus of NPM theory was on increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of public sector institutions by emphasizing local's participation, through private sectors. This led to new organisational economies and managerialism and an increase in service transparency in resource allocation, decentralization of traditional bureaucratic institutions, management efficiency within public agencies, cost-effectiveness, disaggregation of public service functions from their purchase, the introduction of stakeholder approaches, performance-based management, contractual services, performance-based appraisal and increasing emphasis on service quality, standards-setting and public responsiveness (McCourt, 2017).

The NPM theory brings to the fore the transformation of the members of the public into a customer of public services, who pays for the public services and hence has a choice and the exit option, and the opportunity to give feedback on public service delivered. Based on the NPM theory, modern governments are becoming customer-oriented, competitive and result-oriented, in offering services to members of the public bringing into play good governance that enhances the effectiveness of government services. The application of the concept of NPM is therefore important in strengthening the need and significance of good governance in the public sector (Robinson, 2015).

The NPM theory is a new paradigm of public administration that examines democratic police reform in transition, developing, and post-conflict nations that point to the failures and inadequacies of public sector performance over time and the problems of public sector activity and traditional public administration. The NPM theory addresses problems such as the size of the government, centralised bureaucracies, inadequate mechanisms of accountability, waste, and inefficiency in resource use (Kalimullah, Ashraf, and Ashaduzzaman, 2012). The theory is deemed fit for the study as it is driven by the demand for enhanced efficiency and accountability rather than the need to maximise other values such as fairness, equity, due process, and public participation (Webler and Tuler, 2018).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The frontline workers such as the police officers are expected to provide quality services to members of the public (Tummers, Bekkers, Vink and Musheno (2015). Quality service is a series of intangible activities designed in conformance to requirements, specifications, and satisfaction of the customer (Olowe, Nkwuagba, and Ayodele (2018), and policing reforms is seen as a proactive initiative aimed at improving the efficiency and effectiveness of police service delivery (den Heyer, 2020). Receptiveness is the preparedness to help the members of the public and provide prompt service and the focus is on attentiveness and promptness in dealing with the public who are usually frustrated if they cannot get someone to help.

The process of delivering an effective service is a key factor for the police managers because much of the effectiveness of the police depends on the specific activities that they undertake in the community. The community relationship is highly complex and is influenced by performance measurement, organisational structure, and governance (den Heyer, 2017). The impact that the police have on local crime is affected by the ability to respond to the needs of the members of the public, the resources available, and the partnership between the police and the community.

In the process of service delivery, many police departments face numerous challenges emanating from inadequate resources, lack of leadership, and political influence among other challenges (Stanislas, 2021; Loveday, 2021; Bezuidenhout and Kempen, 2021). The political culture in any nation determines whether its police forces are organised nationally or locally. The desire for efficiency leads to the establishment of a centralised police force, which can take advantage of coordination and savings in training, organization, and service delivery (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2019). Restructuring and merging public sector organizations is most of the time seen as a way to enhance efficiency and efficacy (Mendel et al 2017).

In the USA, this involved the amalgamation of local police and fire department to form one local emergency agency and bring out the synergy (Wilson, Weiss and Grammich, 2012) while in the United Kingdom (UK), it involved the merging of two police agencies that provided the same functions. In the developed nations, the police have had adequate training more so in areas of crime investigation and community partnership, the adoption of technology in policing has been adequate, proper equipment such as forensic investigation equipment and training, adequate vehicles for mobility among others are and provided all of which have been found to be lacking in the developing nations (Mensah, 2019).

In Afghan, there have been concerted efforts by the communities with the support of the USA government to develop infrastructure such as a well-equipped police station for the stability of police operations, rehabilitation of vital infrastructures, and continued training to meet the security demands of the people (Affleck, Gardner, Aytur, Carlson, Grimm and Deeb, 2019).

The police forces in Africa are in a state of continuous dysfunction in the provision of services to the members of the public (Amnesty International, 2013). As a result of the ineffective and repressive police practices, African communities have increasingly relied on non-statutory policing systems to meet their security needs. In most African countries, the colonialism legacy, the consequences of armed conflict, the existence of the many forms of physical and structural violence, and endemic political corruption have had a particularly profound impact on public

service delivery (Schwartz, 2015), and policing is no exception. In South Africa, there has been an apparent inadequate delivery of services to the members of the public by the police. This has been occasioned by the lack of prerequisite training and skills on the changing security needs of the community and inadequate resources to effectively perform their duties (Burger, 2013).

In Kenya, the police reforms have followed the pattern of other countries coming out of conflict situations. The reform process has faced the challenges of inadequate resources for long term sustainability in terms of human capital development, financial prowess and technical support that has never resonated well with the vision and mission of the police service. The vast investments in the reform process by the stakeholders have not improved on the police performance apart from the improving the operational efficiency (Sigsworth, 2020). The police reform in Kenya has involved large public resources devoted to modernising the service and the foundation of reforms has been accomplished but challenges and problems remain in the area of facilitating police operations.

METHODOLOGY

The research philosophy that underpins this study is the pragmatism philosophy founded by Charles Sanders Peirce in the 1870s as a method of using scientific logic to clarify the meaning of concepts or ideas through investigating their potential relationship with the real world (Kaushik and Walsh, 2019), and supports the simultaneous use of qualitative and quantitative methods of inquiry to generate evidence to support best practice. The philosophy is based on the fact that the practical consequences and the effects of concepts and behaviours are vital components of meaning and truth. The study employed an evaluation research design that uses standard social research methods for evaluation purposes and used a deductive-quantitative approach (Creswell, 2014; Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2012).

The target population in the study was two thousand one hundred (2100) police officers stationed in all the police stations in Nairobi County, the smallest and the most populous among the 47 counties in Kenya with a population of 4,337,080 (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2019) and seen as the center of reforms as it is the capital city of Kenya where ideas of reforms are devised and is the hub of change and transformation as reforms is about spreading the message outwards from the capital city (Brankamp, 2019). The Nassiuma formula for sample size determination was used to obtain the sample of 203 and given that this sample is small, an additional 10% of respondents were included to take care of any eventuality with the sample during data collection. The final sample size of the study was therefore 224 for police officers simple randomly sampled and 50% of the police sample (112) respondents for the members of the public purposively sampled. Five key informants were purposively selected from the NPS headquarters Directorate of Police Reform, KPS Gender and Community Policing, National Police Service Commission (NPSC) legal department, Independent Policing Oversight Authority (IPOA) research department, and from the International Centre for Transitional Justice.

Secondary data was collected through analyzing reports, minutes of meetings, available statistics, and documents that contained information on police reforms and police service delivery to validate the results obtained from the analysis of primary data. Primary data was collected by administering questionnaires with closed-ended and open-ended questions to the respondents and interviews with key informants using a key informant guide. Before data collection, pilot testing was done to prepare the questionnaire adequately. Reliability was

tested using pre-tested data sets and Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.724 was obtained which is statistically acceptable for this study. Validity was ensured through expert opinion from the research experts and professionals in police reforms and service delivery. Qualitative data were analyzed by use of thematic analysis while quantitative data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Inferential statistics was done through multiple regression analysis to predict the value of the dependent variable based on the value of the independent variable, Chi-square tests of association were used to determine statistical and significant relationship or association between two categorical variables, Pearson and Spearman rank correlation analysis was used to determine the strength and direction of relationship or association between two quantitative variables. Research ethical standards of confidentiality and anonymity were observed.

FINDINGS

A total of 336 questionnaires were administered and the return rate was 100%. After executing the survey, and review the responses provided in the questionnaires from an angle of legibility, completeness, consistency, and homogeneity, out of the 224 police officers who responded in the study, 96% responded to all the questions completely while out of the 112 members of the public who responded, 94% responded to all the questions completely and were thus eligible for analysis giving an overall 95% response rate. The response rate of 95% was acceptable for analysis and drawing important conclusions about the target population (Creswell, 2014).

In terms of gender, 88.3% of the respondent police officers were male while 11.7% female ($M = 1.117$, $SD = 0.322$) while 61.9% of the members of public were male while 38.1%, female ($M = 1.381$, $SD = 0.488$). Cross tabulation of gender and department shows a Chi-Square value $\chi^2_{2, 0.05} = 10.465$ of $P = 0.005$ at 95% confidence interval at 2 degrees of freedom and Spearman Correlation $R = -0.107$ at $P = 0.118$ indicating a minimal association between gender and department.

The majority (63.6%) of the respondent police officers were in the age bracket of 26-35 years, while 1.4% were 56 years and above ($M = 2.481$, $SD = 0.7550$), while 42.9% of respondent members of the public were in the age bracket 26-35 years, and 3.8% in the age bracket of 56 years and above. Education attainment of the respondent police officers shows that 43.5% had a Diploma level of education, and 0.5% had a Master's degree ($M = 4.864$, $SD = 1.5368$), while most (41%) of the respondent members of the public had Bachelor's degree level of education, and 6.7% had Master's degree ($M = 5.638$, $SD = 1.9667$). In terms of police ranks, 0.5% were Superintendent of Police, and 32.2% Constables ($M = 6.154$, $SD = 1.8739$), and 43.9% were deployed in General Duty's department, 38.3% were deployed in the Crime Office department and 17.8% deployed in the Traffic Department at the station level ($M = 2.261$, $SD = 1.1224$), while most (40.7%) of the respondent police officers had served in the police service for between 6 and 10 years, while 6.5% had served for 20 years and above ($M = 2.261$, $SD = 1.1224$). Figure 1 shows that 43% of the respondent police officers reported that they are well facilitated and mobile, and 1% indicated the police are very poorly facilitated. For members of the public, 40% indicated the police were well facilitated, and 2% indicated they are very poorly facilitated.

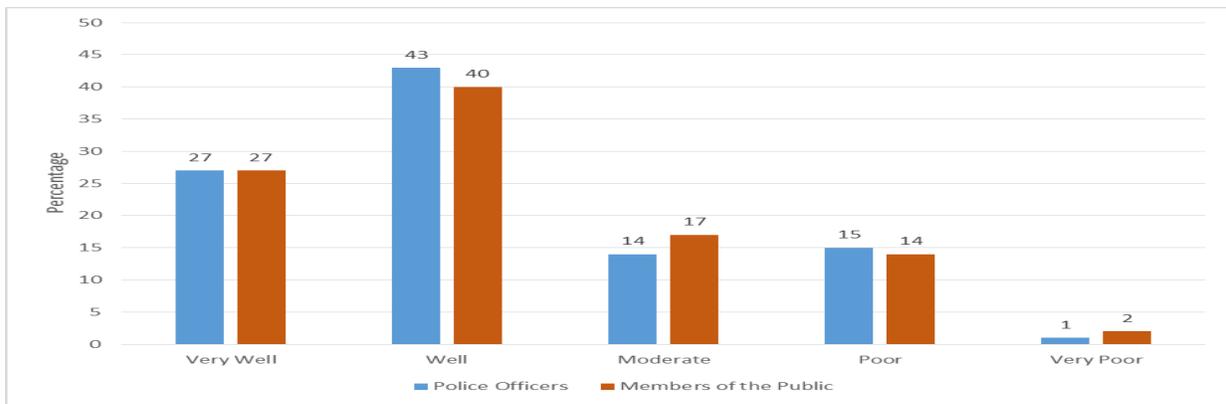


Figure 1: Police Mobility

The results in Table 1. on office accommodation indicates that police office accommodation was moderate, (33.2%) while 0.9% indicated adequate (M = 3.033, SD = 0.8688) while 31.4% of respondent members of public reported the office accommodation was moderate, while 9.5% indicated it was very poor (M = 3.038, SD = 1.1260).

Table 1: Office Accommodation

Office Accommodation (%)	Very Well	Well	Moderate	Poor	Very Poor	Mean	Std. Dev.
Police Officers	0.9	31.3	33.2	32.7	1.9	3.033	0.868
Members of the Public	9.5	22.9	31.4	26.7	9.5	3.038	1.126

One of the key informants had this to say:

The civilian Independent Police Oversight Authority (IPOA) monitors police service excesses and is involved in research aimed at improving the welfare of police officers both in terms of housing and their general welfare at the workplace. The authority ensures the working conditions are suitable (Respondent K3).

On the mechanisms for providing feedback results show that 32.2% of respondent police officers indicated the mechanisms for providing feedback as part of police reforms as well, 30.4% moderate, 27.1% poor, 8.4% very well and 1.9% indicated very poor (M = 2.818, median = 3, mode = 2, SD = 0.9879) while majority (30.5%) of respondent members of the public indicated poor, 25.7% indicated moderate, 21% indicated very poor, 19% well while only 3.8% indicated very well (M = 3.457, median = 4, mode = 4 and SD = 1.1343). From the key informants, some had this to say:

The physical infrastructure at the police stations moderately supports police operations as indicated by respondent police officers (40%) members (29%) of the public. While 26% of respondent police officers and 26% of members of the public indicated well, 21% of police officers and 28% of members of the public indicated poor, 10% of police officers and 10% of members of public indicated very well while 3% of police officers and 7% of members of the public indicated very poor (M = 2.818/2.962, SD = 0.9736/1.1260).

The police have established an anonymous reporting mechanism 22068/999/112 and embarked on professionalising the service through recruitment and training of police officers (Respondent K1). The internal discipline of police officers should be a function of the NPS Commission. However, the NPS chooses to perform this function to enable the NPSC to deal with complains against police officers by members of the public that are likely to make members of the public lose confidence in the NPS (Respondent K2).

The majority (54%) of police officers were not sure whether the police service reforms being implemented had influenced police officers to act professionally, while only 1% strongly agreed. Approximately 36% of members of the public disagree that the police now act more professionally than before the reforms while 3% strongly agree. Approximately 41% of members of the public strongly disagree the police are more professional in handling the members of the public during riots as a result of police reforms, and 53.7% strongly disagree there were notable changes in the NPS reform efforts that have facilitated service delivery, while 3.7% strongly agrees ($M = 2.065$, $SD = 1.1364$). About 57.9% are not sure whether there is an increase in the number of solved crimes while 0.9% strongly agree ($M = 3.005$, $SD = 0.8136$). Approximately 72% are not sure crime prevention efforts are bearing fruits, while 0.5% strongly agree ($M = 2.724$, $SD = 0.8687$). Again 44.9% are not sure police managers have the capacity to manage the change process in Kenya, while 1.4% strongly agree ($M = 2.355$, $SD = 1.1486$).

The majority (37.1%) of respondent members of the public disagree notable changes in the NPS reforms efforts have facilitated service delivery and 5.7% strongly agrees ($M = 2.714$, $SD = 1.1661$), 37.1% disagree there is increased efficiency in addressing crimes while 3.8% strongly agree ($M = 2.571$, $SD = 1.1918$), 39% disagree crime prevention efforts are bearing fruits while 3.8% strongly agrees ($M = 2.295$, $SD = 1.2083$), 33.3% agree the police managers have the capacity to manage change process in Kenya, while 5.8% strongly agrees ($M = 2.952$, $SD = 1.1716$), and 44.8% strongly agree the rates of crime still remain high while 9.5% are not sure ($M = 3.067$, $SD = 1.2623$).

The Pearson correlation test critical value was set at 0.05 above which the association is deemed to be insignificant and vice versa. The strength of the correlation was measured based on the Pearson Correlation scale. The null hypothesis was **H01**: There is no statistically significant relationship between police service facilitation and service delivery in the NPS, Nairobi County, Kenya. The correlation coefficient for the association between police facilitation and service delivery is 0.036 with a significance value of 0.601 which is more than 0.05 at the 5% level, hence the null hypothesis is accepted. Multiple regression analysis model adopted by this study in Table 2 indicate the R squared of 0.080, meaning facilitation and responsiveness can only explain 8% of service delivery variations with a small error of 0.93207 and as such this is a very weak model as the difference of 92% of the variations are as a result of other factors.

Table 2: Regression Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.284 ^a	0.080	0.063	0.93207

a. Predictors: (Constant), Demographic and Social Profile, Facilitation, Legal Framework, Public Trust, Police Attitude and Responsiveness and Institutional Framework and Professionalism

DISCUSSION

The findings indicate that the majority of the respondents were male which is consistent with a study by Ntuli and Kwenda (2019) and Onuonga (2014) in which gender gaps in the world are more pronounced in the official full-time employments including types of jobs, firms, and rate of participation, etc. As Kenyan women join the labour force in large numbers due to universal access to education, the majority of women are still concentrating in customarily female professions and the informal sector. However, the findings on gender are not consistent with the national gender distribution in which females are approximately 51% of the national population (KNBS, 2019), and implies the police are yet to achieve the two-thirds gender rule in employment and subsequent deployment of police officers in all the stations, especially in Nairobi County yet the police are required to ensure there are more female police officers to ensure the sexual and gender-based violence that target majorly the female victims are responded to effectively by female police officers.

The highest composition of the respondents is that of the age category 26-35 years. This is very significant as most of the crimes committed in Nairobi County are committed by the youthful population, the majority of who are unemployed or are seeking gainful employment. This also shows that the respondent police officers are still in their youthful age and have the capability to internalise reforms owing to flexibility and adaptability at this age. The findings are consistent with a study by Franz (2014) in which the youths tend to find employment in the informal sector rather than the formal sector and up to around the age of 20 years, youth employment in the formal sector remains negligible and only after the age of 25 years does the share of the youth employment in the formal sector climbs.

The respondents had attained high levels of education to provide in-depth information regarding police reforms that are consistent with a study by Bruns and Magnan (2014) in which the level of literacy enriched the research findings, especially during data collection as most of the respondents understood the questions involved with ease and provided accurate and reliable information (Ageyo and Muchunku, 2020; Odi, 2016). The higher the police rank, the more experienced the officer is, which suggests a higher-level investment in skills development. This suggests that such an officer has more responsibility and capacity in the actualisation of the policy reform agenda. There were significantly more male officers in comparison to female officers in all three departments; this can be justified by the nature of the profession. Most women do not venture into security affairs as it is seen as a masculine profession.

Over 60% of the respondents reported police reforms had increased the mobility of police officers in terms of vehicles, motorbikes, and other equipment with the government plan of leasing the vehicles to enable the police to concentrate on their core mandate and functions. The study findings are consistent with Ombati (2013) in which police mobility has been enhanced by government efforts to lease vehicles for the police so that the police can effectively concentrate on their core functions of prevention and detection of crime. Approximately 64% of the respondents reported there are poor physical infrastructures in place to support police operations at the station level. The office accommodation for the officers was found to be very poor and not suitable for executing their functions and this situation interferes with crime investigations as the police do not have the operational freedom to carry out their mandate. The findings are not consistent with a study by Bhardwaj (2018) in which the primary role of the police is to uphold and enforce laws, investigate crimes and ensure the security of the people and they need to be well equipped in terms of personnel, weaponry, office space and others to perform their role with operational freedom and professionally under satisfactory working conditions.

The majority (75.6%) of the respondents were of the opinion that the number of solved crimes was not on the increase. The study findings are consistent with Osse (2016) in which the public lacked confidence in the KPF competence and integrity and the public perceptions are in many respects justifiable and results in low reporting levels of crime. Over 50% of the respondents reported there were poor mechanisms in place to provide feedback with the police. There are ineffective feedback mechanisms for police and for members of the public, for example, social media, electronic media, hotlines 999 and 112, and other means have been made available for the ease of interaction. These findings are inconsistent with Cherono (2019) in which the NPS was found to have undergone tremendous changes and transformation ranging from infrastructural development to human capital development, tooling, kitting, and equipping police officers to respond to modern-day security challenges and addressing the welfare of the police officers.

In Spite of the fact that reforms are in place, the police officers still do not act professionally in discharging their duties. These findings are consistent with Osse (2017), in whichever since its inception by the colonial powers, police in Kenya has functioned as a class institution where members of the higher class receive quite different treatment from the lower class, by serving the interest of those in power and not the interest of the public. The police have a level of discretion to decide how to deal with certain policing situations. Such discretion is often seen by the members of the public as a defining element of police professionalism. Despite the police reforms, the police officers are not yet more professional in handling the members of the public and more so during riots. These findings support the findings by Ochieng and Otuya (2019) on the police officers' use of excessive force without due regard to the fundamental rights of individuals during public assemblies.

The members of the public were divided on the capacity of managers to handle change in the police service in Kenya. The findings imply the police managers are not properly engaged to manage the change process which is consistent with a study by Diphorn, van Stapele and Kimari (2019), in which the police structures need to be redesigned to enable members of the public to repetitively participate with the police in identifying the services they require from the police.

CONCLUSIONS

The police service in Kenya has been facilitated through the lease of motor vehicles and the provision of other technical equipment. The use of technical equipment is central to crime investigations with emphasis on interviews of suspects. This reduces opportunities for police officers frustrated with the course of investigations to abuse detainee's rights. However, the police station office spaces are still very poor and this interferes with the police operational freedom. There are poor feedback mechanisms within the police and the physical infrastructures in the police stations are very poor to support police operation at the station level. This in effect makes the police to be unprofessional and more so in the way they handle public assemblies like riots. There are no notable changes that have facilitated service delivery and the number of crimes solved has not increased, thus crime prevention efforts are not bearing fruits, the police managers are unable to manage the change process, there is inefficiency in addressing crimes and crime rates still remain high even after the police reforms. Based on the null hypothesis which was supported, this study concludes that facilitation has no significant effect on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Police effectiveness depends not only on individual police decisions but also on the organisational context within which police work operates. It is evident that police reforms in Kenya are an ongoing process and are still at the infancy stage. The reforms achieved so far are less than 50% of the anticipated policy reforms. The study recommends:

1. The NPS with the assistance of other stakeholders should plan and figure out what it wants the NPS to look like once the reform efforts have been fully implemented and institutionally successful by developing a policy on policing.
2. The police stations, some of which were built by colonialists to have a facelift to enable police officers to work, are safe offices that are spacious enough, with adequate storage facilities for exhibits and evidence-based on the latest technologies.
3. Police service should be facilitated in all aspects of its operations in order to deliver optimum service
4. The police service should develop mechanisms to enhance public trust and confidence in their operations
5. Community policing should be restructured in order to support efficiency in the police service.

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