# POLICE REFORMS AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE NATIONAL POLICE SERVICE, NAIROBI COUNTY, KENYA

 $\mathbf{BY}$ 

#### **HUMPHREY YOUNG OGOLA**

# THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

**MOI UNIVERSITY** 

# **DECLARATION**

# **Declaration by the Student**

This thesis is my original work and ha	as not b	een presente	ed for a d	legre	e in a	ny other
university. No part of this thesis n	nay be	reproduced	without	the	prior	written
permission of the author and/or Moi U	niversit	y.				
Sign:	-	Date:_				
<b>Humphrey Young Ogola</b>						
Reg. No: SHRD/DPHIL/14/14						
<b>Declaration by the Supervisors</b>						
This thesis has been submitted for ex	xaminati	ion with our	approva	l as	the ur	niversity
supervisors.						
Sign:	-	Date:_				
Prof. Bernard Kibeti Nassiuma						
Department of Management Sciences a	and Ent	repreneurship	)			
Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya						
Sign:		Date:_				
Dr. David Mwangi Kung'u						
Department of Environmental Health a	and Disa	nster Risk Ma	anagemei	ıt		
Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya						

# **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my loving family, citadels of hope and determination whose golden hearts remain eternally etched in my mind.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

First and foremost, I wish to take this opportunity to thank the Almighty God for his grace, and my supervisors, Prof. Bernard Kibeti Nassiuma and Dr. David Mwangi for their immense support, direction, and guidance during the entire period of developing this thesis. Without their support this exercise would not have been accomplished. In addition, I appreciate the lecturers who taught and guided me through this programme for their professional support. I would also like to acknowledge the support from my programme colleagues for all the consultative forums we shared during the entire period of the course. I also thank my family for the support offered, sacrifices and understanding during the undertaking of this programme.

#### **ABSTRACT**

Police service delivery in society has always come under sharp criticism globally. This has necessitated reforms to the service to align it to its roles and core functions which are critical for national development. This study examined the influence of the police service reforms on service delivery. The specific objectives; examine the effects of facilitation, public trust, and police attitude and responsiveness, on service delivery. A pragmatic research philosophy was adapted to guide the study. The study was anchored on New Public Management (NPM) theory, the motive-based theory, and the conflict theory. An explanatory sequential research design employing mixed method approach was applied. The design was Quan + Qual whereby the quantitative component drove the concurrent design. The target population was 2100 police officers, a sample of 214 police officers and a corresponding 105 members of the public participated in the study. In addition, 11 key informants were purposively selected. Ouestionnaires and a key informant interview guides were used to collect primary data. Qualitative data was analysed thematically, and excerpts reported in verbatim, while quantitative data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings on the demographic characteristics indicated that most (41%) of the police respondents had served in the police for a period of 6 to 10 years. In terms of the ranks 68% of the respondent officers were in higher ranks with a corresponding more experience hence, enhanced in-service delivery. There was no significant relationship between police facilitation and service delivery (r=0.036, p=0.601). Police reforms increased police mobility (60%), in terms of vehicles, motor bikes and other modes of transport. Further, the majority (64%) of the respondent officers asserted that physical infrastructure in place could not support police operations at the station level. On police officers vetting, 54 per cent of the respondents believed that it had fairly facilitated service delivery. However, according to the key informant interviews, 2000 officers have been vetted but majority of those recommended for removal have found their way back into the service through litigation process requiring fair administrative services. The NPSC is financially challenged to discharge its mandate. Members of the public have refused to participate in the vetting process with less than 10% giving their views. Findings on public trust and service delivery were not also statistically significant (r=-0.122, p=0.074). This finding is supported by the majority (94%) of the members of the public who lacked trust in the police service. The relationship between police attitude and responsiveness and service delivery were not significant (r=0.060, p=0.382). The majority (51%) of respondents believed there was no improvement in the relationship between the community and the police officers after the reforms while the majority (77%) perception on the working environment was not good even after the reforms. In conclusion police service facilitation, public trust and police attitude and responsiveness had no influence on service delivery and the police reforms currently being undertaken by NPS had no effect on service delivery. The study recommends development of a policy on policing and infrastructure upgrading. Police officers should be sensitized on the strategic orientation of the service and legal mandates. A holistic implementation of career guidelines on promotion of officers, retraining of officers on human rights and emerging security threats, sensitization of police officers on reforms and body and dash camera be introduced to enhance accountability and transparency among officers. The public should be more involved in the vetting process of police officers as the reform process as it is an undertaking that needs time, requires resources (physical, emotional, and attitudinal.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iv
ABSTRACT	V
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	X
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	xii
OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS	XV
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Overview	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	13
1.3 Objectives of the Study	14
1.3.1 Broad Objective of the Study	14
1.3.2 Specific Objectives	14
1.4 Research Hypotheses	14
1.5 Justification of the Study	15
1.6 Significance of the Study	16
1.7 Scope and Delimitation of the Study	17
CHAPTER TWO	19
LITERATURE REVIEW	19
2.0 Introduction	19
2.1 Concepts in the Study	19
2.1.1 Service Delivery	20
2.1.2 Police Reform	22
2.2 Theoretical Framework	29
2.2.1 New Public Management Theory	29
2.2.2 Motive Based Trust Theory	31
2.2.3 Conflict Theory	32
2.3 Empirical Literature Review	33

2.3.1 Police Facilitation and Service Delivery	37
2.3.2 Public Trust and Service Delivery	49
2.3.3 Police Attitude, Responsiveness and Service Delivery	55
2.4 Conceptual Framework	58
2.5 Chapter Summary and Research Gaps	59
CHAPTER THREE	63
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	63
3.0 Introduction	63
3.1 Research Philosophy	63
3.2 Research Design	65
3.2.1 Research Approach	66
3.3 Target Population	67
3.4 Sample Size Determination and Sampling Strategy	67
3.4.1 Sample Size Determination	67
3.4.2 Sampling Strategy	68
3.5 Data and Data Collection Instruments	69
3.5.1 Secondary Data	69
3.5.2 Primary Data	69
3.5.3 Questionnaire	70
3.5.4 Key Informant Interview Guide	73
3.6 Data Collection Procedures.	73
3.6.1 Pilot Study	74
3.6.2 Reliability of Research instruments	74
3.6.3 Validity of Research Instruments	75
3.7 Data Analysis Procedures	75
3.7.1 Questions Generation	76
3.7.2 Analysis	77
3.8 Limitations of the Study	78
3.9 Ethical Considerations for the Study	79
CHAPTER FOUR	81
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, AND INTERPRETATION	81
4.0 Introduction	81
4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	81
4.1.1 Response Rate	81

4.1.2 Gender of Respondents	82
4.1.3 Age Category	84
4.1.4 Highest Level of Education	86
4.1.5 Rank of the Respondent Police Officers	89
4.1.6 Department	91
4.1.7 Length of Service	92
4.2 Police Facilitation	93
4.2.1 Police Mobility	93
4.2.2 Office Infrastructure and Accommodation	94
4.2.3 Aspects Service Delivery	97
4.2.4 Mission of Police Service	102
4.2.5 Foundational Security Components	103
4.2.6 Roles and Responsibilities	104
4.2.7 Legislation in Policing	105
4.2.8 Police Vetting	106
4.2.9 Prompt Response to Reported Crimes by Police	109
4.2.10 Police Reliability after Reforms	110
4.2.11 Time Spent Explaining Reforms to Police Officers	111
4.2.12 Attitude on Status of Police Reforms Implementation	111
4.2.13 Feedback Mechanisms	114
4.2.14 Police Act Professionally	115
4.2.15 Police Professionalism in Handling Riots	117
4.3 Public Trust	118
4.3.1 Complaints against Police Officers	118
4.3.2 Trust with the Police	119
4.3.3 Lack of Public Trust in Reforms Implementation	120
4.3.4 Community Partnership	121
4.3.5 Reforms Improve Relationship	122
4.3.6 Members of Public Level of Trust	123
4.3.7 Confidence with Police Public Safety	126
4.4 Police Attitude and Responsiveness	128
4.4.1 Police Reforms is all Encompassing	128
4.4.2 Notable Reforms in the Police Implemented	129
4.4.3 Police Officers' Attitude towards their Work	130

4.4.4 Improvement on Police Image	131
4.4.5 Police Officers Commitment	132
4.4.6 Police Officers Morale	133
4.4.7 Members of the Public Attitude towards the Police	134
4.4.8 Police Officers Attitude with Reforms	136
4.5 Hypothesis Testing	137
4.5.1 Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis	137
4.5.2 Regression Analysis	138
CHAPTER FIVE	140
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND	
RECOMMENDATIONS	140
5.0 Introduction	140
5.1 Summary of Findings	140
5.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents	140
5.1.2 Police Service Facilitation	141
5.1.3 Public Trust	142
5.1.4 Police Attitude and Responsiveness	143
5.2 Conclusions	144
5.3 Implications of the Study	148
5.4 Recommendations	150
5.5 Suggestion for Further Research	151
REFERENCES	153
APPENDICES	173
Appendix 1: Questionnaire for Police Officers	173
Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Members of the Public	179
Appendix 3: Key Informants Interview Guide	185
Appendix 4: Research Authorization Letter	186
Appendix 5: Research Permit	187
Appendix 6: Statistical Tests	188
Appendix 7: Map of the Study Area	194

### LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Summary of Research Gaps	60
Table 3.1: Sample Size	68
Table 3.2.    Instrument Reliability Statistics	75
<b>Table 3.3</b> : Summary of the Analysis Strategy for Quantitative Data	78
Table 4.1. Response Rate	82
Table 4.2.: Gender of Respondents	83
Table 4.3. Age Category	85
Table 4.4: Highest Level of Education	87
Table 4.5: Rank of the Respondent Police Officers	90
Table 4.6: Department	91
Table 4.7: Length of Service	92
Table 4.8: Office Accommodation	94
Table 4.9: Aspects of Service Delivery by Police	98
Table 4.10: Aspects Service Delivery by Members of Public	100
Table 4.11: Foundational Security Components	104
Table 4.12: New Legislation in Policing	105
Table 4.13: Prompt Response to Reported Crimes by the Police	109
Table 4.14: Police Officers' Attitude on Police Reforms Implementation	112
Table 4.15: Members of Public Attitude on Police Reforms Implementation	113
Table 4.16: Feedback Mechanisms	114
Table 4.17: Trust with the Police	119
Table 4.18: Trust of the Police Reforms Implementation	120
Table 4.19: Members of the Public Level of Trust	124
Table 4.20: Police Reforms Encompassing	128
Table 4.21: Police Officers' Attitude Towards their Work	130
Table 4.22: Police Officers' Commitment	132
Table 4.23: Members of Public Attitude Towards the Police	134
Table 4.24: Pearson Correlation Coefficient	137
<b>Table 4.25:</b> Regression Model Summary	139

# LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework	58
Figure 4.1: Police Mobility	94
Figure 4.2: Physical Infrastructure	96
Figure 4.3: Police Mission	103
Figure 4.4: Roles and Responsibilities	105
Figure 4.5: Police Vetting	107
Figure 4.6: Police Reliability After Reforms	110
Figure 4.7: Time Spent Explaining Reforms to Police Officers	111
Figure 4.8: Police Act Professionally	115
Figure 4.9: Police Acting More Professionally	116
Figure 4.10: Police Professionalism in Handling Riots.	117
Figure 4.11: Complaint Against Police Officers.	118
Figure 4.12: Community Partnership	122
Figure 4.13: Reforms Improves Relationship	123
Figure 4.14: Confidence with Police Public Safety	127
Figure 4.15: Notable Reforms Implemented	129
Figure 4.16: Improvement on Police Image	131
Figure 4.17: Police Officers' Morale	133
Figure 4.18: Police Officers' Attitude with Reforms	136

#### ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

**ANC** Africa National Congress

**AP** Administration Police

**APS** Administration Police Service

**CCTV** Closed Circuit Television

**CFA** Confirmatory Factor Analysis

**CID** Criminal Investigations Department

**COP** Community Oriented Policing

**CPA** Comprehensive Peace Agreement

**CSO** Civil Society Organizations

**DCI** Directorate of Criminal Investigations

**DRC** Democratic Republic of Congo

**EAC** East Africa Community

**EACE** East Africa Certificate of Education

**GDP** Gross Domestic Product

**GJLOS** Governance Justice Law Order and Sector

GOSS Government of South Sudan

**IBEA** Imperial British East Africa

IAU Internal Affairs Unit

ICT Information Communication Technology

IC3 Integrated Command Control and Communication

**IG** Inspector General of Police

**IPOA** Independent Policing Oversight Authority

**KACE** Kenya Africa Certificate of Education

**KCSE** Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education

**KHRC** Kenya Human Rights Commission

**KJSE** Kenya Junior Secondary Education

**KNCHR** Kenya National Commission on Human Rights

**KPF** Kenya Police Force

**KPS** Kenya Police Service

**NACOSTI** National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation

NGO Non-Governmental Organization

**NPF** Nigeria Police Force

**NPM** New Public Management

**NPS** National Police Service

**NPSC** National Police Service Commission

**NTFPR** National Task Force on Police Reforms

**ODPP** Office of the Director of Public Prosecution

**OSCE** Organization of Security Cooperation in Europe

**PRIC** Police Reforms Implementation Committee

**RC** Regional Commissioner

**RCT** Rational Choice Theory

**SAPS** South Africa Police Service

**SEM** Structural Equation Modeling

**SPLA** Sudan People Liberation Army

**SPSS** Statistical Package for Social Science

**SSPS** South Sudan Police Service

**SSR** Security Sector Reforms

**UDHR** Universal Declaration of Human Rights

UK United Kingdom

**UN** United Nations

**USA** United States of America

#### OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

**Decentralized-** Refers to specialized departments at station level with

**Structures:** autonomy of operations.

**Demographic** Refers to the respondents' personal characteristics that

**Profile:** makes them unique and suitable for the study such as gender,

age category, highest level of education for both the police

officers and members of the public and length of service and

department of operation for the police officers

Facilitation: Refers to the provision of resources in the police to

accomplish an assigned task for efficiency.

Independent Police Refers to the Police Oversight Authority, a civilian body

**Oversight** created by an Act of Parliament in 2011, to ensure police are

Authority: held accountable for their actions or omissions while

discharging their mandate according to the laws and

regulations in Kenya.

**Institutional** Institutional framework refers to a set of formal

Framework: organizational structures, rules, and informal norms for

service provision.

**Internal Affair** Refers to the police internal investigative unit in the office of

**Unit:** the Inspector General National Police Service mandated to

investigate police officers' misconduct and excesses and

report to the Inspector General for internal administrative

process on external court process as is applicable.

**Junior Officer:** Refers to police officer of the rank of Police Constable,

Corporal Sergeant, and Senior Sergeant.

Managerial

Refers to the structures that manage police operations,

Structure:

planning and administration.

**New Legislation:** 

Refers to Constitution of Kenya 2010, National Police Service Act 2011, and National Police Service Commission Act 2011, Independent Police Oversight Authority Act, 2011.

**Police:** 

Police are the state security providers representing the authority of the government with the primary task of protecting people and property through public assistance, law enforcement, control, preventing, detecting, and investigating criminal activities and the maintenance of public order and are often also entrusted with various licensing and regulatory activities.

**Police Attitude:** 

Refers to social constructs by the police that provide individuals with an efficient way to summarize their impressions of the attitude object and can be formed by personal experience, information or accepting the statement or belief of others.

**Police Culture:** 

This refers to behaviour, belief, and informal guides that police follow in their work.

**Police Division:** 

Refers to a unit in police composed of several police stations and governed by an officer commanding the police sub county.

**Professionalism:** 

Refers to operating within standards of job requirements, and the conduct and qualities that characterize a particular profession.

**Professionalization:** 

This refers to movement towards police becoming a professional body or behaving in a professional manner.

**Public Trust:** 

It is the expectation that other people or groups or institutions, will act in ways conducive to the wellbeing of the members of public and this study it refers to the expectation that one would personally be treated fairly and effectively in a direct encounter with a police officer.

Reform:

Refers to the process of improving on what is wrong, corrupt, or unsatisfactory in an institution or practice. In this study, police reform refers to the internal reorganization of police organization for the purpose of making it more efficient and able to fulfil its mandated functions as provided in Article 244 of the Constitution i.e., the NPS shall endeavour for professionalism and discipline, promote and practice transparency and accountability and comply with the constitutional standards of human rights and fundamental freedom and dignity.

**Responsiveness:** 

Refers to becoming prompt in case of a crime report and taking the necessary action to the satisfaction of the members of the public.

Security Sector The process of transforming the structures, institutions, and personnel responsible for the management, provision, and

Reform:

oversight of security in a country to strengthen accountability, effectiveness, respect of human rights and rule of law.

**Service Delivery:** 

Service delivery refers to the actual delivery of a service and product to the customer in a structured and synthesized approach to achieving a sustainable service for an organization (Martins and Ledimo, 2015). In this study, it refers to discharge of police duties assigned to them by law equitably, diligently and with a high degree of professional responsibility.

#### CHAPTER ONE

#### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.0 Overview

This chapter presents an introduction to the study. It commences with the background to the study, the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, study hypotheses, the significance, and justifications for conducting this study, scope and delimitations of the study, and assumptions to the study.

#### 1.1 Background to the Study

A country's police force can be either a protector of or a predator on society. Individual policemen and policewomen are sworn to uphold the law regardless of their personal beliefs and the duty is just if the laws are aligned with the natural rights of man, and does not infringe on these rights (Finkenbinder, et al 2013). The responsibility of a state to its citizens for public service delivery represent a central part of the democratic polity (Blair, 2018; Hope, 2015a) and the participation of members of the public in the delivery of public services has time and again been evident (Fledderus, 2016). During the early 1980's, sovereign states across western nations explored varied ways to extend the potency and effectiveness of the public sector organizations, as associate everincreasing quantity of resources were needed to fund police organizations, whereas a perception of a diminished level of public sector services existed. This necessitated police reforms that were meant to remodel the police organizations into valuable and responsive to the desires of the public (UNODC, 2013). Effective public service delivery is an important instrument in boosting governance (Hassan, 2015). Efficiency is about maximizing the results of an action in relation to the resources used and is compared with the effects obtained in the efforts (Vanacker, et al 2013; Koufteros, et al 2014). The police service organizations were not immune from the public judgments

in terms of ineffectiveness and wastefulness. Too often police officers 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).

Many countries world over have practiced totalitarian governments where the national police forces are typically accustomed to intimidating members of the public. These made the police forces encounter with the members of the public unpleasant and the police were seen as being part of the larger problem, instead of protecting individuals' freedoms and faiths. 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 & Brinkerhoff, 2015).

Police reforms emphasizes 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, et al 2020). This encompasses the reevaluation of the training curriculum to incorporate internationally accepted best practices in the training of police officers in areas of human rights and community policing. Further, this enhances a shift from reactive crime response to crime prevention and problem solving and embrace the police public partnership by appreciating the role of the police and members of the public in public safety (Thompson & Payne, 2019). Police reforms

therefore involves the creation and implementation of strategic measures that ensures a police service that meets the expectation of the members of the public guided by the best professionalism ideals (Hope, 2020; Skilling, 2016).

To gain public confidence, the police service values must reflect that of the members of the public and the police must be representative of the population. (Riccucci & van Ryzin, 2017; Fung, 2015). This is achieved through procedures, practices and methodology that are accountable and transparent guided by both internal and external oversight bodies (Stelkia, 2020; Hamm, et al 2017; Prenzler, & den Heyer, 2016).

In the developed countries such as United States of America (USA), where democracy has a centre stage, police reforms were necessitated by unwarranted brutality on members of the public that was characterized by the by the deadly use of force by the police, that led to protests, heated debates, riots and questioning of police tactics and a call for changes to make the police more accountable and transparent. In 1967-1968, the congress was mandated to establish uniform regulations to control criminal investigation procedures and in 2005-2006 called for limited federal government police powers to detail without charge or search with probable cause (Lowery, 2017). These factors and others led to the convening of a special task force for reforms of policing in America in 2015 (Lum & Nagin, 2017). There were no pattern or control of police operations and the police officers exhibited extensive use of force in performance of duty (Smith & Holmes, 2014). The members of the public lost respect for the police officers and at the same time, police abuse became the norm besides corruption (Miller, 2015). The idea of police professionalization dominated discussions in the better part of the early 1950's through early 1970's. The police needed the public acceptance and pursued their goals in cooperation with the public and decentralization of authority within the departments were locally tailored (Sklansky, 2013)

The public trust in the USA police was eroded with the many incidences of police brutality for example the death in Fergusion led to the "Black Lives Matter" riots (James, et al 2020). Police reforms in the USA demanded a more systematic organization in which the use of force was well regulated and controlled through internal and external control mechanisms (Engel, et al 2020; Gerner, et al 2018). This helped in improving what the police do, how they do it and hence enhanced service delivery (Willis, & Mastrofski, 2018). The police organizations in the USA are therefore striving for professionalism where the commanders are held accountable for their acts or omission to boost the public confidence on the legitimacy of the police (Bell, 2017; Ariel, et al 2015).

Police reforms in Latin America were anchored on the restructuring and decentralization assigned to the police regions and the prevention and investigations functions with an enhanced police oversight (Ungar, 2012). The police reform was only effective to that extent because members of the public trusted and partnered with the police in crime management and information sharing to prevent criminal acts. This helped the police to fulfill their mandate by serving the members of public better and gaining legitimacy (Willis, 2014). The public expectation of the police was also achieved through the implementations of the accountability mechanisms (McGregor, 2015; Moore, 2013). These ensured that the police reforms were in line with international standards best practices in policing (UNODC, 2013).

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 was not separate from the judicial system and military units. The adopted European model of France underwent major transformation after the 1964 military coup. However, in 1988 the new Federal Constitution was promulgated which

did not alter the police institutions but regulated them. In 2003 the modification of the police never happened despite the changes in public security (Bordin & de Moraes, 2017). These developments adversely affected service delivery in the police.

With the fall of communism and the emergence of multi-party democracy across central and southeastern Europe, the demand for police reforms in enforcing the rule of law, protecting human rights, and not viewing citizens as potential threats and subordinates was very conspicuous (Holliday & Wagstaff, 2021; Ali & Pirog, 2019; Alpert, et al 2016). Police reforms in Latin America led to the improvement of service delivery and the ability to neutralize transnational crimes.

The democratic accountability of the police in England and Wales have been revitalized by the introduction of the direct elected police and crime commissioners in 2012 to replace the local police authorities and hold the chief constable to account (Jones & Lister, 2019; Reiner, 2016). 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 central state or quasi-state institutions with the commissioners facing the challenge of achieving democratic legitimacy and effective service delivery (Jones & Lister, 2019).

France is often considered the main source of a modern model of policing that feature two state controlled national police forces (Pananicolaou & Rigakos, 2014). The police reforms in France have been a major issue for past 40 years. Attempts were made to implement community policing in the 1990's, and despite all these, the French police still have a predominantly aggressive style of policing which relies mostly on arrest, stops and searches. The daily safety policing introduced in 2018 created a balanced approach between a tough-on-crime philosophy and better equipping of police force

that complained about their work conditions (Zagrodzki, 2017). These reform measures have not achieved much in terms of service delivery by the police.

In Greece, the police reforms took place in 1984 with the merger between the gendarmerie and the Urban Police (Douvlis & South, 2016). However, the police have been resistant to reform programmes and have historically been a key instrument of authoritarianism and tight controls. Between 2009 and 2012, numerous allegations were reported regarding excessive use of force, including the use of chemical irritants against peaceful demonstrations and the use of stun grenades in violation of international standards (Amnesty International, 2012). The police have suppressed popular dissenting voices and are typically unresponsive to popular pressure for reform (Pananicolaou & Rigakos, 2014). This has had a negative effect on service delivery in 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). This is meant to increase police efficiency and service delivery.

Since 2003, the post-Soviet Republic of Georgia has dismissed corrupt police officers and restructured the police agencies as part of police reforms. Other significant reforms include the recruitment, training and compensation for police officers which has eliminated most forms of corruption and transformed the police into a disciplined and service-oriented law enforcement agency in the post-Soviet region (Light, 2013). This in essence has had a negative effect on the service delivery.

Following the operationalization of the Police and Fire Reform (Scotland) Act 2012 in Scotland, the existing regional police bodies were merged into a single police service with the aim of realizing financial savings and sustainability. This type of police reform was never anticipated in the history of policing (Hail, 2019) and was meant to improve on the effectiveness and efficiency of police in service delivery.

In the continent of Asia, policing was anchored on the colonial system of oppression and the police reforms provided a shift to democratic structure where the police provided service to the members of the public and not the few political and influential people. The changes that were anticipated to improve on service delivery include among others the police organization culture to improve on service delivery by police officers (Nalla & Mamayek, 2013).

The Japanese police came under criticism at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century because of a series of scandals and cases of misconduct that involved high ranking police chiefs. This necessitated the establishment of the Charter of Police Reforms to initiate the reform process. The Japanese police is organized into multiple and moderately decentralized forces that consist of 47 prefectures with the National Police Agency at the central government level (Okabe, 2013). This structure enhances service delivery in the police.

In Pakistan, the police officers suffered from low public opinion among members of the public due to inefficiency, and corruption allegations. There was trust deficit between the police and members of the public, which had a negative effect on performance, governance, and service delivery. No significant progress was made to reform the police until the Police Order 2002 was enacted to address the lack of specialization, misuse of power, political interference, and poor command structure

among others (Saddle, 2012; Jackson, et al, 2014; Meares & Tyler, 2014). The government however made the Police Order ineffective by making it partisan. This negatively affected police service delivery.

African states have had authoritarian governments and military dictatorships after independence (Sesay, 2014) and have experienced massive cases of violations of fundamental human and peoples' rights in the last 50 years (Bayley, 2015). This has been occasioned by police enforcement of law and order during civil unrest, civil conflict, military coups, and corruption in many states (Agbiboa, 2015a). In the early 1990s, many African states took up democratic reforms, and incorporated human rights trainings 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 & Basdeo, 2012).

In Sub Saharan Africa, the police are among the most dysfunctional institutions and the public have entirely negative perception 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 have not supported public security concerns (Detzner, 2017; Marenin, 2014).

In South Africa, the end of apartheid resulted in high levels of crime and the police agency was not immediately able to counter the problems (Marenin, 2014). The South Africa Police Service (SAPS) therefore strategized on internal reform initiatives as a response to both the changing political environment, the pressure to respond to the changing crime trends and international scrutiny (Ivkovic & Sauerman, 2012). With the introduction of "Project Police Reform," a single police agency with a change in name, organization structure, and training content was realized and the security branch

disbanded, and officers deployed elsewhere (Faul, 2016). With the modernization of the technological infrastructure, modern management systems have also brought about changes to systems and procedures and enhanced democratic accountability through a system of oversight (Van der Spuy, 2018). In effect, police service delivery has been enhanced.

In Nigeria, the Nigeria Police Force (NPF) has right from its inception faced daunting challenges in its bid to fulfill its objectives of providing adequate security to Nigerians as it is perceived as the most corrupt and violent institution by the public in a way that is not evidently insincere (Agbiboa, 2015b). This development has led to a series of reforms for the NPF which has seemed not to be actualized at the end of the day. The drive towards reform by successive administrations is geared towards the maintenance of stable internal security where socio economic activities are expected to thrive in which development is the ultimate objective (Naankiel, et al 2012). It is anticipated such reforms will ultimately enhance police service delivery.

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 has changed significantly (Bangura, 2018; 2017; 2016). Despite all these reforms in the police, service delivery is still below the expectation of the members of the public and the international community.

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). In essence, such reforms in the police have had very little effect on service delivery and the police are seen as ineffective in dealing with the crimes.

The security challenges in South Sudan continue due to be 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). To reform the security architecture, in 2005 the Government of South Sudan (GoSS) launched an ambitious program that aims to transform the SPLA guerilla fighters into a professional army by creating the South Sudan Police Service (SSPS) (Abatneh & Lubang, 2011). However, the SSPS have been neglected (Downie, 2013). The 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). The investment in the SSPS when compared to the resources made available to other state security organs remains low and has derailed the efforts towards effective service delivery by the police.

Security is considered a key factor in the development strategies on social and development aspects in Kenya and elsewhere and is a basic human right underlined by Article 3 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). Besides the private

security firms and the military, the police are the main actors in ensuring security besides other agencies like private security firms and the military and are tasked with maintaining law and order in an accountable manner portraying professionalism and integrity in service delivery. Since Kenya became independent, the relationship between the members of public and the police has not changed for the better due to human rights violations, corruption, impunity, excessive use of force, brutality, and other atrocities (Kinoti, 2017). The bribery incidences in the National Police Service (NPS) have in one way or the other caused widespread insecurity concerns and has inhibited service delivery initiatives (Ngugi, et al 2012).

With the new Constitution promulgated on 27<sup>th</sup> August 2010, Kenyans legitimately anticipation the robust security framework articulated under the law would guarantee them of their safety and security (Republic of Kenya, 2010). The recommended reforms in the NPS were next to a total overhaul in description. 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). The idea then was to put in place a transformed police service that is more responsive, accountable, and trusted by members of the public after the post-election violence of 2007/2008 in which the police were adversely reprimanded for their involvement.

A police reforms task force was subsequently established to investigate and recommend reforms to the police. The task force in their report reviewed police structures and systems and recommended ranging reforms (CHRI, 2014) including among others the change of the name of the Kenya Police Force (KPF) to Kenya Police Service (KPS) and Administration Police (AP) to Administration Police Service (APS) and merging of the KPS, APS and the Directorate of Criminal Investigations (DCI) formerly

Criminal Investigations Department (CID) under the command and control of the Inspector General (IG) of Police through the National Police Service (NPS). This was an attempt to move away from police high handedness to a service-oriented policing for Kenyans. The recommendations also led to the creation of the National Police Service Commission (NPSC) to manage the employment and discipline of the police officers, the creation of the Independent Policing Oversight Authority (IPOA), a civilian oversight body to independently investigate complaints of police misconduct and recommend actions and the institutionalization of the Internal Affairs Unit (IAU) to deal with complains against police by the police and by members of the public (Njuguna, et al 2013).

Police reforms in Kenya that began in 2003 represented a paradigm shift towards people centred police through community policing (Gjelsvik, 2020). Transforming the KPF and the AP into the NPS 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).

Previously with the implementation of Governance, Justice, Law, and Order Sector (GJLOS) reform program, the Kenya government pursued police reforms on the pretext that the police were a pivotal institution and the gatekeeper of the criminal justice system. The government of Kenya has been investing over Kshs. 67 billion annually on policing compared to Kshs. 27 billion in 2004 when the police reforms began (Omanya, 2015). 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).

#### 1.2 Statement of the Problem

The Motive based theory calls for the police to use their authority to serve the best interest of members of the public, be honest and trustworthy. Police operations in the developed world are currently more capable, transparent, and effective than ever before due to the reforms in the security sector, unlike in the developing countries. Public sector performance in the developing world has undergone significant reforms as governments search for new ways to enhance service delivery which is a significant instrument in boosting good governance. However, in many developing countries, based on the New Public Management (NPM) theory which focuses on increasing efficiency and effectiveness in public sector institutions, the police have the challenges of crime prevention, promoting systematic and appropriate responses to reported crime, strengthening of community level coordination and the police have not transformed the members of the public into customers of public services who are required to provide feedback on the public services delivered. Police accountability which is the most original task of any government and citizen's right is not effective and poor performance of the police which is coupled with corruption is still prevalent. The increase: intimidation and harassment of junior officers, failure of the police to be responsive, unprofessional response to calls from members of the public and poor response to peaceful protests among others. The conflict theory clearly explains that in most instances, rather than being of service to all, the police serve and protect the interest of the dominant class and target the lower-class members of the public.

Policing in Kenya has been associated with excessive use of force, as was witnessed during the 2007/2008 disputed general elections in which the police were adversely

implicated in human rights violations, corruption, and lack of accountability (Njuguna, et al 2015). Human rights violation has also been witnessed during public protests that have seen human rights activists and the international community accuse the police of mishandling the scenarios. Due to these and other related challenges, the NPS in Kenya is considered miles away from attaining the international best practices in service delivery. This has in essence resulted into the perceived lack of trust and confidence in the NPS which is required in assisting crime prevention and apprehension of offenders, hence the need for this study.

#### 1.3 Objectives of the Study

#### 1.3.1 Broad Objective of the Study

The broad objective of the study was to examine police reforms and service delivery in the National Police Service, Nairobi County, Kenya

#### 1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were to:

- Evaluate the effects of facilitation on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya.
- ii. Assess the effects of public trust on service delivery in the NPS, in Nairobi County, Kenya.
- iii. Examine the effects of police attitude and responsiveness on service delivery in the NPS, in Nairobi County, Kenya.

#### 1.4 Research Hypotheses

The study tested the following hypotheses:

**H**<sub>01</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between police facilitation and service delivery in the NPS, in Nairobi County, Kenya.

**H**<sub>02</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between public trust and service delivery in the NPS, in Nairobi County, Kenya.

**H**<sub>03</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between police attitude, responsiveness, and service delivery in the NPS, in Nairobi County, Kenya.

#### 1.5 Justification of the Study

Nairobi County being the capital city of Kenya and the economic and political hub of the East Africa region has experienced rapid demographic and economic expansion that has not spared the County of vulnerability to emerging crimes, from petty crimes to transnational organized crimes that require an effective and efficient police service. Previous researchers have considered the appropriateness of Nairobi City County in research themes focusing on police work (SRIC, 2012) and based on the principal idea that effective police work that serves citizens well is reflected in a positive attitude toward the police, this study is timely as it comes at a time when the police reforms and service delivery are gaining prominence in the security management in Kenya. Police reforms are always anticipated, more so with the emergence of new technologies, new challenges, and the rising expectations for enhanced security among others. While service delivery can be regarded as complex because it entails a subjective dimension, the subjective aspects cannot be ignored by the NPS. The present study therefore anchors the NPS in the academic context by examining the effects of police reforms on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya.

In Kenya the police were accused of atrocities during the post-election violence in 2007/2008 and urged to reform. Most of the studies on police reforms and service delivery in the NPS have broadly addressed reforms at the national level, by sampling respondents at the NPS headquarters. However, this study has delved deeper at the

station level which is the basic unit of service delivery in the NPS as most of the stations had been selected as pioneers during the police reforms implementation strategies such as community policing. Aspect of police reform are looked at from the perspective of police facilitation, public trust, attitude and responsiveness, which addresses the pillars of police reforms in Kenya.

This study further advances theoretical contribution to the existing body of knowledge on police reforms and service delivery by promoting academic knowledge regarding the relationship between police reforms and service delivery from the Kenyan context. This study is therefore among the first to examine the effects police reforms and in the NPS, Kenya in an academic context and with the aim of addressing the knowledge gaps on police reforms in Kenya following the implementation of reforms in the NPS.

#### 1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is important to the national government policy makers, SSR actors and stakeholders, researchers, scholars, donors with an interest in policing and the public. To the policy makers in the government of Kenya, these findings are a tool for devising strategies towards better and focused police reforms implementation. It is also a basis for benchmarking with the best practices globally and develop appropriate strategies that are crucial in addressing challenges to police reforms implementation and the realization of an efficient and effective service delivery by the NPS.

In addition, the study findings are significant to the public population and the Civil Society Organizations (CSO). Implementation of recommendations provides them with an opportunity to identify ways to partner with the police and hold the NPS accountable and transparent in their functions as they uphold the rule of law in the delivery of service through checks and balances. Many SSR actors and international donor organizations

concerned with SSR in the world are also major beneficiaries of the findings as the study suggest areas of best practices that can be replicated in other areas faced with similar police reforms challenges for effective and efficient utilization of funds and the support required as part of partnership in policing

To the academicians and scholars, the study findings provide a point of reference on the effectiveness of police reforms and how this affects service delivery in the NPS. This in essence is anticipated to stimulate further research interest in police reforms and service delivery especially in Kenya and other developing nations coming out of conflict.

#### 1.7 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

This study was undertaken at the police stations in Nairobi City County in the month of February and March 2017. The County which occupies an area of 696Km<sup>2</sup> (Appendix 7) was founded in 1899 as the administrative and commercial capital of the Republic of Kenya. Nairobi County is 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 centre 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).

Nairobi County borders Kiambu County to the North, Machakos County to the East, and Kajiado County to the South and is predominantly urban (Kenya Information Guide, 2015). Though Nairobi is a place where people are educated and informed compared to rural areas, it is the most difficult and complicated place where police reform efforts have the most work to do as it has a high-end police station like Gigiri and Hardy and low-end police stations like Kamukunji unlike in the rural areas where

the police stations and the population are homogenous (Diphoorn, 2020). Nairobi County has the highest capital city of Kenya, the epicenter of all human interactions with the police and police response to the violent robberies, carjacking, burglaries, etc., has been wanting (NPS, 2019a), making it an ideal site for the study of the effects of police reforms on service delivery in the NPS.

Nairobi County has 11 police sub county administrative units above the station levels and 42 police stations all of which were included in the study and sampled appropriately.

The study was anchored on the four pillars of police reforms as proposed by the Ransley Task Force on Police Reforms and Police Reforms Implementation Committee (PRIC, 2012) and adopted by Kenya vision 2030 Medium Term Plan II 2013-2017. The researcher therefore focused on evaluation of police reforms amidst facilitation, public trust, attitude and responsiveness, and how they have affected service delivery in the NPS.

An explanatory sequential research design was used in the study on a target population of 2100 police officers. A sample of 224 police officers and 112 corresponding members of the public were considered statistically significant for the study. The primary data was collected using structured questionnaires, key informant interview guide and documents analysis to conceptualize police reforms.

#### **CHAPTER TWO**

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a structured review of literature on police reforms and service delivery covering an introduction and the general overview of police reforms and service delivery. The chapter further contextualises police reforms based on the specific objectives. The theories that the research is anchored are presented, the conceptual framework illustrated and explained and the chapter summary and the existing research gaps in the literature examined.

# 2.1 Concepts in the Study

The concepts in the study are police reforms and service delivery. The NPS is one of the most conspicuous agents of the government and police officers are charged with the responsibility enforcing law and order. The NPS is different from other institutions and agencies of the state, as they are equipped with coercive means of physical force for the fulfilment of their duties and are the largest apparatus of the state whose authority reaches farther and deeper into the society than that of any other state organ, hence a unique institution within the state, as people perceive the existence of the state through contact with the police (Nix, et al 2015).

In times of need, the police station is usually the best place to go. The police are expected to adhere to the laid down laws, rules, and regulations. These requirements ultimately make the interaction between the police and members of the public a little more complex even when providing service delivery (Etsebeth, 2018). This study therefore examines service delivery in cognizant of the implementation of police reforms in the NPS Kenya.

### 2.1.1 Service Delivery

The frontline workers such as the police officers are expected to provide quality services to members of the public (Tummers, et al 2015). Quality service is a series of intangible activities designed in conformance to requirements, specifications, and satisfaction of the customer (Olowe, et al 2018) and policing reforms is seen as a proactive initiative aimed at improving the efficiency and effectiveness of police service delivery (den Heyer, 2020). The receptiveness is the preparedness to help the member of 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, organizational 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 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 & 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 trainings, organization, and service delivery (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2019). Restructuring and merging public sector organizations is most of the time seen 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, et al 2012) while in the United Kingdom (UK), it involved the merging of two police agencies that provided the same functions. In Kenya, following the promulgation of the Constitution 2010, the KPS, APS and DCI that had different reporting lines of authority were all brought under the leadership of the IG of police for accountability and better management of resources and effective service delivery (Republic of Kenya, 2010).

Service delivery also involves comparing expectations with performance. Services by the police are a set of activities that are performed by individuals in an organization with the intent to create value including such processes as leadership management styles, the structure of the organization and the relationship with members of the public. The public expect of the police to maintain law and order and apprehend offenders while adhering to the law in the performance of their duty. Policing of social order and communal security has from time immemorial existed in one form or the other and societies always negotiate and renegotiate the understandings of what policing should look like, who is entitled to it, what is expected of it, and who should be authorised to provide it (Schwartz, 2015). Traditional normative notions of police and policing are thus very closely associated with states and formalist notions of statehood.

Specifically, normative guidance for police officials has been elaborated in numerous UN declarations, including the UN Code of Conduct for Law Enforcement Officials, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights-collectively known as the International Bill of Human Rights and the UN Basic Principles on the Use of Force and Firearms by Law Enforcement Officials (Schwartz,

2015). These declaration advocate for police to serve the community and protect all persons against illegal acts. In the performance of their duty, the police officers are expected to respect and protect human dignity, maintain, and uphold the human rights of all persons.

Police service delivery cannot be performed in an *ad hoc* manner, but in a structured process in which the leadership manages the people, processes, and technology so as to align police strategies to the environment in which they operate (Herrington & Colvin, 2015) and become the role models for the staff by exhibiting behaviours that demonstrate what is expected from juniors in relation to the service delivery and sending positive messages about the service (Linos, 2017).

Reinforcement is a key element in achieving service delivery and the police leadership must institute reinforcement tactics to achieve this (Lenartowicz & Johnson, 2013). One of the most significant methods to achieve this is using verbal reinforcement, altering of organization's structure and policy, rules and regulations based on the learning theories (Kwasnicka, et al 2016). This will require politics, persuasion and attitudes that are key in professional management relations (Maio, et al 2019; Baekgaard, et al 2017). The concept of service delivery is measured by the members of the public attitude about police services such as accessibility, response time, internal and external communication, cases handled to logical conclusion and respect for human rights.

#### 2.1.2 Police Reform

The police officers operating in a community that is experiencing changing political, legal, and social needs and must strive to meet the security needs and expectations of the community they serve by undertaking reforms. Police reforms is aimed at

transforming the culture, policies, and practices of the police organizations to enable the police officers perform their functions with the respect for the rule of the law, uphold human rights and be responsive to the needs of the diverse people in the community without any form of discrimination while providing services (DCAF, 2019).

Countries recovering from civil conflicts have witnessed the increasing implementation of the Community Oriented Policing (COP) model as a means of introducing democratic policing which is a fundamental component of the peace building process. Police reform is often part and parcel of the peace building process in the post conflict environments where reconstruction and development are anticipated in the security and judicial systems (Schwartz, 2020; McAuliffe, 2020).

The main aim of police reform is to effect changes in a country's police system by giving emphasis to the legal frameworks, professionalism, oversight, police welfare, and the relationship with the members of the public. Reforms within the police are more fundamental and the emphasis is on the broader structural forces and organisational factors that shape its establishment, mandate, organization, powers, operations, and governance (Alemika, 2015).

In Kenya the police were originally founded in 1887 by Sir William McKinnon of the Imperial British East Africa (IBEA) Company to provide protection for his stores along the Coastline of Kenya (Gathogo, 2020; Chebai & Kathure, 2017). In 1906, the British government set up KPF by a Police Ordinance while the AP was later constituted by the Village Headman Ordinance (Kivoi, 2020). From that time there has been a sustained effort to reform the police and policing in Kenya. In 1911, a committee was formed that recommended the establishment of a police training school in Nairobi to train police officers on the tenets of good policing (Kingoo & Njoroge, 2019). Since

then, numerous attempts have been made to increase the police personnel strength, improve on the administrative structure and the provision of good housing facilities for the police (Manana, et al 2014).

The element of coercion and excessive use of force has dominated the police operations in Kenya since 1920 (Gathogo, 2020) when the police focused on keeping the urban areas inhabited by the white settlers safe, by suppressing the Africans living in the slum areas and reserves (Kingoo & Njoroge, 2019). An attempt was made on police reforms by the British colonial government in the early 1950's, on the realization that the home guards in Kenya were murdering *Mau* fighters (Kingoo & Njoroge, 2019; Chebai & Kathure, 2017) yet Britain was a signatory to the European Convention of Human Rights that forbade, in its provisions, detention without trial which had become a core component of colonial police in Kenya (Gathogo, 2020).

The Police Act established the KPF in 1961 to maintain law and order, preserve peace and prevent and detect crime. Under the 1958 Administration Police Act the AP had been earlier created with similar functions as the KPF but with a separate command structure, standing orders and regulations (Kivoi, 2020). The constitution at independence in 1963 anticipated professional and neutral police to serve members of the public with oversight offered by a Police Service Commission and a National Security Council. However, in 1964, a constitutional amendment saw the police become an extension of the civil service by removing the forces' independence and its operational autonomy (Kingoo & Njoroge, 2019).

Under the auspices of the GJLOS reform program, the KPF Strategic Plan 2003-2007, presented a framework for police reform and identified increased security as one of the indicators against which performance of police was to be measured (Ogada, 2016). The

strategic plan recognised the shortcomings of the KPF such as endemic corruption, insufficient resources, and the lack confidence in the police by members of the public which resulted in low levels of crime reporting (Manana et al 2014)

The government of Kenya set up a National Task Force on Police Reforms (NTFPR) to spearhead reforms that included introducing the oversight and accountability mechanisms. The taskforce was also mandated to review the state of preparedness of the police to combat insecurity by developing measures to promote relationships between the members of the public and the police in crimes prevention (Njuguna, et al 2015). This was later followed by strategies to professionalize and bring the police under one command. Among the strategies were the establishment of the office of the IG of Police and appointment of the IG of police by the president on the advice of National Police Service Commission (NPSC) (Hope, 2015a).

In 2009, the NTFPR recommended that the much-anticipated police reforms should encompass police professionalism, accountability, among others to enhance their preparedness in executing their functions, roles, and responsibility (CHRI, 2014). The taskforce recommended short term reforms initiatives such as the adoption of a public relations campaign, aimed at both the police and the public, establishing communication channels between the police and members of the public and to change the negative perceptions between the public and the police that had long existed (Njuguna et al 2015). The recommended long term police reforms initiatives included the implementation of community policing, improvement of police officers' welfare, increasing of mobility of police officers' response to crime scenes and adequate housing, among others (Hope, 2015a).

One of the long-term reforms initiatives of community policing focuses on delivery of police services that combine aspects of traditional law enforcement, crime prevention, and problem solving (CHRIPS/APCOF, 2014). The absence of a single policy on community policing led to fragmented models of community policing that led to dismal performance by the police (Skilling, 2016; CHRI, 2014) The idea of involving members of the public in policing was misunderstood and this led to some regions in the country coming up with vigilante groups and lynching and or hacking to death suspected criminals (Kivoi & Mbae, 2013). The concept of COP was later contested due to fear of attack by criminals as members of the public suspected police officers were colluding with criminals especially in instances where information was given to the police on suspected criminals and again the police are always suspicious and have a bad attitude towards members of the public (Ogada, 2016).

The police reforms in Kenya are codified in the 2010 Constitution and subsequent laws, most notably the National Police Service Act (c.11a), National Police Service Commission Act (c.30) and Independent Policing Oversight Authority Act (c.35), all of 2011 (PRIC, 2012). There has been notable resistance to change by both junior and senior police officers that has hampered full implementation of police reforms. However, the Kenya National Commission on Human Rights (KNCHR) report in 2015 acknowledges a reduction in torture and police brutality and an improvement in the police's interaction with the public (Biegon & Songa, 2018).

In general, the police reforms have had a very little impact and are on the verge of stagnation in Kenya due to a myriad of challenges (Amnesty International, 2013). The various reforms have not been felt on the ground hence the need to examine service delivery through reforms in police facilitation, trust, police attitude, and responsiveness. The idea is that effective police work that serves citizens well is reflected in a positive

attitude towards the police. The police reform is measured by the level of improved community police engagement in crime management, increased transparency and accountability, empowering of stations with the right tools for better performance among others.

Ensuring police reforms is sustained, or institutionalising the changes in the police, is one of the major challenges faced by policing in the modern world. Institutionalisation of a police reform is only attainable when the police reforms are implemented on a regular basis in police activities. This is achieved when certain norms, values, and structures are incorporated into the police organisation which must in essence demonstrate a sustained commitment to reforms (Walker, 2016; Hassell & Lovell, 2014).

The organisational culture is key to police reforms institutionalisation and the leadership of the police service must take the necessary initiatives to win the hearts and minds of the police officers and develop a culture that supports the proposed change by confronting the attitudes of the officers early in the change process if the reform process is to be successful (Walker, 2016). The socialisation process to change the culture and accept the new philosophy can be done through revising of the training, and promotion guidelines, performance evaluations and mission statements as culture is a major factor in determining police officers' behaviour (US Department of Justice, 2019).

Significant transformation in policing in Kenya has been realized for example increase in the number of police officers in the NPS, adoption of new technology in policing, and new developments in local policing through COP including the *Nyumba Kumi* initiative (Van Stapple & Diphoorn, 2020). However, the status of police stations in Kenya reveals institutional and structural challenges that have impeded delivery of

service to the public and overall implementation of the reforms. Most police stations no longer have sufficient space or capacity for efficient operations and records are not digitized (Diphoorn, et al 2019). Some buildings within the police stations have crumbling walls, leaks, and poor ventilations, while others lack basic lighting, water, lavatories, cells or detention facilities, and insufficient parking to accommodate police vehicles, staff, and the public, yet section 40 (3) of the National Police Service Act, 2011, designates police stations as the unit of service delivery (Njuguna, et al 2015).

To achieve organizational change, the police system of rewards and promotions is also crucial and embracing the old ways of performance measurements sends the wrong message that maintaining the old ways of doing things are still important at a time when reforms are crucial. The NPS is therefore mandated to train police officers to the highest standards of competency and integrity as well as foster and promote relationships with the broader society.

The strategies that once adopted will bring about reforms in the police professionalism includes new training curriculum on policing, vetting of police officers on ethics and integrity to root out the bad apples, operational and administrative reforms for example modernisation of police fleet, insurance for police officers, housing and house allowance for those not staying in police houses, forensic science laboratory and the establishment of an effective Integrated Command, Control and Communication (IC3) center and Closed Circuit Television (CCTV) surveillance system that are integrated into the national command structure, among others (National Police Service, 2016). The institutional framework and professionalism are measured by enhanced legal accountability, policies and procedural changes, values, norms and structures incorporated in the police, knowledge, attitude and behaviour changes among police

officers, management strategies and structures, problem solving, response to crime, among others.

#### 2.2 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is derived from existing theories, in tested and validated literature that is supported by data or evidence (Grant & Osanloo, 2014) and symbolizes, accounts for, or explains a phenomenon and explain how and why things happen in a particular manner (Alligood, 2014). This study was guided by New Public Management (NPM) Theory, the motive-based trust theory, and conflict theory.

# 2.2.1 New Public Management Theory

The NPM theory which is hailed as a new paradigm shift originated from the public choice theory and managerialism which began in the 1970's and early 1980's in the UK, Australia and New Zealand has come to govern the philosophy about the public sector reform. The theory emerged due to several issues such as fiscal crises of governments, poor performance of the public sector in different arenas, imperious bureaucracy, lack of accountability, corruption, changes of people's expectations and the emergence of better alternative forms of service delivery (Verbeeten & Spekle', 2015; Andrews & Van de Walle, 2013). These were conceptualized by Christopher Cropper Hood in 1991 to broadly speculate government policies meant to enhance public sector reforms (Mendel, et al 2017).

The initial focus of NPM theory was on increasing efficiency and effectiveness of public sector institutions by emphasizing on 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, 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 choice and the exit option, and the opportunity to give feedback on public service delivered. Based on the NPM theory, modern government 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 theory is therefore important in strengthening the need and significance of good governance in the public sector (Robinson, 2015).

The members of the public play a crucial role in society. Reforms in public administration have established objectives and set incentives for productive performance coupled with greater transparency. In most governments, public expenditure forms a significant part of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the contribution of which comes from the substantial employers and major capital market participants. The public sector determines, usually through a political process, the outcomes it wants to achieve, the legal, ethical, and other standards and norms, and the different types of intervention required to achieve these objectives (McCourt, 2013). Potential interventions include enacting legislation or regulations; delivering services; redistributing income through mechanisms such as taxation or social security payments; and the control of assets or entities, such as state-owned enterprises. Governments also have a role in promoting fairness, peace and order, and sound international relations (Comfort, et al 2020).

The NPM theory is a new paradigm of public administration examine democratic police reform in transition, developing and post conflict nations that points 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 address problems such as size of the government, centralised bureaucracies, inadequate mechanisms of accountability, waste, and inefficiency in resource use (Kalimullah, et al 2012).

The basic push of the police 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 (Hope Sr, 2014). Inside the organisations, the new thinking has led to differentiation of tasks such as regulations, policy advice, and ownership functions, and control, among others that had from time immemorial been organised together (Christensen & Laegreid, 2013).

The theory anchors the first specific objective of police facilitation. 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 & Tuler, 2018). The researcher therefore introduces other theories that will anchor the other remaining specific objectives.

#### **2.2.2 Motive Based Trust Theory**

The Motive-based trust theory involves inferences about motives and intentions and reflects the concept of fiduciary trust. For institutions such as the police, that are considered powerful by members of the public, public trust is related to how the police use their authority to serve the best interest of those they are charged to serve and protect. The theory supports the opinion that public trust can be a predictor of public

satisfaction with the police and by extension the government (Pryce, et al 2019; De Angelis & Wolf, 2016).

Institutional trust is the belief about the extent to which the police are honest and care for the members of the public to whom they have a responsibility to protect. This kind of trust only exists when the members of the public view the police as being honest and competent authorities who exercise their institutional responsibilities on behalf of all citizens without fear or favour (Cao, 2015). Whenever an institution like the police is perceived by members of the public as trustworthy honest and caring for their interest, the members of the public would easily comply with the institution's demands, regulations, directives, and decisions and hence compliance with the law (Citrin & Stoker, 2018). This theory of motive-based trust therefore anchors the second specific objective of public trust.

# **2.2.3** Conflict Theory

Conflict theory, propounded by Karl Marx in 1867 is an explanation to the society's never-ending competition for finite resources thus always in a state of conflict (Hayward, 2015). Conflict is a necessary social process, and the society is largely shaped by the competing interests of social groups who struggle for dominance to enact or maintain a social structure beneficial to them (Holt, 2015). The conflict theory is of the opinion that the society is a dynamic entity constantly undergoing change driven by social class with relative power (Jackson, 2014). The powerful and wealthy define what is right and what is wrong and to minimize threats to the interests of the privileged groups in the society who include the professionals, powerful and wealthy, the elite and the ruling class uses the law and the police to suppress and control any section of the society that might pose a threat to the status quo (Hayward, 2015; Kilminster, 2018). The criminal justice system is on the same note biased and designed to protect these

upper-class elites of the society. Conflict theory therefore provides an explanation of crime, based on social inequalities, class differences and the power used by the ruling class through its criminal justice system apparatus (Bystova and Gottschalk, 2015).

Based on the conflict theory, the argument is that Whites are more likely to hold favourable views of police because they perceive racial threats from Blacks and thus rely on the aggressive law enforcement from the police to control Blacks and their neighbours (Weitzer, 2014). Similarly, conflict theory explains public perception on the police use of force and to predict citizen complaints against police (Wu, 2013).

From conflict theory perspective, scholars argue that the interests of the dominant class are represented and protected by the police and those from lower class are more likely to be targets of law enforcement. Hence, persons of lower socio-economic status who are frequently observed by the police will tend to have little or no trust in the police due to biased treatment against them. Changing the organisational climate or interpersonal style, how often people are, with each other, how conflict is managed, how decisions are made, these in this study will explain the change in the police culture. The conflict theory therefore anchors the third specific objective of police attitude and responsiveness and is used in this study to examine police attitudes, responsiveness, and behaviours toward the public and vice versa.

### 2.3 Empirical Literature Review

The effects of the quality of police public encounters have been examined upon different aspects of public confidence in police institutions. The positive experience with the police has always resulted in improved confidence in the police and the undesirable interactions have destabilized the confidence. There is however marginal

or no effects of experiences of the other criminal justice agencies on attitudes towards those agencies (Van Craen & Skogan, 2017).

Crime and violence interrupt daily life and destabilize the norms and institutions that foster any stable societies. In the larger system of the internal national security law and order architecture, the police and other law enforcement entities are the core actors, and the police are the gateway to the criminal justice system, charged with the responsibility of preventing and investigating criminal activity, helping the public prosecutor prosecute suspected criminals and providing victims of crime with access to justice while operating within a given sociopolitical context of a country (Osse, 2014).

Internal security services that strive to be community-oriented, fair, and responsive, engender greater public trust, which contributes to their effectiveness. Yet the disposition and conduct of internal security actors can vary greatly within and across national jurisdictions. Internal security actors from both the developing and developed countries, have come under scrutiny for corruption, excessive use of force, political repression, and other violations of human rights and due process (Schwartz, 2015). Corruption, excessive use of force, and abuse of power within and by the police are matters of momentous concern in every society. The poor and marginalised populations are unreasonably affected by insecurity and injustice and are readily made more vulnerable by the unresponsive or predatory law enforcement agencies. Sometimes these problems when they persist, the members of the public view the state as a primary driver of injustice and insecurity (Osse, 2014).

The customary measures of police work have often included response time, arrests, and clearance rates (Rossler & Terrill, 2012). Police activity is in most of the instances is judged by the members of the public not through traditional measures of effectiveness,

but through such behaviours as an officers' ability to demonstrate responsiveness. In the police spheres, there has been more and more attention to the large potential of citizen capital in fighting crime and creating safer neighbourhoods (Bullock & Sindall, 2014). While traditional forms of policing rely on responsive control, in which only the police are responsible for fighting crime, a more recent police philosophy of COP lay emphasis on the partnership and cooperation between police service and the members of the public (Kerstholt, et al 2015).

The COP encompasses three key elements namely organisational transformation, problem solving, and members of the public participation. Police organisations are transformed to facilitate the COP philosophy by the orientation of police leadership, police structure, and information systems. The processes implemented by police officers are focused on proactively and systematically identifying problems and solving the problems through the development of effective responses (Skilling, 2016). Citizen participation and partnerships between the police and the members of the public is fundamental (COPS, 2014).

Research on the COP has focused on its effects on crime reduction and subjective safety. One reason for the increased attention to the use of members of the public capital in the police spheres is the fact that the police do not have the resources to be constantly present in all areas at the same time and the members of the public can be comfortably used as the eyes and ears of the police in the community, since the members of the public knows the ins and outs of their neighbourhood, where problems lie, and when something suspicious is going on within the community. This study therefore examines the link between police reforms and service delivery as measured by demographic and socio-economic factors, facilitation, legal frameworks, public trust, police attitude and responsiveness and institutional framework and professionalism.

Social characteristics of employees have a great bearing on services offered to clients as revealed by Brunson & Gau (2015) who opined that in USA, police relationship with the minority communities such as black Americans, has been characterized by uncalled for animosity and distrust. In the UK, police officers have been known to perform their duties based on social characteristics such as age and social desirability in that the officers who exhibit lower levels of avoidant decision making have a higher level of emotional intelligence we found to have been of age and with a lot of experience in police work (Grubb, et al 2018). It is also evident that the police officers who experienced physical abuse from the parents or very close relatives have also been found to report physical abuse with spouses, children, or members of the public they serve (Zavala, 2013).

In the developing countries socio economic factors have contributed to the high risk and public safety issues. This demographic change for example has had a global impact in the developed nations where the population is shrinking, and the world wealth is increasing due to urbanization and industrialization (Choudhury, 2016). The demographic and socio-economic problems witnessed in the developing countries such as upsurge in population, unemployment, poor quality education among others, affect the police in service delivery as the police are part and parcel of the society.

Sound personnel management practices are therefore imperative in emphasizing the realization of optimal performance in police organisations and depends to a greater extent on how well the personnel issues and welfare needs are managed. Poor pay has negatively affected police performance (Afrobarometer, 2015).

# 2.3.1 Police Facilitation and Service Delivery

Police facilitation include and not limited to tools and equipment, legal and institutional framework to discharge their mandate in a professional manner. In the developed nations, the police have had adequate trainings 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 other are and provided all of which have been found to be lacking in the developing nations (Mensah, 2019).

In Afghan, there has been a concerted efforts by the communities with the support of the USA government to develop infrastructure such a well-equipped police stations for the stability of police operations, rehabilitation of vital infrastructures and continued training to meet the security demands of the people (Affleck, et al 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. Nearly two decades later, many of these observations remain salient. In most of the 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 has not improved on the police performance apart from the improving the operational efficiency. Several CSO have in many instances noted and condemned police brutality which is against the spirit of the police reforms in Kenya (Sigsworth, 2020).

The police reform in Kenya has involved the biggest and most complex public sector restructure like devolution. Large public resources have been devoted to modernising the service and much progress has been made such as the creation of the NPS, IAU, NPSC, IPOA, and other oversight bodies. The foundation of reforms has been accomplished but challenges and problems remain in facilitating police operations.

Police work has always been directed and controlled through a legal framework that serves to provide the police officers with the powers to enable the police officers perform the duties and limit and render those powers accountable to the members of the public. There is a growing public mistrust of all government authority world over and more so with frequent cases of police misconduct, the members of the public have been increasing demanding for more legal regulations and accountability on the part of the police to make the police work more internally and externally transparent, with a mixture of intended and unintended consequences (Bradford, et al 2014).

In many countries, there are elaborate mechanisms to guide the delivery of services in the police and outline measures that the police can implement to attain their objectives and goals. This ensures there is transparency and accountability to the members of the public in the delivery of services (Jakoet-Salie, 2018). The police are always the gate way to the criminal justice system and operate within the given sociopolitical context of a country and their functions and procedures are usually clearly articulated in the laws, policies, and regulations. This therefore require good implementation of the reform process that does not come up with new institutions that will make police accountable but instead should ensure such strategies have an impact on the operations of the police (Osse, 2014). As a disciplined entity, the police agencies have strict chain of command and individual performance is measured against standard operating procedures, policy documents, and or manuals of guidance that clearly spell out the police officers' powers and conduct while on duty. The circumstances and actions of police officers are in most cases unpredictable and the delivery of service by the police at the local level is also dependent on the level of infrastructural development in a nation given the fact that some of the police services like forensic investigations can only be done at the national laboratory (OSCE, 2013).

To stabilize and reconstruct the states recovering from conflict, the SSR has been given a lot of emphasis at the local and at the international levels. This has been occasioned by the fact that the field of security is gaining importance as a critical factor in the development of strategies for both partners and donors and that nations are accountable to the promulgated national laws and international conventions to which they are signatories to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of the police. The legislative reforms are therefore important in anchoring the process (OSCE, 2013) and updating the existing laws due to the nature of the changing global environment that creates new

forms of crimes that were non-existent such as transnational organized crimes are requires new crime prevention techniques and surveillance technology (OSCE, 2013).

The police officers are charged with the responsibility of protecting members of the public from violence and enforcing all the laws, policies and regulations that secure the rights of the people and respect to human dignity. At the same time, the police officers have a lot of individual and operational discretionary powers that can be abused to violate the same laws. Effective oversight mechanisms ensure individuals and agencies operate within the law (Amnesty International, 2015).

The changes in Taiwan legislations and political environment gave the police legal mandates and authority having been faced with increased crime rates and the vulnerability to media influence that necessitated a shift from political control to protection of individuals' right and crime control. Even though the legal reforms have stabilized and reduced the crime rates, the trust in the police has not in any way increased (Sun, et al 2013).

In Kenya, following the transition from the colonial government, there were legal challenges especially on the leadership and structure of the police intelligence. The spillovers of the colonial government continued for the better part of the years and no comprehensive reforms of the policing system was undertaken. Following the 2007/2008 post-election violence in Kenya, the processes of police reforms proposed established the agenda for police reform in Kenya, and provided concrete foundation for a structured, legitimate citizen participation and engagement in policing. This led to the creation of several institutions that enshrined the principles of civilian oversight and public participation (Simbiri-Jaoko, 2016).

The main objective of police reforms process in Kenya was to provide a policy, legal and institutional framework to enable the transformation of the police service into a professional and acceptable security agency that can effectively and efficiently deliver on its mandate. The promulgation of the Constitution in 2010 shifted the legal basis for policing in Kenya with the aim of addressing the common perception of the police as being ineffective, abusive, and politically inclined to an accountable and efficient police service (Njuguna, et al., 2015) that is capable of effectively and efficiently delivering on its mandate in the context of democratic policing (Hope, 2015a).

The fundamental changes introduced in the structure and command of the police in Kenya included the introduction of the NPS Act, 2011 that set the highest standards of professionalism, transparency, accountability, and discipline amongst police officers. It also institutionalised community policing as an approach that recognises the voluntary participation of communities in maintaining peace. The police task forced mandated to spearhead reforms came up a raft of recommendations among which the merger of the two police forces into one, change of the name from a force to a service, establishment of the office of the IG of police, establishment of the NPSC, establishment of the Independent Policing Oversight Authority (IPOA), establishment of the Internal Affairs Unit (IAU), review of the police training curriculum, vetting of all police officers, retraining of all police officers, change of the police ranking structure, purchase of enough operational resources and improvement of the general welfare and terms of service of police officers (Hope, 2019).

In an effort to operationalise the constitution and make police reforms a reality, the Government spearheaded the publication of the National Police Service Act, 2011 (Republic of Kenya, 2011a), that established the IAU charged with investigating misconduct and hearing complaints as determined from their mandate from members

of the service or members of the public, the National Police Service Commission Act, 2011 (Republic of Kenya, 2011b) to manage police human resources and the Independent Policing Oversight Authority Act, 2011 (Republic of Kenya, 2011c) to hold police accountable to the public in their performance of their functions and ensure professionalism, transparency and accountability.

The implementation of these legislative frameworks the responsibility for security was moved from the Presidency to several institutions giving the police more autonomy from the executive and other sources of potential political interference. These Acts established a clear roadmap towards full realisation of police reforms. The Constitution 2010 also created the Office of the Director of Public Prosecution (ODPP) who is empowered under the law to direct the investigations of the police and determined the duration of holding suspects in police custody to not more than 24 hours (OSCE, 2013). The police reforms in Kenya have however experienced a lot of resistance, with forces of impunity and anti-change heavily fighting for retention of status quo (Amnesty International, 2013). This was manifested in the NPS (Amendment) Act in 2014 (Republic of Kenya, 2014; Hope, 2015b). At the same time, government commitment to the police reform process has come under scrutiny from other stakeholders following the delay of vetting of police officers which was one of the strategies to be implemented for reforms to be realized (Amnesty International, 2013; KHRC, 2012). The reform

The institutional framework and professionalism are measured by organisation structure and organisation culture. As an organization, the police is a social system in

process in Kenya has therefore taken a slow pace, an indication that majority of police

officers had not been adequately sensitised on what police reforms entail, especially the

main features (Nyambura, 2012).

which the police officers strive to achieve their individual goals while at the same time achieving the police service goals. Police are the main agents of executives and are empowered by laws and other statutes to maintain law and order, ensure security of persons and property in the society through the legitimised use of power and hence are very significant in the administration of the criminal justice within its jurisdiction (Nhan, 2014).

The police organisation structure is a system that represents the skeletal framework of police organisation behaviour in clustering of tasks and people into smaller group to function effectively and efficiently and is an important factor which identifies behaviour of an individual and the group and how it is influencing organisation behaviour in form of work division, and the inter relationship between police organisational goals and culture (Nhan, 2014).

The organisational structure within the police agencies have been of centre stage interest to advocates of reforms and professionalism (Ren, et al 2019). Police organisations are described based on the characteristics they share and the means in which they operate. These include being monopolies, bureaucratic, quasi-military among others (Zhang & Lovrich, 2016). The hierarchy of authority principle holds that every person in the police organisation has a superior who supervises their actions and supervisors have more authority than their subordinates. Police organisation structure therefore play a significant role in effectiveness of the police service (Willis & Mastrofski, 2018). The police organisations are therefore expected to build a positive organisation culture through communication, change in values, norms, and policies that are not antagonistic to new strategies of reforms.

The organisation culture of the police plays an important role in everyday life of police officers and policing in general (Tran, 2017) as culture is a set of values that shape how police officers perceive their work environment and is seen as the world view and behavioural patterns shared by the members of the police service and is evident a number of human resource practices that bring together individuals with eagerness for service delivery and is an important predictor of police service delivery success as members of the police organisation hold the beliefs as true, feel and view how things are done in the police service (Nhan, 2014; Campeau, 2015). The police organisational culture is perceived as the single most important component in the police success and is the key issue to be changed or to be taken seriously to make change possible as it can enable or hinder the prospect of implementing a strategy to realize change (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2016).

The recommended police reforms within a police agency calls for internal reorganization of the police agency in terms of the structure and responsibilities that takes into consideration the current prevailing circumstances and the objectives to be achieved by the proposed structure (Frevel, 2015; Tong & Hallenberg, 2017). To reform the police, clear command and decision-making structures must be taken into consideration including depoliticising of the police operations, redefining of job description and prudent resource utilization framework in partnership with members of the public that will ensure discretionary decision making (Glowatski, et al 2017).

Police professionalism is an important aspect that has been emphasized in all nations as police service has been the beacon of democracy by maintaining law and order and preserving peace but unprofessional acts such as corruption and bribery among others tend to bring down the reputation of the police into disrepute (Mensah, 2018). Professionalism through effective training is central and this advances the

understanding of the position of police officer as a professional with specialized knowledge and skills, rather than simply as a job. This in essence creates job satisfaction, improves on the work relations, and the professionalisation of the police occupation (Tankebe & Ariel, 2016). Police professionalism depends on organisations functions as a major referent for guiding ideas, standards, and judgments through such mechanisms as journals and meetings (Loftus & Price, 2016) while acknowledging the multiple functions performed by the professional police officers.

In Latin American countries, there is the perception of the police authorities being unable to protect the rights of the members of the public who are eager for public order against the populist rhetoric that offers the "iron fist" and a cavalier attitude towards the rule of law to solve security problems (Casas-Zamora & Dammert, 2014). Due to the cross-border transnational crimes spill overs, the police reforms implementation adopted the decentralisation structures (Ungar, 2012) enabling the sub regional governments to effectively respond to their localized challenges (Johnson, et al 2012) and the re-centralization structures witnessed in Venezuela and Mexico due to poor policing quality, as well as attempts to impose federal programs, in Argentina and Brazil (Macaulay, 2012).

In Australian, the government agencies and the police forces have undergone service delivery reforms that has transformed policing after the government called for prudent utilization of resources for effective service delivery. The police forces adopted the authoritarian paramilitary structures controlled through firm police organisational rules and legislations. Today, however, the Australian reformed police forces are among the most adaptive and pioneering of all police forces that has benefited the members of the public (den Heyer, 2017).

The Hong Kong Police Force has been able to transform itself from a corruption ridden police organization to a highly professional one. Corruption does not necessarily give rise to victimhood, but it compromises the institutional integrity of a policing system and undermines its legitimacy (Hui, 2016). The police perception survey in Timor-Leste revealed that the security situation had improved and the level of confidence in the national police force went higher due to the role played by the community elders.

In China, the police reform agenda expressed at the National Public Security Bureau Department heads conference in Beijing in 2001 as a full implementation of a community policing strategy. Further, the reform was envisaged to strengthen the local police posts nationwide (*paichusuo*), establish a comprehensive crime prevention system and enlist grass root assistance and support for maintaining social security and public order. The theme was to improve the work style of the police and hold the police accountable to the people (*qunzhongluxiong*) and in accordance with the law (*fazhi*) (Wong, 2012).

In Africa, there has been very little change in the culture of the police from the colonial structure of protecting the rights and privileges of the powerful individuals in the society (Marenin, 2014). As in most police bureaucracies, the police agencies in Africa operations are guided by standardised operational procedures and manuals. There is very little managerial control over the actual work practices of rank-and-file officers and police officers have room for improvisation and discretion while performing their functions in the highly dangerous environments that require split second life changing decisions. This is occasioned by the fact that policing today experiences diversity in all areas, including cultural dynamics, the technological uptake, and threats from domestic and international terrorism (Anderson, et al 2016).

In Ghana, the police service has been perceived by members of the public as the most corrupt public institution as some of the internal and external accountability reforms initiatives that have been proposed and implemented have not been able to fully address police corruption and the lack of professionalism that has been exhibited in the police organisation. The police reforms have been targeted at ending the endemic corruption and improving the performance of the police service for effective service delivery and transformation of the police as an institution. This made the police reforms process to be looked at as a retooling exercise (Ayee, 2016). In Cameroon, genuine police reforms can be traced from the signing of a series of presidential decrees in November 2012 that were meant to improve the working conditions, the general welfare of the police, training among others to the level of democratic policing that engages with the members of the public (Forkum, 2016).

At independence, the government of Kenya adopted a police force that was structured along the colonial mentality of protecting the interest of the colonial administration and hence the difficulty in reforming the policing culture over the years (Otiso & Kaguta, 2016). The initial attempt of the reform process was the merging and changing of the police forces into the NPS. The NPS is a centralised system of policing structure in which the police service is a national agency with personnel in all parts of the country with a singular chain of command at the national level and police administration functions are controlled and organized by the IG and formalised by an independent civilian body, the NPSC that answers to the national government to enhance institutional performance (Mbuba, 2018).

The NPS comprises the KPS, the APS and the DCI. The headquarters of the NPS, KPS, APS and DCI are managed by directorates and the services are further sub divided into formations and regions with the formations being specialised units and the regions rely

upon undifferentiated group of generalist officers to accomplish the organisational goals. The regions are further sub divided into county, sub-county, ward, post, and patrol bases with a vertical chain of command (NPS, 2020).

The police organisational structure reforms, including administrative merger and vetting of senior police officers have had limited impact. The merger of KPS and APS under the IG has only partially succeeded due to resistance within the APS officers who felt their roles are being limited hence the two services continue to operate separately impeding effective coordination and collaboration as envisaged by the National Police Service Act (Mageka, 2015).

The NTFPF, to come up with a responsive police structure realized the existing police structure was outdated and needed to be restructured in the reforms process. With the devolution of the county governments, the security functions remained under the control of national government (Cheeseman, et al 2016) and police commanders were tasked with the responsibility of supervising police functions at different span of control, either at the formation or regional level, county level, sub county level, ward or station level, post, or patrol base level. All the police authority was vested on the IG who took the overall responsibility to ratify any decisions made even at the lowest decentralised level of the police chain of command in the NPS (Amnesty International, 2013) for ease of implementation of the national government law enforcement agenda (Mbuba, 2018). The police officers believed that despite the change in the police organization structure, the NPS has not effectively delivered on its mandate due to the low morale of the police officers, lack of professionalism in discharging of the functions, inadequate resources to deal with the emerging crimes and increasing population, political interference, and corruption among other challenges (Diphoorn, 2020).

With the existing police organizational structure, the police service in Kenya faces a myriad of challenges coming from the operating environment (Koech, 2016) that hamper effective service delivery to members of the public. The police management in Kenya has been proven to be competent in the technical, and conceptual aspects and are however struggling with the human component which is very dynamic as police officers undertake the tiring and stressful job that might impair quality of life occasioned by the intense work pressure and threats of violence (Wu, et al 2019).

The police service must deal both at personal and institutional level with issues that bring disrepute to the NPS. Deliberate efforts have been made in Kenya to establish institutions expected to ensure police reforms that would subsequently result in respect for human rights, accountability, and professionalism among the police officers (Hope, 2016).

# 2.3.2 Public Trust and Service Delivery

Trust in an institution/organization is primarily concerned with global and citizens' attitudes such as satisfaction with or confidence in the service provided. Public trust in the police is important on moral and political grounds and contributes to compliance with the law. The institutional approaches to trust deal with the general form of trust, while within policing field the focus is more on concrete attitudes, such as satisfaction with treatment received by the police (Staubli, 2017). Within the police, when the trust in communication channels and public participation strategies are inadequate, services are brought to a halt and trust is negatively affected (Jakoet-Salie, 2018).

As mental picture that is beyond the tangible experiences trust is preoccupied with specific individuals with specific social roles (Tyler & Jackson, 2014). This in essence creates the public perception of police trustworthiness and subsequently shapes our

expectations of future encounters with the police. The police trustworthiness is thus further influenced more by their communicative concerns about the order and cohesion in their neighbourhood by defending the morals and values of the society. The existence of high disorder and low community integration are in essence likely to erode public trust in the police as residents feel that the police have failed to reassure the moral structure of the community (Sun, et al 2013).

In democratic societies, it required of the police to earn legitimacy from their actions with the members of the public. This reduces complexity for individuals and provide a sense of security. The public trust of the police ensures they both cooperate in ways that make the police effective. The criminal justice system operations are dependent upon the level of trust people have in the system and the police service being the foundation of the criminal justice system must strive to execute its duties with fairness, equity, and firmness for a high public trust if the system is to achieve its mandate.

Policing depends on the public willingness to cooperate in reporting crime, providing information and evidence, complying with police orders in stop and search situation, at major events, protests, and crime scenes. The trustworthiness of police to be relied upon depend on perceptions of procedural fairness, perceptions of the members of the public engagement, consistency, willingness, not exploiting trustee vulnerability and perceptions of police effectiveness in their actions (Nix, et al 2015). Distrust occurs when others interest conflict strongly with one's own.

In the USA, there is an opinion about the lack of accountability all over America and hence the need to establish accountability at all levels of police interaction with the public to restore police legitimacy and increase public safety (US Commission on Civil Rights, 2018). In Latin American Countries, the level of public trust in the region is

such that only 7.5 per cent on average have declared confidence in the police. This has contributed to the reluctance of the members of the public to report crime which has contributed to impunity, like in Costa Rica, where levels of confidence in the police are comparatively high in the region, only 23 per cent of crimes are reported to authorities and 22 per cent in Mexico (Casas-Zamora & Dammert, 2014). In most countries, the capability to deal with crime is lacking in the police forces. A glaring gap exist between the technological capability exhibited by criminal organisations and police forces. The police are further limited by the endemic corruption, due to low remuneration and unpredictable social security coverage as well as increased economic power of the organized criminal groups.

In Russia, there is a high-level distrust and disaffection of the police despite the improvement in the socio-economic conditions and multiple reforms implementation (Semukhina & Reynolds, 2014).

In New Zealand, policing had been made complex with the increase in police operational cost and the drive for the police to increase their productivity (den Heyer, 2021). Majority (56-78%) of the population now have trust and confidence in the police. However, the New Zealand police are working to achieve a 90 per cent trust and confidence level by 2021 (Daniels-Shpall, 2019).

In Germany, the trust in the police was merged with the courts and justice on a single factor and confidence in the work of the police linked to the police as an organisation police and their members as individual trust have been found to influence people's opinion of the performance of governmental institutions (Staubli, 2017).

In Africa, the reforms in the police forces have made tangible successes in many fronts but continue to face many challenges. The police in Nigeria are still known to carry out their functions, roles, and responsibility with the colonial strategies of deadly use of force that never took into consideration the importance of partnering with the members of public in the security architecture due to poor relationship. This has seriously affected how crimes are solved or resolved including the basic principles of effective investigations, interrogation of suspects and interviewing of witnesses (Igbo, 2017). The police in Nigeria are not easily accessible by the public when reporting a crime, asking for assistance, requesting for their services, or making a distress call, as they are known to be corrupt, unfriendly, money extorters, intimidators, abusers of authority and reaching out to them is a difficult process (Shoyode, 2018).

In Ghana, the police effectiveness and police trustworthiness are made worse by the perception that the police are procedurally unfair (Boateng, 2019). The process-based judgments are more significant in shaping levels of citizens' trust in the police than are either assessments about the effectiveness of police crime-control activities or judgments about the fairness of the distribution of police services (Tyler, 2016; Pryce, et al 2016). This implies that citizens' reactions to authorities are influenced by how fairly authorities make decisions and how respectfully they are treated. The level of trust and confidence the public have on the police is clearly articulated by the police policies and practices (Tankebe, 2013).

With the application of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), as the variance in fear of crime increases, variance of the trust in criminal justice system decreases and vice versa. Fear of crime and trust in the criminal justice system co-vary but inversely. Other studies have also focused on public-police encounters to explain variations in citizens' trust in the police (Bradford, et al 2014).

In South Africa, high rates of crime, specifically violent contact crimes, have considerably eroded the public trust and confidence in the SAPS. When citizens perceive that such escalation in crime coincides with declining integrity and pervasive corruption among the police, they may prefer self-help or security provided by vigilantes (Luckham, 2017). The apparent lack of trust in the police service result in the cycle of silence where there is no information from the public or feedback from the police activities. The police have been known to be more effective whenever the public cooperates by reporting crime, identifying suspects, and mitigating the social conditions that lead to crime. Majority of the crimes are solved when citizens report crimes and provide information to the police that can lead to the apprehension of offenders. In a survey among police officers by the Organization for Security Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) police instructors and UN police identified lack of acceptance of police by the community as a major problem in police work (Ayoyo, 2018). A society characterized by mistrust between the police and citizen decrease incentives for police reforms (Pino & Wiatrowski, 2016).

In public institutions, the urge to resist reforms emanates from those in positions of authority who may want to maintain status quo. However, the reform process can only be institutionalized whenever the reforms is implemented as a routine way of performing police work coupled with the norms, values, and structures of the police agency. This will ensure non coercive means in enforcing the law that protect the rights of the members of the public.

The legitimacy of the police to operate effectively in the society, brought about by the partnerships between the police and members of the public in most instances are focuses on delivery of police services and combine aspects of traditional law enforcement, crime prevention, and problem-solving. In this case, to build public trust on the police,

the concept and practice of community policing in Kenya seeks to expand the partnership to all other government agencies, the private sector, Non-Government Organizations (NGO's) and the CSO's with the goal of improving public safety and the quality of life for all persons within the Country. In communities where the public trust of the police is high and there is confidence in the police to exercise their authority responsibly, members of the public are more likely to comply with the demands of the police in areas of safety, security and crime prevention and implement informal strategies to deal with crimes (Daniels-Shpall, 2019).

The COP is part of necessary prescription for building trust in many large metropolitan areas where such police civilian conflicts often occur as it encourages the police to find solutions for multiple of community problems and concerns such as crime, fear of crime, quality of life and neighbourhood conditions (Przeszlowski and Crichlow, 2018). The COP is a paradigm shift established at the bedrock of community partnership in creating safe and secure environment for all (Mulugeta & Mekuriaw, 2017). It falls on the premise that police alone cannot control crime and disorder and promote resident's quality of life (Adugna & Italemahu, 2019).

In Kenya, public trust provides an important test case for the community, as it presents an opportunity to assess the effectiveness of community policing reforms in a divided society with a police service still characterised by paramilitary traditions and structures as the police in Kenya still have the experiences of the post conflict societies in Africa. Having adequate resources to provide long-term human, financial, and technical support to police reform is important, but at the same time, the need for long-term resources must be aligned with a clear vision of how the resources are to be used. In a sharper focus to these police reforms, the challenge in Kenya gives rise to the questions as to whether the political and social conditions for broad police reforms need to exist

as a precondition when these reforms are being initiated in the country and whether lessons for Kenya can be derived from countries that have implemented police reforms as part of their overall democratic reforms.

The underperformance of the police in all public confidence surveys in Kenya is a clear indication that the police reforms had not influenced public attitudes towards the police (Security Research Information Centre (SRIC), 2012). This discrepancy between police performance and public expectations is an indication of underlying major reform challenges in the police. The major concern has been that police reform may not have been on the main agenda since police reforms begun in 2003, as citizen involvement was never given a priority. Citizen participation in COP needs to be incorporated into the police reform initiatives in a democratic framework that will be beneficial to the police internal mechanisms and provision of reliable operational data for policies and practices. The police reforms were also necessitated by the 2015 opinion poll that showed a large proportion of Kenyans did not have any trust at all in the police (Afrobarometer, 2015).

### 2.3.3 Police Attitude, Responsiveness and Service Delivery

The exposure of system failures within the police institutions in their pre-existing arrangements have necessitated police reforms and increased the demand for an efficient, responsive, and accountable police services. The context in which police reform's function is at a variety of levels that are in most cases country specific, while some are because of global developments which exerts an influence on police services globally (James, et al 2020). In the UK, the exposure of system failure including police corruption and miscarriage of justice catalyzed to police reforms (Gilling, 2013).

The legacy of discrimination, distrust and tension persist in many communities. The distrust of police and a lack of respect residents experience from the police require extensive training to the police to build trust with the community they serve as police are there to serve and protect members of the public without inflicting brutality (Payne, et al 2016). The main aim of policing is basically to maintain the peace and harmony in the community and to ensure members of the public pursue their pursuits without any distractions, and adhere to the laws (Pandey, 2014).

Improvements in police officers' behaviour during encounter with members of the public can build public trust. In turn this trust changes peoples' attitude and encourage residents to be more likely to comply with the law and more willing to partner with the police in crime response and crime prevention such as coming forth as witnesses or collaborating in crime control efforts (La Vigne, et al 2017). In Taiwan, just like in the USA, police officers believe and view their roles and functions as mainly crime fighters and enforcing the law. However, an important portion of police activities usually involves dealing with petty disturbances and service calls (Wu, et al 2017).

In Africa, the lack of the rule of law in the enforcement of conventional and non-conventional crimes, the lack of political will and lack of preparedness has necessitated and motivated the call for police reforms. In South Africa the Africa National Congress (ANC) and those other democratic forces were found to be unprepared and lacked the requisite resources for implementing the anticipated police reforms (Mashamite, 2014; Mbazira, 2017).

The police in Kenya have been found to be the only corrupt institution among the top ten institutions in the East Africa Community (EAC) states. The level of corruption within the police in Kenya and the complaints against police officers has been on an upward trend. This in essence has hampered service delivery by the police in Kenya. The police have been known as agents of pacification and punishment and are used by the political elite to terrorize members of the public who may threaten their political will instead of protecting the members of the public.

The police agencies are bureaucratic and resistant to change. Individual police officers recruited into the police service also carry-on board their ingrained attitudes, shared values and preferences into the police service which has a great bearing on the police culture and performance of duty. Such human values are in most cases stable and resistant to change too. The effective delivery of police service depends on many factors including remuneration meant to make the officers comfortable and reduce corruption, training, availability of infrastructure and other resources, the uptake of Information Communication Technology (ICT), and a clear promotion procedure, among others (Meerah & Jusoh, 2014).

The police service attitude and morale to perform their functions effectively is affected by many factors. Among them is the belief that security provision is the preserve of the armed personnel and members of the public have no meaningful strategies and outcomes to offer, the police are inadequately equipped to deal with the contemporary and emerging crimes, among others. This attitude in essence affects their accountability to the members of the public while discharging their duties (CHRIPS/APCOF, 2014). The police officers' attitude towards the laws and rules is such that many believe in the necessity of rational restraints of the rule of the law and procedures utilised in police work and are likely to accept and work within the limits prescribed. The police officers should therefore listen to the members of the public point of view, should be not partisan, unbiased and provide a justification for their decisions.

## 2.4 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for the study is presented in Figure 2.1. It is a succinct explanation of the phenomenon under study enhanced with a detailed model of the interaction between the variables (Kumar, 2019). As indicated in Figure 2.1, the dependent variable which is service delivery was measured by accessibility and response time by the police and respect for human rights.

## **Independent Variable**

## **Dependent Variable**

# **Police Reforms**

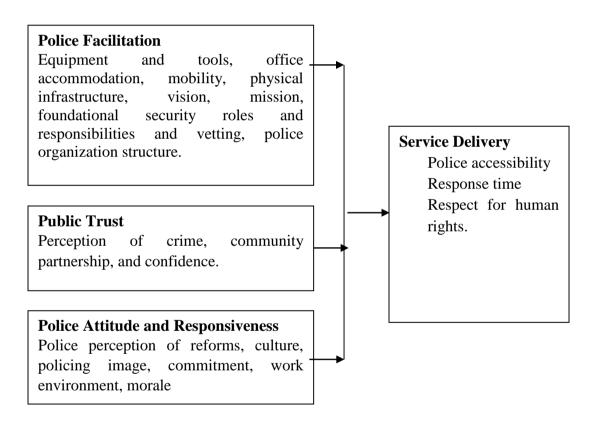


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

The independent variable which is the police reforms has three measurable variables namely the police facilitation, public trust, police attitude and responsiveness. Police facilitation was measured by equipment and tools, office accommodation, mobility, physical infrastructure, the vision, mission, roles, and responsibility, vetting of the

police, new legislation in policing and foundational security concepts and organizational structure. Public trust was measured by perception of crime, community partnership, and confidence. The police attitude and responsiveness were measured by police perception of reforms, culture, policing image commitment and work environment on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya.

### 2.5 Chapter Summary and Research Gaps

This chapter presents the concepts in the study, the theoretical framework, link between the dependent variable and the independent variable, conceptual framework and the research gap and chapter summary. Most researchers are of the opinion that the police need to be facilitated to be responsive and this is the only way public trust and confidence in the police can be maintained. This can be achieved by improving the police officers' attitude and members of the public attitude towards policing. The confidence exhibited by members of the public on the police is the foundation for public cooperation and the basis for police legitimacy in any democratic society. This confidence is hampered by the experiences of the members of the public on police service delivery. It undermines public perceptions of police trustworthiness and limit extent to which the members of the public support the reform initiatives within the police.

There is a significant body of literature on various dimensions of police reforms and service delivery in most of the countries coming out of conflict like Kenya. However, there is lack of clear and evidenced information on the extent to which police reforms have achieved success, the delayed areas, and the ensuing challenges more so in the NPS in Nairobi County Kenya. The research gaps in the study are presented in Table 2.1.

 Table 2.1: Summary of Research Gaps

Author (s) (Year)	Article/thesis title	Contribution	Gap
Ashby, et al (2007)	Police reform and the new public management paradigm: Matching technology to the rhetoric	Presents a review and interpretation of the inertia and resistance to change in UK Policing.	The study focused on technology and resistance to change and did not clearly capture the aspect of police facilitation
Terpstra, J. & Fyfe, N. (2019)	Great expectations? Assessing the creation of national police organizations in Scotland and Netherlands.	Comparative study of police reform proposals, challenges of implementation in each country.	The study did not focus on the legal framework to anchor police reform.
Green, T. & Gates, A. (2014)	Understanding the process of professionalization in the police organization	Examined the police as a professional organization that have characteristics that have eluded policing	The study did not focus on institutional framework and professionalism but examined the police like any other profession.
Hail, Y. (2020)	Police reform in Scotland: What can we learn from the experiences of frontline officers.	Major structural reforms at police operational level in routine delivery of local policing.	The study did not focus on police attitude and responsiveness in service delivery
Gjelsvik, M. (2020)	Police reform and community policing in Kenya: the bumpy road from policy to practice	Assessed the enhancement of police- public trust and partnership through community policing	The study did not assess the effect of public trust on service delivery
Payne, B. & Thompson, J. (2019)	Towards professionalism and police legitimacy? An examination of the education and training reforms of the police in the Ireland	Police officers understanding of professionalism and high service deal.	The study did not focus on the measures in place including institutional framework to enhance professionalism
Lamb, G. (2018)	Mass killings and calculated measures. The impact of police massacres on police reform in South Africa.	Explored the relationship between massacre perpetrated by police and police reforms.	The study did not focus on police attitude and responsiveness

Linturi, T. & Muna,	Security reporting system and	Determined the effect of security	The study narrowed focus on reporting
W. (2021)	performance among police officers	reporting system on performance of	systems and performance in Lamu
	in Lamu County, Kenya	police in Kenya	County and did not focus on police
			facilitation to enhance service delivery
Koech, J. K. (2016)	Internal Factors Influencing	Influence of leadership, availability of	The study narrowed focus on the internal
	Service Delivery within the Kenya	resources, organization culture and	factors in KPS and did not measure the
	Police Service in Kitui County,	structure in the KPS	legal framework, public trust, and police
	Kenya		attitude.
Hope, K. R (2016)	Kenya. Police Corruption and	Efforts in policy, legal and	Did not measure respect for human
	Reform to Control It	institutional framework to transform	rights, accountability, and
		police service into a professional	professionalism among the police in
		security agency	effort to enhance service delivery.
Ayieko, E. & Gitonga,	Police reform practices and service	Assessed the effects of personnel,	The sample size of 110 senior police
E. (2020)	delivery in KPS in Machakos	financial and legal reforms on service	officers was not adequate for
	County Police Headquarters,	delivery	generalization and the focus narrowed to
	Kenya		county headquarters only

Source: Author (2020).

As indicated in Table 2.1, the literature reviewed so far has focused on issues that impede on service delivery in the police such as mobility, corruption, public satisfaction with the police, among others. Very few studies has been documented on police institutional framework in the NPS in Kenya and one cannot assume the effects of institutional framework and professionalism on the police reforms and service delivery without any form of empirical test.

This study provides the test on the extent to which police reforms which is associated with service delivery has been adopted given the prevailing conditions in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya. The focus of the study, was therefore, on these gaps to give an empirical depiction on the police reforms and service delivery in the NPS, Nairobi County, Kenya and suggest recommendations on how to strategize the implementation of these reforms.

#### **CHAPTER THREE**

#### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology used in the study. It provides an explanation of the research philosophy, research design, target population, sampling design and sample size and sampling procedure. Data sources and data collection, instruments and procedures, reliability and validity, methods of data analysis and ethical considerations are also discussed.

## 3.1 Research Philosophy

The choice of research philosophy is often influenced by researcher's basic ontological, epistemological, and methodological positions (Jackson, et al 2015). Ontology is the study of being and is concerned with what kind of world we are investigating with the nature of existence, with structure of reality as such while epistemology is a way of understanding and explaining how we know what we know and involves knowledge and embodies a certain understanding of what is entailed in knowing that represents how we know what we know (Al-Ababneh, 2020). The study was anchored on pragmatic research philosophy which was founded by Charles Sanders Peirce in 1870s as a method of using scientific logic to clarify the meaning of concepts or ideas through investigating their potential relationship with real world (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). The philosophy supports simultaneous use of qualitative and quantitative methods of inquiry to generate evidence to support best practice. The philosophy is applicable in the study because the practical consequences and the effects of concepts and behaviours are vital components of meaning and truth. For pragmatists, human values, visions, actions, and interactions precede the search for descriptions and explanations and actions appear as something significant and fundamental to study. Pragmatism focuses

on obtaining the necessary data to answering research questions, by rejecting preestablished method design (Borges & Revez, 2018).

The pragmatism provides a philosophical justification for the adaptation of the mixed research approach which provides a complete understanding of the research problem than using one type of method (Creswell, 2014). In mixed research, the weakness of one methodology is complemented by the strength of the other (Kalolo, 2015). The philosophy permits mixing paradigms, assumptions, approaches and methods of data collection and analysis with the notion of what works, and it is oriented towards solving practical problems in the real world rather than being built on assumptions about the nature of knowledge (Maarouf, 2019).

The ontological position of the study was that a proposition is true only if it works satisfactorily and if found to be practical. It involves arriving at a tentative theory that serves as hypothetical explanatory concepts with the goal not to find fundamental truths but to focus on practical problems. Pragmatism accepts philosophically, that there are singular and multiple realities that are open to empirical inquiry, orients itself towards solving practical problems in the real world (Feilzer, 2010) and allows the researcher to be free of mental and practical constraints imposed by the forced choice of dichotomy between post positivism and constructivism (Ronald, 2015).

Epistemology concerns what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study (Sunders, et al 2012) and considers views about the most appropriate ways of enquiring into the nature of the world. A pragmatic viewpoint offers epistemological justification for bringing together multiple sources of knowledge with the goal of finding workable solutions, gaining a greater understanding of people and the world in which we live and practice and solving individual social problems.

The study was motivated by the anticipated outcomes of the analyzed findings to inform decision making. The emphasis was on the practical usefulness and consequences of ideas and statements (Nowell, 2015). The pragmatism was adopted to yield better research outcomes and the need to enrich the research data produced (Kalolo, 2015). The aim being to generalise study findings while being objective. Therefore, under this philosophical stance, the researcher remained objective, was neutral and detached from the investigative inquiry while utilising the mixed method approach of QUAN + QUAL whereby the quantitative component drove the concurrent design.

## 3.2 Research Design

The study employed an explanatory sequential research design. This design involved a two-phase design where quantitative data (numbers) were collected and analyzed, followed by a subsequent gathering and analysis of qualitative data (Creswell, 2014; Maleku, et al., 2021) to explain the quantitative findings. The focus was on collecting, analyzing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in the study to provide a better understanding of the research problem and further explain the initial quantitative results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017).

The explanatory sequential research design also provides quantitative description of attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population with intent of generalizing. Since the researcher sought to investigate the effect of police reforms on police service delivery, the explanatory sequential research design was deemed appropriate as it helped explain the relationship between the independent variable (police reforms) and dependent variable (service delivery). The design allowed the researcher to collect data from police officers and the members of the public using a questionnaire and key informant interview guide.

### 3.2.1 Research Approach

The study used a deductive-quantitative and inductive qualitative approaches. Deduction-quantitative approach involves developing a theory and hypothesis and designing a research strategy to test the hypothesis which is explained as a relationship between cause-and-effect variables (Creswell, 2014; Saunders et al., 2012). Deduction aims at searching and explaining relationship between variables and calls for operationalization of concepts in a way that enables facts to be measured quantitatively, dictates researcher's independence from what is being observed to pursue the principle of scientific rigor, and for generalization of study findings.

The deductive-quantitative research approach was appropriate since the logic of the study was deductive in nature as the study intention was to test hypothesis, draw conclusions based on statistical analysis and generalise the study findings. This also helped the researcher to establish statistical evidence on the strength of relationships between both exogenous and endogenous constructs and in providing directions of relationships when combined with theory and literature. Moreover, quantitative research was found appropriate for explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that were analysed using statistical techniques (Creswell, 2014). The evaluation was used to ascertain the implementations of police reforms agenda that influenced the service delivery in the NPS.

The inductive qualitative approach was aimed at generating meanings from the data collected in order to identify themes, patterns, relationships and to build on the theories. The researcher gad deep into what was happening in the data and understood the themes present in the data that produced findings used to corroborate the quantitative findings and this produced reliable and valid findings for the study.

## 3.3 Target Population

The target population in the study was two thousand one hundred (2100) general duty police officers working in all the police stations in Nairobi County (NPS, 2019). This figure is an estimation as police stations in Nairobi County have no specific strength of police officers due to many factors including frequent transfers, geographical span of control and other factors.

The study considered police officers across all ranks, gender, experience, and the sections within the police stations. Members of the public seeking police assistance at the time of visit to the station by the researcher were also conveniently estimated as there is no specific number of members of the public visiting a police station at any one given day or time, but this depends on the prevailing conditions within the police station environs.

## 3.4 Sample Size Determination and Sampling Strategy

### 3.4.1 Sample Size Determination

A sample is defined as a representative part from a larger group whose constituents are studied. It is the finite part of a statistical population whose ingredients are examined to gain insight about the population (Kombo & Tromp, 2016). In determining a study sample, Nassiuma (2000) suggest a coefficient of variation in the range of 11 per cent to 30 per cent and a standard error in the range of 2 per cent to 5 per cent is acceptable. The Nassiuma's formula does not assume any probability distribution and is a stable measure of variability. Therefore, a coefficient of variation of 30 per cent and a standard error of 2 per cent was used in this study. The upper limit for coefficient of variation and standard error was selected to ensure low variability in the sample and minimise the degree of error. The formula is as follows: -

$$S = \frac{N (CV)^2}{(CV)^2 + (N-1)e^2}$$

Where S = Sample size

N = Population size (2100)

CV = Coefficient of variation (30 per cent)

E = standard error (2 per cent),

$$S = \frac{2100 (0.3)^2}{(0.3)^2 + (2099)0.02^2} = 203$$

The Nassiuma formular yielded a calculated sample of 203, however, to take care of unforeseen eventualities such a non-response, incomplete questionnaires among others, the researcher added 10% of the calculated sample thus a total of 224 police officer were sampled as respondents and 112 (half the police sample) respondents for the members of the public sampled using convenience sampling method as indicated in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1**: Sample Size

Unit of Analysis	Sample Size	Selection
Police Officers	224	Simple Random Sampling
Members of the Public	112	Convenience Sampling
Total	336	
Key Informants	11	Purposive sampling

The 11 key informants, at the police stations in Nairobi County were purposively sampled as they were believed to be holding important information relevant to the study

# 3.4.2 Sampling Strategy

Sampling forms a crucial part of each inquiry and is majorly applied since it assists in collecting information in a cheaper manner from a sample rather than the whole universe. It involves deliberately choosing several units to give the required information from where conclusions regarding the entire population can be drawn (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

The police stations in the County were stratified based on the sub county representation to minimize errors and the study utilised simple random sampling to select police officers from a list of station strength made available by the officer commanding station to the researcher from the police stations sampled using stratified sampling method, who then responded to the questionnaires while the members of the public were purposively selected based on their availability at the station at the time of the study. Simple random sampling gives each member of the population an equal chance of participating in the survey. This method is advantageous since it reduces costs by concentrating the survey in randomly selected samples (Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, purposive sampling was used to draw respondents from the members of the public in that for every 2 police officers interviewed 1 member of the public found in the police station was randomly interviewed. Eleven (11) key informants were purposively selected from the NPS headquarters drawn from the Directorate of Police Reform, KPS Gender and Community Policing, NPSC legal department, IPOA research department and from the International Centre for Transitional Justice.

### 3.5 Data and Data Collection Instruments

### 3.5.1 Secondary Data

Secondary data was collected through analysing, reports, minutes of meetings, available statistics and documents that contained information on police reforms and police service delivery. The secondary data so obtained was organized into themes for qualitative data and the quantitative data was analysed based on trends and was used to validate the results obtained from the analysis of primary data.

## 3.5.2 Primary Data

Primary data that is specifically collected for a purpose at the source and is original in character (Lowry, 2015) was collected by administering questionnaires to the

respondent police officers (Appendix 1), and members of the public (Appendix 2) and interviews with key informants using the key informant guide (Appendix 3). There were 4 key informants drawn from the top police leadership, police oversight bodies and selected CSO dealing with police reforms in Kenya. The responses from the key informants were used to corroborate the findings from the questionnaires.

## 3.5.3 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is definite, concrete and already determined questions, which are presented with the same phrasing or language and in the same order to all the respondents. The questionnaire could be structured or unstructured. The study utilized a structured questionnaire. This type of questionnaire is simple to administer and relatively inexpensive to analyse as opposed to unstructured questionnaire. Additionally, structured questionnaires are unbiased since responses are not in respondents' own words and respondents have enough time to offer proper responses (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

Questionnaire was considered appropriate because it provides an accurate means of assessing sample information and enables the researcher to draw conclusions about generalising the findings from a sample of responses to the population. It is also appropriate in determining the relationships between variables needed to answer research questions. It is considered useful because it is quick, inexpensive, and efficient, ensures respondents anonymity, can be administered to a large sample, and facilitates standardisation and uniformity. The instrument has been widely used and accepted in service delivery research especially on studies on the level of service delivery (Bendary & El Minyawi, 2015). It was therefore found useful in explaining the relationship between variables under investigation.

Questionnaire was the main data collection instrument (Appendix 1). The questionnaire was administered directly to the respondents, who were required to fill in the information as the researcher wait to reduce the instances of non-response. The questionnaire contained closed ended statements structured on an agreement and satisfaction continuum using 5-point Likert type scales (1 strongly disagree-5 strongly agree; 1 very well- 5 very poor; and 1 very dissatisfied— 5 very satisfied respectively). This was interpreted as: the higher the score the higher the factor influenced police service delivery.

In contemporary psychometric practice, majority of rating scales, Likert scales included contain five response categories. Use of scales provides a better alternative to using actual figures due to the unwillingness of the respondents to disclose sensitive information. The Likert type of questionnaires takes less time and are easy to answer. However, the interval between points on the scale do not present equal changes in attitude (i.e., the differences between "strongly agree" and "agree" may be slight for one individual and great for another). The questionnaire was structured into seven sections and items measured on nominal, ordinal interval, and ratio scale.

Part A, captured general background information of the respondents including age, gender, educational level, rank, period of service and department/section. These variables provide insight into important demographic data patterns of the respondents. Age and period of service was measured using ratio scale. Ratio scale represents actual amount of a variable and is an absolute scale whose difference between the intervals is always measured from a zero point with the zero indicating absence of the quality being measured. Ratio scales are classified as continuous data. However, ratio scales may be converted into interval scale at time of data analysis (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

Gender was measured using nominal scale. Nominal scale is applicable when a variable is measured in terms of two or more qualitative categories that have no order or distant relationship and have no arithmetic origin. Variable measured on a nominal scale may have numbers to represent labels within a category, but the number does not have qualities of a true number. The level of measurement for education level was ordinal. Ordinal scales are typically measuring non-numeric concepts and attempts to order or rank the attributes with the difference between the attributes having no meaning (Kangethe, et al 2015).

Part B, C, D, E and F contained multi-items measuring police reforms and service delivery i.e., police officers' facilitation and responsiveness, legal framework, police public trust, police attitude and institutional framework. Ordinal and interval measurement scale was used on the items in this section which were represented by 5-point Likert type statements meant to illicit opinion from the respondents regarding their attitude towards the statements. This measurement scale was preferred since it attempts to measure variable in terms of its magnitude and provides information about order or ranking. However, considering the equal intervals between the items coding, interval scales was considered ideal since in addition to indicating some certain order it indicates item order in terms of which one has less or more of the quality represented by the item. Moreover, interval scale was found desirable because it allows for use of more powerful statistical procedures (Kumar, 2011).

The study used notable changes in the NPS reforms that have enhanced service delivery, responsiveness to reported crime, efficiency in addressing crime and whether the police managers have the capacity to manage change process to measure police service delivery. The police reforms was measured through police officers facilitation (police response through enhanced vehicles and motorbikes, adequate office space, enhanced

feedback mechanism and enhanced physical infrastructure that supports police operations, police officers vetting, foundational components and critical issues regarding security and roles and responsibilities of key structures), all the items in the questionnaire except the demographic characteristics were measured using a five-point Likert type response scales. For example, trust was measured on a 5- item Likert type scale to examine the extent of agreement and satisfaction with the police work following the police reforms.

## 3.5.4 Key Informant Interview Guide

A key informant interview guide is a research tool used to gather specific qualitative information from respondents who are experts and decision-makers about a topic (Bryman & Bell, 2015). An interview guide was prepared and used to orally collect data from four (4) interview respondents including a selected senior police officer from NPS, research manager with the IPOA, head of legal department at the NPSC and a program manager with the International Centre for Transitional Justice. The key informant responses were used to corroborate the findings obtained from the questionnaire and contain unstructured questions that were presented based on the study specific objectives. Specifically, the key informant interviews were carried out with respondents to who the questionnaire was not administered.

#### 3.6 Data Collection Procedures

Approval to conduct the research was obtained from the University and authority to collect data sought from the National Commission for Science, Technology, and Innovation (NACOSTI) which includes issuance of a research clearance permit (Appendix 4 and 5). Further authority was sought from the office of the IG NPS and the Regional Commissioner (RC) in Nairobi to enable the researcher to administer the questionnaire to police officers and members of the public in Nairobi County. The

researcher sought the assistance of two research assistants who were familiar with the area of customer satisfaction and service delivery data collection, who were then trained by the researcher on the questionnaire requirements and were thus useful to the study. Primary data in this study was collected by use of a structured questionnaire, and key informant interview guide while secondary data to corroborate the findings was obtained from available literature, publications, and reports on police reforms. For the purposes of collecting credible and accurate information. Due to the nature of the questionnaire, the respondents took about fifteen minutes to complete filling the instrument. To increase the response rates, the research assistants were taken through the questionnaire to make sure that they understood what was required. In addition, an introductory letter from Moi University, which explained the purpose of the study, was provided to the respondents and their consent sought. Data collection was done during the month of February-March 2017.

### 3.6.1 Pilot Study

Before data collection, pilot testing was done to prepare the questionnaire adequately. A pilot study was conducted among 22 police officers and 11 members of the public (10% of the sample size) simple randomly sampled from police stations purposively selected within Machakos County, which is adjacent to Nairobi County and share similar socio economic and policing characteristics. Therefore, a sample of 22 police officers and 11 members of the public for the pilot was ideal and provided insights into the data collection instruments and on areas that needed revision that were adjusted accordingly based on the findings from the pilot study.

## 3.6.2 Reliability of Research instruments

Reliability is the extent to which a measurement is free of variable error and is usually achieved when repeated measures of the same variable show limited variation (Kombo

& Tromp, 2016). Data obtained from the pilot study was used to test reliability using Cronbach's coefficient of reliability. The reliability of the variables was assessed and a Cronbach's alpha of 0.724 against the set value of 0.7 thus statistically acceptable for this study as indicated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. Instrument Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.724	.739	25

Source: Field Data (2020).

## 3.6.3 Validity of Research Instruments

Validity measures whether the instruments to be used in data collection would bring out the type of responses expected (Kombo & Tromp, 2016). To determine face validity of the research instrument, expert opinion was sought was sought from the supervisors and peers to determine all the possible areas that needed modification to achieve the objectives of the study. Content validity of the instruments was determined by expert judgments. The research experts and professional in police reforms and service delivery were consulted to review the items on the research instruments to determine if the set items represented the variables of the study and their judgments incorporated in the final instrument of the study. For quality control, a pilot test of the research instruments was carried out to ascertain the content validity of the instruments. Construct validity to which a measure relates to expectations in theory was ensured through data analysis.

## 3.7 Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the raw data collected from the field for the purposes of interpretation and solving of practical research problem under investigation.

## 3.7.1 Questions Generation

The questions in the questionnaire were arrived at by assessing the study theories, the literature reviewed, the research philosophy and the research design and were adequately checked for data quality. The questionnaire returned from the field were checked for completeness, legibility, and consistency, coded, edited, and keyed into the computer using Statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 to facilitate statistical analysis. Data editing was done to ensure completeness and consistency. It was part of the data processing and analysis stage (Zikmund, 2003). The study analysis considered all valid and complete responses from respondents. In total, only 10 questionnaires for the police and 7 questionnaires for the members of the public were excluded from analysis, due to incompleteness and inconsistency in answering the questions. Coding was used to assign numbers to each answer to ease transfer of data to the analysis program. Such procedures could be undertaken either before the questionnaire was answered (pre-coding), or after (post-coding). In this case, a precoding procedure was used. Data editing procedures were undertaken after data were entered into the data file to detect any errors in data entry.

Data screening was useful in making sure that the data collected were credible and would not lead to misleading results. Since the instrument was researcher administered with help of very few research assistants, few cases of missing data and non-response bias were encountered. It was uncommon to obtain data sets without some missing data. The screening of the data in SPSS indicated that there were no variables that had more than 5 per cent of missing data, thus there was no need to assess the pattern of missing data. To address the missing data, the researcher replaced missing responses with the median for each question. The median is the most appropriate replacement value when the Likert scale is used (Sekeran, 2003). This method was deemed superior compared

to list wise deletion that was likely to reduce the overall sample size. In addition, it was important to ensure that replacing missing values with the median did not significantly alter the distribution of variables (pre- and post-replacement). About response rate, the strategy employed by the researcher of using research administered mode enhanced response rate.

## 3.7.2 Analysis

The data variables were analysed, interpreted, and presented in tables, figures and narrated in verbatim. Quantitative data (Quan) was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics was conducted through frequency counts and percentages, means and standard deviations to capture the distribution of responses on the key issues addressed in the study specific objectives. Inferential statistics was done through multiple regression analysis to predict the value of the dependent variable based on the value of the four independent variables, Chi-square tests of association was used to determine statistical and significant relationship or association between two determine the strength and direction of relationship or association between two quantitative variables. The findings from quantitative data are presented in figures and tables.

Qualitative data (Qual) was analyzed by focusing on meaning and the use of thematic analysis. This was done by developing verbatim, arranged in relation to the specific objectives of the study and the excerpts presented in narrative form to corroborate the findings from the questionnaire.

**Table 3.3**: Summary of the Analysis Strategy for Quantitative Data

	Specific	Nature of	Tests
	Objective	measurement	
1	Police	Ordinal/Interval	Frequency distribution (percentage),
	Facilitation		central tendency (mean) and variability
			(standard deviation), Spearman's
			Correlation
2	Public Trust	Ordinal/Interval	Frequency distribution (percentage),
			central tendency (mean) and variability
			(standard deviation), Spearman's
			Correlation
3	Police Attitude	Ordinal/Interval	Frequency distribution (percentage),
	and		central tendency (mean) and variability
	Responsiveness		(standard deviation), Spearman's
			Correlation

## 3.8 Limitations of the Study

The study devoted considerable attention towards examining police reforms and service delivery in the NPS, Nairobi County, Kenya and this was subject to several limitations. The study used an explanatory sequential research design focusing on target population of 2100 police officers in selected police stations in Nairobi County and purposively selected members of the public to provide a sample of 224 police officers and 112 members of public for data collection. The study was not able to assess a larger sample throughout the republic and this should be considered to remove the restriction on data. The members of the public also needed to be carefully selected in a probable manner as this makes it difficult to apply the study findings to other context of police reforms as some forms of bias and subjectivity could have been introduced in the responses.

The limitations of the study were realized in the access of the sampled respondents who were distributed across the many different police stations within the Nairobi County even though the sample size was not large. To overcome this, the researcher and the research assistants traveled to the sampled police stations on Saturdays in the morning hours to meet the respondents when they were having their weekly meetings. To

complete the study within the determined study period and budget and at the same maintaining importance of the study findings, the study was limited to the police stations in Nairobi County and therefore this study findings may not be precisely generalized for other counties or countries due to the uniqueness of the police stations within Nairobi County.

Some challenges were also experienced with the questionnaire such as the respondents understanding of the questions which affected the quality of responses, lack of control over the set timeliness, and the inability to determine the truthfulness of the respondent's responses. The use of closed-ended questions tends to restrict and confine the respondent to predetermined set of responses based on the choices offered which limits respondents from introducing any new ideas which they may have. Finally, responses may have been influenced by respondents' characteristics which can introduce common method bias. To limit such bias, the researcher used different Likert scale formats to reduce complacency and increase questions attractiveness and explained to the respondents where need be. The selected respondents were urged to be truthful in their responses at it was meant to portray the true picture of the reforms from their perspective. The respondents were finally provided with one open ended question at the end of the Likert scale questions to provide their suggestion on other measures not included in the closed ended questions in the questionnaire to cater for the any strategy that could improve service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County.

### 3.9 Ethical Considerations for the Study

At the onset, respondents were assured of their safety and confidentiality, and were adequately informed that the purpose of the research was purely academic and thus information adduced would not be used against them. Confidentiality was realised by requesting the respondents not to include any personal data on the questionnaire.

An informed consent was sought from the respondents who signed a written consent in the introduction letter attached to the questionnaire and the respondents were also informed that they had a choice to withdraw from the study at will before the end of the exercise. Those who did not consent by appending their signature on the consent column were not included in the study and were replaced accordingly.

Those who participated in the study were thanked for having given the researcher an opportunity to talk to them. This study was purely investigative in nature and no details that could identify the respondents were included in the questionnaire during the analysis.

#### **CHAPTER FOUR**

### DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents, the data analysis, and interpretation of the findings of the study. The chapter presents the descriptive statistics and the demographic characteristics of respondent, police facilitation, public trust, police attitude and responsiveness, and hypothesis testing.

# 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Sufficient personal information of respondents was essential to comprehend the kind of respondents from which primary data was collected and the basis under which the research findings interpretations are made. This information was significant to the study because it helped the researcher to appreciate some issues that were important in the analysis of the study findings. Descriptive statistics were obtained for the demographic and social profile of police officers and members of the public. For police officers the demographic and social profiles were with respect to gender, age category, department, highest level of education, rank, and length of service while for members of the public, the demographic and social profiles were with respect to gender, age category and highest level of education and their relevance in examining the service delivery. These variables determine to a greater extent, the magnitude and direction of perception of the quality service delivered and are important to police officers and members of the public because police reforms and service delivery is a function of the competence and individual demographic and social profiles of the respondents.

# 4.1.1 Response Rate

The questionnaire return rate was 100% because the researcher ensured the respondents were sensitised prior to the administration of the questionnaire and collected there and

then due to the busy schedule of the respondents. After administering and collecting the questionnaires, the responses provided in the questionnaire were reviewed from an angle of legibility, completeness, and consistency. As presented in Table 4.1, out of the 224 police officers who responded in the study, 96 per cent 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 per cent response rate.

Table 4.1. Response Rate

Respondents	n	Response	Percentage
Police Officers	224	214	96
Members of the Public	112	105	94
Total	336	319	95

Source: Field Data (2020).

In research, a response rate of 60 per cent is good and 70 per cent is very good for analysis and interpretation. The study response rate of 95 per cent was acceptable for analysis, given that the data obtained was useful, reliable, and valid and was in a format that is suitable for analysis and drawing of important conclusions about the target population (Creswell, 2014).

### **4.1.2** Gender of Respondents

It was important to look at the gender distribution of the respondents to understand the different opinion between the male and the females on the subject matter. The findings imply that majority of the police officers are males as the nature of police work has been widely looked at as technical and physically demanding and hence associated with the males. As presented in Table 4.2, the study found that that 88.3 per cent of the respondent police officers were male while 11.7 per cent female. The mean = 1.117,

and std. dev. = 0.322 is an indication of the dominance of the male police officers in law enforcement.

**Table 4.2.**: Gender of Respondents

Gender	Police (	ice Officers Men		mbers of Public	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	
Male	189	88.9	65	61.9	
Female	25	11.7	40	38.1	
Total	214	100	105	100	
Mean	1.117		1.381		
Std. Dev.	0.322		0.488		

Source: Field Data (2020).

This study finding is consistent with Ntuli & 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. The findings on gender are however not consistent with the national gender distribution in which females are approximately 51 per cent of the national population (KNBS, 2019). The study findings thus imply the police is yet to achieve the two thirds gender rule in employment and subsequent deployment of police officers in all the stations, especially in Nairobi County.

For the members of the public, as indicated in Table 4.2, the study found out that 61.9 per cent were males while 38.1 per cent female. This if further supported by mean = 1.381 and std. dev. = 0.488 implying majority of the respondents are male and from the police records, this is very significant as majority of the members of the public who report crimes to the police station are male and can comment of police reforms and the services at the station.

The researcher performed a cross tabulation of gender and department to establish the variables used to assess the effects of police reforms on service delivery in the NPS, Kenya. Statistical tests (Appendix 6) indicate a Chi-Square value  $\chi^2_{2,0.05} = 10.465$  of P = 0.005 at 95 per cent 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. This shows that there were significantly more males than females in all the three departments and this can be explained by the nature of the profession. Most women do not venture into security affairs as it is seen as a masculine profession.

# 4.1.3 Age Category

The findings on the age categories of the respondent are presented in Table 4.3. The findings for police officers show that the majority (63.6%) are in the age bracket of 26-35 years, while 23.4 per cent of the respondents are in the age bracket of 36-45 years, 10.7 per cent of the respondents are in the age bracket of 46-55 years while 1.4 per cent of the respondents are 56 years and above. The data indicates that the highest composition of the respondents is that of age category 26-35 years and the least is age category 25 years & below with 63.6 per cent and 0.9 per cent respectively. The mean = 2.481, and std. dev. = 0.7550 imply majority of the respondents are of a younger age category.

**Table 4.3**. Age Category

	Police Officers		Members of Public	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
≤ 25 Years	2	0.9	18	17.1
26-35 Years	136	63.6	45	42.9
36-45 Years	50	23.4	25	23.8
46-55 Years	23	10.7	13	12.4
≥ 56 Years	3	1.4	4	3.8
Total	214	100	105	100
Mean	2.481		2.133	
Std. Dev.	0.7550		0.6801	

Source: Field Data (2020).

The study also assessed the age categories of the respondent members of the public and the findings presented in Table 4.3. From the study findings, 42.9 per cent are in the age bracket 26-35 years, 23.8 per cent are in the age bracket 36-45 years, 17.1 per cent are in the age bracket 25 years and below, 12.4 per cent of the respondents are in the age bracket of 46-55 and 3.8 per cent are in the age bracket 56 years and above. The data reveals that the highest composition of the respondents is that of age category 26-35 years and the least are in the age category above 56 years with 42.9 per cent and 3.8 per cent respectively.

This is very significant as most of the crimes committed in Nairobi County are committed by the youthful population, majority (26-35 years) of who are unemployed or are seeking for gainful employment. This 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 researcher further performed a cross tabulation of age and department to establish the variables used to assess the effects of police reforms on service delivery in the NPS, Kenya. Statistical tests (Appendix 6) indicate a Chi-Square value  $\chi^2_{8,\,0.05} = 51.159$  of P = 0.000 at 95 per cent confidence interval at 8 degrees of freedom and Spearman Correlation R= 0.221 at P = 0.001 indicating a significant positive association between age and department implies there are slightly more respondents in the younger age groupings than in the older age categories in the police departments as a result of the recent recruitments of a youthful workforce into the NPS to attain the UN recommended ratio of 1 police officer to 450 civilians.

### 4.1.4 Highest Level of Education

The academic qualification of the respondents was crucial in establishing the highest level of education that the respondents had as it could give objective insight in the variables under study. Education attainment of the respondent police officers as indicated in Table 4.4 was high as it was observed that 43.5 per cent of them have Diploma level of education, 29.4 per cent attained Certificate level of education, 16.8 per cent attained Kenya Junior Secondary Education (KJSE) level, 6.5 per cent attained Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) level of education, 2.8 per cent attained a Bachelor's degree, 0.5 per cent attained Kenya African Certificate of Education (KACE) and 0.5 per cent attained a Master's degree as their highest level of education. The mean = 4.864, and std. dev. = 1.5368 indicate majority of the respondent police officers are literate.

**Table 4.4:** Highest Level of Education

	<b>Police Officers</b>		Members	of Public
_	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
CPE/KCPE	-	-	8	7.6
KJSE	36	16.8	-	-
EACE/KCSE	14	6.5	15	14.3
KACE	1	0.5	-	-
Certificate	63	29.4	10	9.5
Diploma Level	93	43.5	22	21
Bachelor's	6	2.8	43	41
degree				
Master's Degree	1	0.5	7	6.7
Total	214	100	105	100
Mean	4.864		5.638	
Std. Dev.	1.5368		1.9667	

Source: Field Data (2020).

This distribution provided a diversified base of information since high illiteracy causes inaccessibility to accurate and reliable information (Ageyo & Muchunku, 2020; Odini, 2016). This high level of education attainment is very important to the study and is consistent with a study by (Bruns & 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. It is believed that with higher educational status, respondents would provide in-depth information regarding police reforms. Education and training also ensure organisational and institutional development and sustainability and thus when considering the implementation of police reforms and the training opportunities given to the police officers who require specialised training for the purposes of reforms, that can only be achieved through quality educated staff. The educated police officers have been found to exhibit better

oral and written communication skills, are more tolerant in their dealings with members of the public, adapt better to organisational change and are generally professional and have fewer administrative and personal problems (Ngugi, et al, 2012).

The highest level of education attained by the respondent members of the public was also ascertained. From the study findings as indicated in Table 4.4, majority (41%) of the respondents attained a Bachelor's level of education, 21 per cent attained a Diploma level of education, 14.3 per cent attained EACE/KCSE level of education 9.5 per cent attained Certificate level of education, 7.6 per cent had attained Certificate of Primary Education (CPE)/Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) level of education while 6.7 per cent had attained Master's degree as their highest level of education. The mean = 5.638, and std. dev. = 1.9667 imply majority of members of the public have higher education standards. This level of literacy enriched the research findings, particularly during data collection. This was because most of the respondents would comprehend the issues involved and provided in-depth information regarding police reforms.

The researcher again performed a cross tabulation of highest level of education and department to establish the variables used to assess the effects of police reforms on service delivery in the NPS, Kenya. Statistical tests (Appendix 6) indicate a Chi-Square value  $\chi^2$  <sub>12, 0.05</sub> = 42.252 of P = 0.000 at 95 per cent confidence interval at 12 degrees of freedom and Spearman Correlation R= -0.305 at P = 0.000 indicating a minimal association between highest level of education and department implying the respondents were not assigned duties based on the highest level of education in the police departments. Most of the respondents completed Diploma level of education (n = 93) followed by certificate level (n = 63), while very few are university graduates (n

= 7). This is since the lowest education requirement to join the NPS is secondary school education (KCSE), followed by on-the-job training from initial recruit constable course to higher trainings for police managers.

The researcher further performed cross-tabulation of highest level of education and gender for members of the public to establish the variables used to assess the effects of police reforms on service delivery in the NPS, as education level helps one articulate an issue more so the social ways of living. Statistical tests (Appendix 6) indicate a Chi-Square value  $\chi^2_{5,0.05} = 5.415$  of P = 0.367 at 95 per cent confidence interval at 5 degrees of freedom and Spearman Correlation R = 0.179 at P = 0.068 indicating a significant positive association between highest level of education by members of the public and gender implying majority of the members of the public based on their gender distribution have attained relatively high levels of education to be able to significantly participate in the study. The highest number of respondents from the public (41%) attained bachelor's degree while the lowest recorded attained CPE (7.6%) and master's degree at 6.7 per cent.

## 4.1.5 Rank of the Respondent Police Officers

The study also sought to find out the rank of the respondent police officers as the rank is a sign of responsibility and accountability that is bestowed on an individual police officer in terms of implementation of police reforms. Table 4.5 illustrates the ranks of the respondent police officers.

**Table 4.5:** Rank of the Respondent Police Officers

	Frequency	Percentage
Superintendent	1	0.5
Assistant Superintendent	12	5.6
Chief Inspector	14	6.5
Inspector	19	8.9
Senior Sergeant	20	9.3
Sergeant	37	17.3
Corporal	42	19.7
Constable	69	32.2
Total	214	100
Mean	6.154	
Std. Dev.	1.8739	

Source: Field Data (2020).

As evidenced in the Table 4.5, 0.5 per cent of the respondents are Superintendent of Police, 5.6 per cent were Assistant Superintendent of Police, 6.5 per cent are Chief Inspectors of Police, 8.9 per cent are Inspector of Police, 19.3 per cent are Senior Sergeant, 17.3 per cent Sergeant, 19.7 per cent are Corporal and 32.2 per cent are Constables. The mean = 6.154, and std. dev. = 1.8739 imply the police ranking system is pyramidal in structure. 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 police reform agenda. The researcher further performed cross tabulation of rank and department to establish the variables used to assess the effects of police reforms on service delivery in the NPS, Kenya. Statistical tests (Appendix 6) indicate a Chi-Square value  $\chi^2$  14, 0.05 = 79.970 of P = 0.000 at 95 per cent confidence interval at 14 degrees of freedom and Spearman Correlation R= -0.070 at P = 0.310 indicating a strong negative association between rank in the NPS and department implying the respondents are not

assigned duties based on their ranks in the police departments yet some duties require those of lower ranks like the traffic department and general duties compared to crime though it had a relatively high ranking officers. There are more respondents in the lower cadres than in the higher cadres and this is explained by the organisational hierarchy whereas an officer gets promoted and move up the rank there are more responsibilities and accountability determined by the duty assignment.

# 4.1.6 Department

As presented in the Table 4.6, 43.9 per cent of the respondents are deployed in General Duty's department, 38.3 per cent are deployed in Crime Office department and 17.8 per cent are deployed in the Traffic Department at the station level. The mean = 2.261, and std. dev. = 1.1224, imply the distribution provided a diversified base of information given the contribution of the different departments. All these departments in the police are crucial in the implementation of the reform agenda as service delivery is measured by the satisfaction members of the public have from the services in these departments and the police officers' level of facilitation to effectively carry out their mandate.

**Table 4.6**: Department

	Frequency	Percentage
General Duties	94	43.9
Crime	82	38.3
Traffic	38	17.8
Total	214	100
Mean	2.261	
Std. Dev.	1.1224	

### **4.1.7** Length of Service

The length of service for the police officers was also assessed to determine how long the officers have serviced in the police service. As evidenced in Table 4.7, majority (40.7%) of the respondents have served in the police for between 6 and 10 years, 22 per cent have served for between 1 and 5 years, 21.5 per cent have served for between 11 and 15 years, 9.3 per cent have served for between 16 and 20 years while 6.5 per cent have served for 20 years and above.

**Table 4.7:** Length of Service

	Frequency	Percentage
1-5 Years	46	22
6-10 Years	87	40.7
11-15 Years	46	21.5
16-20 Years	20	9.3
≥ 20 Years	14	6.5
Total	214	100
Mean	2.261	
Std. Dev.	1.1224	

Source: Field Data (2020).

The mean = 2.261, and a std. dev. = 1.1224, imply majority have served the police for a substantial number of years. Experience is an important aspect of police reforms, and this could be seen from the respondent's years of experience where majority had good institutional memory having worked long enough to clearly understand what needs to be changed and this is key in determining service delivery as part of the police reforms implementation.

The researcher further performed cross tabulation of length of service and department to establish the variables used to assess the effects of police reforms and police officer's demographic profile on service delivery in the NPS, Kenya. Statistical tests (Appendix 6) indicate a Chi-Square value  $\chi^2$  8, 0.05 = 23.049 of P = 0.003 at 95 per cent confidence interval at 8 degrees of freedom and Spearman Correlation R= 0.166 at P = 0.015 indicating a significant positive association between length of service in the NPS and department implying the respondents who are young are deployed in certain duties like traffic duties while those who have a vast of experience in police work are deployed in crime and general duties.

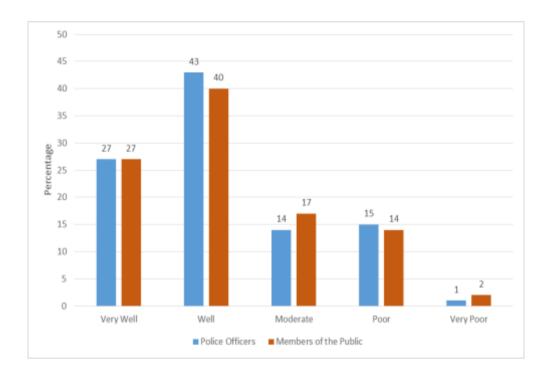
#### 4.2 Police Facilitation

The second specific objective of the study was to assess the effects of police service facilitation on service delivery. The influence that police have on local crime is affected by police ability to respond to the calls, the resources that are at the disposal of the police and relationship with the members of the public which entirely depends on the confidence the members of the public have in the police.

# **4.2.1 Police Mobility**

The respondent police officers and members of the public were asked to rate the level of police mobility on a Likert scale. As presented in Figure 4.1, most (43%) of the police officers believed they were well facilitated and mobile, 27 per cent indicated very well, 15 per cent indicated poor, 14 per cent indicated moderate and 1 per cent indicated very poor. The respondent members of the public response on the level of police mobility as indicated in Figure 4.1, 40 per cent indicated well, 27 per cent indicated very well, 17 per cent indicated moderate, 14 per cent indicated poor and 2 per cent indicated very poor. From the study findings, over 60 per cent of the respondents believed the police reforms had increased their mobility in terms of vehicles, motor bikes and other modes of transport. The study findings are consistent

with Ombati (2013) in which police mobility has been enhanced by government efforts to lease vehicle for the police so that the police can effectively concentrate on their core functions of prevention and detection of crime. The mobility of the police enhances their response capability to reported crimes and increases the proactive approach to policing when effectively used thereby enhancing service delivery.



**Figure 4.1:** Police Mobility **Source:** Field Data (2020).

#### 4.2.2 Office Infrastructure and Accommodation

The respondents were asked to indicate how appropriate the police buildings were in terms of sections and departments. The findings on office accommodation are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Office Accommodation

Office Accommodation (Percentage)	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

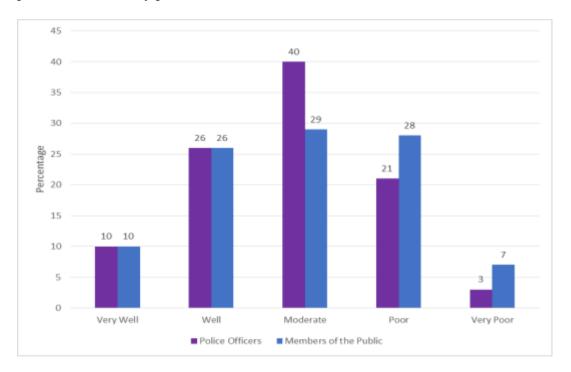
For the respondent police officers, 33.2 per cent are of the opinion that the police office accommodation was moderate, 32.7 per cent indicated they are poor, 31.3 per cent indicated well, 1.9 per cent indicated very poor, while 0.9 per cent indicated the office accommodation are very well. The mean = 3.033, and std. dev. = 0.8688) imply office accommodation has a strong bearing in the way police carry out interviews and interrogation, keeps records and maintain confidentiality of the cases being handled thereby enhancing service delivery.

The findings from members of the public indicate that 31.4 per cent are of the opinion the office accommodation was moderate, 26.7 per cent indicated poor, 22.9 per cent indicated well, 9.5 per cent indicated very well while 9.5 per cent indicated very poor. The mean = 3.038, and std. dev. = 1.1260 imply office space is very important for effective handling of investigations. From the study findings, majority of respondents are of the opinion that the NPS still do not have appropriate office accommodation with defined sections suitable for executing their mandate.

The study findings are not consistent with the findings by Bhardwaj (2018) in which the principal role of the police is to maintain and enforce laws, investigate crimes, and safeguard the security of people in the country. However, according to Republic of Kenya (2011c), it is important for the government to ensure the police have the equipment, personnel, and suitable office spaces to have the operational freedom to perform their role well and be held accountable for their actions or omissions. One of the key informants had this to say:

The IPOA, a civilian police oversight authority 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).

The respondents were asked if there were physical infrastructure in place to support police operations at the station level. As presented in Figure 4.2, 40 per cent of the respondent police officers and 29 per cent of members of the public indicated moderate, 26 per cent of respondent police officers and 26 per cent of members of the public indicated well, 21 per cent of police officers and 28 per cent of members of the public indicated poor, 10 per cent of police officers and 10 per cent of members of public indicated very well while 3 per cent of police officers and 7 per cent of members of public indicated very poor.



**Figure 4.2:** Physical Infrastructure **Source:** Field Data (2020).

The mean = 2.818 and std. dev. = 0.9736 for police officers and a mean = 2.962 and std. dev. = 1.1260 for members of the public both imply majority of the respondents are of the opinion good infrastructure improves on service delivery. From the study findings, over 64 per cent of the respondents believe there are poor physical infrastructures in place to support police operations at the station level. The study findings are inconsistent with Cherono (2019) in which the NPS was found to have

experienced great 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 welfare of the police officers. All these efforts are part and parcel of police reforms meant to ensure there is improved service delivery to the members of the public by the police.

## **4.2.3** Aspects Service Delivery

The police respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with statements meant to monitor service delivery and the findings presented in Table 4.9. The respondents were asked their level of agreement with statement that there were notable changes in the NPS reforms efforts that have facilitated service delivery. Approximately 53.7 per cent strongly disagree, 18.2 per cent agree, 12.6 per cent are not sure, 11.7 per cent disagree while 3.7 per cent strongly agree. A mean = 2.065, and std. dev. = 1.1364 imply majority agree there are no notable changes in the police reforms that have facilitated service delivery as indicated by over 77 per cent of the respondents. The respondent's level of agreement was sought on the statement that there is an increase in the number of solved crimes and as indicated in Table 4.9, 57.9 per cent are not sure, 23.4 per cent agree, 10.7 per cent disagree, 7 per cent strongly disagree while 0.9 per cent strongly agree. The mean = 3.005, and std. dev. = 0.8136 imply majority (75.6%) of the responds are of the opinion that the number of reported crimes is on the increase and very few of the reported crimes are investigated and processed to a logical conclusion in the court of law.

**Table 4.9:** Aspects of Service Delivery by Police

<b>Aspects of Service</b>	Strongly	Disagree	Not	Agree	Strongly	Mean	Std.
Delivery	Disagree		Sure		Agree		Dev.
(Percentage)							
There are notable							
changes in the NPS							
reforms efforts that	53.7	11.7	12.6	18.2	3.7	2.065	1.136
have facilitated the							
service delivery							
There is an increase							
in the number of	7	10.7	57.9	23.4	0.9	3.005	0.813
solved crimes							
Crime prevention							
efforts are bearing	17.8	1.4	72	8.4	0.5	2.724	0.868
fruits							
Police managers							
have the capability	37.9	3.7	44.9	12.1	1.4	2 255	1 1/10
in managing change	31.9	3.1	44.9	12.1	1.4	2.355	1.148
process.							

Source: Field Data (2020).

The study findings are consistent with Osse (2016) in which the public lack confidence in the Kenya Police Force (KPF) competence and integrity and the public perceptions are in many respects justifiable and results to low reporting levels of crime. One of the functions of the police is to effectively investigate cases and apprehend offenders and from the study findings, this is found to be lacking despite the various reform initiatives by the police in Kenya.

The respondents were further requested to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that crime prevention efforts are bearing fruits and the findings presented in Table 4.9 indicate that the majority (72%) were not sure, 17.8 per cent strongly disagree, 8.4 per cent agree, 1.4 per cent disagree, while 0.5 per cent strongly agree. The mean =

2.724, and std. dev. = 0.8687 is an indication that majority (72%) of the respondents are not sure whether the crime prevention efforts are bearing fruits.

The respondent's level of agreement was sought on the statement that managers had the capacity in managing change process in the police reforms in Kenya. The findings presented in Table 4.9 shows that 44.9 per cent are not sure, 37.9 per cent strongly disagree, 12.1 per cent agree, 3.7 per cent disagree, while 1.4 per cent strongly agree. The mean = 2.355, std. dev. = 1.1486 is an indication that majority (86.5%) of the respondents were of the opinion, police managers lack the capacity to manage the change process in the police service in Kenya.

The members of the public were also requested to indicate their level of agreement with the statements on aspects of service delivery and the findings are presented in Table 4.10. The respondent's views were sought on their level of agreement with the statement that there were notable changes in the NPS reforms efforts that have facilitated service delivery.

**Table 4.10:** Aspects Service Delivery by Members of Public

Aspects of Service	Strongly	Disagree	Not	Agree	Strongly	Mean	Std.
Delivery	Disagree		Sure		Agree		Dev.
(Percentage)							
There are notable							
changes in the NPS							
reforms efforts that	14.3	37.1	17.1	25.7	5.7	2.714	1.166
have facilitated the							
service delivery							
There is efficiency in	20.5	27.1	0.6	20	2.0	0.571	1 101
addressing crimes	30.5	37.1	8.6	20	3.8	2.571	1.191
Crime prevention							
efforts are bearing	8.6	39	21	27.6	3.8	2.295	1.208
fruits							
Police managers							
have the capability	15.0	10	267	22.2	<b>7</b> 0	2.052	1 171
in managing change	15.2	19	26.7	33.3	5.8	2.952	1.171
process.							
Rates of crime							
remain high in the	10.5	17.1	9.5	44.8	18.1	3.067	1.262
County.							

Source: Field Data (2020).

As indicated in Table 4.10, 37.1 per cent disagree, 25.7 per cent agree, 17.1 per cent are not sure, 14.3 per cent strongly disagree and 5.7 per cent strongly agree. The mean = 2.714, and std. dev. = 1.1661, is an indication that the majority (68%) are of the opinion that there are no notable changes in the NPS reforms efforts that have facilitated the service delivery.

The study sought the respondents' level of agreement with the statement that there is increased efficiency in addressing crimes and as indicated in Table 4.10. The results show that 37.1 per cent disagree, 30.5 per cent strongly disagree, 20 per cent agree, 8.6 per cent are not sure while 3.8 per cent strongly agree. The mean = 2.571, and std. dev.

= 1.1918 implying there is lack of efficiency in addressing crimes and this inefficiency in addressing crimes has contributed in one way or the other to the poor service delivery by the police to members of the public in Kenya.

The study also sought the respondents' opinion on the statement that crime prevention efforts are bearing fruits and as indicated in Table 4.10, 39 per cent disagree, 27 per cent agree, 21 per cent are not sure, 8.6 per cent strongly disagree while 3.8 per cent strongly agree, implying almost 47.6 per cent of the respondents are of the opinion that crime prevention efforts are not bearing fruits while 21 per cent were not sure The mean = 2.295, and std. dev. = 1.2083, imply despite the reform process implementation in the police in Kenya, the members of the public still feel the crime prevention efforts by the police are not bearing fruit. This is further indicated by over 68 percent of the respondents.

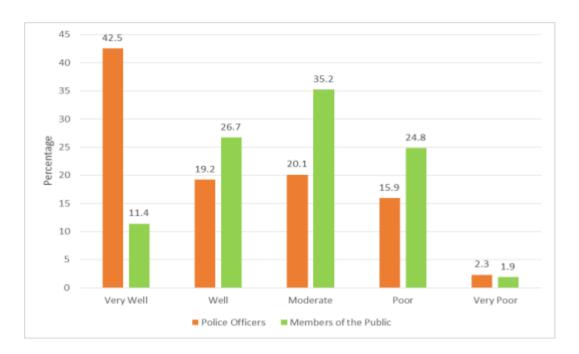
On whether the police managers have the capacity in managing change process in Kenya, as evidenced in Table 4.10, 33.3 per cent agree, 26.7 per cent are not sure, 19 per cent disagree, 15.2 per cent strongly disagree, while 5.8 per cent strongly agree, implying the members of the public opinion is divided on the capacity of managers to handle change in Kenya with 39.1 per cent agree and strongly agree and 34.2 per cent disagree and strongly disagree while 27 per cent were not sure. The mean = 2.952, and std. dev. = 1.1716, imply majority of the members of the still have the feeling that police managers still do not have the capacity to manage the change process.

The findings imply the police managers are not properly engaged to manage the change process, which is consistent with a study by Diphoorn, 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.

The respondent's views were sought on whether the rates of crime remain high in the County and the findings presented in Table 4.10. The study findings, 44.8 per cent agree, 18.1 per cent strongly agree, 17.1 per cent disagree, 10.5 per cent strongly disagree while 9.5 per cent are not sure. With a mean = 3.067, and std. dev. = 1.2623, this imply the respondent members of the public are of the opinion that despite the much-hyped police reform implementation program, the community is still facing an upsurge in crime rates within Nairobi County reforms.

#### 4.2.4 Mission of Police Service

Police transformation throughout the world has been shaped by the need for a people friendly and professional service with the ability to serve citizens and their property against aggression without violating the law. The respondents were asked to indicate how the issue of police mission and vision has been addressed through police reforms and the findings from the respondent police officers and members of the public are indicated in Figure 4.3. From the respondent police officers, 42.5 per cent indicated very well, 20.1 per cent indicated moderate, 19.2 per cent indicated well, 15.9 per cent indicated poor while 2.3 per cent indicated very poor. The respondent members of the public views were that 35.2 per cent indicated moderate, 26.7 per cent indicated well, 24.8 per cent indicated poor, 11.4 per cent indicated very well while 1.9 per cent indicated very poor. The study findings imply the police reforms has not addressed the issue of mission and vision of the police, yet the mission and vision are a fundamental aspect of institutional framework for reforms. It provides the direction and deliverables that underpin the service delivery process.



**Figure 4.3:** Police Mission **Source:** Field Data (2020).

## **4.2.5 Foundational Security Components**

The respondents were asked how well the police reform has addressed foundational components and critical issues regarding security and the findings presented in Table 4.11. From the study findings, 40.7 per cent of the respondent police officers, indicated moderate, 30.8 per cent indicated poor, 13.1 per cent indicated well, 8.9 per cent indicated very poor while 6.5 per cent indicated very well. With mean = 3.224, and std. dev. = 1.0052, the findings imply majority of respondent police officers are of the opinion that foundational security components of preventive detective and corrective have not been addressed and this hinders service delivery.

**Table 4.11:** Foundational Security Components

Foundation Security	Very	Well	Moderate	Poor	Very	Mean	Std.
(Percentage)	Well				Poor		Dev.
Police Officers	6.5	13.1	40.7	30.8	8.9	3.224	1.005
Members of the Public	11.4	21.9	32.4	30.5	3.8	2.933	1.067

**Source:** Field Data (2020).

At the same time, 32.4 per cent of the respondent members of the public indicated moderate, 30.5 per cent indicated poor, 21.9 per cent indicated well, 11.4 per cent indicated very well while 3.8 per cent indicated very poor. The mean = 2.933, and std. dev. = 1.0676) imply that the respondent members of the public are of the opinion the police reforms has not effectively addressed the foundational security components and critical issues which are fundamental to effective service delivery in Nairobi County.

### 4.2.6 Roles and Responsibilities

The respondents were asked to indicate how police reforms has addressed the roles and responsibilities of key structures as part of the legal reforms in the police and the findings presented in Figure 4.4, shows that 41.1 per cent indicated very well, 21.5 per cent of the respondent police officers indicated poor, 19.6 per cent indicated well, 10.3 per cent indicated moderate, while 7.5 per cent indicated very poor. On the part of the respondent members of the public, 30.5 per cent indicated well, 30.5 per cent also indicated poor, 26.7 per cent indicated moderate, 7.6 per cent indicated very well while 4.8 per cent indicated very poor. The study findings indicate that almost 50 per cent of the respondents are of the opinion that the police reforms have addressed the roles and responsibilities of key administrative structures such as ward commander, sub county commander, county commander, regional commander and formation commanders that include provision of assistance to members of the public in need, protection of life and

property, decision making and fostering relationship with the broader society and the same percentage were of different opinion.

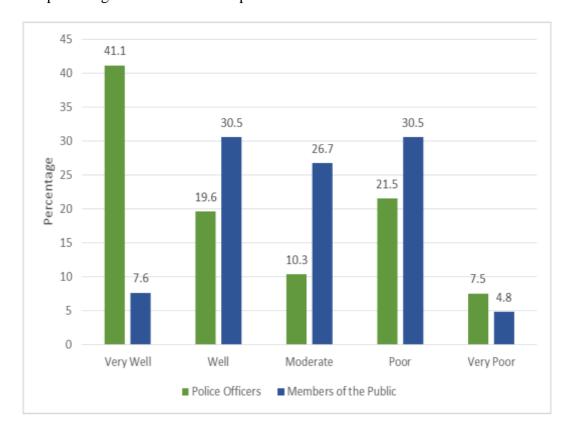


Figure 4.4: Roles and Responsibilities

Source: Field Data (2020).

# 4.2.7 Legislation in Policing

The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that the adoption new policing legislation increases service delivery in the NPS, and findings presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: New Legislation in Policing

New	Legislation	Strongly	Disagree	Not	Agree	Strongly	Mean	Std.
in	Policing	Disagree		Sure		Agree		Dev.
(Perc	entage)							
Police	e Officers	9.3	22.9	39.3	27.6	0.9	2.879	0.951
Meml	bers of the	13.2	41.9	20	18.1	6.7	2.629	1.128
Public	e							

As presented in Table 4.12, 39.3 per cent of respondent police officers are not sure, 27.6 per cent agree, 22.9 per cent disagree, 9.3 per cent strongly disagree while 0.9 per cent strongly agree. With mean = 2.879, and std. dev. = 0.9515, the findings imply majority of the respondent police officers are of the opinion that the new legislations has not contributed substantially to the realization of the anticipated reform process for effective service delivery.

The respondent members of the public were also asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that the adoption new policing legislation increases service delivery in the NPS, and 41.9 per cent disagree, 20 per cent are not sure, 18.1 per cent agree, 13.3 per cent strongly disagree while 6.7 per cent strongly agree. The mean = 2.629, and std. dev. = 1.1288, imply that the adoption of new legislation in policy has not assured members of the public of their safety and security as it has not enhanced service delivery in the police.

The study findings are consistent with Osse (2014) in which the Kenya government embarked on a fresh legal framework in 2009 that led to the adoption of new legal frameworks for the police in 2011. The enactment of the new laws, and regulations has been an uphill task and the executive arm of the government and the police as an institution have failed to comply with the new directives as stipulated in the Constitution of Kenya 2010 and subsequent laws and regulations and have in essence hampered the progress of the police reforms process and interfered with effective policing. This has had an overall negative effect on service delivery.

## 4.2.8 Police Vetting

The respondent police officers were asked to indicate the level to which police officers' vetting has facilitated service delivery as part of police reforms. As indicated in Figure

4.5, 47 per cent indicated that police vetting has moderately facilitated service delivery, 31 per cent indicated well, 15 per cent indicated very well, 4 per cent indicated poor while 3 per cent indicated very poor. The respondent members of the public were also asked to indicate the level to which police officers vetting has facilitated service delivery as part of police reforms and as indicated in Figure 4.5, 29 per cent indicated moderate, 28 per cent indicated well, 19 per cent indicated very well, 17 per cent indicated poor while 7 per cent indicated very poor. From the study findings, almost over 54 per cent of the respondents believed police officers vetting has moderately or poorly facilitated service delivery. Compared to the respondent police officers, majority of the members of the public are of the opinion that the vetting has facilitated service delivery.

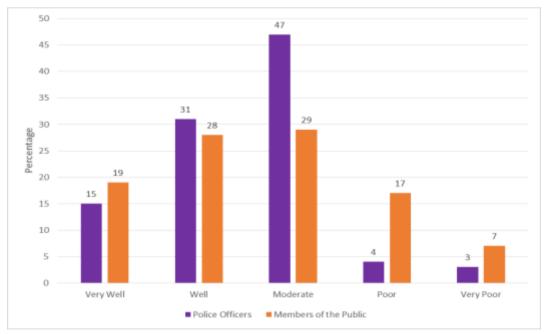


Figure 4.5: Police Vetting Source: Field Data (2020).

It is in the opinion of many Kenyans that the process of police officers vetting is fundamental in bringing about change in the police and the reform process. It provides a way to remove and replace officers with tainted records with new, trained officers without history in the earlier policing system. In the vetting process, police officers with questionable acts are thus removed from the service and this helps to create democratic ideals in policing, brings back the legitimacy to the police as an institution, and provide an environment where due process thrives, protection of the rights of police officers and members of the public is given emphasis and reduces corruption and inefficiency in the service.

The study findings are consistent with Osse (2014) in which the police human resource organ, the NPSC have made tremendous steps in reform process by determining the suitability and competency of the police officers through vetting of members of the NPS. The vetting process unearthed a wealth of information about the personal integrity of the police officers and the internal administrative and management challenges. However, the vetting of police officers has not enhanced service delivery, since the focus shifted from future work performance to wealth acquired in the past while in the police service which was not the initial objective of ascertaining the suitability of police officers to continue serving members of the public.

One of the key informants said:

The International Centre for Transitional Justice has been involved in the push for law changes especially the enactment of the police reforms vetting, discipline and recruitment into law and ensuring that they are operationalised (Respondent K4). Another key informant, also said:

Regarding vetting of police officers, so far 2000 officers have been vetted but majority of those recommended for removal have found their way back into the service through litigation process requiring fair administrative services. The commission is financially challenged to discharge its mandate. Members of the public have refused to participate in the vetting process with less than 10% giving their views. Thus, the public should be more involved in the vetting process as police reform is a process that needs time, requires resources (physical, emotional, and attitudinal) (Respondent K2).

## 4.2.9 Prompt Response to Reported Crimes by Police

The institutional framework and professionalism were measured by police organizational structure as part of institutionalization of the reform process for good professionalism ideals. The respondents police officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that there is prompt response by the police to reported crimes and the findings as indicated in Table 4.13, shows that 74.8 per cent strongly disagree, 12.1 per cent agree, 7 per cent are not sure, 4.2 per cent disagree while 1.9 per cent strongly agrees. The mean = 3.005, and std. dev. = 0.8136, imply the response to crimes reported to the police is not prompt. This is further indicated by over 80 per cent of the respondents who are of the opinion that the police do not respond promptly to reported crimes. From the members of the public, 47.6 per cent disagree, 15.2 per cent are not sure, 14.3 per cent strongly disagree, 12.4 per cent agree and 10.5 per cent strongly agree. The mean = 2.571, and std. dev. = 1.1918 implies there are no prompt responses by police to reported crimes.

**Table 4.13**: Prompt Response to Reported Crimes by the Police

<b>Police Response</b>	Strongly	Disagree	Not	Agree	Strongly	Mean	Std.
Prompt	Disagree		Sure		Agree		Dev.
(Percentage)							
Police Officers	74.8	4.2	7	12.1	1.9	3.005	0.813
Members of the	14.3	47.6	15.2	12.4	10.5	2.571	1.191
Public							

**Source:** Field Data (2020).

The findings are consistent with a study by Transparency International Kenya (2016) in which 53 per cent of respondents who initiated intervention with the police were

dissatisfied with way their cases were handled and 27 per cent opted not to involve the police in situations where their interventions were required.

# 4.2.10 Police Reliability after Reforms

The study sought the respondent's members of public level of agreement with the statement that the police are more reliable these days and one can now count on the police to be of assistance after the reforms. As presented in Figure 4.6, 29.5 per cent agree, 29.5 per cent disagree, 21 per cent strongly disagree, 18.1 per cent are not sure and 1.9 per cent strongly agrees. These findings indicate that over 50 per cent of the respondents disagree with the statement, implying the police are not reliable to aid even with the police reforms in place. The study findings are not consistent with a study in Philadelphia USA by Haberman, et al (2016) in which the public thought the police in their area are doing an excellent or good job as satisfaction was high with the identification of violent hot spots and designing good interventions.

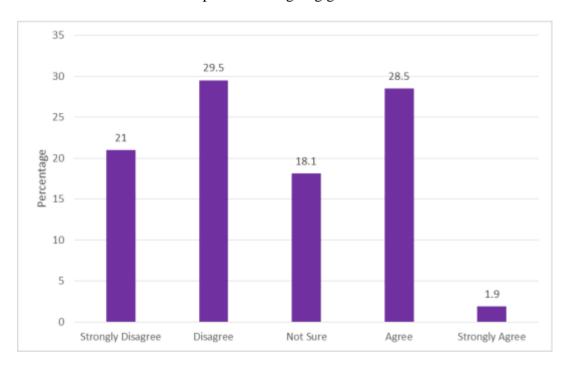
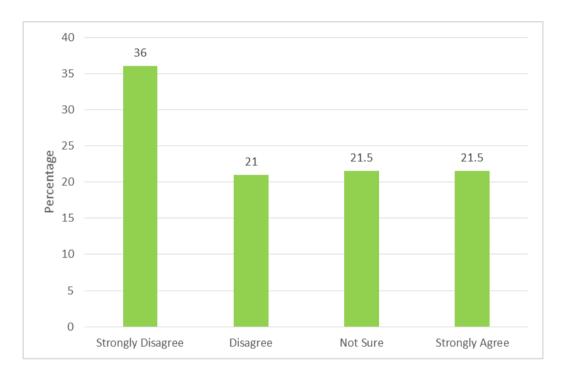


Figure 4.6: Police Reliability After Reforms

## **4.2.11 Time Spent Explaining Reforms to Police Officers**

The respondent police officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that sufficient time has been spent explaining police reforms in the department and the findings as presented in Figure 4.7, indicate that, 36 per cent strongly disagree, 21.5 per cent strongly agree, 21.5 per cent are not sure, and 21 per cent disagree. From the study findings, 57 per cent of the respondents disagree, implying that not enough time has been spent explaining police reforms to police officers.



**Figure 4.7:** Time Spent Explaining Reforms to Police Officers **Source:** Field Data (2020).

### 4.2.12 Attitude on Status of Police Reforms Implementation

The respondent police officers were asked to state the measures that can be implemented to improve service delivery and the findings presented in Table 4.14. From the study findings majority (40.6%) are of the opinion that the police terms of service to be improved as the pay they are entitled to currently is very low given the prevailing economic conditions in the country, 8.9 per cent suggested the government

should provide more resources in terms of tools and equipment to improve on the working conditions, efficiency and effectiveness, 4.7 per cent suggested capacity building in line with the new laws and regulations and emerging crimes, 4.7 per cent suggested that members of the public to acquaint themselves with the police reforms, 4.2 per cent suggested the increase of the number of police officers in line with the UN ratio, 4.2 per cent suggested that all those police supervisors who are resistant to change be retired and 32.7 per cent did not respond to the questions. From the study findings majority (49.5%) are of the opinion that the improvement in police pay and working conditions will improve service delivery.

Table 4.14: Police Officers' Attitude on Police Reforms Implementation

	Frequency	Percentage
The pay is poor and low and the housing at the police	87	40.6
station are poor, the police salary should be improved,		
police housing should be improved, and medical cover		
should be improved, and promotion based on length of		
service		
Government to provide more resources to improve the	19	8.9
working conditions,		
Capacity building for police officers	10	4.7
Members of the public to acquaint themselves with	10	4.7
reforms		
Increase police numbers to the recommended UN ratio	9	4.2
Retire all negative minded supervisor who hinder	9	4.2
reforms in the police		
No response	70	32.7
	214	100

Source: Field Data (2020).

Members of the public also suggested measures to improve service delivery and the study findings presented in Table 4.15. From the study findings, 26.7 per cent advocate

for more training of police officers on organised crimes, corruption and human rights and the needs to have workshop that can enhance police public cooperation.

 Table 4.15: Members of Public Attitude on Police Reforms Implementation

	Frequency	Percentage
Train police more officers on handling organized	28	26.7
crimes like corruption and increase the number and		
units, provide workshops for interaction with		
public and motivate the officers		
Improve on officers' ethics, equipment, housing	21	20
and office space, stall CCTV and body cams,		
improve on pay, vehicles, reduce weapons in wrong		
hands, and remove traffic police officers on the		
road		
Improve on the relationship between the police and	14	13.3
members of the public, involve the community in		
crime investigations, serve the community through		
transparency and communication		
Ensure the police supervisors are well trained on	10	9.5
the reform agenda to change the attitude of the		
junior officers and increase response and stop		
impunity		
No Response	32	30.5
	105	100

Source: Field Data (2020).

Approximately 20 per cent suggested the police equipment, housing, office space, pay, vehicles and others that can facilitate service delivery be improved on, 13.3 per cent suggest the relationship between the police and members of the public be improved and members of the public to be fully involved in police work for transparency and accountability, 9.5 per cent suggested the police supervisors be trained further on police reforms to change their attitude and the attitude of junior officers in order to reduce impunity and 30.5 per cent did not respond to the question. From the study findings, the members of the public feel police officers are very corrupt and are incompetent in

handling investigations, more so those that involve organised crimes and hence the need to build their capacity through training.

#### 4.2.13 Feedback Mechanisms

The respondents were asked if there were mechanisms for providing feedback as part of police reforms. As indicated in Table 4.16, 32.2 per cent of respondent police officers indicated well, 30.4 per cent indicated moderate, 27.1 per cent indicated poor, 8.4 per cent indicated very well while 1.9 per cent indicated very poor. The mean = 2.818, and std. dev. = 0.9879 is an indication of poor feedback mechanisms.

**Table 4.16:** Feedback Mechanisms

Feedback Mechanisms	Very	Well	Moderate	Poor	Very	Mean	Std.
(Percentage)	Well				Poor		Dev.
Police Officers	8.4	32.2	30.4	27.1	1.9	2.818	0.9879
Members of the Public	3.8	19	25.7	30.5	21	3.457	1.1343

Source: Field Data (2020).

The respondent from the members of the public were asked the same question and as indicated in Table 4.16, 30.5 per cent indicated poor, 25.7 per cent indicated moderate, 21 per cent indicated very poor, 19 per cent indicated well while only 3.8 per cent indicated very well. Similarly, the mean = 3.457, and std. dev. = 1.1343, is an indication of poor feedback mechanisms. From the findings, over 50 per cent of the respondents believed there were poor mechanisms in place to provide feedback. There are various feedback mechanisms for police and for members of the public, for example the social media, electronic media, hotlines 999 and 112 and other means have been made available for the ease of interaction. However, these mechanisms were found to be ineffective as indicated by some of the feedback mechanisms suggested by key informants.

From the key informants, some had this to say:

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 NPSC. 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).

### 4.2.14 Police Act Professionally

The respondent police officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that the police service reforms have improved the way police act professionally and findings presented in Figure 4.8. The results in Figure 4.8, show that the majority (54%) are not sure if the police service reforms have improved how police act professionally among police officers, 21 per cent disagree, 18 per cent strongly disagree, 6 per cent agree, while 1 per cent strongly agree.

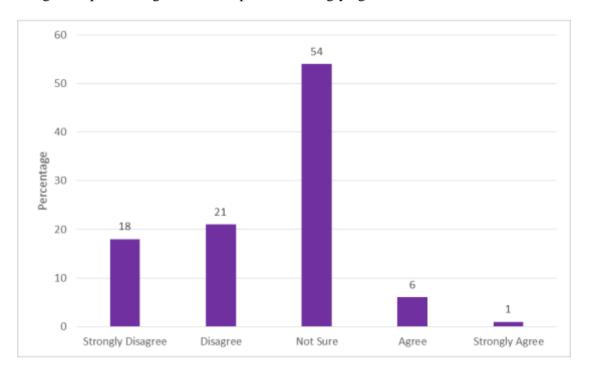


Figure 4.8: Police Act Professionally

The respondents' members of the public were asked if the police now act more professionally than before the reforms and as indicated in Figure 4.9, 36 per cent disagree, 30.5 per cent agree, 21 per cent strongly disagree, 9.5 per cent are not sure and 3 per cent strongly agree, implying the police officers are not professional in their even actions after the reforms. The study findings are consistent with Osse (2017), in which since the inauguration of the police by the colonialist in Kenya, police as an institution have carried out their functions selectively based on class where those members of the society perceived to be of higher class are treated very differently from those members of the society believed to be of lower-class status. This is manifested by the way the police serve the interest of those in power and not interest of the public. The police officers have a level of discretion to determine how to deal with certain policing situations and scenarios. Such discretion is often seen by the members of the public as a defining element of police professionalism.

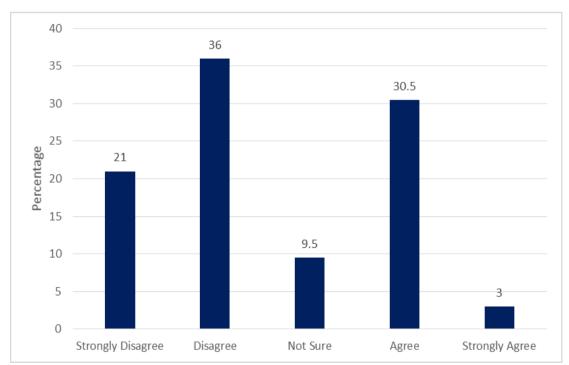


Figure 4.9: Police Acting More Professionally

### 4.2.15 Police Professionalism in Handling Riots

Members of the public were also asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that the police are more professional in handling the members of the public during riots because of police reforms and the findings presented in Figure 4.10. As indicated in Figure 4.10, 41 per cent strongly disagree that the police are more professional in handling the members of the public during riots, 29 per cent disagree, 18 per cent agree, 9 per cent are not sure and 3 per cent strongly agree. From the study findings, 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 study findings support the findings by Ochieng & Otuya (2019) on the officers' use of excessive force without due regard to the fundamental rights of individuals during public assemblies.

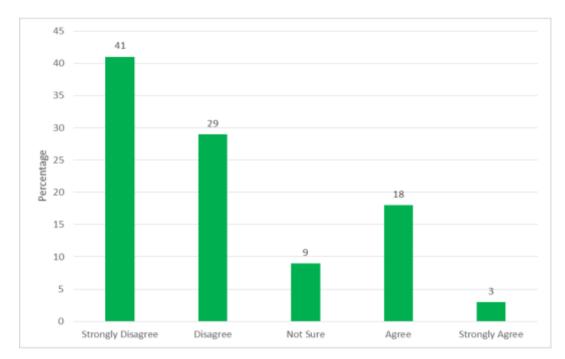


Figure 4.10: Police Professionalism in Handling Riots.

#### 4.3 Public Trust

The second specific objective of the study was to assess the effects of public trust on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya. For the police to be effective and legitimate in the execution of their functions, the members of the public must bestow some level of trust on the police and is closely related to the capacity of the police to provide the members of the public with adequate security.

### **4.3.1 Complaints against Police Officers**

The respondent police officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that there is significant decline in complaints touching on the character of police officers and the findings presented in Figure 4.11.

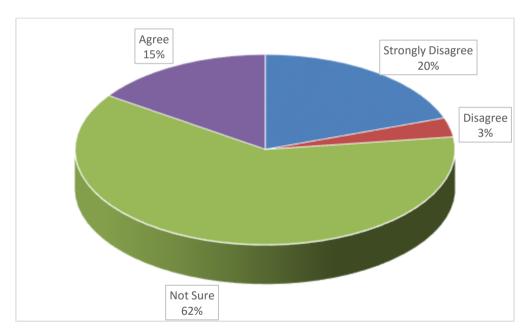


Figure 4.11: Complaint Against Police Officers.

Source: Field Data (2020).

The results show that the majority (62%) are not sure whether there is a significant decrease in complaints against police officers, 20 per cent strongly disagree, 15 per cent agree while 3 per cent disagree. This implies there is sufficient evidence that the complaints against police officers have not decreased. However, measures have been

put in place to ensure that the complaints against the police by the police or by members of the public are addressed to logical conclusion by both the IAU and the IPOA.

One of the key informants said:

The NPS has established complaints redress mechanisms and those in the service have been vetted by the NPSC to ensure those found to be unfit removed from service. This allows the IAU and the IPOA to deal with personnel with clean records devoid of complaints (Respondent K1).

#### 4.3.2 Trust with the Police

The respondent police officers were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that members of the public have trust with police service and can now report cases of crime to police without fear and findings presented in Table 4.17.

**Table 4.17:** Trust with the Police

<b>Trust with the Police</b>	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	40	18.7
Disagree	33	15.4
Not Sure	129	60.3
Agree	11	5.1
Strongly Agree	1	0.5
Total	214	100
Mean	2.533	
Std. Dev.	0.8701	

Source: Field Data (2020).

As presented in Table 4.17, 60.3 per cent are not sure, 18.7 per cent strongly disagree, 14.5 per cent disagree, 5.1 per cent agree while 0.5 per cent strongly agree. The mean = 2.533, and std. dev. = 0.8701 imply majority of the respondents are not sure and or disagree with the assumption that members of the public have trust with the police. The study findings indicate 94.4% are not sure or disagree that members of the public have trust with the police service and can now report cases of crime to police without fear.

The study findings are inconsistent with a study by Olutola and Bello (2016) in Britain in which 76 per cent of the respondents had trust in the police and 57 per cent were satisfied with the police in their areas of jurisdiction. However, the study is consistent with a study by Staubli (2017) in which the strongest influence of trust occurs when members of the public directly get into contact with the police. Whenever the contact with the police is disappointing, the impact on trust becomes negative while if the contact is satisfactory the confidence increases.

# 4.3.3 Lack of Public Trust in Reforms Implementation

The respondent police officers were further asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that lack of public trust towards the police has affected the implementation of police reforms and the findings presented in Table 4.18.

**Table 4.18:** Trust of the Police Reforms Implementation

Trust of the Police	Strongly	Disagree	Not	Agree	Strongly	Mean	Std.
and Reforms	Disagree		Sure		Agree		Dev.
Implementation							
(Percentage)							
Police Officers	32.2	11.2	50.5	3.7	2.4	2.327	1.041
Members of the	21.9	20	3.8	38.1	16.2	3.067	1.456
Public							

Source: Field Data (2020).

From the study findings presented in Table 4.18, 50.5 per cent of the respondent police officers are not sure, 32.2 per cent strongly disagree, and 11.2 per cent disagree, 3.7 per cent agree, while 2.4 per cent strongly agree. The mean = 2.327, and std dev. = 1.0416 imply majority of respondent police officers do not have trust in the reform implementation process. As indicated in Table 4.14, 38.1 per cent of the respondent members of the public agree, 21.9 per cent strongly disagree, 20 per cent disagree, 16.2

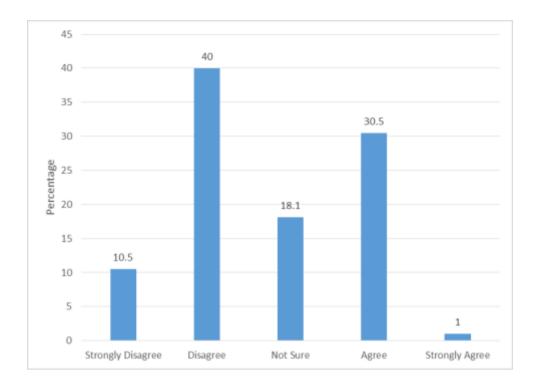
per cent strongly agree, while 3.8 per cent are not sure. The mean = 3.067, and std. dev. = 1.4562 is also a strong indication that members of the public are also in disagreement and does not trust the reform implementation process.

From the study findings, almost 94 per cent of respondent police officers are not sure or disagree on whether lack of public trust towards the police officers has affected the implementation of police reforms while 54.3 per cent of members of the public agree or strongly agree that lack of public trust towards the police officers has affected the implementation of police reforms.

The findings are consistent with the findings by Paliszkiewicz, et al (2015) in which organization and individual trust are appropriately treasured based on the conviction that an individual or group or an organisation is capable, transparent, and truthful, concerned, dependable and recognized with a common goal norms and values all of which are lacking in the NPS. Members of the public readiness to trust the police depends on whether they consider that police actions reflect the members of public values and integrate the principles of procedural justice and legitimacy (CRS, 2015).

## 4.3.4 Community Partnership

The respondent members of the public were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that there exists a strong community partnership in crime prevention at the station level and the findings presented in Figure 4.12, shows that 40 per cent disagree, 30.5 per cent agree, 18.1 per cent are not sure, 10.5 per cent strongly disagree while only 1 per cent strongly agrees.



**Figure 4.12:** Community Partnership

Source: Field Data (2020).

The study findings imply over 68 per cent of members of the public are not sure or disagree with the statement. The study findings are an indication that community participation in crime prevention at the station level is still very low, yet the community relationship is especially important when improving the effectiveness of police service delivery (Das, 2017).

However, one of the key informants said:

The members of the public have a role to play in the society through such initiatives like the Nyumba Kumi (ten households) initiatives which is a subset of community policing and using multi-agency approach in building partnership to pull resources to fight crime (Respondent K1).

### 4.3.5 Reforms Improve Relationship

The respondent police officers were further probed whether the reforms can improve the relationship between the community and the police, and the findings presented in Figure 4.13, indicate 30.5 per cent disagree, 24.8 per cent agree, 21 per cent strongly disagree, and 14.3 per cent are not sure while 9.5 per cent strongly agrees. This implies that the respondents who are over 65 per cent believe that the reforms cannot mend the relationship between the members of the public and the police.

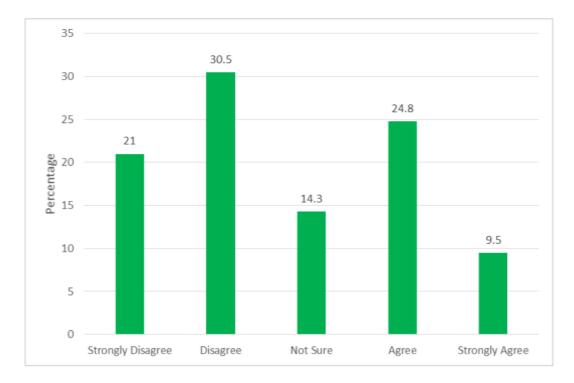


Figure 4.13: Reforms Improves Relationship

Source: Field Data (2020).

The study findings are not consistent with a study by Ogada (2016) in which good relations between the police officers and members of the public creates the conditions for effective partnership to develop between the police and the members public and to appreciate each other's roles and expectations. This in turn boost confidence and the relationship strengthen accountability and demonstrate that the police respect and care about people's rights and needs.

### 4.3.6 Members of Public Level of Trust

The respondent members of the public were asked to indicate their level of agreement with issues of trust as part of police reforms in the Nairobi County and the findings presented in Table 4.19.

**Table 4.19:** Members of the Public Level of Trust

Members of Public	Strongly	Disagree	Not	Agree	Strongly	Mean	Std.
Trust (Percentage)	Disagree		Sure		Agree		Dev.
Accessibility of police							
officers at the station	17.1	38.1	10.5	24.8	9.5	2.714	1.276
has been enhanced							
Human rights abuse is							
still prevalent in the	17.1	26.7	5.7	40	10.5	3.000	1.337
police							
There is reduced							
corruption in the police							
as officers these days	<i>57</i> 1	22.9	1	17 1	1.0	1 020	1 102
do not demand favours	57.1	22.9	1	17.1	1.9	1.838	1.193
before service delivery							

Source: Field Data (2020).

The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that accessibility to police officers at the station has been enhanced and as presented in Table 4.19, 38.1 per cent disagree, 24.8 per cent agree, 17.1 per cent strongly disagree 10.5 per cent are not sure, while 9.5 per cent strongly agrees. The mean = 2.713, and std. dev. = 1.2764, is an indication the police officers are not easily accessible at the station level. This study finding implies that over 65 per cent of the respondents are not sure or disagree with the statement as police officers are not accessible at the station level. The findings are consistent with a study by Tankebe (2013) in which police services are considered essential since they enhance quality of life of the people and service delivery is fulfilled when organisation goals and objectives meant to satisfy the needs of the customer and other stakeholders is realised.

The respondents were further asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that human rights abuse was still prevalent in the police and are frequently reported. As indicated in Table 4.19, 40 per cent agree, 26.7 per cent disagree, 17.1 per

cent strongly disagree, 10.5 per cent strongly agree while 5.7 per cent are not sure. The mean = 3.000, and std. dev. = 1.3373, is an indication that human rights abuse is still rampant in the police. This is further supported by 50.5 per cent of the respondents agree human rights abuse is still prevalent in the police.

The findings are not consistent with a study by Oduor (2015 in which Kenya was found to have consented without any reservations to most of the key international and Africa human rights treaties and statutes. In the adoption of the international laws, a dualist approach that does not require any subsequent legislation for implementation into domestic law. This implies the police do not strictly operate based on the treaties including bill of rights, chapter four of the Kenyan Constitution (Republic of Kenya, 2010). The CSO have also made efforts to ensure human rights are upheld.

From the key informants, one said:

Human rights abuse has not reduced, and we still have a long way to go in terms of how the members of the public view the police. Rampant cases of police brutality are still rampant. The commission itself which was established because of the reform initiatives has not been properly articulated in the reform's agenda (Respondent K2).

## Another key informant said:

The International Centre for Transitional justice has been keen in trying to that ensure justice is served to the numerous victims of police brutality and human rights violations (Respondent K4).

The respondents were further asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that there is reduced corruption in the police as police officers these days do not demand favours before service delivery and as presented in Table 4.19, 57.1 per cent strongly disagree, 22.9 per cent disagree, 17.1 per cent agree, 1.9 per cent strongly agree and 1 per cent was not sure. The mean = 1.838, and std. dev. = 1.1939, is an

indication that corruption is prevalent in the police. This study finding implies that corruption is still prevalent in the police as reported by 80 per cent of the respondents.

Persistent corruption in the NPS represent a systematic failure of governance by the primary institutions charged with the duty of guaranteeing police governance through the observance of ethics and integrity standards and enforcing the rule of law. Rampant corruption is prevalent in the NPS causing despair amongst the members of the public. The study findings are consistent with a study by Hope (2018) in which 70 per cent of Kenyans were found to have paid bribes for police services, and the corruption index by institutions was highest for the police at 75 per cent followed by government officials and members of parliament at 46 per cent and 45 per cent respectively and Amnesty International (2013) in which corruption in the police in Kenya was thwarting efforts to deal with human rights abuses and indiscriminate arrests.

According to Hope (2015b) police corruption was found to exist in several forms in all the police services in the world, a clear indication of the state of corruption in the society. The police officers have attributed the engagement in corruption to lack of resources such as inadequate remuneration to make the police officers live a comfortable life with family members and the basic equipment to function effectively as police offices. From the key informants, one said:

Corruption is so severe and rampant thus creating despair amongst the members of the public. It has gotten to the core of the service and undermining the police reform agenda. There is need to uproot the rogue officers. There are 5 indicators (prevalence, impact, frequency, size of the bribe, share of the bribe (Respondent K4).

### 4.3.7 Confidence with Police Public Safety

The respondent members of the public level of confidence with the police reforms to ensure adequate public safety was assessed and the findings presented in Figure 4.14.

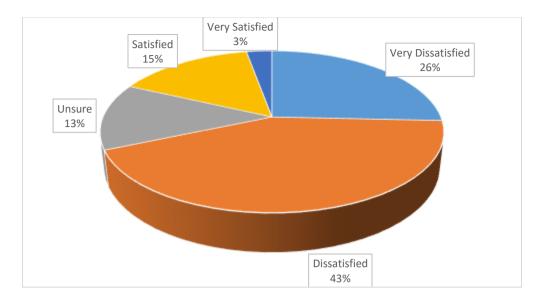


Figure 4.14: Confidence with Police Public Safety

Source: Field Data (2020).

Approximately 43 per cent are dissatisfied, 26 per cent are very dissatisfied, 15 per cent are satisfied, 13 per cent are unsure while 3 per cent are very satisfied. The findings implies that over 69 per cent of members of the public still lack confidence with the police to ensure adequate public safety in the light of the police reforms. The police officers are commonly considered as corrupt and very oppressive and have failed to earn the confidence and cordial collaboration of the members of the public.

The study findings are consistent with a study by Jackson & Bradford (2010) where the perception and experiences of police officer's fairness convey into the members of the public feelings the concept of trust and shared values with the police.

From the key informants, one said:

The IPOA has been for the last three years running the outstanding police service award scheme aimed at rewarding police officers with outstanding performance at the station level to boost their morale. This is done by members of the public to build public confidence towards the police while IPOA role is validation (Respondent K3).

## 4.4 Police Attitude and Responsiveness

The third specific objective of the study was to examine the effects police officers' attitude and responsiveness on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya. Generally, little is known about the spectrum of factors that influences citizen's attitudes towards the police and the relationship that the police build with the community. However, there are combinations of a variety of factors that come into play when discussing people's attitude towards the police.

# 4.4.1 Police Reforms is all Encompassing

The study sought the respondents' level of agreement with the statement that police reforms are all encompassing and has included all the areas that needs to be addressed and the findings as presented in Table 4.20, indicate that 36.5 per cent of the respondent police officers are not sure, 36 per cent strongly disagree, 14 per cent agree, 12.1 per cent disagree and 1.4 per cent strongly agrees. The mean = 2.327, and std. dev. = 1.1447 is an indication the police reforms is not encompassing.

**Table 4.20:** Police Reforms Encompassing

Police Reforms	Strongly	Disagree	Not	Agree	Strongly	Mean	Std.
Encompassing	Disagree		Sure		Agree		Dev.
(Percentage)							
Police Officers	36	12.1	36.5	14	1.4	2.327	1.144
Members of	23.8	52.4	4.8	13.3	5.7	2.248	1.133
Public							

Source: Field Data (2020).

Again, the members of the public views were sought as to whether police reform is encompassing and 52.4 per cent disagree, 23.8 per cent strongly disagree, 13.3 per cent agree, 5.7 per cent strongly agree and 4.8 per cent are not sure. Similarly, the mean = 2.248, and std. dev. = 1.1332, imply police reforms not encompassing. From the study

findings, over 62 per cent of the respondents are of the contrary opinion implying the police reforms are not all encompassing and does not include all the areas that needs to be addressed.

# 4.4.2 Notable Reforms in the Police Implemented

The study sought the respondent level of agreement with the statement that notable reform initiatives have been implemented in the past one year in the police service and the findings as presented in Figure 4.15, indicate that, 51.9 per cent of the respondent police officers are not sure if notable reform initiatives have been implemented in the police in the last one year, 26.2 per cent strongly disagree, 13.6 per cent disagree, 7 per cent agree and 1.4 per cent strongly agrees. Approximately over 91 per cent are of the opinion that no notable reform initiatives have been implemented or are not sure.

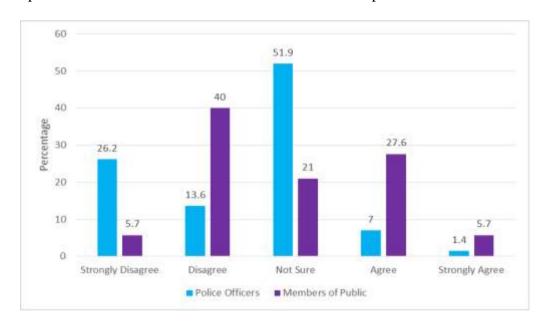


Figure 4.15: Notable Reforms Implemented

Source: Field Data (2020).

The level of agreement on the same question was sought from members of the public and as presented in Figure 4.15, 40 per cent disagree, 27.6 per cent agree, 21 per cent are not sure, 5.7 per cent strongly agree and 5.7 per cent strongly disagree an indication of no notable reform initiative has been implemented in the police service. The findings

imply both the police officers and members of the public agree that they have not seen any notable reforms implemented in the police.

### 4.4.3 Police Officers' Attitude towards their Work

The respondents' level of agreement was sought on whether the police service is the best place to work because of the police reforms and the findings presented in Table 4.21 indicate that 29.4 per cent of the respondent police officers strongly disagree, 24.8 per cent are not sure, 22.9 per cent disagree, 21 percent agree and 1.9 per cent strongly agrees. The mean = 2.430, and std. dev. = 1.1718, is an indication the police station is not the best place to work.

**Table 4.21**: Police Officers' Attitude Towards their Work

Police Best	Strongly	Disagree	Not	Agree	Strongly	Mean	Std.
Place to Work	Disagree		Sure		Agree		Dev.
(Percentage)							
Police Officers	29.4	22.9	24.8	21	1.9	2.430	1.1718
Members of the	33.3	29.5	30.5	5.7	1	2.114	1.1939
Public							

**Source:** Field Data (2020).

Again 33.3 per cent respondent members of the public strongly disagree, 30.5 per cent were not sure, 29.5 per cent disagree, 5.7 per cent agree and only 1 per cent strongly agree. Similarly, the mean = 2.114, and std. dev. = 1.1939 implies that despite the police reforms, the respondents are of the opinion that the police service is not the best place to work.

# 4.4.4 Improvement on Police Image

The respondents' level of agreement was sought on the statement that the change from police force to police service has resulted in improvement on the image of police and the findings presented in Figure 4.16. As presented in Figure 4.16, 43.5 per cent of the respondent police officers are not sure, 31.3 per cent agree, 20.6 per cent strongly disagree, 4.2 per cent disagree and 0.5 per cent strongly agree. Again 39 per cent members of the public agree, 38.1 per cent disagree, 11.4 per cent strongly disagree, 9.5 per cent are not sure, and 1.9 per cent strongly agrees. These findings imply that 43.5% of police officers are not sure while 49.5% of the respondents' members of the public disagree that the change from police force to police service has resulted in improvement on the image of policing.

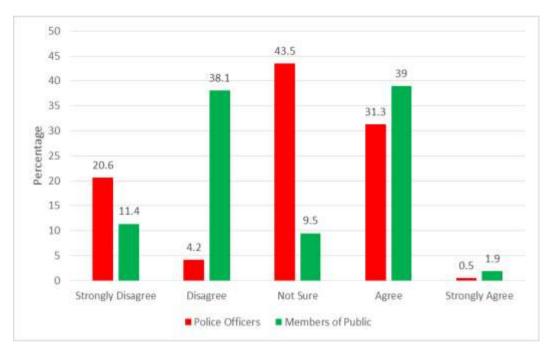


Figure 4.16: Improvement on Police Image

Source: Field Data (2020).

The police in developing countries like Kenya have never enjoyed the good image which has been negative, and the performance has been dismal. According to a study by Osee (2014) the public in Kenya wants the police to improve on their image by enhancing their effectiveness especially in view of the rising crimes and terrorism but

is still grappling with the terms that should apply. The vetting of the police according to Amnesty International (2013) was meant to improve the public image of the police but this has not been achieved so far.

## **4.4.5 Police Officers Commitment**

The respondents were asked whether the police officers are motivated, encouraged, energized, and committed to the police service mission and vision and the findings presented in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Police Officers' Commitment

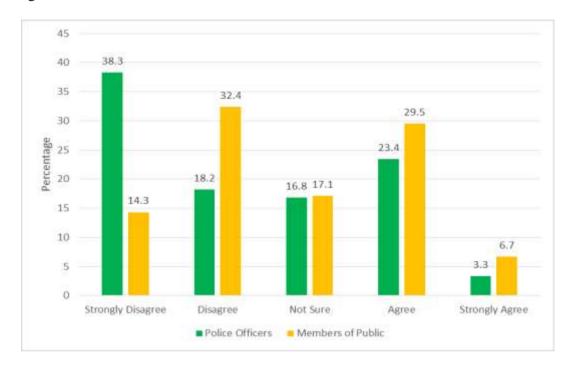
<b>Police Officers</b>	Strongly	Disagree	Not	Agree	Strongly	Mean	Std.
Commitment	Disagree		Sure		Agree		Dev.
(Percentage)							
Police Officers	23.8	11.2	43.5	20.1	1.4	2.640	1.094
Members of the Public	19	34.3	21	19	6.7	2.600	1.187

Source: Field Data (2020).

From the study findings, 43.5 per cent of respondent police officers are not sure. 23.8 per cent strongly disagree, 20.1 per cent agree, 11.2 per cent disagree, and 1.4 per cent strongly agrees. The mean = 2.640, and std. dev. = 1.0948, is an indication of lack of motivation and commitment to police vision and mission. On the part of the respondent members of the public, 34.3 per cent disagree, 21 per cent are not sure, 19 per cent agree, 19 per cent strongly disagree and 6.7 per cent strongly disagree. Similarly, the mean = 2.600, and std. dev. = 1.1879, is an indication of lack of motivation and commitment by the police officers in discharge of their mandate in line with the vision and mission). The findings implies that the respondents are of the opinion that the police officers are not motivated, encouraged, energized, and not committed to the police mission and vision following the implementation of reforms.

### **4.4.6 Police Officers Morale**

The respondents' level of agreement was sought on the statement that police reforms have increased the morale of police officers and the findings presented in Figure 4.17 indicate that, 38.3 per cent of the respondent police officers strongly disagree, 23.4 per cent agree, 18.2 per cent disagree, 16.8 per cent are not sure and 3.3 per cent strongly agrees.



**Figure 4.17**: Police Officers' Morale **Source:** Field Data (2020).

Again, 32.4 per cent of the respondent members of the public disagree, 29.5 per cent agree, 17.1 per cent are not sure, 14.3 per cent strongly disagree and 6.7 per cent strongly agree. The study findings implies that majority of the respondents are of the opinion that police reforms has not increased the morale of police officers. However, other institutional measures have been put in place to ensure that the morale of the officers is boosted.

One of the key informants said:

The IPOA has been running the outstanding police service award scheme aimed at rewarding police officers with outstanding

performance to boost their morale and increase efficiency for better service delivery (Respondent K3).

### 4.4.7 Members of the Public Attitude towards the Police

The respondent members of the public level of agreement were sought on statements of attitude and findings presented in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23: Members of Public Attitude Towards the Police

Members of Public	Strongly	Disagree	Not	Agree	Strongly	Mean	Std.
Attitude	Disagree		Sure		Agree		Dev.
(Percentage)							
After the reforms							
there is an							
improvement in the							
relationship between	21	30.5	14.3	24.8	9.5	2.714	1.306
community and the							
police							
The members of the							
public can now							
cordially interact	21.9	40	16.2	18.1	3.8	2.419	1.133
with police officers							
You can always find							
out information							
from the officers	30.5	40	10.5	16.2	2.9	2.210	1.132
without many efforts							
and demands							

Source: Field Data (2020).

Asked whether there is an improvement in the relationship between community and the police after the reforms, 30.5 per cent disagree, 24.8 per cent agree, 21 per cent strongly disagree, 14.3 per cent are not sure and 9.5 per cent strongly agrees. The mean = 2.714, and std. dev. = 1.3062, is an indication that there has been no improvement in the relationship between the police and members of the public during the reform process.

The findings also implies that 51.5 per cent of the respondents are of the opinion that the there is no improvement in the relationship between the community and the police after the reforms.

From the key informants, some said:

The community engagement has helped in improving the confidence of the public towards the police, led to the reduction of criminal activities in the community and has facilitated the bringing to book those who have been involved in crime (Respondent K1),

The concept of community policing ought to have come earlier to assist the police in combating crime in the community. Parts of the National Police Service Act 2011, has been partially implemented and the whole concept needs to be embraced for the good of the communities (Respondent K3),

The whole idea of Nyumba Kumi initiative is being undermined by the police as the police themselves are involved in illegal gangs' initiatives. Most organised criminal gangs are being used by the political class and protected by the police who intimidate the members of the public who would be witness at the expense of the community. The gangs have hierarchies with the elites being the head. Currently there are about 62 criminal gangs in Kenya (Respondent K4).

The respondents were further asked if members of the public can now cordially interact with police officers and the findings presented in Table 4.23. Approximately 40 per cent of the respondents disagree, 21.9 per cent strongly disagree, 18.1 per cent agree, 16.2 per cent are not sure, and 3.8 per cent strongly agrees. The mean = 2.419, and std. dev. = 1.1332, is an indication of the poor cordial relationship between the police and members of the public. The study findings imply members of the public cannot cordially interact with police officers despite the reforms.

The respondents were further asked if they can always find out information from the officers without many efforts and demands and the findings presented in Table 4.23 indicate that 40 per cent disagree, 30.5 per cent strongly disagree, 16.2 per cent agree, 10.5 per cent are not sure and 2.9 per cent strongly agrees. The mean = 2.210, and std.

dev. = 1.1325, is an indication members of the public cannot easily obtain information from the police officers. The findings imply it is not easy to find out information from police officers without many efforts and demands.

## 4.4.8 Police Officers Attitude with Reforms

The level of satisfaction with the police reforms was assessed for the respondent police officers and the findings presented in Figure 4.18 shows that, 34.1 per cent are dissatisfied, 33.2 per cent are unsure, 16.8 per cent very dissatisfied, 15.4 per cent satisfied and 0.5 per cent very satisfied.

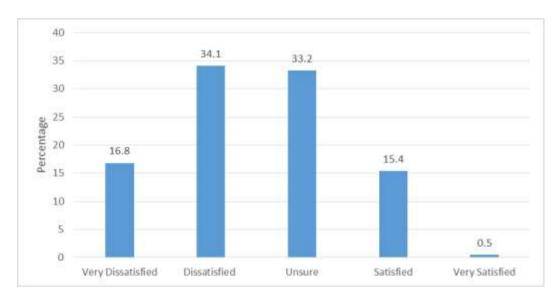


Figure 4.18: Police Officers' Attitude with Reforms

Source: Field Data (2020).

The findings imply the respondents' level of satisfaction is not higher with the police reforms than before the reforms. The study findings are consistent with a study by CHRIPS/APCOF (2014) in which citizens confidence in the police was low as police was viewed as largely unavailable to serve the public or to curb crime and 80% of the respondents complained that whenever they report a crime, police require them to provide money to cover fuel or taxi expenses if they wanted services as the officers insisted there was inadequate resource allocation to the police service to effectively discharge their functions.

# **4.5** Hypothesis Testing

# 4.5.1 Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis

The hypotheses were tested using correlation analysis. The study sought to establish correlation between the dependent variable and each of the independent variable measurable indicators. The dependent variable for the study was service delivery while the independent variable measurable indicators were police facilitation, public trust and police attitude and responsiveness. The correlation test was conducted at the 5% level of significance with a 2-tailed test. Thus, the significance 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 correlation coefficient ranges from -1.0 to +1.0 and the closer the coefficient is to +1 or -1, the more closely and stronger the two variables are related. The findings illustrated in Table 4.24 show that, police facilitation, public trust and police attitude and responsiveness have a weak and insignificant association with police reforms.

**Table 4.24**: Pearson Correlation Coefficient

		Facilitation	Public	Police Attitude and Responsiveness
			Trust	
	Pearson			
	Correlation	0.036	-0.122	0.060
Service	Sig. (2-			
Delivery	tailed)	0.601	0.074	0.382
	N	214	214	214
	(	Correlation is si	gnificant at	the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field Data (2020).

The first null hypothesis was **H0**<sub>1</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between police service facilitation and service delivery in the NPS in 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 first null hypothesis is accepted.

The second null hypothesis was **H0**<sub>2</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between public trust and service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County. The correlation coefficient for the association between public trust and service delivery is -0.122 with a p-value of 0.074 more than 0.05 depicting a significant negative correlation between the variables hence the second null hypothesis is accepted

The third null hypothesis was **H0**<sub>3</sub>: There is no statistically significant relationship between police attitude and responsiveness and service delivery in the NPS and the correlation coefficient for association between police attitude and responsiveness and service delivery is 0.060 with a p-value of 0.383, thus the third null hypothesis is accepted.

Based on the hypotheses of the study, the study therefore accepted the null hypotheses and concluded that there is no significant effect of police reform on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya.

## 4.5.2 Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was performed and the regression model adopted by the study in Table 4.25 indicate the R squared of 0.080, meaning facilitation, public trust, police attitude and responsiveness can only explain 8 per cent 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 4.25:** Regression Model Summary

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

Source: Field Data (2020).

#### **CHAPTER FIVE**

### SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the findings, conclusions, recommendations, and implications of the study findings with reference to the specific objectives and the tested hypotheses. It provides possible explanations why the hypotheses were not supported, highlighting the contribution of the study to theory, methodology, policy, and practice in the field of security sector reforms and service delivery. Finally, it offers recommendations accruing from the study and proposes areas for future research.

## **5.1 Summary of Findings**

The main objective of the study was to examine the effects of police reforms on service delivery in the NPS, Nairobi County, Kenya. The specific objectives of the study were to examine the effects of facilitation, public trust, police attitude and responsiveness on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya. Three hypotheses were formulated from the specific objectives and tested. The results indicate lack of support for the three hypotheses. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statements provided. Mean scores and standard deviations were calculated.

# **5.1.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents**

The demographic characteristics of the respondents was evaluated. The study target population was 2100 police officers drawn from police stations and purposively sampled members of the public. A total of 214 questionnaires for police officers and 105 questionnaires for members of the public were analysed. The gender distribution of respondents indicates that majority are male aged between 26-35 years. Majority of the police officers perform general duties and have a diploma level of education while majority of the members of the public have a bachelor's degree level of education.

#### **5.1.2 Police Service Facilitation**

The first specific objective of the study was to assess the effect of police service facilitation on service delivery in the NPS, Nairobi County, Kenya. The police forces are always expected to be accountable to the members of the public for the services they deliver given that the police facilitation comes from the taxes paid by the members of the public. Reforming the police service therefore require the creation and implementation of strategies that will ensure the police service meet the expectation of members of the public in terms of mobility, adequate office space to perform their duties with privacy, good and effective communication and feedback mechanisms and other physical infrastructure meant to improve of the image of the police.

The study determined that police reforms have increased the mobility of police officers in terms of vehicles, motor bikes and other equipment with the government plan of leasing of the vehicles to enable the police concentrate on their core mandate and functions. The office accommodation for the officers was found to be very poor and not suitable for executing their functions and this situation interfere with crime investigations as the police do not have the operational freedom to carry out their mandate. The physical infrastructure in the police stations is either moderate or poor to support the police operations at the station level.

The study further determined that the police managers do not have the capacity to manage the change process in the NPS as there is decreased efficiency in addressing crimes, and thus the rates of crime remain high. No notable changes in the NPS reforms have been realized that have facilitated service delivery. The number of solved crimes is not on the increase and crime prevention efforts are not bearing fruits.

The study determined that the police officers are not committed to the police service mission and vision and the police reforms have poorly addressed the foundational security components and critical issues regarding security in Nairobi County. Even though police reforms have addressed the roles and responsibilities of key structures as part of the legal reforms in the police, the new legislations in policing have not enhanced policing the police vetting has not facilitated service delivery as part of the police reforms in the NPS in Nairobi County.

The study further determined there is no prompt response by the police to reported crimes as the police reforms has moderately or poorly addressed the police mission and vision in Kenya. The police are still not all that reliable these days and members of the public cannot count on the police to be of assistance even with the reforms as sufficient time has not been spent explaining police reforms to the police officers. The study determined that the feedback mechanisms with the police are either moderate or poor and further determined that with reforms in place, the police officers still do not act professionally in discharging the duties and more so in handling of riots or public assemblies. The measures suggested by the respondents to improve on service delivery include improvement in the terms of service tools and equipment for the police officers to enhance efficiency and effectiveness. The members of the public advocate for continuous training of police officers to be able to deal with organised crimes like corruption, training on human rights and police public cooperation to change their attitude.

### 5.1.3 Public Trust

The second specific objective of the study was to evaluate the effects of public trust on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya. The study determined that there is no significant decrease in complain against the police officers. Members of the public

do not have trust with the police service and cannot report cases of crime to police without fear. The study further determined that lack of public trust towards the police affects the implementation of police reforms.

There exists a weak community partnership in crime prevention at the station level as police officers believe that the police reforms cannot improve the relationship between the community and the police. Accessibility of police officers at the station has not been enhanced and human rights abuses are still prevalent in the NPS in Nairobi County. The study determined that corruption is still prevalent in the NPS in Nairobi County as police still demand favours before service delivery. The respondents are therefore dissatisfied with the level of confidence with the police reforms to ensure adequate public safety.

# **5.1.4 Police Attitude and Responsiveness**

The third specific objective of the study was to examine the effects of police attitude and responsiveness on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya. The study determined that the police reforms are not all encompassing, has not included all the areas that needs to be addressed and there are no notable reforms initiatives that have been implemented in the past one year making the police service not to be the best place to work because of the police reforms which has not improved the image of the police service.

The study further determined that the police officers are not motivated, encouraged, nor energized, and their morale has decreased. There is no improvement in the relationship between community and the police after the reforms and the members of the public cannot now cordially interact with the police officers or find out information from

officers without many efforts and demands and are dissatisfied with the level of police reforms.

The Pearson Correlation coefficient for the study indicates a significant negative relationship between the independent variable (police reforms) and the dependent variable (service delivery) and therefore the null hypotheses are accepted, and the alternative hypotheses are rejected. From the study findings there is no significant effect of police reforms service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya. This is further supported by the multiple regressions in which the facilitation, public trust, and police attitude and responsiveness can only explain 8 per cent of the service delivery variability in data as indicated by R Squared of 0.080, indicating a weak relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable of the study.

### **5.2 Conclusions**

The main objective of the study was to examine police reforms and service delivery in the National Police Service, Nairobi County, Kenya. Three specific objectives were derived from the main objective. To achieve these objectives, three hypotheses were formulated based on the literature review. The hypotheses were tested and from the study findings, various conclusions are drawn.

The anticipated police reforms across the globe have been informed by the need for a friendly police service to the members of public who always act professionally and protect members of the public from criminal acts human rights abuses. The reforms process in the NPS is important in achieving a democratic state that encourages open market economy and development in both social and political sphere that are reminiscent of the societal values and needs. As much as studies have been done on police reforms in Kenya and elsewhere, there is no research examining police reforms

and service delivery in the National Police Service in Nairobi County, Kenya that has considered the aspects of facilitation, public trust, and police attitude and responsiveness. The, the study makes the following conclusions.

The police work in Kenya is dominated by the youthful male police officers with good secondary education background. The findings provide evidence that characteristics such as age, gender, level of education, the gently affects ones' world view and shape the individual and organization character and hence broaden their understanding of the dynamic society and the needs of those who are entitled to services offered.

The police in Kenya are facilitated through the lease of motor vehicles and provision of other technical equipment. The provision of practical investigation equipment is central to crime investigations with emphasis on interrogation of suspects and interviewing of witnesses as it minimizes the chances for police officers discouraged during investigations to abuse the fundamental rights of suspects. However, the police office spaces is still inadequate, and there is interference with the police operational freedom. The physical infrastructures in the police stations are inadequate to support police operation at the station level and that no notable changes have enabled service delivery as the number of crimes solved has not improved 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 remains high even after the police reforms.

The members of the public seem resolved to the universal values of post-colonial state operations that require fair treatment by the police in adherence to the laid down legal provisions and procedures that guarantee the right outcomes of any situation. The enactment of police reforms legal framework has not achieved significant effects on the

police legitimacy that demonstrate the practicality of police service to members of the public without any discrimination. From the study findings, police vetting has not facilitated service delivery and the fundamental security components and critical issues regarding security in Kenya have not been addressed. However, police officers believe the reforms have addressed the roles and responsibilities of key structures as part of the legal reforms in the police while members of the public have a shown opposing opinion. The new legislations in policing in Kenya were also found not to have enhanced policing in NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya. It is expected that with enhanced legal framework, because of reforms, the police are expected to be more professional in discharge of their mandate.

Institutional framework and professionalism in police reforms involves changes in organisational structure, and the domestication of acts that are internationally acceptable. These include measures to improve on the promotion criteria, and operational procedures among others. The police have been found to be unable to promptly respond to crimes despite the investment in equipment. Even though the NPS has a career progression guideline in place, the guideline has not been implemented during promotional boards of police officers and most of the members of the public believe that the police reforms have not addressed the fundamental issues as articulated in the police mission and vision.

The training of police officers has not achieved much to improve on the police service delivery and the police are not reliable and cannot be counted on to be of assistance even after the reforms. The exhibited police attitude is exacerbated by the fact that sufficient time has not been spent explaining police reforms to the police officers. There are poor feedback mechanisms within the police and this in effect makes the police to be unprofessional and more so in the way they handle public assemblies like riots.

Based on the first null hypothesis which was supported, it was concluded that police service facilitation has no effect on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County. The findings provide evidence to the contrary that the more the police are facilitated, the more they should deliver quality service to the members of public.

Public trust is fundamental to police service delivery as police officers' behaviour during an encounter with the members of the public can build trust and encourage members of the public to respect the rule of law and work together with the police in partnership for the purposes of preventing crimes. From the study findings, complains against the police are not on the decrease and members of the public do not have trust with the police and cannot report cases of crime to the police without fear. The lack of public trust has affected the implementation of police reforms as there doesn't exist a robust trust between the police and members of the public in crime prevention at the station level. The police reforms have been found to be inadequate in enhancing the relationship between the members of the public and the police. Accessibility of the police has not been enhanced at the police station level and human rights abuses are still prevalent in the NPS in Nairobi County. Corruption in the police where the police demand favours before service delivery is persistent causing despair amongst members of the public. The level of confidence with the police reforms to ensure adequate public safety has therefore gone down.

The study's second null hypothesis was that there is no significant relationship between public trust and service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County. Results obtained support the null hypothesis and the study concludes that despite the on-going reforms programme in the NPS, public trust is still very low and this hampers service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County.

Police attitude and responsiveness is an important factor to service delivery and as it is often based on values that are of personal relevance. Lack of strategies in changing police attitude has made the police reforms not to be encompassing and does not include all the areas to be addressed. There are no notable reforms initiatives implemented in the last one year in the NPS in Nairobi County making the NPS not to be the best place to work in because of the reforms. This has also not improved the image of police as police officers are not motivated, not encouraged, not energized, and are not committed to the police service mission and vision. There is no improvement in the relationship between the members of the public and the police even with the reforms as members of the public cannot cordially interact with the police officers and find out information from the police officers without many efforts and demands and hence there is dissatisfaction with the level of police reforms in the NPS, Nairobi County, Kenya. From the study findings it is evident that public dissatisfaction with police service delivery envisages intensified levels of public lack of assurance from the police actions. Based on the third null hypothesis which was accepted, the study concludes that there is no significant relationship between police attitude and service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya.

### **5.3** Implications of the Study

The findings present several issues that have implications to theory, policy, practice, and methodology. The study examined police reforms and service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya. With respect to theory, the study progresses hypothetical argument for the use of NPM theory, motive-based trust theory and conflict theory in police reform as change is gradual, occur in phases and is characterised by forces that drives towards equilibrium or status quo. The reforms should focus on the organisation as individual police officers are constrained by the organisational pressure to conform.

The study also advances the use of the theories in examining how police use their authority to serve and protect for public satisfaction, and why people choose their behaviour and the use of the police by the dominant groups that brings about social inequalities.

The study contributes to the existing body of knowledge by showing that the institutional and professionalism attributes when integrated leads to indirect effects on service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County as many studies have not focused on these effects of police reforms on service delivery. The study also developed a conceptual model illustrating the interactions between the independent variable, and the dependent variable that provides a useful framework to be used in future police reforms studies.

The findings also have implications for improving the reform process implementation in NPS as it provides information and shed light on areas which are key to police reforms but have failed to achieve the desired outcome in terms of service delivery. As such the police and the government in general need to invest in pertinent areas believed to be fundamental in bringing about the much-desired police reforms and improve on the services to the members of public to their satisfaction. Public approval of the police must be looked at as a satisfaction with the government of the day. The police should engage more on partnership with the community who are the consumers of their services.

At the policy level, the study provides valuable information for the government and those who formulate and deliver police reforms programmes aimed at increasing service delivery to members of the public.

Finally, the study contributes to the limited research on the police reforms and service delivery in the NPS and offers a theoretical model of police facilitation, public trust, and police attitude and responsiveness and suggestions on the best practices to improve on the service delivery in the NPS in Nairobi County, Kenya.

### **5.4 Recommendations**

Police effectiveness depends on individual police officers' decision-making ability and the police organisational context and legal framework within which police officers carry out their functions. From the study findings, discussions, and the conclusions, it is evident that police reforms in Kenya is an ongoing process and is still at the infancy stage. The NPS with the guidance from the NPSC and other security and development stakeholders must plan the structure and culture of the NPS after the reform efforts have been fully implemented and institutionally successful.

Based on the findings and conclusions, the study therefore makes the following five recommendations. First, the NPS to develop a policy on policing and the police stations some of which were built by colonialist to have facelift to enable police officers work is safe offices that are spacious enough, with adequate storage facilities for exhibits and evidence based on the latest technologies.

Secondly, the NPS to embark on measures to sensitise the police officers on the mission and vision of the police and the police officers' legal mandates. the NPS Directorate of Police Reforms and that of Community Policing to explore ways of implementing strategies to obtain members of public involvement and partnership to help in tackling the issue of public trust of the police officers for example establishing public safety and security forums to shape the concept of trust and advance the association between the police and members of the public.

Thirdly, the career progression guidelines should be implemented as part of changing the organisation culture in promotion that has been abused and the training curriculum to be enhanced to include human rights issues and emerging security threats.

Fourth, to deal with the issue of corruption that is rampant in the police, and improve on the police attitude, the police reform programs should investigate ways of implementing the punitive and preventive strategies that have both internal and external oversight mechanisms to demonstrate zero tolerance for police corruption.

Fifth, to show transparency and accountability, the police should embrace the body and dash cameras technology to complement the IC3 cameras based at NPS headquarters. This will also be an opportunity to improve on police training as it will show what transpired in the interactions between the police and the members of the public and demonstrate an appropriate action to take given the circumstances.

Sixth, to fully implement the reform process, the police are expected 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 and the NPS has ensured that there is a gender desk at each police station manned by a female police officer to enable more female victims to feel free and comfortable reporting crimes such as gender based violence that would otherwise not have been reported to male police officers like rape and defilement due to fear of embarrassment.

# 5.5 Suggestion for Further Research

Based on the study findings, discussions and conclusion, the following suggestions for further research are recommended:

A major study using a descriptive survey research design on the effects of police reforms and service delivery in the NPS in Kenya should be carried out considering all

measurable aspects of police reforms that would paint a better picture of the police reforms in Kenya as this study was confined to Nairobi County only, leaving out the remaining 46 counties, which are also police administrative units. The study should consider multiple respondents such as non-state actors in the security sector. This will verify whether what was observed in Nairobi County is applicable to police in other counties in Kenya.

response to crime in the NPS, the roles and responsibilities of the bureaucratic levels of command structure occasioned by the reforms on service delivery and the disconnect between theoretical police training and practical aspects of service delivery. The police have always been rated high in corruption index studies and this affects the public trust and police attitude. A study on the extent of corruption in the NPS, and on the working relations between the police and members of the public and public satisfaction would provide an impetus for the police reforms implementation.

A review should also be done on the effectiveness of prevention and efficiency in

#### REFERENCES

- Abatneh, A. and Lubang, S. (2011). Police Reforms and State Formation in Southern Sudan. *Canadian Journal of Development Studies*, Vol. 32, No. 1, pp 94-108.
- Adugna, M., and Italemahu, T. (2019). Crime Prevention through Community Policing Interventions: Evidence from Harar City, Eastern Ethiopia. *Jurnal Humaniora*, Vol. 31. No. 3, pp 326-337. https://doi.org/10.22146/jh.v3li.43880
- Affleck, R. T. Gardner, K, Aytur, S. Carlson, C. Grimm, C. and Deeb, E. (2019). Sustainable Infrastructure in Conflict Zones: Police Facilities' Impact on Perception of Safety in Afghan Communities. *Sustainability*, 2019, Vol. 11, (2113).
- Afrobarometer (2015). *Afrobarometer 2014/2015 Survey of Natural Attitudes in Kenya on Democracy and Governance Issues*. https://www.afrobarometer.org/
- Agbiboa, D. (2015a). Policing is not Work: It is Stealing by Force. Corrupt Policing and Related Abuses in Everyday Nigeria. *Africa Today*, Vol. 62, No. 2, pp 95-126. Indiana University Press.
- Agbiboa, D. E. (2015b). Protectors or Predators? The Embedded Problems of Police Corruption and Deviance in Nigeria. *Administration and Society*, Vol. 47, No. 3, pp 244-281.
- Ageyo, J. and Muchunku, I. G. (2020). Beyond the Right of Access: A critique of the Legalist Approach to Dissemination of Climate Change Information in Kenya. *Sustainability*, 2020, Vol. 12, No. 6, 2530.
- Al-Ababneh, M. (2020). Linking Ontology, Epistemology and Research Methodology. *Science and Philosophy*, Vol. 8(1), pp 75-91.
- Alemika, E. (2015). Context of Police Reforms to Institutionalize Civilian Oversight and Police Accountability in Africa. In IPOA/APCOF (Eds). Civilian Oversight Mechanisms of Good Governance in Policing in Africa. Nairobi. Independent Policing Oversight Authority and Africa Policing Civilian Oversight Forum.
- Ali, M. U., & Pirog, M. (2019). Social accountability and institutional change: The case of citizen oversight of police. *Public Administration Review*, 79(3), 411–426.
- Alligood, M. R. (2014). *Nursing Theory: Utilization and Application (5th Ed.)*. Maryland Heights, MO: Mosby Elsevier.
- Alpert, G. P., Cawthray, T., Rojek, J., & Ferdik, F. (2016). Citizen oversight in the United States and Canada: Applying outcome measures and evidence-based concepts. In T. Prenzler & G. den Heyer (Eds.), *Civilian oversight of police: Advancing accountability in law enforcement* (pp. 179–204). Boca Raton, FL: Routledge.
- Alvesson, M., and Sveningsson, S. (2016). *Changing Organizational Culture. Cultural Change Work in Progress Second Edition*. New York. Routledge.
- Amnesty International (2012). *Police Violence in Greece. Not Just Isolated Incidences.* United Kingdom. Amnesty International.

- Amnesty International (2013). *Police Reforms in Kenya: "A drop in the Ocean."* Amnesty International Publication. London, United Kingdom. Amnesty International Press.
- Amnesty International (2015). *Police Oversight*. Amnesty International Dutch Section. Police and Human Rights Program-Short Paper Service No. 2.
- Anderson, J. F. Reinsmith-Jones, K. and Brooks, W. M. (2016). Black Shootings, Conflict Theory, and Policy Implications. *International Journal of Social Science Studies*, Vol. 4 (5) May 2016.
- Andrews, R. and Van de Walle, S. (2013). New Public Management and Citizen's Perceptions of Local Service Efficiency, Responsiveness, Equity and Effectiveness. *Public Management Review*, Vol. 15, No. 5, pp 762-783.
- Ariel, B. Farrar, W. and Sutherland, A. (2015). The Effects of Police Body Worn Cameras on Use of Force and Citizens' Complaints against the Police. A Randomized Controlled Trial. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, Vol. 31, No. 3, pp 509-535.
- Army Recognition (2018 March 27). *Kenya: Ambitious Modernization of the Police Forces*. Global Defence and Security News. www.armyrecognition.com
- Ayee, J. R. A. (2016). *Ghana: Reducing Police Corruption and Promoting Police Professionalism through Reforms*. In Hope, Sr. K. R. (Ed) Police Corruption and Police Reforms in Developing Societies. London. CRC Press.
- Ayoyo, D. (2018). Police Officers Assessment of NPF Reforms: Evidence from an Area Command in Ondo State. *Police Practice and Research. An International Journal*, Vol. 20, No. 1, pp 77-90.
- Baekgaard, M. Christensen, J, Dahlmann, C. M. Mathiasen, A. and Petersen, N. B. (2017). The Role of Evidence in Politics: Motivated Reasoning and Persuasion among Politicians. *British Journal of Political Science*, Vol. 49, No. 3, pp 1117-1140.
- Bangura, I. (2016). Assessing the Impact of Orthodox Security Sector Reforms in Sierra Leone. Canada. Centre for Security Governance.
- Bangura, I. (2017). The Gradual Emergence of Second-Generation Security Sector Reforms in Sierra Leone. Canada. Centre for Security Governance.
- Bangura, I. (2018). Democratically Transformed or Business as Usual. The Sierra Leone Police and Democratic Policing in Sierra Leone. *Stability: International Journal of Security and Development*, Vol. 7, No. 1 (7), pp 1-11
- Baoteng, F. D. (2019). Perceived Police Fairness: Exploring the Determinants of Citizen's Perception of Procedural Fairness in Ghana. Policing and Society. An International Journal of Research and Policy, Vol. 30, No. 9, pp 985-997.
- Bayeh, E. (2015). The Political and Economic Legacy of Colonialism in Post-Independence African States. *International Journal in Commerce, IT and Social Sciences*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp -89-93.
- Bayley, D. (2015). Human Rights in Policing: A Global Assessment. *Policing and Society*, Vol. 25, No. 5, pp 540-547.

- Bell, E. Bryman, A. & Harley, B. (2018). *Business Research Methods*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Bell, M. C. (2017). Police Reforms and the Dismantling of Legal Entanglement. *The Yale Law Journal*, Vol. 126, No. 7, pp 2054-2150.
- Bendary A. N. and Minyawi E. A. (2015), Entrepreneurial Competencies effect on Small and Medium Enterprises Performance through the Mediation Effect of Psychological Contracting of Outsourcing. *International Journal of Business, and Economic Development, 3*(2).
- Bezuidenhout, C. and Kempen, A. (2021). *Historical and Current Dilemmas in South Africa that Challenges Proficient Police Service Delivery*. Enhancing Police Service Delivery: Global Perspective and Contemporary Policy Implications. Switzerland. Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2021.
- Bhardwaj, D. (2018). Police Reforms: India. *International Journal of Law*. Vol. 4 (2), March 2018, pp 283-286.
- Biegon, J. and Songa, A. (2018). *Kenya. The Impact of Counter-Terrorism Measures on Police Reforms:* In Alemika, E. Ruteere, M. and Howell, S. (Eds). Policing Reforms in Africa. Moving towards a Rights-Based Approach in a climate of Terrorism, Insurgency and Serous Violent Crime. Cape Town. African Policing Oversight Forum (APCOF).
- Blair, H. (2018). Citizen Participation and Political Accountability for Public Service Delivery in India: Remapping the World Banks' Routes. *Journal of South Asian Development*, Vol. 13, No. 1, pp 1-28.
- Bordin, M. and de Moraes, P. (2017). Police Politics and Democracy in Brazil. *Socio int J (2017)*, Vol. 1, No. 4, pp 148-159.
- Borges, L. C. and Revez, J. (2018). Pragmatic Paradigm in Information Science Research: A Literature Review. *Qualitative and Quantitative Methods in Libraries (QOML)* Vol. 7, pp 583-593.
- Boutellis, J. A. (2013). From Crisis to reforms: Peacekeeping Strategies for the Protection of Civilians in democratic Republic of Congo. *Stability: International Journal of Security and Development*, Vol. 2, No. 3 (Art 48), pp 1-11.
- Bradford, B. Murphy, K. and Jackson, J. (2014). Officers as Minors. Policing, Procedural Justice and the (Re) Production of Social Identity. *The British Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 54, No. 4, pp 527-550.
- Brankamp, H. (2019). Occupied Enclave: Policing and the Underbelly of Humanitarian Governance in Kakuma Refugee Camp. *Political Geography* 71, pp 67-77.
- Brinkerhoff, D. W. and Brinkerhoff, J. M. (2015). Public Sector Management Reform in Developing Countries. Perspectives beyond New Public Management Orthodoxy. *Public Administration and Development*, Vol. 35, pp 222-237.
- Bruns, D, and Magnan, K. (2014). Police Officers Persepctive on Higher Education: Is the Degree a Necessary Ingredient for the Performance and Behaviour of Police Officers. *Journal of Law and Criminal Justice*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp 27-45.

- Brunson, R. and Gau, J. M. (2015). Officers Race Versus Macro Level Context: A Test of Completing Hypothesis about Black Citizen's Experiences with Perceptions of Black Police Officers. *Crime and Delinquency* 2015, Vol. 61, No. 2, pp 213-242.
- Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2015). *Business Research Methods (Vol. Fourth)*. Glasgow: Bell & Bain Ltd.
- Bullock, K., &Sindall, K. (2014). Examining the nature and extent of public participation in neighbourhood policing. *Policing and Society*, 24(4), 385–404. https://doi.org/10.1080/10439463.2013.844130.
- Burger, J. (2013). *The National Development Plan Can Improve Policing in South Africa*. www.issafrica.org/iss-today.php?ID=1626
- Bystova, E. G. and Gottschalk, P. (2015). Social Conflict Theory and White-Collar Criminals: Why Does Ruling Class Punish Their Own? *Pakistan Journal of Criminology* 2015 Vol. 7 (1), pp 1-15.
- Campeau, H. (2015). Police Culture at Work: Making Sense of Police Oversight. *The British Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 55. Issue 4, July 2015, pp 669-687. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjc/azu093
- Cankaya, S. (2020). Geo-policing Race, Gender, and Class: How the Police Immobilize Urban. *Antipode*, Vol. 52, No. 2, pp 702-721.
- Cao, L. (2015). Differentiating Confidence in the Police, Trust in the Police, and Satisfaction with the Police. *Policing: An International Journal*, Vol. 38 No. 2, pp 239-249. https://doi.org/10.1108/PIJPSM-12-2014-0127.
- Casas-Zamora, K. and Dammert, L. (2014). Public Security Challenges in the Americas. The Road to Hemispheric Cooperation: Beyond the Cartagena Summit of the Americas. The Bookings Institution/Latin America Initiative, 59-75.
- Chebai, J. M. and Kethure, n. (2017). Sikhs' Social Role and Their Impact in Kenya's Sustainable Development, 1895-1990. *African Journal of Education, Science and Technology, July-August*, Vol. 4, no. 1, pp 177-186.
- Cheeseman, N., Lynch, G., and Willis, J. (2016). Decentralization in Kenya. The Governance of Governors. *Journal of Modern African Studies*, Vol. 54, Issue 1, pp 1-35.
- Cherono, S. (2019 November, 13). *Police Service Attempts Reforms but Rights Abuses, grafts Claims Continue.* Nation Digital. https://mobile.nation.co.ke/...
- Choudhury, J. N. (2016). *Police Reforms: Which Way Do We Go?* The Police Chief 83. https://www.policechiefmagazine.org
- CHRI (2014). A Force for Good? Improving the Police in Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda. New Delhi. Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative
- CHRIPS/APCOF (2014). Local Policing Accountability in Kenya. Challenges and Opportunities. Centre for Human Rights and Policy studies (CHRIPS) and African Policing civilian Oversight Forum (APCOF).

- Citrin, J. and Stoker, L. (2018). Political Trust in a Cynical Age. *Annual review of Political Science*, Vol. 21, pp 49-70.
- Comfort, L. K. Kapucu, N. Ko, K. Menoni, S. and Siciliano, M. (2020). Crisis Decision Making on a Global Scale: Transition from Cognition to Collective Action under Threat of COVID-19. *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 80, No. 4, pp 616-622.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2014). *Business Research Methods*. New York, USA: The McGraw-Hill Companies.
- Cooper-Knock, S. J. and Owen, O. (2015). Between Vigilantism and Bureaucracy: Improving our Understanding of Police Work in Nigeria and South Africa. *Theoretical Criminology*, Vol. 19, No. 3, pp 355-375.
- COPS (2014). *Community Policing Defined*. https://ric.zai.inc.com/Pulications/cops-p157-pub.pdf.
- Crank, J. P. (2015). *Understanding Police Culture Second Edition*. USA New York. Routledge
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches* (4<sup>th</sup> Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. New York, USA: Sage publications.
- CRS (2015). Importance of Police-Community Relationships and Resources for Further Reading. Community Relations Services Toolkit for Policing.
- Daniels-Shpall, A. (2019). Strategies for (Re) Building Community Trust: A Review of Practices in the New Zealand Police. Full bright New Zealand.
- Das, D. K. (Eds) (2017). Delivering Police Service Effectively. Advances in Police Theory and Practice Service. Washington. CRS Press.
- DCAF (2019). *Police Reforms. SSR Backgrounder Series*. Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance. Geneva.
- De Angelis, J. and Wolf, B. (2016). Perceived Accountability and Public Attitudes towards Local Police. *Criminal Justice Studies*, Vol. 29, No. 3, pp 232-252.
- den Heyer, G. (2017). *Delivering Police Service Effectively*. Advances in Police Theory and Practice. Boca Raton, CRC Press.
- den Heyer, G. (2020). Police Strategy Development: The New Zealand Police Prevention Strategy. *Police Practice and Research. An International Journal*, Vol. 22, No. 1, pp 127-140.
- den Heyer, G. (2021). New Zealand Police's Policy Excellence and Prevention First Strategy: A New Approach to Police Service Delivery. In Albrecht, J., and den Heyer, G. (Eds). Enhancing Police Service Delivery. Global Perspective and Contemporary Policing Implications. Switzerland. Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2021.
- Detzner, S. (2017). Modern Post-Conflict Security Sector Reforms in Africa: Patterns of Success and Failures. *African Security Review*, Vol. 26, No. 2, pp 116-142.

- Detzner, S. (2019). Security Sector Reforms in Sudan and South Sudan: Incubating Progress. Conflict Research Program. World Peace Foundation.
- Diphoorn, T. (2020). The Pure Apples: Moral Bordering within the Kenyan Police. *Society and Space* 2020, Vol. 38. Issue 3, pp 490-509.
- Diphoorn, T. Van Stapele, N and Kimari, W. (2019). *Policing for the Community? The Mismatch between Reforms and Everyday Policing in Nairobi, Kenya*. In: Howell, D (Ed). Policing the Urban Periphery in Africa. Developing Safety for Marginal. Cape Town, ZA. Africa Policing Civilian Oversight Forum.
- Douvlis, K. South, N. (2016). Police Reform and Social Change in Greece: The Development and Merger of the gendearmerie and Urban Police Police Forces. 67 REVIJA ZA KRIMINALISTIKO IN KRIMINOLOGIJO 289 (2016).
- Downie, R. (2013). Building Police Institutions in fragile States. Case Studies from Africa. Washington DC, USA. Centre for Strategic and International Studies.
- Encyclopaedia Britannica (2019). Police. https://www.britannica.com/topic/police
- Engel, R. S. McManus, H. D. and Isaza, G. T. (2020). Moving Beyond "Best Practice": Experiences in Police Reforms and a Call for Evidence to Reduce Officers Involved Shootings. *The ANNALS of American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 687, No. 1, pp 146-165.
- Etsebeth, T. (2018). Future Police Concept in Development of the South African Police Service. PhD Thesis. University of the Western Cape
- Fan, B. and Zhao, Y. (2017). The Moderating Effect of External Pressure on the Relationship between Internal Organizational Factors and the Quality of Open Government Data. *Government Information Quarterly*, Vol. 34, No. 3, pp 396-405. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.giq.2017.08.006.
- Faul, A. (2016). Measured Governance? Policing and Performance Management in South Africa. *Public Administration and Development*, Vol. 36, pp 157-168.
- Fledderus, J. (2016). Does Use Co-Production of Public Service Delivery Increase Satisfaction and Trust? Evidence from a Vignette Experiment. *International Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 38, No. 9, pp 642-653.
- Forkum, P. N. (2016). *Cameroon. Police Corruption and the Police Reforms Imperative*. In Hope, Sr. K. R. (Ed) Police Corruption and Police Reforms in Developing Societies. London. CRC Press.
- Franz, J. (2014). Youth Employment Initiatives in Kenya. Report of a Review Commissioned by the World Bank and Kenya Vision 2030. World Bank.
- Frinkeninder, K. Lowe, R and Millen, R. (2013). *Fostering a Police Reform Paradigm*. Peacekeeping and Stability Operations Institute (PKSOI). US Army War College Press.
- Fung, A. (2015). Putting the Public Back to Governance: The Challenges of Citizen Participation and its Future. *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 75, No. 4, pp 513-522.

- Gathogo, J. (2020). Consolidating Democracy in the Colonial Kenya (1920-1963). Challenges and Prospects. *Jumuga Journal of Education, Oral Studies, and Human Sciences*, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp 1-18.
- Gerner, J. H. Hickman, M. J. Malenga, R. W. and Maxwell, C. D. (2018). Progress towards National Estimates of Police use of Force. *PLos ONE*, Vol. 13, No. 2, pp 1-23.
- Gilling, D. (2013). Reforming Police Governance in England and Wales: Managerialisation and the Politics of Organizational Regime Change. *Policing and Society. An International Journal of Research and Policy*, Vol. 24, No. 1, pp 81-101.
- Gjelsvik, I. M. (2020). Police Reforms and Community Policing in Kenya. The Bumpy Road from Policy to Practice. *Journal of Human Security*, Vol. 16, No. 2, pp 19-30.
- Glowatski, K. Jones, N, A. and Carleton, N. (2017). Bridging Police and Communities through Relationship: The Importance of a Theoretical Foundation for Restorative Policing. *Restorative Justice*, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp 262-292.
- Grant, C. and Osanloo, A. (2014). Understanding, Selecting and Integrating a Theoretical Framework in Dissertation Research: Creating the Blueprint for your 'House'. DOI:10.5929/2014.4.2.9.
- Grubb, A. R. Brown, S. J. and Hall, P. (2018). The Emotionally Intelligent Officer? Exploring Decision Making Style and Emotional Intelligence in Hostage and Crisis Negotiators and Non-Negotiators-Trained Police Officers. *Journal of Police Criminal Psychology*, Vol. 33, pp 123-136.
- Haberman, C. P. Groff, E. R. Ratcliffe, J. H. and Sorg, E. (2016). Satisfaction with Police in Violent Crime Hot Spots: Using Community Surveys as a Guide for Selecting Hot Spots Policing Tactics. *Crime and Delinquency*, Vol. 62, No. 4, pp 525-557.
- Hail, Y. (2019). Police Reforms in Scotland: What can we learn from the Experiences of Front-Line Officers? *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, Vol. XX (X), pp 1-11. Doi: 10.1177/1461355719882441
- Hamm, J. A. Trinkner, R. and Carr, J. D. (2017). Fair Process, trust, and Cooperation: Moving towards an Integrated Framework of Police Legitimacy. *Criminal Justice Behaviour*, Vol. 44, No. 9, pp 1183-1212.
- Haskins, P. (2019). Research will shape the Future of Proactive Policing. *National Institute of Justice Journal Issue No. 281*.
- Hassan, M. S. (2015). Ensuring Effective Police Service Delivery in the Field Administration of Bangladesh to Boost Up Good Governance. The Perspective of Deputy Commissioner Office. *International Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 10, No. 4, pp 92-112.
- Hassell, K. D. and Lovell, R. D. (2014). Fidelity of Implementation: Important Considerations for Policing Scholars. Policing and Society. *An International Journal of Research and Policy*, Vol. 25, No. 5, pp 504-520.

- Hayward, K. (2015). *Conflict and Consensus*. In Wright, J. (Ed) (2015). International Encyclopedia of Social Behavioural Sciences Second Edition, Vol. 4, pp 589-593. Oxford Elsevier
- Herrington, V. and Colvin, A. (2015). Police Leadership for Complex Times. *Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice*, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp 7-16.
- Holliday, B. S. and Wagstaff, J. H. (2021). The Relationship between Citizen Oversight and Procedural Justice Measures in Policing: An Exploratory Study. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*.
- Holt, J. P. (2015). *The Social Thought of Karl Marx*. United States of America, SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Hope, K. R. (2014). Kenya's Corruption Problem: Causes and Consequences. *Commonwealth and Comparative Politics*, Vol. 52, No. 4, pp 493-512.
- Hope, K. R. (2015a). In Pursuit of Democratic Policing: An Analytical Review and Assessment of the Police Reforms in Kenya. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, Vol. 17 (2) pp 91-97. DOI: 10.1177/146135580915
- Hope, K. R. (2015b). *Police Corruption and Police Reforms in Developing Societies*. Boca Raton, US. CRC Press.
- Hope, K. R. (2016). Kenya. Police Corruption and Reforms to Control it. In Hope, Sr.K. R. (Ed) Police Corruption and Police Reforms in Developing Societies.London. CRC Press.
- Hope, K. R. (2018). Police Corruption and the Security Challenges in Kenya. *African Society* Vol. II, (1), pp 84-108.
- Hope, K. R. (2019). The Police Corruption "Crime Problem" in Kenya. *Security Journal*, Vol. 32, pp 85-101.
- Hope, K. R. (2020). Civilian Oversight for Democratic Policing and its Challenges: Overcoming Obstacles for Improved Police Accountability. *Journal of Applied Security Research*.
- Hui, D. L. (2016). Hong Kong. Police Corruption and Reforms. In Hope, Sr. K. R. (Ed) Police Corruption and Police Reforms in Developing Societies. London. CRC Press.
- Igbo, E. U. M. (2017). The Use and Abuse of Police Powers and Extra Judiciary Killings in Nigeria. *Africa Journal of Criminology and Justice Studies*, Vol. 10 (1), pp 83-99.
- Ingrams, A. Piotrowski, S. and Berliner, D. (2020). *Learning from our Mistakes: Public Management Reform and the Hope of Open Government*. Perspectives on Public Management and Governance, 2020, pp 257-272
- Ivkovic, S. K. and Sauerman, A. (2015). Threading the Thin Blue Line: Transition towards Democratic Policing and the Integrity of the South African Police Service. *Policing and Society*, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp 25-52.

- Jackson J. and Gau, J. M. (2016). Carving Up Concepts? Differentiating Between Trust and Legitimacy in Public Attitudes towards Legal Authority. In: Shockley E., Neal T., Pytlikzillig L., and Bornstein B. (Eds). *Interdisciplinary Perspectives on Trust*. Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-22261-5\_3
- Jackson, J. Asif, M, Bradford, B. and Zakar, M.Z. (2014). Corruption and Police Legitimacy in Lahore Pakistan. *Brit. Criminol.* Vol. 54, pp 1067-1088.
- Jackson, L. (2014). *The Dematerialisation of Karl Marx. Literature and Marxist Theory*. New York. Routledge. Taylor & Francis Group.
- Jackson, P. R. Easterby-Smith, M. & Thorpe, R. (2015). *Management and Business Research*. (5th Ed.) London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Jakoet-Salie, A. (2018). Co-production of Trust for Effective Local Governance: A Case of Study of Nelson Mandela Bay Municipality. Unpublished Thesis for the Degree of Doctor of Philosphiae.
- James, L. Todak, N. and Savage, J. (2020). Unnecessary Force by Police: Insights from Evolutionary Psychology. *Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice*, Vol. 14, No. 1, pp 278-291.
- Johnson, S. Forman, J. M. and Bliss, K. (2012). *Police Reforms in Latin America. Implications for US Policy*. A Report of the CSIS Americas Program. Washington, DC. Centre for Strategic and International Studies.
- Jones, T. and Lister, S. (2019). Localism and Police Governance, in England and Wales: Exploring Continuity and Change. *European Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 16, No. 5, pp 552-572.
- Kalimullah, N., Ashraf, K. and Ashaduzzman, M. (2012). New Public Management: Emergence and Principles. *Bup Journal*, Vol. 1. No. 1, pp 1-22.
- Kalolo, J. F. (2015). The Drive towards Application of Pragmatic Perspective in Educational Research: Opportunities and Challenges. *Journal of Studies in Education*, Vol. 5 (1), pp 150-171.
- Kangethe, S. N. Wakahiu, J. and Karanja, M. (2015). Assessment of the Early Childhood Development Policy Implementation in Kenya, Case Study of Ruiru District. *Journal of Education and Social Policy*, Vol. 2 (1), pp 78-89.
- Kaushik, V. and Walsh, C. (2019). Pragmatism as a Research Paradigm and its Implications for Social Work Research. *Social Sciences*, Vol. 8, pp 255-272.
- Kenya Human Rights Commission (KHRC) (2012). *Position on Police Reform:* The CSO Police Reform Working Group. Nairobi, Kenya.
- Kenya Information Guide (2015). Nairobi City-Kenya's Capital. Nairobi. KIG.
- Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2019). 2019 Kenya Population and Housing Census Volume 1: Population by County and Sub County. Nairobi. KNBS.
- Kerstholt, J., Vries, A. D., &Mente, R. (2015). Politie en burgers: Van Informatie Delen Naar Volwaardige Samenwerking (Police and Citizens: From Sharing Information to a Full-Fledged Cooperation). *TijdschriftvoorVeiligheid*, 3- Vol. 4 (14), pp 78-88.

- Kilminster, R. (2018). *Karl Marx: New Perspectives*. In Castro, J. E. et al (2018). Time, Science, and the Critique of Technological Reason. St. Antony's Series. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-71519-4 14
- Kingoo, Z. and Njoroge, J. (2019). Effects of Training on Performance in the National Police Service in Kenya: Case of General Service Unit Officers Nairobi. *American Journal of public Policy and Administration*, Vol. 4, no. 3, pp 31-47.
- Kinoti, F. (2017). There and Back Again? Police Reforms through the Prism of the Recruitment Decisions in the High Court and the Court of Appeal. *William and Mary Journal of Race, Gender and Social Justice*, Vol. 24 (1), pp 127-166.
- Kivoi, D. (2020). *Policing Reforms to Enhance Security in Kenya. Kippra Discussion Paper No. 237*, 2021. Nairobi. Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research Analysis.
- Kivoi, D. and Mbae, C. (2013). The Achilles' Heel of Police Reforms in Kenya. *Social Sciences*, Vol. 2 (16), pp 189-194.
- Koech, J. K. (2016). *Internal Factors Influencing Service Delivery within the Kenya Police Service in Kitui County, Kenya*. MBA Project. Southeastern Kenya University.
- Kombo, D. K. and Tromp, D. A. (2016). *Proposal and Thesis Writing: An Introduction*. Pauline Publications Africa, Nairobi.
- Koufteros, X. Verghese, A. and Lucianetti, L. (2014). The Effects of Performance Measurement Systems on Firms Performance. A Cross-Sectional and Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Operations Management*, Vol. 32, No. 6, pp 313-336. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jom.2014.06.003
- Kumar, R. (2019). Research Methodology. A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners 5<sup>th</sup> Edition. London. Sage Publishers.
- Kwasnicka, D. Dombrowski, S, White, M and Sniehotta, F. (2016). Theoretical Explanations for Maintenance of Beaviour Change: A Systematic Review of Behaviour Theories. *Health and Psychology Review*, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp 277-296.
- La Vigne, N. Frontaine, J. and Dwivedi, A. (2017). *How do People in High crime, Low Income Communities View the Police?* Washington DC. Urban Institute. www.urban.org/...
- Lenartowicz, T. and Johnson, J. P. (2013). The Application of Learning Theories to Improve Cross Cultural Training Programs in MNCS. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 25, No. 12, pp 1697-1719.
- Levi, M. and Stoker, L. (2000). Political Trust and Trustworthiness. *Annual Review of Political Science*, Vol. 3, pp 475-507. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.polisci.3.1.475.
- Light, M. (2013). Police Reforms in the Republic of Georgia: The Convergence of Domestic and Foreign Policy in an Anti-Corruption Drive. *Policing and Society*, Vol. 24, No. 3, pp 318-345.

- Linos, E. (2017). More than Public Service: A Field Experiment on Job Advertisements and Diversity in the Police. Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, Vol. 28, No. 1, pp 67-85.
- Loftus, J. and Price, K. (2016). Police Attitudes and Professionalism. *Administrative Issues Journal*, Vol. 6. No. 2, pp 53-73. Doi: 10.5929/2016.2.4
- Loveday, B. (2021). *The Governance of Police and Current Challenges to Police Service Delivery in England and Wales*. In Enhancing Police Service Delivery: Global Perspective and Contemporary Policy Implications. Switzerland. Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2021.
- Lowery, C. (2017). *United States Police Reforms. NFHS Policy Debate Topic Paper*. Indiana USA.
- Lowry, L. D. (2015). Bridging the Business Data Divide: Insights into Primary and Secondary Data use by Business Researchers. *IASSIST Quarterly 2015*, pp 14-25.
- Luckham, R. (2017). Whose Violence, Whose Security? Can Violence Reduction and Security Work for Poor, Excluded and Vulnerable People? *Peacebuilding*, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp 99-117, DOI: 10.1080/21647259.2016.1277009
- Lum, C. and Nagin, D. S. (2017). *Reinventing American Policing*. University of Chicago.
- Maaraouf, H. (2019). Pragmatism as the Supportive Paradigm for Mixed Research approach: Conceptualizing the Ontological and Epistemological and Axiological Stances of Pragmatism. *International Business Research*, Vol. 12 (9), pp 1-12. https://doi.org/10.5539/ibr.v12n9PI
- Macaulay, F. (2012). Cycles of Police Reforms in Latin America, Chapter 8, in Francis, D. (Ed). *Policing in America*. Palgrave Macmillan, 2012, pp 165-190.
- Mageka, A. (2015). *The Past and the Present of Policing and Police Reforms in Kenya*. The Centre for Security Governance. https://secgovcentre.org
- Maio, G. R. Haddock, G. and Verplanken, B. (2019). *The Psychology of Attitudes and Attitude Change, 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition.* Thousand Oaks, California. Sage Publications Ltd.
- Maleku, A. Kim, Y. Kagotho, N, & Lim, Y. (2021). Expanding the Transformative Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design Archetype in a Cross-Cultural Context: The Polemics of African Refugee Livelihoods in Places of Resettlement. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, Vol. 15, No. 2 pp 212-239
- Manana, R. S. Okwisa, D. M. Mutiso, I. K, Kanyoro, G. N. and Gongera, G. E. (2014). Critical Analysis of Implementation of Strategic Plans on Organizational Performance: A Case of Kenya Police Service. *European Journal of Business Management*, Vol. 6, No. 18, pp 191-212.
- Marenin, O. (2014). Styles of Policing and Economic Development in African States. *Public Administration and Development*, Vol. 34, No. 3, pp 149-161.
- Martins, N. and Ledimo, O. (2015). The Perception and Nature of Service Delivery Innovation among Government Employees: *An Exploratory Study. Journal of Governance and Regulations*, Vol. 4 (4), pp 575-580.

- Mashamaite, K. (2014). Police Service Delivery Protests in a Democratic South Africa. A Dilemma for Local Municipalities. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol. 5, No. 25.
- Mayamba, T. N. (2013). Building a Police Force "For the Good" in Democratic Republic of Congo. Questions that Still Haunt Reformers and Reform Beneficiaries. UK. The Nordic Africa Institute.
- Mbazira, C. (2017). Service Delivery Protests, Struggle for Rights and the Failure of Local Democracy in South Africa and Uganda. Parallels and Divergences. *South African Journal on Human Rights*, Vol. 29, No. 2, pp 251-275.
- Mbuba, J. M. (2018). Devolution without Devolution: Centralized Police Service Implications in a Decentralized Government in Kenya. *Africology: The Journal of Pan African Studies*, Vol. II. No. 8, pp 165-181.
- McAuliffe, P. (2020). The Conceptual-Contextual Gap between Non-Recurrence and Transformative Police Reforms in Post Conflict States. *Policing: A Journal of Policy and Practice*, paaa009.
- McCourt, W. (2013). *Models of Public Service Reforms: A Problem-Solving Approach*. Policing Research Working Paper, No. 6428. Washington DC.
- McCourt, W. (2017). Towards "Cognitive Complex" Problem-Solving: Six Models of Public Service Reforms. *Development Policy Review*, Vol. 36, No. 52, pp 0748-0768.
- McGregor, A. (2015). Politics, Police Accountability, and Public Health: Civilian Review in Newark, New Jersey. *Journal of Urban Health. Bulletin of the New York Academy of Medicine*, Vol. 93, Suppl. 1.
- Meares, T. L. and Tyler, T. R. (2014). *Justice Sotomayor and Jurisprudence of Procedural Justice*. Yale Law Journal Forum 2014.
- Meerah, A. R. and Jusoh, J. (2014). Motivations towards Recreational Sport Participation among Women Police Officers in ipd. Shah. Alam. International Conference on Emerging Trends in academic Research. *Global Illuminators*, Vol. 1, pp 167-176.
- Mendel, J. Fyfe, N. R., and den Heyer, G. (2017). Does Police Size Matter? A Review of the Evidence Regarding Restructuring Police Organizations. *Police Practice and Research. An International Journal*, Vol. 18, No. 1, pp 3-14.
- Mensah, R. O. (2018). Assessment of Training Practices in the Ghana Police Service. *Journal of Law, Policy and Globalization*, Vol. 79, pp 265-274.
- Mensah, R. O. (2019). Social Outcomes of Training Practices in the Ghana Police Service. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp 69-82.
- Miller, L. (2015). Why Cops Kill: The Psychology of Police Deadly Force Encounters. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour*, Vol. 22, May-June 2015, pp 97-111.
- Montesh, M. and Basdeo, V. (2012). The Role of the South African National Defense Force in Policing. *Scientia Militaria, South African Journal of Military Studies*, Vol. 40, Nr 1. 2012, pp 71-94.

- Moore, J. M. (2013). *The Thai Way of Countering Insurgency*. Greenville. A Muir Analytic Book.
- Mulungeta, E., and Mekuriaw, D. (2017). Community Policing: Practice, Roles, Challenges and Prospects in Crime Prevention in East Gojjam Administration Zone. *Social Criminol*, Vol. 5. No. 1. Doi: 10.4172.2375-4435.1000160
- Murimi, M. (2016 February, 19). *President Kenyatta promises Modernization of Police Services*. Citizen Digital. https://citizentv.co.ke/news
- Nairobi City County (2017). Nairobi City County Health Sector Strategic and Investment Plan 2013/2014-2018/2019 Revised 2017. Nairobi. www.nairobicity.go.ke
- Nalla, M. K. and Mamayek, C. (2013). Democratic Policing, Police Accountability and Citizen Oversight in Asia. An Exploratory Study. *Police Practice Research*, Vol. 14, No. 4, pp 117-129.
- National Police Service (2016). Revised Police Reforms Program Document 2015-2018. A strategy Framework for Implementation of Reforms in the National Police Service. Quality Policing Services for a Safer and Secure Kenya. Ministry of Interior and Coordination of National Government.
- National Police Service (2019a). *Annual Crime Report*, 2018. Nairobi. National Police Service Kenya, www.nationalpolice.go.ke
- National Police Service (2019b). *Station Strength and Establishment*. Nairobi Area. Unpublished.
- National Police Service (2020). *Background*. National Police Service (NPS). www.nationalpolice.go.ke
- Nhan, J. (2014). *Police Culture. The Encyclopedia of Criminology and Criminal Justice.*Blackwell Publishing Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118517383.wbeccj371.
- Nix, J. Wolfe, S. E. Rojek, J. and Kaminiski, R. (2015). Trust in the Police. The Influence of Procedural Justice and Perceived Collective Efficiency. *Crime and Delinquency* 2015, Vol. 61, No. 4, pp 610-640.
- Njuguna N. Michuki, G. and Wanjiru, R. (2013). *Police Reforms in Kenya: Perception and Expectations of Key Stakeholders*. IPAR Discussion Paper No.116/2013, Nairobi.
- Njuguna, E. Ndungú, J. and Achilles, K. (2015). *Institutionalizing Police Reforms in Kenya:* Lessons from 2012-2015. Saferworld Briefing Report.
- Nowell, L. (2015). Pragmatism and Integrated Knowledge Translation. Exploring the Compatibilities and Tensions. *Nursing Open*, Vol. 2 (3), pp 141-148
- Ntuli, M. and Kwenda, P. (2019). *Gender Gaps in Employment and Wages in Sub Saharan Africa: A Review:* In Konte, M. and Tirivayi, N. (Eds). Women and Sustainable Human Development. Gender Development and Social Change. Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

- Nyambura, M. (2012). *An Appraisal of Police Reform under the New Legal Framework in Kenya: Towards an Effective Policing Policy* (Unpublished LLM Thesis). University of Nairobi: Kenya.
- Ochieng, D. O. and Otuya, P. A. (2019). Police Perception, Attitudes and Preparedness in Managing Public Assemblies. In Ruteere, M., and Mutai, P. (Eds), *Police Management of Public Assemblies in Kenya* (pp 6-21). Nairobi, Kenya. Centre for Human Rights and Policy Studies (CHRIPS). www.chrips.or.ke
- Odini, S. (2016). Accessibility and Utilization of Health Information by rural Women in Vihiga County, Kenya.
- Oduor, M. (2015). The Status of International Law in Kenya. *Africa Nazarene University Law Journal*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp 97-125.
- Ogada, M. (2016). Deepening Police Reforms in Kenya Post National Accord. Policy Implications. Nairobi. Centre for Human Rights and Policy Studies.
- Okabe, R. (2013). Police Innovation Paradigm in the United States and Japan. *Police Practice Research. An International Journal*, Vol. 15, No. 3, pp 192-206.
- Olowe, T. S. Nkwuagba, J. A. and Ayodele, A. A. (2018). Service Compatibility (Servicom) and Service Delivery in the Nigerian Police Force. *British Journal of Marketing Studies*, Vol. 6, No. 3, pp 1-32.
- Olutola, A. A. and Bello, P. O. (2016). An Exploration of the Factors Associated with Public Trust in the South African Police Service. *International Journal of Economics and Finance Studies*, Vol. 8, No. 2, 2016.
- Omanya, L. (2015). A Decade of Police Reforms and the Future of Policing in Kenya. The Usalama Reforms Forum. Joint Response to the CIC on the National Police Service Proposed Regulations, pp-1-8. Saferworld.
- Ombati, C. (2013 November 08). 1,200 Vehicles leased to National Police Service to Boost Service Delivery. Standard Digital. https://www.standardmedia.co.ke
- Onuonga, S. M. (2014). Gender Inequalities, financial Development and Economic Growth in Kenya. *African Journal of Education, Science and Technology*, Vol. 1, No. 4, pp 208-216.
- OSCE (2013). Police Reforms within the Framework of Criminal Justice System Reforms. Vienna, Austria. Organization of Security and Cooperation in Europe.
- Osse, A. (2014). Police Reforms in Kenya: A Process of "Meddling Through." *Policing and Society. An International Journal of Research and Policy* Vol. 26 (8), pp 1-18. https://DOI:org/10.1080/10439463.2014.993631.
- Osse, A. (2016). Police Reforms in Kenya. A Process of Meddling Through. *Policing and Society. An International Journal of Research and Policy*, Vol. 26, no. 8, pp 907-924.
- Osse, A. (2017). Set Up to Fail? Police Reforms in Kenya. The Elephant. www.theelephant.info/...

- Otiso, W., and Kaguta, R. (2016). *Kenya at Fifty: State Policing Reforms, Politics, and Law, 1963-2013*. In Kithinji, M., Koster, M., Rotich, J., (Eds). Kenya After 50. African Histories and Modernities. Palgrave Macmillan, New York. https://doi:org/10:1057/9781137558305\_10 pp 221-244.
- Paliszkiewics, J. Goluchowski, J. and Koohang, A. (2015). Leadership, Trust, and Knowledge Management in Relation to Organizational Performance: Developing an Instrument. *Online Journal of Applied Knowledge Management*, Vol. 3, No. 2, pp 19-35.
- Pananiclolaou, G. and Rigakos, G. (2014). *Democratizing the Police in Europe with Particular Emphasis on Greece*. Transform European Network. NicosPoulantzas Institute.
- Pandey, V. (2014). Community Policing for Conflict Resolution and Community Resilience. *International Journal of Social Work and Human Services Practices*, Vol. 2 (6), pp 228-233.
- Paternoster, R. Jaynes, C. and Wilson, T. (2017). Rational Choice Theory and Interest in the Fortune of Others. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 1-2. DOI: 10.1177/002427817707240.
- Payne, B. K. Oliver, W. M. and Marrion, N. E. (2016). *Introduction to Criminal Justice*. *A Balanced Approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage Publications.
- Pino, N. and Wiatrowski, M. (2016). *Democratic Policing in Transitional and Developing Countries*. New York. Routledge, Taylor, and Francis.
- Prenzler, T. and den Hayer, G. (Eds) (2016). *Civilian Oversight of Police. Advancing Accountability in Law Enforcement*. CRC Press.
- PRIC (2012). *The Police Reform Program 2011-2013*. Nairobi. The Police Reform Implementation Committee.
- Pryce, D. K. Johnson, D. and Maguire, E. (2016). Procedural Justice Obligation to Obey, and Cooperation with Police in a Sample of Ghanaian Immigrants. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*, Vol. 44, No. 5, pp 733-755.
- Pryce, D. K. Wilson, G. and Fuller, K. (2019). Predictors of Satisfaction with Kenya's Police and Kenya's Criminal Justice System: Results from a Sample of Kenyan College Students. *The Police Journal: Theory, practice and Principles*, Vol. 92, No. 4, pp 296—315.
- Przeszlowski, K., and Crichlow, V. (2018). An Exploratory Assessment of Community Oriented Policing Implementation, Social Discrimination and Crime in America. *Soc.Sci* (2018), Vol. 7. No. 3 pp 35. https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci7030035
- Reiner, J. (2016). *Electrocacy with Accountabilities? The Novel Governance Model of Police and Crime Commissioners*. In S. Lister and M. Rowe (Eds). Accountability of Policing, Abingdon: Routledge pp 111-131.
- Ren, L. Zhao, J. and He, N. P. (2019). Broken Windows Theory and Citizen Engagement in crime Prevention. *Justice Quarterly*, Vol. 36, No. 1, pp 1-30.
- Republic of Kenya (2010). Constitution of Kenya 2010. Nairobi. Republic of Kenya.

- Republic of Kenya (2011a). *National Police Service Act, 2011*. Nairobi. Republic of Kenya.
- Republic of Kenya (2011b). *The National Police Service Commission Act, 2011*. Nairobi. Republic of Kenya.
- Republic of Kenya (2011c). *Independent Policing Oversight Authority Act, 2011*. Nairobi. Republic of Kenya.
- Republic of Kenya (2014). *The National Police Service (Amendment) Act, 2014.* Nairobi. Republic of Kenya.
- Riccucci, N. M and van Ryzin, G. G. (2017). Representative Bureaucracy. A Lever to Enhance Social Equity, co-Production, and Democracy. *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 77, No. 1, pp 21-30.
- Robinson, M. (2015). From Old Public Administration to the New Public Service. Implications for Public Sector Reforms in Developing Countries. UNDP Global Centre for Public Service Excellence.
- Ronald, Y. (2015). Accountability of Non-Governmental Organizations: An Exploratory Study. Mumbai, TISS
- Rossler, M. T. and Terrill, W. (2012). Police Responsiveness to Service-Related Requests. *Policy Quarterly*, 15 (1), pp 3-24. DOI.10.1177/1098611111432679
- Saddle, S. (2012). *Obstacles to Reform*. In Abbas, H. (Ed). Stabilizing Pakistan through Police Reform. Asia Society. Report by the Independent Commission on Pakistan Police Reform.
- Sager, F. Thomann, E. Zollinger, C. van der Heiden, N. and Marrot, C. (2014). Street-Level Bureaucratic and New Modes of Governance. How Conflicting Roles affect the Implementation of the Swiss Ordinance on Veterinary Medicinal Products. *Police Management Review*, Vol. 16, pp 1-22.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2012). *Research Methods for Business Students*. Pearson Education Ltd., Harlow.
- Schwartz, M. (2015). Policing and (in) Security in Fragile and Conflict-Affected Settings. A Review of Perspectives on Policing in Sub Saharan Africa. Knowledge Platform Security and Rule of Law. Hague, Netherlands. Global Centre on Cooperative Security.
- Schwartz, R. (2020). Conjuring the Criminal States: The "State-Idea" in Post-Conflict Reconstruction and International States Building. *Journal of Global Security Studies*, Vol. 6, No. 2, ogaa031.
- Security Research Information Center (SRIC) (2012). Nairobi Region Annual Crime Observatory Report 2011/2012. Nairobi, Kenya.
- Semukhina, O. and Reynolds, M. K. (2014). Russian Citizen's Perceptions of Corruption and Trust of the Police. *Policing Society*, Vol. 24, No. 2, pp 158-188.

- Sesay, A. (2014). Africa Governance System in the Pre- and Post-Independence Periods. Enduring Lessons and Opportunities for Youth in Africa. South Africa. The Mandela Institute for Development Studies (MINDS).
- Shayode, A. (2018). Public Trust in Nigerian Police: A Test of Police Accountability Effects. *Journal of Social Science Studies*, Vol. 5 (2), pp 1-16.
- Sigsworth, R. (2020). Speak Up Using social media to Promote Police Accountability in Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda. *ISS East Africa Report*, Vol. 2019, No. 31.
- Simbiri-Jaoko, F. (2016). Participation and Inclusion in Police Reforms in Kenya: Opportunities and Challenges since 2008. Safer world. www.saferworld.org.uk
- Skilling, L. (2016). Community Policing in Kenya. The Application of Democratic Policing Principles. *The Police Journal: Theory, Practice and Principles*, Vol. 89, No. 1, pp 3-17.
- Sklansky, D. A. (2013). *The Promise and the Perils of Police Professionalism*. In Brown, J. (Ed) The Future of Policing, 1<sup>st</sup> edition. Routledge.
- Smith, B. W. and Holmes, M. (2014). Police Use of Excessive Force in Minority Communities: A Test of the Minority Threat, Place and Community Accountability Hypotheses. *Social Problems*, Vol. 61, No. 1, pp 83-104.
- Smith, P. H. (2012). *Democracy in Latin America: Political Change in Comparative Perspective*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Stanislas, P. (2021). *Institutional Challenges Affecting the Royal Saint Lucia Police Force and Inhibiting Effective Service Delivery*. In Albrecht, J., and den Heyer, G. (Eds). Enhancing Police Service Delivery: Global Perspective and Contemporary Policy Implications. Switzerland. Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2021.
- Staubli, S. (2017). Trusting the Police. Comparisons across Eastern and Western Europe. Cultural and Social Practices. Swiss National Science Foundation Germany.
- Stelkia, K. (2020). An Exploratory Study on Police Oversight in British Columbia: The Dynamics of Accountability for Royal Canadian Mounted Police and Municipal Police. Sage Open. January-March 2-2-: 1-10.
- Sun, I. Jou, S. Hou, C. and Chang, Y. (2013). Public Trust in the Police in Taiwan: A Test of Instrumental Expressive Models. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 47 (1), pp 123-140.
- Swedish Ministry of Justice (2012). *A Unified Swedish Police Service*. Summary in English. Stockholm. Ministry of Justice Police Organization Committee.
- Tankebe, J. (2013). The Making of "Democracy's Champions": Understanding Police Support for Democracy in Ghana. *Criminology and Criminal Justice*, Vol. 14, no. 1, pp 25-43.
- Tankebe, J. and Ariel, B. (2016). *Cynicism towards Change: The Case of Body-Worn Cameras Among Police Officers (October 10, 2016)*. Hebrew University of Jerusalem Legal Research Paper No. 16-42, <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2850743">http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2850743</a>

- Thompson, J. and Payne, B. (2019). *Towards Professionalism and Police Legitimacy?*An Examination of the Education and Training Reforms of the Police in the Republic of Ireland.
- Tong, S., and Hallenberg, K.M. (2017). Education and the Police Professionalisation Agenda: A Perspective from England and Wales. In: Rogers, C. and Frevel, B., eds. *Higher Police Education: An International View*. Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 17-34.
- Tran, K. (2017). How Japan's Culture Norms Affects Policing: A Side-By-Side Comparison with the United States, Themes: *Research Journal of Justice and Forensic*, Vol. 5, No. 3.
- Transparency International Kenya (2016). Kenya Police Service Satisfaction Survey and Needs Analysis Report 2016. A Focus on Kisumu and Nairobi Counties. Nairobi. Transparency International Kenya.
- Tummers, L. Bekkers, V. Vink, E. and Musheno, M. (2015). Coping During Public Service Delivery: A Comparative and Systematic Review of the Literature. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, Vol. 25, No. 4, pp 1099-1126.
- Tyler, T. R. (2016). Trust in the Twenty-First Century *Interdisciplinary Perspectives* on *Trust: Towards Theoretical and Methodological Integration*. 203-215. DOI: 10.1007/978-3-319-22261-5 12
- Tyler, T. R. and Jackson, J. (2014). Popular Legitimacy and the Exercise of Legal Authority: Motivating Compliance, Cooperation, and Engagement. *Psychology Public Policy, and Law*, Vol. 20, No. 1, pp 78-95.
- Ungar, M. (2012). *Police Reform and Organized Crime Collaboration in Latin America*. Reinventing Peace. World Peace Foundation. https://sites.tufts.edu/reinventingpeace
- UNODC (2013). *UNODC Launches Police Reforms Project in Kenya*. Vienna Austria. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime.
- US Commission on Civil Rights (2018). *Police Use of Force: An Examination of Modern Policing Practices.* Briefing Report. Washington DC. www.usccr.gov.
- US Department of Justice (2019). Law Enforcement Best Practices: Lessons Learned from the Field. Washington DC. Office of Community Oriented Policing Services.
- Van Craen, M. and Skogan, W. G. (2017). Officers Support for Use of Force Policy: The Role of Fair Supervision. *Criminal Justice Behaviour*, Vol. 44, No. 6, pp 843-861.
- Van der Spuy, E. (2018). *Policing Insurgency: Remembering Apartheid*. In Alemika, E. E. O., Ruteere, M. and Howell, S. (Eds). Policing Reforms in Africa. Moving Towards a Right Based Approach in a Climate of Terrorism, Insurgency and Serious Violent Crimes. African Policing Civilian Oversight Forum (APCOF).
- Van Stapele, N. and Diphoorn, T. (2020). What is Community Policing? Divergent Agendas, Practices, and Experiences of Transforming the Police in Kenya. *Policing* Vol. 0 (0), pp1-13. Doi:10.1093/police/paa004.

- Vanacker, T. Collewaert, V. and Paeleman, I. (2013). The Relationship between Slack Resources and the Performance of Entrepreneurial Firms: The Role of Venture Capital and Angel Investors. *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 50, 6 September 2013.
- Verbeeten, F. H. and Spekle, R. F. (2015). Management Control, Results-Oriented Culture and Public Sector Performance: Empirical Evidence on New Public Management. Organization Studies, Vol. 36, No. 7. Pp 953-978.
- Walker, S. (2016). The Community Voice in Policing: Old Issues, New Evidence. *Criminal Justice Review*, Vol. 27, No. 5, pp 537-552.
- Wan, Z. (2019). Participant Selection and Access in Case Study Research: In Challenges and Opportunities in Qualitative Research. Singapore: Springe.
- Webler, T. and Tuler, S. (2018). Four Decades of Public Participation in Risk Decision Making. *Risk Analysis*, Vol. 41, No. 3 Special Issue, pp 503-518.
- Weitzer, R. (2014). *Police Race Relations*. In Reisig, M. D. and Kane, R. J. (Eds) (2014). Police and Policing. The Oxford Handbook in Criminology and Criminal Justice. New York. Oxford University Press.
- Wight, P. (2017). South Sudan and the Four Dimensions of Power-Sharing: Political, Territorial, Military, and Economic. African Conflict and Peacebuilding Review, Vol. 7, No. 2 (Fall 2017), pp. 1-35 Published by: Indiana University Press
- Willis, J. (2014). *A Recent History of the Police*. In Reisig, M. D and Kane, R. j. (Eds). (2014). The Oxford Handbook of Police and Policing. Oxford University Press.
- Willis, J. and Mastrofski, S. (2018). Improving Policing by Integrating Craft and Science: What can Patrol Officers Teach Us About Good Police work. *Policing and Society. An International Journal of Research and Policy*, Vol. 28, No. 1, pp 27-44.
- Wilson, J. Weiss, A. and Grammich, C. (2012). *Public Safety Consolidation: What is it? Be on the Lookout (BOLO)*. Washington, DC. Community Oriented Policing Services.
- Wong, K. (2012). *Police Reforms in China*. Advances in Police Theory and Practice. Boca Raton, CRC Press.
- Wu, X. Liu, Q. Li, Q. Tian, Z. and Tan, H. (2019). Health-Related Quality of Life and its Determinants among Criminal Police Officers. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, Vol. 161398.
- Wu, Y, Sun, I. Chang, C and HSU, K. (2017). Procedural Justice Received and Given: Supervisory Treatment, Emotional States and Behavioral Compliance Among Taiwanese' Police Officers. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*, Vol. 44, No. 7. Pp 963-982.
- Wu, Y. (2013). Race/Ethnicity and Perceptions of the Police: A Comparison of White, Black, Asian and Hispanic Americans. *Policing and Society. An International Journal of Research and Policy*, Vol. 24, No. 2, pp 135-157.

- Zagrodzki, M. (2017). Police Reforms in France: 40 Years of Searching for a Model. *Securitologia*, No. 2, 2017.
- Zavala, E. (2013). Testing the Link between Child Maltreatment and Family Violence among Police Officers. *Crime and Delinquency*, Vol. 39, No. 3, pp 468-483.
- Zhang, Y. and Lovrich, N. (2016). Portrait of Justice: The Spirit of Chinese Law as Depicted in Historical and Contemporary Drama. *Global Media and China*, Vol. 1, No. 4, pp 372-389.

#### **APPENDICES**

#### **Appendix 1: Questionnaire for Police Officers**



#### **MOI UNIVERSITY**

EFFECTS OF POLICE REFORMS AND POLICE OFFICERS DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE NATIONAL POLICE SERVICE IN NAIROBI COUNTY, KENYA Dear Respondent,

I am a doctorate student at Moi University and this questionnaire is to aid in collecting data for a study on effects of police reforms and police officers' demographic profile on service delivery in the National Police Service in Nairobi County, Kenya. You have been identified as one of the respondents in the study, and if you consent to participate, you are kindly requested to be sincere with your answers. Please note that any information you will give will be treated with utmost confidentiality and privacy and will only be used for academic purposes. Therefore, you are not required to put down your name in the questionnaire or obliged to write anything that can identify you. Additionally, your participation is voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw from the survey any time before the end. Please sign your consent below.

Signature	Date

#### Part A: Demographic Information

This part contains a few questions about yourself. The questions will not be used to identify the officers that complete the survey and responses will only be provided in grouped form. It is necessary that we know the background characteristics of the survey respondents. All information will be held in strictest confidence.

Coding Categories (*Please tick* ( $\sqrt{}$ ) as appropriate)

1.	Gender	Male [	1 Female [	

2.	Age Category 25 Years and Below [ ] 26-35 Years [ ] 36-45 Years [ ] 46-55
	Years [ ] 55 Years and Above [ ]
3.	Department of Operation Traffic [ ] Crime [ ] General Duties [ ]
4.	Highest Level of Education
	Kenya Junior Secondary Education (KJSE) [ ] East Africa Certificate of
	Education (EACE)/Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) [ ] Kenya
	African Certificate of Education (KACE) [ ] Certificate Level [ ] Diploma Level
	[] Bachelor Level [] Masters Level [] others (specify
5.	Rank in the Police
	Senior Superintendent [ ] Superintendent [ ] Assistant Superintendent [ ] Chief
	Inspector [ ] Inspector [ ] Senior Sergeant [ ] Sergeant [ ] Corporal [ ]
	Constable [ ]
6.	Length of Service 1-5 Years [ ] 6-10 Years [ ] 11-15 Years [ ] 16-20 Years [
	] 20 Years and Above [ ]

# **Part B: Police Facilitation**

7. Please tick  $(\sqrt{})$  appropriately how you feel the area has been addressed through police reforms

	Very Well	Well	Moderate	Poor	Very Poor
Police mobility has improved with leasing of vehicles/motorbikes.					
Officer Accommodation (an appropriate building in a favourable building, location, established different sections and departments)					
Feedback mechanisms has improved with reforms					

Physical Infrastructure that supports police operations at station level					
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
The police service reforms have improved professionalism among the police officers  There are notable changes in the NPS reforms efforts that have facilitated the					
service delivery					
There is an increase in the number of solved crimes					
Crime prevention efforts are bearing fruits					
Police managers have the capability in managing change process.					

# **Legal Framework**

8. Please tick  $(\sqrt{})$  appropriately how you feel the area has been addressed through police reforms

	Very Well	Well	Moderate	Poor	Very Poor
Police officers vetting					
as part of the reforms					
The foundational					
components and					
critical issues					
regarding security					
Roles and					
responsibilities of key					
structures					
	Strongly	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly
	Disagree				Agree
The new legislation in					
policing enhances					
service delivery					

#### **Institutional Framework and Professionalism**

9. Please tick  $(\ensuremath{\sqrt{}})$  appropriately how you feel the area has been addressed through police reforms

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
There is prompt response by police to reported crimes					
Sufficient time has been spent explaining police reforms in my department					
	Very Well	Well	Moderate	Poor	Very Poor
Mission of the National Police Service					

#### **Part C: Public Trust**

10. Please tick ( $\sqrt{\ }$ ) appropriately how you feel the area has been addressed through police reforms

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
There is significant	Disagree				rigite
decrease in complaints					
against police officers					
Members of the public					
have trust in the police					
service and can now					
report cases of crime to					
the police without fear					
Lack of public trust					
towards the police has					
affected the					
implementation of					
police reforms					
Reforms can improve					
relationship between					
the community and the					
police					
Accessibility of police					
officers at the station					
has been enhanced					

Human rights abuse is still prevalent in the			
police			
There is reduced			
corruption in the police			
as officers these days do			
not demand favours			
before service delivery			

# Part D: Police Attitude and Responsiveness

11. Please tick  $(\ \ )$  appropriately how you feel the area has been addressed through police reforms

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
Police reforms are all					8 **
encompassing/ it has					
included all areas that					
need to be addressed					
Notable reform					
initiatives have been					
implemented in the					
past one year in this					
station or service					
National police					
service is the best					
place to work because					
of the police reforms					
The change from					
Kenya police force to					
National police					
service has resulted in					
an improvement on					
the image of policing					
Police officers are					
motivated,					
encouraged,					
energized, and					
committed to police					
service mission and					
vision.					
Police reforms has					
increased the morale					
of police officers					
	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Unsure	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
Level of satisfaction					
with police reforms					

	THANK YOU
Please check to en	sure that you have responded to all questions
•••••	
account to improve s	ervice delivery in the Police Service?
12. Suggest other measu	res not included in this instrument that can be taken into

#### **Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Members of the Public**



#### **MOI UNIVERSITY**

EFFECTS OF POLICE REFORMS AND POLICE OFFICERS' DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE NATIONAL POLICE SERVICE IN NAIROBI COUNTY, KENYA Dear Respondent,

I am a doctorate student at Moi University and this questionnaire is to aid in collecting data for a study on effects of police reforms and police officers' demographic profile on service delivery in the National Police Service in Nairobi County, Kenya. You have been identified as one of the respondents in the study, and if you consent to participate, you are kindly requested to be sincere with your answers. Please note that any information you will give will be treated with utmost confidentiality and privacy and will only be used for academic purposes. Therefore, you are not required to put down your name in the questionnaire or obliged to write anything that can identify you. Additionally, your participation is voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw from the survey any time before the end. Please sign your consent below.

Signature	Date
Part A: Demographic Information	
This part contains a few questions about yourself.	The questions will not be used to
identify you when you complete the survey as res	sponses will only be provided in
grouped form. It is necessary that we know the backg	round characteristics of the survey
respondents. All information will be held in strictest	confidence.
Coding Categories (Please tick ( $$ ) as appropriate)	
1. Gender Male [ ] Female [ ]	

2. Age Category 25 Years and Below [ ] 26-35 Years [ ] 36-45 Years [ ] 46-55

Years [ ] 55 Years and Above [ ]

3.	Highest 1	Level o	of Educ	cation
$\sim$ .			<i></i>	cation

Certificate of Primary Education (CPE)/Kenya Certificate of Primary Education
(KCPE) [ ] East Africa Certificate of Education (EACE)/Kenya Certificate of
Secondary Education (KCSE) [ ] Certificate Level [ ] Diploma Level [ ] Bachelor
Level [ ] Masters Level [ ] others (specify

#### **Part B: Police Facilitation**

4. Please tick  $(\sqrt{})$  appropriately how you feel the area has been addressed through police reforms

	Very Well	Well	Moderate	Poor	Very Poor
Police mobility has improved with leasing of vehicles/motorbikes.					
Officer Accommodation (an appropriate building in a favourable building, location, established different sections and departments)  Feedback mechanisms has improved with reforms					
Physical Infrastructure that supports police operations at station level					
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
The police are now more professional than before the reforms					
Police are more professional in handling members of the public during riots					
There are notable changes in the NPS reforms efforts that have facilitated the service delivery					
There is prompt response by police to reported crimes					

There is an increased			
efficiency in addressing			
crimes			
Crime prevention efforts			
are bearing fruits			
Police managers have the			
capability in managing			
change process.			
Rates of crime remains high			
in the County			

# **Legal Framework**

5. Please tick  $(\sqrt{\ })$  appropriately how you feel the area has been addressed through police reforms

	Very Well	Well	Moderate	Poor	Very Poor
Police officers vetting					
as part of the reforms					
Mission of the					
National Police					
Service					
The foundational					
components and					
critical issues					
regarding security					
Roles and					
responsibilities of key					
structures					
	Strongly	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly
	Disagree				Agree
The new legislation in					
policing enhances					
service delivery					

#### **Institutional Framework and Professionalism**

6. Please tick  $(\sqrt{\ })$  appropriately how you feel the area has been addressed through police reforms

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
There is prompt response by police to reported crimes					
The police are more reliable these days and one can now count on the police to be of assistance after the reforms					
	Very Well	Well	Mode rate	Poor	Very Poor
Mission of the National Police Service					

#### **Part C: Public Trust**

7. Please tick  $(\ \ )$  appropriately how you feel the area has been addressed through police reforms

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
Lack of public trust towards the police has affected the implementation of police reforms					
There exists a strong community partnership in crime prevention at the station level					

Accessibility of police officers at the station has been enhanced					
Human rights abuses are still prevalent in the police					
There is reduced corruption in the police as officers these days do not demand favours before service delivery					
	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Unsure	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
Level of confidence with police reforms to ensure adequate public safety					

# Part D: Police Attitude and Responsiveness

8. Please tick  $(\sqrt{\ })$  appropriately how you feel the area has been addressed through police reforms

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree
Police reforms are all					8
encompassing/ it has					
included all areas that					
need to be addressed					
Notable reform					
initiatives have been					
implemented in the					
past one year in this					
station or service					
National police service					
is the best place to					
work because of the					
police reforms					
The change from					
Kenya police force to					
National police service					
has resulted in an					
improvement on the					
image of policing					

Police officers are motivated, encouraged, energized, and committed to police service mission and			
vision.  Police reforms has increased the morale of police officers			
After the reforms there is an improvement in the relationship between community and the police			
The members of the public can now cordially interact with police officers			
You can always find out information from the officers without many efforts and demands			

9.	Suggest other measures not included in this instrument that can be taken into account
	to improve service delivery in the Police Service?

Please check to ensure that you have responded to all questions THANK YOU

#### **Appendix 3: Key Informants Interview Guide**

#### INTRODUCTION

Dear participant,

This interview is meant to collect data for a PhD Degree thesis being undertaken at Moi University. You have been selected as one of the respondents, and if you consent to participate, you are kindly requested to be sincere with your answers. Please note that any information you will give will be treated with utmost confidentiality and privacy and will only be used for academic purposes. Additionally, your participation is voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw from the survey any time before the end. Thank you.

#### **INTERVIEW QUESTIONS**

- 1. In what ways have your organization been involved in police reforms?
- 2. What do you think are the strongest drivers for police reform in the police service?
- 3. How has your organization been involved in improving public confidence with the police?
- 4. Comment on community policing in Kenya as part of the police reforms package.
- 5. How would you describe the state of security in Kenya and specifically in Nairobi?
- 6. How do you relate the security situation in Nairobi County with police reforms?
- 7. What is your perception of corruption rate within the police service?
- 13. Comment on the rate of complaints against human rights violation by the police.

#### **Appendix 4: Research Authorization Letter**



#### NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Talliano - 234-24-2210471. Sparlem, na (mrth. 221042). Sparlem, na (mrth. 221042). Simpl. nppppracosh go Ari Status - www. record go Ari Sparlem, na (mrth. 221042). Educate Mightenson W.C. Black Mid-Strate Com-NaA (INCIDENT AUG SCOVID)

no - NACOSTI/P/16/63469/11883

6th July, 2016

Humphrey Young Ogola Moi University P.O. Box 3900-00100 ELDORET.

#### RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "Public sector reform and service delivery through public trust and Police officers' attitudes: A case of the Kenya Police Service," I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in Nairobi County for the period ending 5th July, 2017.

You are advised to report to the Inspector General, National Police Service, the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Natrobi County before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf of the research report/thesis to our office.

BONIFACE WANYAMA FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO

Copy to:

The Inspector General National Police service

SAISORI SERVICE DE SER

The County Commissioner DUSTY COMMISSIONER Nairobi County. P. O. See Scince 60100, Hist 722, 541556

The County Director of Education Nairobi County.



#### **Appendix 5: Research Permit**

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:

MR. HUMPHREY YOUNG OGOLA

of MOI UNIVERSITY, 15185-400

Nairobi,has been permitted to conduct
research in Nairobi County

on the topic: PUBLIC SECTOR REFORM
AND SERVICE DELIVERY THROUGH
PUBLIC TRUST AND POLICE OFFICERS
ATTITUDES:A CASE OF THE KENYA
POLICE SERVICE.

for the period ending: 5th July,2017

Applicant's Signature Permit No : NACOSTI/P/16/63469/11883 Date Of Issue : 6th July,2016 Fee Recieved :Ksh 2000



National Commission for Science,

# **Appendix 6: Statistical Tests**

Cross Tabulation Gender and Department

#### **Department \* Respondents Gender Cross tabulation**

Count

Count								
		Respo	ndents					
		Ger						
	Male Female							
Department	Traffic	28	10	38				
	Crime	77	5	82				
	General Duties	84	10	94				
Total		189	25	214				

**Chi-Square Tests** 

			Asymptotic Significance (2-
	Value	df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.465 <sup>a</sup>	2	.005
Likelihood Ratio	9.140	2	.010
Linear-by-Linear	3.518	1	.061
Association			
N of Valid Cases	214		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.44.

			Asymptotic		
			Standard	Approximate	Approximate
		Value	Error <sup>a</sup>	$T^b$	Significance
Nominal by	Phi	.221			.005
Nominal	Cramer's V	.221			.005
Interval by	Pearson's R	129	.081	-1.887	.061°
Interval					
Ordinal by	Spearman	107	.079	-1.568	.118 <sup>c</sup>
Ordinal	Correlation				
N of Valid Cases		214			

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.
- c. Based on normal approximation.

#### Cross Tabulation Age and Department

# **Department \* Respondents age in years Cross tabulation**

Count

Count		Respondents age in years							
		25 Years and Below	26-35 Years	36-45 Years	46-55 Years	55 Years and Above			
Departme nt	Traffic	1	35	0	2	0			
	Crime	1	44	35	1	1			
	General Duties	0	57	15	20	2			
Total		2	136	50	23	3			

**Chi-Square Tests** 

	_		Asymptotic Significance (2-
	Value	df	sided)
Pearson Chi-	51.159 <sup>a</sup>	8	.000
Square			
Likelihood Ratio	60.580	8	.000
Linear-by-Linear	14.409	1	.000
Association			
N of Valid Cases	214		

a. 7 cells (46.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .36.

#### **Symmetric Measures**

			Asymptotic		
			Standard	Approximate	Approximate
		Value	Error <sup>a</sup>	$T^b$	Significance
Nominal	Phi	.489			.000
by	Cramer's V	.346			.000
Nominal					
Interval by	Pearson's R	.260	.059	3.922	.000°
Interval					
Ordinal by	Spearman	.221	.063	3.306	.001°
Ordinal	Correlation				
N of Valid	Cases	214			

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.
- c. Based on normal approximation.

Cross Tabulation Highest Level of Education and Department

#### **Department \* Highest Level of Educational Cross tabulation**

Count

Count	Highest Level of Educational								
		(K.J.S.E)	(E.A.E.C)/ (K.C.S.E)	KACE	Certificate Level	Diploma Level	Bachelor's Degree	Masters Level	
Department	Traffic	0	2	1	15	19	1	0	
	Crime	8	3	0	19	50	2	0	*
	General Duties	28	9	0	29	24	3	1	•
Total		36	14	1	63	93	6	1	214

# **Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	42.252 <sup>a</sup>	12	.000
Likelihood Ratio	47.057	12	.000
Linear-by-Linear	21.622	1	.000
Association			
N of Valid Cases	214		

a. 10 cells (47.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .18.

			Asymptotic		
			Standard	Approximate	Approximate
		Value	Errora	$T^b$	Significance
Nominal by	Phi	.444			.000
Nominal	Cramer's V	.314			.000
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	319	.054	-4.894	.000°
Ordinal by	Spearman	305	.062	-4.669	.000°
Ordinal	Correlation				
N of Valid Case	es	214			

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.
- c. Based on normal approximation.

# Cross Tabulation Highest Level of Education and Gender **Highest Level of Educational \* Respondents Gender Cross tabulation**

#### Count

		_	ender of spondents	
		Male	Female	Total
Highest	C.P.E/K.C.P. E	7	1	8
educational	E.A.E.C)/K.C.S. E	9	6	15
level	Certificate Level	8	2	10
	Diploma Level	14	8	22
	Bachelor's	24	19	43
	Degree			
	Masters Level	3	4	7
Total		65	40	105

#### **Chi-Square Tests**

			Asymptotic Significance (2-
	Value	df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.415 <sup>a</sup>	5	.367
Likelihood Ratio	5.894	5	.317
Linear-by-Linear	2.834	1	.092
Association			
N of Valid Cases	105		

a. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.67.

		-	Asymptotic		
			Standard	Approxi	Approximate
		Value	Error <sup>a</sup>	mate T <sup>b</sup>	Significance
Nominal by	Phi	.227			.367
Nominal	Cramer's V	.227			.367
Interval by	Pearson's R	.165	.089	1.699	.092°
Interval					
Ordinal by	Spearman	.179	.094	1.843	.068 <sup>c</sup>
Ordinal	Correlation				
N of Valid Cases		105			

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.
- c. Based on normal approximation.

#### Cross Tabulation Rank and Department

#### Rank in the Police Service \* Department Cross tabulation

#### Count

000110	Department						
		Traffic	Crime	General Duties	Total		
Rank in	Superintendent	0	0	1	1		
the	Assistant Superintendent	0	15	4	19		
police	Chief inspector	2	16	19	37		
service	Inspector	1	10	9	20		
	Senior sergeant	0	28	14	42		
	Sergeant	7	0	7	14		
	Corporal	26	11	32	69		
	Constable	2	2	8	12		
Total		38	82	94	214		

#### **Chi-Square Tests**

			Asymptotic Significance (2	
	Value	df	sided)	
Pearson Chi-Square	79.970 <sup>a</sup>	14	.000	
Likelihood Ratio	91.710	14	.000	
Linear-by-Linear	3.257	1	.071	
Association				
N of Valid Cases	214			

a. 8 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .18.

			Asymptotic				
			Standard	Approximate	Approximate		
		Value	Error <sup>a</sup>	$T^b$	Significance		
Nominal by	Phi	.611			.000		
Nominal	Cramer's V	.432			.000		
Interval by	Pearson's R	124	.065	-1.815	.071°		
Interval							
Ordinal by	Spearman	070	.071	-1.018	.310°		
Ordinal	Correlation						
N of Valid Cases		214					

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.
- c. Based on normal approximation.

# Cross Tabulation Length of Service and Department

# **Length of Service \* Department Cross tabulation**

#### Count

		Department			
		Traff			
		ic	Crime	General Duties	Total
Period of	1-5 Years	12	19	16	47
work in the	6-10 Years	18	28	41	87
service	11-15 Years	6	26	14	46
	16-20 Years	1	8	11	20
	20 and Above	1	1	12	14
	Years				
Total		38	82	94	214

## **Chi-Square Tests**

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.049 <sup>a</sup>	8	.003
Likelihood Ratio	24.297	8	.002
Linear-by-Linear	8.671	1	.003
Association			
N of Valid Cases	214		

a. 2 cells (13.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.49.

Symmetre Measures					
			Asymptotic		
			Standard	Approximate	Approximate
		Value	Errora	$T^b$	Significance
Nominal by	Phi	.328			.003
Nominal	Cramer's V	.232			.003
Interval by	Pearson's R	.202	.063	2.999	.003 <sup>c</sup>
Interval					
Ordinal by	Spearman	.166	.066	2.448	.015 <sup>c</sup>
Ordinal	Correlation				
N of Valid Cases 214					

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.
- c. Based on normal approximation.

Roysambu

Roysambu

Roysambu

Roysambu

Radifare

Embakasi North

Embakasi Vest

Embakasi Vest

Kamukunjir

Embakasi South

Kanukunjir

Embakasi South

Kanukunjir

Embakasi South

Kanukunjir

Embakasi South

Kanukunjir

Embakasi South

Romandi Ciry Cauthy Castu ti

Tarah

Ta

Appendix 7: Map of the Study Area

Source: Nairobi City County (2017).