

**ROLE OF 'NYUMBA KUMI' COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGY IN
COMBATING CRIME IN BARINGO NORTH SUB-COUNTY, KENYA**

BY

RICHARD KIPLAGAT KANDIE

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTFOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS
IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND POLICY
DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY POLITICAL SCIENCE
AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
MOI UNIVERSITY**

2024

DECLARATION

Declaration by Candidate

This thesis is my original work and has not been submitted for any award in this University or any other Institution. This thesis must not be reproduced either in part or in its entirety without prior written permission of the author and/or that of Moi University.

Richard Kiplagat Kandie
SASS/PGPA/06/15

.....

Signature

.....

Date

Declaration by the Supervisors

This thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as University Supervisors.

Prof. Alice Kurgat

Signature

Date

Department of History Political Science and Public Administration
School of Social Arts and Studies
Moi University
Eldoret-Kenya

Dr. James K. Chelang'a

Signature

Date

Department of History Political Science and Public Administration
School of Arts Social Studies
Moi University
Eldoret-Kenya

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the National Police Service fraternity. To my entire family, whose support I am deeply indebted to. The support accorded to me has been invaluable.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Foremost, I extend praise to almighty God for the opportunity and capacity to successfully proceed with the thesis. I am grateful for health and peace of mind throughout the period of developing the thesis. Various people contributed significantly, through guidance, to the success of this work. I extend my sincere appreciation to them all. I thank my supervisors; Prof. Alice Kurgat and Dr. James K. Chelang'a for their guidance, encouragement, critique and recommendation for amendment throughout the process of developing this thesis. I also acknowledge Mr. Kilongi Wenani for guidance during the conceptualization of this work. I would like to acknowledge the entire lecturers' fraternity in the Department of History, Political Science and Public Administration, my family and colleagues for their moral support and encouragement during the entire duration of the programme. I also appreciate the moral and financial support from my entire family members. Thanks to my workmates for giving me a humble time when I was away collecting data and other vital information. I cannot finish without thanking my family. May the good Lord grant you blessings and peace in your entire life?

ABSTRACT

Community policing, a strategy used in combating crime across the globe, continues to attract scholarly attention. The main objective of the study was to explore the role of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in combating crime in Baringo North Sub-County, Kenya. The specific objectives of this study were to: analyse the legal, policy and institutional framework of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing; to examine the role of the police and the community in implementation of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing and; to assess the effectiveness of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in reducing crime. In terms of geographical scope, the researcher focused on the role of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in reducing crime in Baringo North Sub-County, Kenya. On the theoretical scope, the study was guided by the broken window theory. The study was limited to Baringo North Sub-County which is one of the six Sub Counties of Baringo County. The study employed descriptive survey design. Purposive sampling was used to sample 25 respondents drawn from different groups that had pertinent information including 8 local administrators, 1 SCPC, 1 OCS, 5 WC, 5 NGO representatives and 5 CBO representatives in Baringo North Sub-County. Interview schedules was used in collecting primary data while secondary data was collected from existing literature and analysed using document/content analysis. The findings of the study were presented descriptively. For objective one, the study established that community policing is largely perceived as one of the key driving forces of police reforms and the proposed shift to democratic policing which involves the nation's citizens. In this regard, Kenya's policy framework matches the global trend of initiatives towards police reform which hold community policing as a significant strategy in combating crime. As for objective two, the findings revealed that some stakeholders such as the youth have low profile participation in the 'Nyumba Kumi' initiative and that some of the police have been involved in unprofessional conduct which makes community policing to be negatively perceived. As for objective three the findings established that community policing is effective regardless of the fact that crime keeps rising, which points to the necessity of development of further interventions addressing emerging issues including but unlimited to social, economic and technological issues with a focus on police performance in facilitating and enhancing community engagement in community policing affairs. The study also identified that vigilante groups play a significant role in effecting community policing. Vigilante groups mainly composed of youth who have chosen to participate in community policing with a focus on countering tendencies of crime in the area. The study recommended the streamlining and mainstreaming of the 'Nyumba Kumi' and community policing initiatives. The study further recommended for the link between the police officers and members of the public to be strengthened especially where there is mistrust by members of the public towards the police, in order to curtail hesitation in community participation in the 'Nyumba Kumi' initiative.

TABLE OF CONTENT

DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENT.....	vi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	x
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
ACRONYMS/ABBREVIATIONS.....	xii
OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS.....	xiv
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.0 Overview.....	1
1.1 Background of the Study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	7
1.3 General Objectives of the study.....	7
1.4 Specific Objectives of the study.....	8
1.5 Research Questions.....	8
1.6 Purpose of the Study.....	8
1.7 Assumption of the Study.....	9
1.8 Justification and Significance of the Study.....	9
1.9 Scope and Limitation of the Study.....	10
CHAPTER TWO.....	11
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	11
2.0 Overview.....	11
2.1 The Concept and Elements of Community Policing.....	11
2.2 Components of Community Policing.....	14
2.1 Legal, Policy and Institutional Framework of Community Policing.....	19
2.2 Role of Police and Community in Implementation of Community Policing Strategy.....	30
2.3 Effectiveness of community policing strategies in reducing crime.....	34

2.4 Summary of Research Gaps.....	43
2.5 Theoretical Framework.....	45
2.7.1 Broken Window Theory	45
2.8 Conclusion	47
CHAPTER THREE	49
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	49
3.0 Overview.....	49
3.1 Research Design.....	49
3.2 Study Area	50
3.3 Target Population.....	51
3.4 Sampling Design and Sample Size	52
3.5 Research Instruments	53
3.6 Data Collection Procedures.....	54
3.7 Validity and Reliability of Research Instrument	54
3.8 Data Analysis	55
3.9 Ethical Considerations	56
CHAPTER FOUR.....	57
LEGAL, POLICY AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK OF COMMUNITY POLICING IN BARINGO NORTH SUB-COUNTY.....	57
4.0 Overview.....	57
4.1 Demographics of Respondents	58
Table 4.1 Codes Representing the Respondents	59
4.2 Legal Framework of Community Policing in Kenya.....	60
4.3 Policy Framework of Community Policing in Baringo -North Sub County	63
4.4 Institutional Framework of Community Policing in Baringo North Sub County.....	74
4.5 Legal, Policy and Institutional Challenges facing Community Policing in Baringo North Sub-County.....	79

CHAPTER FIVE	90
ROLE OF POLICE AND THE COMMUNITY IN IMPLEMENTATION OF 'NYUMBA KUMI' COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGY IN BARINGO NORTH SUB-COUNTY	90
5.0 Overview.....	90
5.1 The Police Force in Community Policing.....	90
5.2 Community Policing Partnership in Crime Reduction	94
5.3 Police-Community Problem Solving and Crime Reduction.....	102
5.4 Community Participation in Community Policing	103
CHAPTER SIX	110
EFFECTIVENESS OF 'NYUMBA KUMI' COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGY IN CRIME REDUCTION IN BARINGO NORTH SUB COUNTY. 110	110
6.0 Overview.....	110
6.1 Assessing Internal Changes	112
6.2 Three Criteria for Assessment	113
6.2.1 Effectiveness of Community Policing	114
6.2.3 Efficiency.....	119
6.2.4 Equity.....	122
6.2.5 Equal Access to Police Services	123
6.2.6 Equal Treatment under the Constitution.....	124
6.2.7 Equal Distribution of Police Services and Resources among Communities	125
6.3 Assessment of the Community Policing Process.....	126
CHAPTER SEVEN.....	131
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	131
7.0 Overview.....	131
7.1 Summary of Findings.....	131
7.2 Conclusions.....	133
7.3 Recommendations.....	134
7.4 Suggested Areas for Further Research.....	136
REFERENCES.....	137

APPENDICES	144
Appendix I: Introduction Letter.....	144
Appendix II: Consent FormAppendix III: Interview Schedule	145
Appendix IV: Research Permit.....	147

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1 Map of Baringo North Sub-County 51

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Sample Size for Local Administrators.....	53
Table 4.1 Codes Representing the Respondents.....	59

ACRONYMS/ABBREVIATIONS

AP	Administration Police
ASAL	Arid and Semi-Arid Lands
CBD	Central Business District
CBO	Community Based Organization
CHOGM	Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting
CHRI	Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative
CP	Community Policing
CPC	County Police Commander
CPF	Community Policing Forum
CPP	Community Policing Policy
CPU	Community Policing Unit
CPW	Commonwealth Police Watch
DFID	Department for International Development
ERSWEC	Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation
GJLOS	Governance, Justice, Law and Order Sector
GoK	Government of Kenya
GSU	General Service Unit
ICT	Information Communication Technology
IIMS	Integrated Information Management System
IT	Information Technology
IPOA	Independent Policing Oversight Authority

KHRC	Kenya Human Rights Commission
NCBDA	Nairobi Central Business District Association
NCPP	National Community Policing Policy
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NPS	National Police Service
OCS	Officer Commanding Station
PEV	Post-Election Violence
SCPC	Sub County Police Commander
UN	United Nations
US	United States
WC	Ward Commander
YWCA	Young Women Christian Association

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Community Refers to a group of persons who share common understanding and who identify themselves by similarity of manner, language and tradition.

Community Policing A policing philosophy of a full service where the same officer patrols and moves in same area on a permanent basis, from a decentralized place, working in a proactive partnership with citizens to identify and solve problems.

Crime Is an illegal act for which someone can be punished by government, activity against the law, illegal acts.

Crime Reduction Is the attempt to prevent and deter crimes and criminals. It is applied specifically to efforts made by government to reduce crime, enforce law and maintain criminal justice.

Enforcement Refers to the act of enforcing, which enforces, constraints.

Policing Is a proactive process implemented for maintenance of law and order, respect for rule of law and social cohesion.

Nyumba Kumi “Nyumba Kumi” is a Swahili word implying ten households and clusters that cut across the various societal groups.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This first chapter of the study introduces the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, general and specific objectives of the study and research questions. It also presents assumptions of the study, justification, significance of the study and concludes with, scope and limitations of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

Community policing strategy in combating crime across the globe continues to attract scholarly attention due to the need to reform its practices and policies. According to the Community Policing Consortium (1994), policing approaches that were successful in the past do not have the same efficiency and effectiveness today. The preferred objective, which is enhancing safety, well-being and security had not been achieved adequately. Further, practitioners argue that there is a significant need for innovativeness, which is essential in curbing the crises faced by communities.

The nature and level of crime in Kenya and the evolving character of communities reveals that serious problems are experienced especially with regard to illegal drugs, murders, burglaries, gang violence and muggings. Rural and suburban communities have not been left unaffected by the trends of crime and violence, which are being argued to increase in prevalence.

Community policing is argued to have been existing as an alternative approach for three decades, with its practice mainly evidenced in Europe and North America (Brogden, 2004; Ruteere & Pommerolle, 2003). Considering the adversarial relationship between the public and law enforcement in majority of developing countries, the community policing strategy is surmised to be instrumental in the re-establishment of trust between the public and law enforcement as well as to enhance security in communities (Goldsmith, 2005; Muller, 2010; Rahmawati & Azca, 2006; Ruteere & Pommerolle, 2003).

Community policing strategy has been implemented in various developing countries that are coming out of different conflicts or transiting from authoritarianism, where politicization of security institutions, human right abuse by police officers and lack of accountability had been the norm (CHRI, 2005; Goldsmith, 2005; Ruteere & Pommerolle, 2003). The aforementioned vices led to poor relationships between the public and law enforcement officers (Goldsmith, 2005). Community policing has thus been advocated as a viable opportunity for police lack of accountability to be addressed.

According to Zhao, Lovrich and Thurman (2010), adoption of the community policing strategy in developed countries is perceived as a moderately new approach. However, it can also be understood as an attempt to recover previous policing strategies. Karstedt (2009) argues that police officers who know persons in the community and their issues, symbolizes an earlier typical strategy of brilliant policing. For instance, typical programs such as Neighbourhood Watch may be perceived as a restriction, a return to informal

casual policing that was used prior to the current bureaucratic approach in developed countries (Lawday, 2010).

In the African context and other developing states, the adoption of initiatives focused on reduction of crime have been criticized as transplants from other contexts without considering unique settings in African societies (Brogden, 2011; Ellison, 2012). However, the idea has gone through changes, which reflect other adoptions of policing, tip top interests, force relations, connections between state and society, state police limits; this has sometimes made the practice to veer from the democratization value as envisioned by global performers (Hills, 2012; Kyed, 2010; Baker, 2009).

In Tanzania's context, grassroots framework implemented at town level, also identified as 'Nyumba Kumi' has been implemented. The framework has been forwarded as the solution to prevailing criminality and oppression. According to Nasongo (2007), 'Nyumba Kumi' is based on urging the community to share information about each other. Likewise, it is expected that community members will observe security breaches and provide data to security organs and organizations. Utilizing neighbourhood levels, this was a way of guaranteeing security. Regardless of the fact that law enforcement is still in charge of requirement of law, 'Nyumba Kumi' is a collaboration of society and police officers with a similar security interest. Considering that police officers alone cannot take care of criminal issues, Sekeran and Bougie (2011) argue that Tanzania has taken significant leaps towards accomplishment of community policing objectives.

According to Frühling (2007), Kenya has followed Tanzania's footprints in her adoption of the 'Nyumba Kumi' strategy among other policing strategies such as the Youth

Vigilante groups, joint patrols and community court system. Mwangi (2012) argues that in the Kenyan context, 'Nyumba Kumi' was meant to bring about a collaborative and problem-solving approach focused on enhancing relationships between security agencies and the community; this was meant to improve police services quality and at the same time minimize the levels of criminality. This is due to the fact that crime occurs in the community. Therefore, community members need to participate in the identification, arrest and criminal reformation. However, the implementation of this policy in Kenya has not achieved the intended purpose.

Munneke (2011) posits that the 'Nyumba Kumi' strategy cuts across various societal shades such as legislation, ethnicity, ideology, sexual orientation, prejudice and other associations. The clusters' needs are not restricted to, but incorporate instruction, security, youth lead, condition, culture and conduct, which form the framework for social welfare, and needs to be urged dependably to demonstrate that the strategy comprehensively manages different aspects of life. Wekesa (2016) argues that group mediations are focused on anticipated negative exercises in the society and advancing positive esteems. Consequently, short term mediation address issues of wrongdoing, poorly executing instruction and worries with long term objective of improving financial and social welfare of the public in general. While recognizing protected agreements on affiliation flexibility and protection, it beholds upon the community to partake in security concerns as a show of patriotism and civic duty to their nation (Munneke, 2011).

The policing strategy has been adopted in Kenya from 1990, albeit in few projects. According to Republic of Kenya' (2009) the national taskforce of the police reforms

established after the post-election violence of 2007-08 strongly argued that community policing needs to be enhanced so as to ensure public participation in providing security services and public safety. The recommendation was also extended for National Community Policing Policy (NCPP) fast tracking for purposes of providing institutional and legal frameworks for community policing implementation.

According to Travis (2005), the country's social fabric has drastically changed. Overall, the family unit is considered not to have maintained the same stability it once had. Single parents find it quite difficult to form and sustain relationships with children and schools and churches have fallen short in filling the void. Minorities, ethnic groups and immigrants, while adding to the diversity of communities in America for instance, tend to vary in interests hence end up having disparities in pursued goals. Travis (2005) adds that at all levels, governments are having challenges balancing budgetary requirements law enforcement with other social priorities.

In the consideration that the environment is rapidly changing, where law enforcement cope with issues of drug and substance abuse, gang related activities and high instances of violence, the aspect of community policing is being embraced. Leaders of police departments have taken up this approach as a way of solving disorder and crime, a method that has a capacity of enhancing and maximizing resources and performance. In addition, they have developed a responsive chord both in local and national governments as well as in communities across the United States. Albert (1993) argued that community leaders and governments have begun recognizing that they too ought to be accountable for ensuring that neighbourhood safety is enhanced. Communities should therefore be

unified against violence, crime, and disregard for law and order; they should also be committed in enhancing crime intervention and prevention mechanisms. Law enforcement agencies should help in building stronger, self-sufficient communities whereby instances of disorder and crime are mitigated.

According to Albert (1993), adoption of community policing necessitates significant changes in the management and structure of law enforcement institutions. Community policing varies from traditional policing in the manner that communities are perceived and with regard to goals of policing. Primarily, community policing goals are expanded. Despite that crime prevention and control are key priorities, strategies of community policing apply a wide array of methodologies through which the goals are addressed. Police and communities are essentially partners in addressing concerns of neglect and disorder such as broken windows, abandoned cars and gang activity, which whereas may not be indicative of criminal activity, may eventually be a pathway to crime. As relationships between the community and police are enhanced, the resulting partnership is better placed for pinpointing and mitigating the prevalent causes of criminality. Law enforcement officers are realizing that tactics adopted in crime control have to be collaborated with crime prevention strategies, reducing the fear of crime and improving the life quality of neighbourhoods. Fear of crime is a crucial area of concern in itself. High visibility of law enforcement officers is pivotal in reducing fear within communities. This therefore calls for proper intervention towards community policing. It is precisely in these contexts that this study explores the role of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in combating crime in Baringo North Sub-County, Kenya.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Community policing in Kenya was established as a mechanism of reducing crime, however evidence indicate that little has been achieved and crime has been increasing. Major towns and rural zones in Kenya have recently been affected by a surge of violence, banditry, vigilante gang membership has been on the rise and Baringo North Sub-County has not been spared either. Government has attempted to establish community policies although it has been unproductive. The introduction of the ‘Nyumba Kumi’ initiative is perceived as complementary to existing policies in Kenya’s law enforcement organizations, specifically the National Police Service. As such, community policing requires long term commitment comprising effective and efficient planning and more so, complete stakeholder participation so as to eradicate challenges of security among Kenyan communities. In 2007, a research commissioned by then Commissioner of Police on policing indicated that a number of police stations neither had adequate knowledge nor relevant training on how to implement community policing. This has therefore created a gap which needs to be studied upon. This study therefore aims at finding out the determinants on the effectiveness of community policing in reducing crime in Baringo North Sub-County, Kenya.

1.3 General Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study was to explore the role of ‘Nyumba Kumi’ community policing strategy in combating crime in Baringo North Sub-County, Kenya.

1.4 Specific Objectives of the study

The specific objectives of this study are to:

- i. Analyse the legal, policy and institutional framework of ‘Nyumba Kumi’ community policing in Baringo North Sub County
- ii. Evaluate the role of the police and the community in the implementation of ‘Nyumba Kumi’ community policing strategy in Baringo North Sub County.
- iii. Assess the effectiveness of ‘Nyumba Kumi’ community policing strategy in crime management in Baringo North Sub County

1.5 Research Questions

1. What is the legal, institutional and policy framework of ‘Nyumba Kumi’ community policing in Baringo North Sub County?
2. What are the roles of the police and the community in implementation of ‘Nyumba Kumi’ community policing strategy in Baringo North Sub County?
3. How effective is ‘Nyumba Kumi’ community policing strategy in reducing crime in Baringo North Sub County?

1.6 Purpose of the Study

“Nyumba Kumi” Community policing is a key policy framework in combating crime as well as deterrence of crime. The purpose of this study seeks to contribute to the body of knowledge that narrow the gaps within which “Nyumba Kumi” Community policing is modelled. This will in the long run serve as a good precedence in improving the quality of life and combating crime particularly in Baringo North Sub-County Kenya.

1.7 Assumption of the Study

This study made the assumption that the available respondents provided unbiased responses to the theme under investigation despite the fact that their contributions were varied.

1.8 Justification and Significance of the Study

The study's findings are justifiable in the academic and public sphere because it fills the gaps in the contemporary literature on the role of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in combating crime. It is also an axillary to the existing scholarly knowledge on Community policing which is key in reducing crime and helps to minimize fear of crime and enhance the quality of lives of communities and having safe neighbourhoods. The research is also useful to the police and other security agents as the issues pertaining to community policing are addressed and proper decisions made on proper implementation of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy.

Through the research the factors that hinder proper implementation of community policing are unearthed and a different approach may be employed in selling out community policing ideologies to the members of the public. Finally, the findings of the research are useful to the national security agencies such as National police service, National intelligence service and other agencies in execution of their mandate as well as in developing a curriculum on community policing to be taught to upcoming officers.

The study is useful to both National Government Administrative Officers who include the Regional Commissioner, County Commissioner, Sub-county Commissioner, assistant Sub-county Administrators and other local administrators who include chiefs, assistant chiefs and village elders who play a constructive role in their respective jurisdictions.

1.9 Scope and Limitation of the Study

Thematically, the study explored the challenges and the impact of implementing 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in Baringo North Sub-County. On the theoretical scope, the study was guided and anchored by broken window theory. In terms of geographical scope, the researcher focused on the role of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in reducing crime in Baringo North Sub-County, Kenya.

The study limited by the fact that some sections of Baringo North bordering Tiaty sub county are volatile and insecure. This limited the researcher in getting adequate information. To cure the deficiencies, the researcher relied on secondary sources that were significant to the study. Telephone interview was also employed in reaching respondents in the far flanked areas.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Overview

This chapter thematically reviewed existing literature relevant to research objectives with the aim of providing a concrete foundation of knowledge to this study. literature review is a summary of written scholarly documents that describes the past and recent state of data, organizes the literature into topics and documents a need for a study. Literature review is denoted as an evaluation of the available material in a researched area. The themes covered in this chapter are: the concept and elements of community policing, Components of Community Policing, legal, policy and institutional framework of community policing, and Role of Police and Community in Implementation of Community Policing Strategy; the chapter then delves on the effectiveness of community policing strategies in reducing crime. This chapter also discussed the summary of the research gaps as well as the theoretical framework.

2.1 The Concept and Elements of Community Policing

The United States Institute for Peace defines community policing as “both an ethos and an organizational strategy or instrument that aims to promote a partnership-based, collaborative effort between the police and the community to ensure safety and security” (USIP, 2014). Emphasizing on partnership and introducing community policing’s problem solving capacity, the Government of Kenya in its Draft Report for Community Policing Adoption and Implementation defined community policing as “a policing

philosophy that promotes organizational strategies which support the systematic use of partnership between communities and government policing agencies, and problem solving techniques to proactively address the immediate conditions that give rise to public safety issues such as crime, social disorder and fear of crime” (GoK, 2013).

Fitzgerald (1989) posits that community policing as a crime management approach is proactive in nature, which leads to its popularity across the globe. It is an approach whereby the community is sensitized to the necessity of prevention of criminal occurrences, instead of waiting for police to respond after crime has occurred. This is due to the fact that security needs of communities are best understood and known by them, which brings the notion that community participation aids security officers in understanding the criminal trajectories in their neighbourhood. Essentially, the understanding of crime in the community differs between the security officers and the community members, hence necessitating partnership between them in the effective and efficient management of crime. Community policing comprises integration of all state organs with the community in crime prevention. The public is able to exercise its constitutional mandate in apprehension of criminals and presenting them to law enforcement officers. Community policing is aimed at enhancing integration and cohesion in society, thus preventing crime through positive influences of the society (Fitzgerald. 1989). As such, it is pertinent that perceptions of both security officers and community members be established towards the programme’s implementation.

Progressively, various steps have been taken since the programme’s implementation, for instance, emergent preventive actions through the programme in different communities

and neighbourhoods across the country. Community policing, which is Kenya's main foundation of policing service as is for several other democracies in the world, is considered to be a bottom-up strategy aimed at policing collaboratively with the public's consent (Gimode, 2007). Main principles of the programmes strategies comprise establishing partnerships with communities, voluntary participation by the community and adherence to legislation with regard to public security and safety. Other principles are community empowerment in public security and safety, awareness and respect for human rights and diversity as well as promotion of the same. In addition, the programme is informed by principles of improving trust between the community and security agencies, information sharing between the public and police officers, development of shared values and development of shared responsibility between the community, police and other programme stakeholders.

Community policing utilizes several strategies that facilitate development of partnerships and trust with the public. In this aspect, community policing reaches out to stakeholders in the community to determine their security and safety needs, involves the public in surveillance and intelligence as well as in creating liaison offices and police posts within neighbourhoods. Other strategies include sensitizing the community to the challenges, difficulties and needs of police officers with the aim to elicit understanding of actions that the community may extend to support crime prevention (Gimode, 2007). Overall, community policing perceives efficacy in crime fighting as a way of allowing institutions in the community to flourish (Moore, 1992). Moore (1992) adds that community policing also aims at enhancing the responsiveness of police officers to security and safety concerns of the public. Implementation of community policing necessitates for significant

changes to be made in the manner in which police departments are managed and structured, in as much as in the manner that their operations and purposes are understood by the public.

The primary objectives of CP encompass countering poor image of police officers to the public, improving police and community perceptions with regard to community policing and strengthening measures of police officers in management of confidential intelligence and information obtained from the community (Government of Kenya, 2004). Since its introduction in Nairobi under the regime of former president, the late Mwai Kibaki, community policing has extended to other areas in the country. Community policing in Kenya is an approach whereby there is proactive and accountable partnership between the community and security officers, hence the community is involved in policing, and both police and the community collaborate in mobilization of resources in promotion of safety, supporting initiatives by security officers, rather than leaving the role of crime prevention only to the police (Government of Kenya, 2004)

2.2 Components of Community Policing

In general, CP key components are problem solving and establishment of partnerships with members of communities (Purdy, 2013). Safer World (2008) argues that CP core elements comprise orientation of police service, collaboration, empowerment, problem solving, sensitization, mobilization and accountability. Orientation of police service refers to extending professional services by law enforcement officers that respond to the needs of the community, with security officers being accountable to the needs. Collaboration refers to facilitating cooperation, consulting with community members,

enhancing participation and embracing inclusion in the problem-solving process. Problem solving refers to jointly interrogating, identifying, and analyzing and justifying the cause of conflict and crime, thus allowing innovative approaches to be developed towards addressing prevailing security concerns. Empowerment refers to creating voluntary responsibility towards crime prevention and control. Accountability delineates establishing a culture that focuses on addressing community concerns and needs in line with frameworks upholding human rights regardless of socio-economic variations. On the other hand, sensitization and mobilization comprises enabling community members' understanding of procedures around criminal offences such as bonds and bail, so as to mitigate human rights violations of suspects.

According to Moore (1992), there are various approaches to CP, which are team policing, preventive control, problem-oriented policing and foot patrol. In team policing, teams of security officers carry out the responsibility of policing in neighbourhoods instead of individual police. Teams are guided by supervisors who make decisions on how work is divided, strategies to utilize for the area to be adequately covered and ways to ensure communication maximization with members of the community. Moore (1992) adds that lead officers have a duty to establish and maintain liaison with communities. For instance, when crime incidents have increased in the neighbourhood, security officers collaborate with members of the community to counter them.

With regard to problem-oriented policing, security officers collaborate with the public in identifying and responding to problems in the community. It adopts a situational strategy which is focused on effectively responding and solving underlying issues and concerns

(Moore, 1992). For instance, when burglary incidents increase, members of the community and security officers focus their attention towards curtailing the specific crimes. Community members are thus informed on measures to take such as not leaving their houses vulnerable at night and making use of security lights. Subsequently, members of the community assist security officers in suspect identification.

Foot patrols are instrumental in crime reduction and reduction of fear of crime among community members. As such, it is an invaluable approach in CP. Patrols entail security officers or both police and members of the community patrolling the neighbourhood albeit without necessarily targeting any criminal incidences. On the other hand, preventive patrols entail increased presence of security officers which prevents criminals from undertaking criminal activities. It further plays a role in reducing citizens' fear of crime and in extension, aids in fostering good relations between the public and police. Preventive patrols are majorly carried out by police vehicles. Programmes involving relations between the public and police focus on reaching to communities such as in the case with joint patrols (Moore, 1992).

In Kenya, the implementation of CP started in May 2001 with establishment of CP units in Isiolo, Ziwani and Kibera. This was done jointly with the UN Habitat, 'Safer world', Nairobi Central Business District Association and the Kenya Police. The units established invaluable experience and knowledge in running and setting up community policing forums. They were provided with support through the establishment of a national manual utilized in community training on security services and sites where policing was implemented (Government of Kenya, 2004). From 2003, the Kenya government has

taken up CP as a primary strategy in crime prevention and control. It involves merging law enforcement agency resources and efforts with the community. The resultant environment is essential for CP work as it entails the development of mutuality between the community and security officers which facilitates trust that has to be sustained in the long run to ensure success.

(Government of Kenya, 2009) avers that the structure of partnership in community policing is hinged on CPFs that are established at the community's levels and membership is selected from law enforcement, the community and other stakeholders. Community Safety Forums or Community Policing Forums are joint platforms that facilitate the sharing of strategies and information by security officers, and members of the community regarding safety and security and the principles of police oversight as set by citizens (Saferworld, 2008). It also comprises consistency in dialogue at both national and community levels, decreasing exclusivity of policing as government agencies' and as security officers' prerogative. The forums pronounce communication between consumers and service providers, enhancing transparency in both service agencies and the community within voluntary and inclusive schemes of problem solving.

Saferworld (2008) posits that the functions of CPFs comprise opening up and understanding the work of security officers to citizens such that expectations are reasonably shared and structures of policing are well exposed. Another role of CPFs is opening security officers to the challenges and realities that the public faces in terms of information and resource sharing towards reduction and prevention of crime. CPFs also play the role of compiling information and data which lead to establishment of trends and

rates of crime in the areas where CP has been implemented, as well as making enquiries in matters of policing in concerned localities.

Community policing forums are challenged with various issues such as inadequacies in resources for facilitating matters of safety and security to the community's satisfaction. Secondly, CPFs are faced with concerns of mistrust between members of the community and security officers which arise from historical associations perceived from the veil of mistreatment, human rights abuses, misappropriations of law and order and inadequacies of service delivery. There are also contradictions and conflicts in police functions, compounded by unavailable and irrelevant policy frameworks, essential for guiding CPF structures amidst other challenges. Further, there is also a fear of information sharing towards the prevention of crime as a result of probable of retribution in communities (Saferworld, 2008).

According to Community Policing Consortium (1994), CP is delineated as a partnership between members of the community and police officers in identifying disorder and crime issues involving all community elements in attempt at finding solutions for the issues. CP is based on the principle that security officers cannot solely control disorder and crime and sustain the community's life quality. CP is contrasted with traditional policing due to the characteristic that the community's participation places it in the capacity of co-production of wellness and safety (Whitaker, 1980; Parks *et al.*, 1982). Further, CP expands security officers' role beyond fighting crime, sustaining order and facilitating enhancement of living condition for neighbourhoods. Whereas traditional policing is characterized reactively, CP places emphasis on a proactive approach to solving,

controlling and preventing crime (Sparrow *et al.*, 1990, 1998). The aims of CP are reduction of disorder and crime, promotion of quality of life for citizens, reduction of fear of crime and improvement of relations between the community and security officers (Community Policing Consortium, 1994).

According to Mwangi (2012), CP does not give the implication that security officers have lesser authority or that the core duty of law and order preservation has been subordinated. Nonetheless, tapping into resources and expertise existing within neighbourhoods relieves security officers of some of the security and safety burden. Officials from local government, social agencies, church groups, business people, schools and all other stakeholders working and living in a neighbourhood or a community, with a stake in development, ultimately share in collectively finding appropriate solutions to security and safety concerns in their environment.

2.1 Legal, Policy and Institutional Framework of Community Policing

Community policing is an approach whereby security officers work accountably and proactively in partnership with certain neighbourhoods. The residents thus collaborate in their policing, hence they and the police both are involved in resource mobilization for promotion of safety and security, supporting initiatives towards crime prevention and control for the long term, instead of only relying on security agencies to react to crime incidences (Government of Kenya, 2004). It means that in as much as citizens need security officers, law enforcement also relies on citizens to effectively and efficiently

address issues of criminality. However, the culture embraced by law enforcement officers tends to place officers in isolation instead of enhancing citizen engagement (Moore, 1992). Law enforcement officers may place the CP model in the perception that their functions are extended to informal entities which hinders accountability (Woods, 2007). As such, security officers may fall short of revealing details pertaining safety to the members of the community which affects their relationship. The study surmises that perceptions of the community and security officers plays a significant role in the efficacy and effectiveness of the CP programme.

Due to failure of security officers' reorientation to the public and attitudinal and cultural change, they have in general suffered from mistrust by citizens (Saferworld, 2008). Consequently, it has led to a poor image and poor association, hindering the progression of sustainability between the two stakeholders. Prevailing mistrust between the communities and security officers emanates from history of relationships perceived as mistreatment, human rights abuse, lack of observance of law and inadequacies in delivery of security service. As a consequence of low trust levels and lack of mutuality between security officers and the community members, information sharing suffers, which generally hinders crime prevention (CHRI, 2006).

Despite its concepts and philosophy, CP has not been extensively examined on its scope of efficacy and impact. This is attributed to the variety of tactics, strategies and forms utilized in its implementation, as well as varied criterion needed for such examination of its efficacy (Lious & Savage, 1996). According to Fitzgerald (1989) report in the United States addressing the President's Commission on Criminal Justice, it was observed that

regardless of the CP concept being popular, implementing it was faced by various challenges. Thatcher (2001) observes that the challenges comprised differences in values considering organizational differences in advancement of social values. Further, the differences also emanate from the separation of priorities pursued by social agencies, which may put them in conflict with other agencies. Thatcher (2001) surmises that these institutional differences are the main challenge for the success of CP.

In general, Kenya shows institutional hesitance to reforms in the police, inadequacy in capacity of police officers, distrust towards police by the public and challenges in oversight and funding (Saferworld, 2008). One challenge affecting efficacy in CP implementation in Kenya is the manner that the police organization has been structured, which is considered to be centralized, rigid and paramilitarized (Ruteere & Marie, 2003). The prevailing police culture also leans towards isolation, disregarding engagement with the public, hence goes against the characteristic of CP (Moore, 1992). CP being a variant of the traditional policing strategy focuses on prevention of crime, taking a proactive direction to achieving security and safety. Therefore, CP is contradictory to the traditional approach whereby policy and law enforcement is considered aggressive. Nonetheless, the traditional approach is still preferred by administrative, institutional and legal arrangements in Kenya with regard to crime prevention and control.

According to Woods (2007), the top down model of CP that is embraced by government may be perceived similarly to extending official functions of police to informal entities in the community which may also hinder accountability. In urban regions, the unilaterality of police action decides who is a member of the community policing forum. The

requirement of the community members to record statements despite having volunteered information to police is contrary to the principle of confidentiality that is embraced in CP and the public may resultantly hold back from providing further information to security officers. Further, the culture of police agencies may not augur with necessary values of CP strategy, hence poor public image and poor collaboration with citizens hinders police capacity of developing and sustaining symbiotic partnership between police and the community. Security officers and law enforcement agencies have fallen short of reorienting themselves to the public, changing their attitudes and have not recognized the necessity of cultural change (CHRI, 2006; Commonwealth Police Watch [CPW], 2006).

According to CHRI (2006), inadequacies in administrative and legislative environment necessary for supporting CP strategies and partnership development is a challenge that hampers efficacy in implementing CP initiatives. It has been attributed to lethargy in reforms, particularly in administrative and legal reforms in local government and police departments. The existing poor level of mutuality in trust between police and the public significantly affects CP implementation success, which relies greatly on the manner in which police officers handle confidentiality of intelligence and information provided by members of the community. Information mishandling basically risks informers and holds the community members back from cooperation, which weakens trust and negatively impacts voluntary sharing of information (CHRI, 2006).

A strategy that reiterates CP and development of partnerships necessitates for stakeholders' uptake of institutional legitimacy and methodologies utilized, as well as individual legitimacy of community members. Another factor is integrity, especially

considering that the security officers and other stakeholders need to ascertain that they not reproachable if sustainability is to be achieved in crime control and prevention (CHRI, 2006).

Another factor that hinders efficacy in CP implementation is poor public participation enhancement especially in security initiatives for the promotion of accessibility to justice. To overcome this factor, it is necessary for focus to be enhanced on concerns associated with policing service roles albeit within the delineations of law and effective service delivery to citizens. According to GoK (2003), it also necessitates for focus to be directed towards public engagement on efforts of prevention and control of crime. CP implementation is also affected by sabotage by middle level management which occurs from resentment of junior officers' independence (Moore, 1992). Further, implementation of CP programmes is hampered by low resources to security officers and law enforcement agencies. According to Moore (1992), lack of equipment and personnel for example police vehicles have a significant and negative impact of efficacy of CP implementation.

In Rwanda, South Africa and the USA, CP is ingrained within policy and legal frameworks. In the context of Rwanda and South Africa, CP was established through police Act and the constitution. Ruteere (2011) posits that CP in Kenya's context has been ingrained in the legal framework with the police reforms report making suggestions that CP needs to be a key element of policing within structural and institutional reforms. Adambo (2005) similarly argues that part of the structural and institutional reforms need to cover security officers training and funding in the CP framework. CP is

characteristically expensive to adopt and implement hence the necessity of adequate funding. Evidence shows that CP funding is varied in different countries, with some having adequate funding for the initiative and some facing challenges inadequacies in programme funding. Subsequently, CP success relies on funding levels due to the fact that funding determines the scope of implementation and the availability of security and safety services. For instance, in Minneapolis and Chicago, CP was established to be successful in middle income populations as well as in neighborhoods where the residents were whites and owned homes, compared to neighborhoods with poor populations, minorities and who rented their living spaces (Skogan, 1995). Adambo (2005) argue with Kiprono (2007), concluding that CP is mainly successful in areas that are affluent and stable. A study conducted in Kangemi revealed that 80% of individuals who owned land were hesitant allowing representation of individuals into CP programmes, on the basis that they were untrusted to address their security and safety concerns (Ruteere & Pommeroll, 2003).

Kimilu (2003) augurs that CP initiatives don't receive adequate financial support, either from non-governmental organizations, government agencies and citizens, especially in the context of developing nations. According to Kimilu (2003), the recommendation to remedy the situation is for security officers to have residential houses and operation offices in areas where the programme has been adopted and implemented. With inadequacies in resources, CP in Kenya has mainly depended on well-wishers to complement government support.

Various studies have concluded that police are not fully capable of tackling criminality because of inefficiency in facility (Kimilu, 2003; Adambo, 2005). In a study carried out in Kibera, it was found that 40.5% of residents in the area perceived CP as not suitably satisfying their expectations due to the fact that security officers were inadequately equipped to address concerns and issues of crime. Further, 31% of the residents had a perception that there was poor police coverage, especially in terms of patrols. In another study carried out in Nairobi, it was found that police failed to promptly respond to incidents of criminality, which was associated with inadequacy in police vehicles. The study reiterated that in most stations, the security officers were only availed one vehicle and is more often not fuelled. Of the interviewed residents, majority indicated that having called police when a crime occurred, response was either slow or the police did not respond, revealing that there are resource factors hindering adequate police response to crime (Adambo, 2005).

According to Braiden, (1992), establishment and sustenance of mutuality in trust is the main objective of the initial component of CP partnership. Security officers recognize that it is pivotal for cooperation to be established with members of the community. In fighting crime, security officers engage members of the community to provide them with information that would facilitate intelligence generation. Further, security officers speak with neighbourhood groups, take part in civic and business events, work with social agents and take part in recreational and educational programs within the community. Special units provide various intervention services, addressing community and neighbourhood crises and conflicts. From this, the query is how CP cooperative strategies vary from actions previously taken. Primarily, the variation is that security officers in CP

are a pivotal component of the culture of the community and neighborhoods, and the members of the community aid police in delineating future priorities and in resource allocation. The difference encompasses basic commitments to CP goals by both the security officers and the community overall.

According to Parks *et al.* (1981, 1982), CP expands the efforts of security officers in crime control and prevention. Communities are no longer perceived by security officers as a source of little information or from a passive aspect, rather as partners in the efforts against crime. The concerns of communities regarding disorder and crime hence are the target towards which efforts by the community and the police working in tandem is focused. Close associations forged with communities are not to be isolated or limited either by crime incidents or time frames. Rather, the association between the community and police should be both balanced and enduring. It should disintegrate old models of civilian versus professional, novice versus expert and subordinate versus authority models. The communities and security officers are expected to collaborate in efforts to preserve and encourage prosperity and peace.

Conspicuous presence of police of long term patrols is itself capable of encouraging response of community members. However, it is insufficient. The police organization as a whole should enlist vigorously residents' cooperation in pursuit of goals to deter crime and preserve order. On every level, security officers should collaborate with members of the community to build extensive rapport.

For patrol officers, partnerships between the community and police involves talking to business owners in the neighbourhood to identify concerns and problems, visiting homes

of residents to provide security and safety advice and helping with support and organization of community meetings and watch groups. For instance, patrol officers can canvass neighborhoods for information concerning wave of burglaries and revisit residents informing them when the suspects are apprehended. In such instances, chief police executives discuss and explain controversial tactics employed by security officers so that members of the community comprehend the need of applied strategies both for officers' and citizens' safety. The management of the police department consults members of the community with regard to strategies of crime suppression and all department levels actively determine suggestions and concerns of groups in the community, leaders, residents and local officials. In the partnership between community members and police, provision of problem-solving alternatives is essentially a cooperative effort (Skogan, 2006).

The implementation of CP has led to institutional reforms because new structures are established to facilitate collaboration by the community in the programme. Denney and Jenkins (2013) posit that the United States undertook both institutional and political reforms as a way of expediting police departments' decentralization and enhancing the capacity of community participation in management of security. Traditionally, strategies implemented by security officers were mainly foot patrols, private investigation of cases and showing no or less cooperation with citizens in terms of sharing information. Currently policing reforms have focused on community empowerment, focusing on active participation towards crime control and prevention (Carter, 2000). In Kenya's context, there is no difference as the push for police reforms was aimed at overhauling authoritarian and brutal approaches of policing which were characteristic of the colonial

government and contributed to extensive mistrust of police by the community and poor image of police. As such, with incorporation of members of the community in core decision making processes and participation in matters of safety and security through CP, momentum was gained in the reform process.

In addition, CP has brought forth policy and procedural development that place emphasis on community-based strategies of problem solving (Carter, 2000). According to Mackenzie and Henry (2009), in Australia, a milestone was made in CP, whereby infrastructure was established within the CP initiatives and a Problem Oriented and Intelligence-led policing as well as a National Reassurance Policing Program were introduced. These brought neighborhoods together in efforts against insecurity. Such policies have enhanced the capacity of communities in addressing prevailing issues that are fitted for their context for example family conflicts, juvenile delinquency, mapping of local crimes and recommending security actions (Denney & Jenkins, 2013) which enhance active participation by the community.

In Kenya, the Community Policing Policy (2014) identifies two key parties to CP, which are the community members and the National Police Service. Further, the guideline indicates directs for community organization into forums or committees at sub-location or village levels to allow for discussion of issues touching on safety and security and provides respective recommendations to officers. On one hand, security officers are considered to be strategy implementers whereas members of communities participate by airing their concerns and required actions. Based on the guidelines, heads of communities within the 'Nyumba Kumi' programme are endowed with the capacity to resolve disputes

at local levels; implement methods of promoting “Jua Jirani Wako” (know your neighbour) in their specific areas, resolving differences of ethnic nature, address issues of cattle rustling, promote security cluster education and give recommendations to enhance security in the community.

The facilitation and existence of structures such as those mentioned as well as government support, security officers, community, donors and other stakeholders however, does not reflect the outcome against the rate of crime. CP is basically structured in a way that communities and security agencies are in cooperation in managing insecurity and preventing and controlling criminality.

Various African countries have adopted and implemented CP as a probable solution to the escalation of crime incidents that are considered to elude traditional and reactive strategies of particular governments. For instance, in Malawi’s context, prior to implementation of CP, consultative structures of the public were developed, based on either integration or modification of existing structures. It comprised combining traditional authority and confirming methods of justice administration. Citizens and consultative structures of law enforcement that were aimed at addressing matters of security and safety were meant to operate from the grass-roots towards national coordination and steering systems (Abuga, 2015).

A study by Tiffin *et al.* (2006) evaluating the effectiveness of Australia’s National Reassurance Policing Program established that 15% of the citizens had more police confidence, indicating that the police were effective in their approach towards preventing and controlling crime. Similarly, in Chicago, a study by Slogan (2006) revealed that there

was high confidence by the public towards police officers regardless of ethnic orientation, with white populations revealing a much higher confidence level, seconded by African-Americans and Latinos coming in third. The study recommended that communities need to discard ethnic identities and counter insecurity from a communal perspective, as an indiscriminate issue. Alternatively, Silver and Miller (2004) showed that there is a positive association between satisfaction of communities with informal and police control. Instead of prior authoritarian approaches of ensuring security, CP brings about the aspect of sharing and cooperation between law enforcement and communities, which enhances their relationship.

2.2 Role of Police and Community in Implementation of Community Policing Strategy

The role of members of communities towards CP comprises the necessity of voluntary provision of information with regard to suspect activities or characters, collaboration with security officers through CPFs, assisting security officers by providing support and sustaining contact not only with police but with other members of the community as well. Specifically, members of communities provide support to crime victims by counselling them, safeguarding the neighborhood and ultimately, initiating security with themselves, thus maintaining alertness (Kenya Police, 2014). Security agencies are mostly perceiving as the core institution and their function has a greater impact on the entire population.

Community policing as a new policing approach is proactive to community needs and multiplies force, contributing to efficacy and effectiveness in the management of conflict. According to Kenya Police (2014), police play a pivotal role in CP such as

communicating with members of the community and giving feedback associated with security and crime, listening and understanding the needs of the community, participating in problem solving to the satisfaction of the community, enhancing transparency, accountability and efficacy in their functions, providing security and safety services, and establishing platforms for CPF formation. Further, security officers are encouraged to maintain law and order in their strategies towards crime control and prevention, enforce law and order and patrol their respective areas thus ensuring that security is enhanced.

According to Murray (2005), establishing local alertness in neighborhoods through neighborhood watch programs is an aspect of CP strategy against crime especially at household level. Other activities include outreach to schools, music and sport events that aim at establishing closer relationships between the community and police, especially in areas that have a high prevalence of criminality (Lawday, 2000). The development of CP is to be fathomed not merely as a pathway to accountable and effective policing, but as pathway to reforms in the public sector (Taylor, Francis & Wong, 2001). Across the globe, public sector institutions have improved outcomes, enhanced accountability and adopted changes championing collaborative participation between private, public and civil segments of society, embracing a wide consumer-based strategy to providing public services (Wisler & Onwudiwe, 2009).

Community policing places more emphasis on local-based programmes. However, it is associated directly with higher accountability and mechanisms of dialogue for example police-civilian boards or watchdog institutions (Wisler & Onwudiwe, 2009). In Europe and America, CP is perceived as a novel method, albeit it is understood as a method of

recovering prior approaches of policing. Security officers who have knowledge of certain community's problem is symbolic of traditional policing (Wisler & Onwudiwe, 2009). Typically, CP programs for example Neighborhood Watch are viewed as a return to informal policing involving civilians that was utilized before the more bureaucratic policing emerged (Lawday, 2000).

Wisler and Onwudiwe (2009) aver that some researchers argue that CP has been overtaken by homeland security. However, other researchers hold the notion that homeland security and CP are complementary in areas such as gathering intelligence which rely heavily on public voluntary participation. Taylor et al. (2001) posits that community cohesion and stability also depends on a country's achievement of both shared values and political stability. Subsequently, Dupont (2007) concludes that outreach programs to and engagement with members of communities are however challenged with achieving, more so in instances where there is political turmoil and if societies are factionalist.

According to Dupont (2007), local security agreements between police and members of communities facilitate security co-production involving variety of actors such as businesses, schools and other civil and institutional stakeholders. Such agreements are enhanced by different concepts of preventing crime, for instance, uncovering probable threats to communities and focusing on policing that is informed by intelligence (Lawday, 2000). The variation between approaches in CP adopted and implemented in developing vis a vis developed countries is that developed countries focus on security personnel looking for communities whereas in developing countries, it takes the

alternative route, hence the community looks for security personnel (Wisler & Onwudiwe, 2009). An example of CP manipulation is evidenced from Zimbabwe's context, where the government has curtailed human freedoms including association, assembly and expression, thus the security officers are mainly faulted for mistreating advocates of human rights upon apprehension in the guise of CP (Amnesty International, 2007). However, contradictions by the police agencies present that their focus is on law enforcement, through public consent, participation and international cooperation as is characteristic of community policing (Zimbabwe Police, 2007).

Kempa (2007) argues that it is essential for CP to be flexible and for police agencies to be willing to delegate authority to other stakeholders who are tasked with command roles in the CP framework. According to Goldsmith and Lewis (2000), part of such delegation relies on skills, information and knowledge of those who will take up participative roles and facilitate social justice. Within the consumerist aspect of public service, support by the public is instrumental to the efficacy and effectiveness of security officers. Further, it is necessary that security officers maintain accountability to the public (Brogden & Nijhar, 2005). Considering the limits on welfare state's expansion, communities are asked that they do more with regard to crime control and prevention (Segrave & Ratcliffe, 2004). Murray (2005) surmises that policing has taken a proactive strategy in crime control and prevention and security officers' educational capacity leads to even more positive outcomes in their efforts at preventing crime in collaboration with other stakeholders and partnership with communities.

The main component for the efficacy and success of CP is partnership and collaboration. Hence, security agencies need to enhance community engagement to effectively address problems of crime. Notably, security agencies need to collaborate with private and public stakeholders to ensure success (Cordner, 1999). Communities and security agencies working in partnership not only addresses the security and safety problems adequately, but also reduces social and physical disorder, decay of the neighborhood and fear of crime (Wycoff, 1988; Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990). Further, it is the security officers' responsibility that crime is prevented, hence there is need for them to carry out their mandate, develop strategies in association with community members.

According to Young and Tinsley (1998), measurement of crime prevention's impact needs to be taken away from reliance on statistics about crime or rates of clearance. Rather, it should be complementary to the qualitative approach of community policing. In addition, by increasing the capacity of communities in dealing with problems and concerns regarding crime, they can be mobilized and empowered in identification of and responding to their security and safety needs (Segrave & Ratcliffe, 2004). Mastrofski (2006) concludes that empowered communities benefit by becoming stronger and participating wholesomely in problem solving. Figure 2.1 shows the partnership structure of CP strategy.

2.3 Effectiveness of community policing strategies in reducing crime

According to US Department of Justice (2012), community policing allows members of communities to identify problems significantly concerning them, to security officers' attention so that they focus on the factors attributed to variables such as offenders,

victims and geographical location. Upon receiving information of the concerns of the neighborhood, security officers' partner with the public to solve the problems identified. In various ways, crime prevention is the pathway to CP, due to the fact that even previous interactions and collaboration between the public and security agencies have been focused on preventing and controlling crime (Torronen & Korander, 2005).

Fielding (2009) posits that CP has been in existence for three decades and has been adopted and implemented widely in North American and Europe. Further, CP has been established to be effective especially in prevention and control of crime. A study by the Bureau of Justice Assistance, US Department of Justice (2008) established that training adequacy among security officers was lacking significantly and hampered success of CP. It was also found out that CP effectiveness relies on training of members of the community and the police due to the fact that training translates to attitudinal change, enhancement of skills and knowledge that reorient perceptions and refines existing skills (Office of Community Oriented Policing Services, 2007; BJA, 1994). The study recommended for training to be enhanced targeting misperceptions regarding CP, accurate needs assessments for communities to be carried out, and program modification and evaluation to be facilitates. This shows that there is a positive outcome of police engagement with communities and new approaches can be developed with CP training.

According Ali and Dancun (2007) most security officers have not received adequate training in establishment and sustaining relationships with communities. They are not skilled and experienced in community empowerment and involvement. It is thus unlikely for security officers to realize the full potential of CP due to their limitations. Ali and

Dancun (2007) conclude that considering the labor intensiveness of CP, training significantly falls short and doesn't satisfy the expectation of service delivery.

In a study by Mastrofski (2006), it was found out that promotion of CP techniques relied on training of police, hence training had received substantial revision in developed countries. Mastrofski (2006) indicated that police in America are dedicated to learning new skills, gaining new information and knowledge that translated to enhanced understanding of their role. The present study brings out how institutional capacity of police influences CP implementation in Kenya's context. According to Kiarie (2012), security officers need the public to collaborate in implementing CP. Subsequently, security officers need to be professionals and respect citizens' rights. Police training in Kenya begins at the Kiganjo Kenya Police College and the GSU Training School in Nairobi, where the concepts of physical fitness, basic law and fitness are emphasized. They are mandated with training recruits, officers who attend promotional and performance enhancement courses. The training curriculum was developed to address the complexities and dynamism attributed to crimes, especially the technological and organized crimes. Notably, the curriculum focuses on complex and emerging crimes such as cybercrime, money laundering, gender-based violence and terrorism. Policies aimed at improving institutional capacity of security officers by training them on developing and sustaining relationship between them and the community are instrumental.

A study by Ferreira (2006) investigated the effectiveness and implementation of community policing in Central Europe. In the study, it was found that resource inadequacies towards CP forums and activities significantly hampered CP success and

challenged security officers. Transforming police needs significant resources for implementation demands to be satisfied. Resources are required to provide technology, equipment, salaries, training, improving CP forums and activities, facilitate support, evaluation, monitoring among others in which case, countries with limited resources are unable to satisfy (Fruhling, 2007).

According to Mammus (2010), funding inadequacies, shortages in manpower, inadequacies in logistics and infrastructure, lack of technology and reliable information were significant challenges of CP in the context of Nigeria. Other factors comprised poor services conditions experienced by police, low training and insufficient educational capacity.

In South Africa, Pelsler (2009) argued that lack of physical resource such as police vehicles were a hindrance to CP success. The ratio of coverage as per the number of available vehicles was significantly low, which hindered police officers' ability to be consistent in responding to security and safety issues in the community. Pelsler (2009) also established that expansion of CP councils needs extensive resources such as communication, housing, transportation, human resource support and training access. In order to ensure that CP is motivational to security officers and the outcome benefits the community, the program needs to be quantified from a cost-benefit standpoint, while at the same time, ensuring that the program is characterized by dedication and consistency.

In terms of CP implementation by security officers in the context of Nakuru, Kenya, a study by Chimera and Likaka (2014) established that 80% of residents in the area augured that CP success is largely hampered by inadequate information. Success of CP

committees was hindered by poor information that is pertinent in the pre-emption of crime. Further, poor communication resources had a negative effect on CP efficiency overall, as suspected individuals or activities could be identified but the information could not be communicated.

Ruteere and Pommerolle (2007) carried out a study and argued that CP is affected by underfunding. According to Ruteere and Pommerolle (2007), in Kenya, police regularly face resource inadequacies which renders CP unable to be enhanced as expected. Majority of police stations are dilapidated and the government has done little to improve facilities towards better service delivery to targeted communities. The study recommended for the government to provide enough resources to CP programme by providing transportation, equipment, adequate salaries and funds for motivation of security officers, building operational and resident quarters for police that would play a role in enhancing the efficacy of CP implementation.

Pelser (2009) argues that effective CP requires more focus to be placed on institutional capacity of police. Special attention needs to be paid to decentralization issues in the police organization structure. Additionally, it is pivotal for actors at low level to be incentivized, rewarding innovation and efficacy. Pelser (2009) adds that police frameworks need to support intelligence and information flow and there needs to be efficacy in coordination and tasking arrangements between the community and police officers, which smoothens the operations of CP.

According to a study by Community Policing Consortium (2012) in the United States, it was concluded that challenges momentarily facing police officers and targeted

communities are aligned with expectations of CP success. The organization structure of police departments is characteristically hierarchical, centralized and rigid, which is in contradiction of CP structure, processes and values. It is argued that decentralized structures that facilitate innovation, flexibility and are proactive challenge the traditional structure. Thus, it is essential that policing priority co-production is developed, and to consider the input of the community as a core component of CP success (Jones, 2008; Fruhling, 2007; Pelsler, 2003).

In a study by the National Center of Community Policing Studies (2013) in Michigan, it was established that three out of four CP initiatives focused on identifying priorities and solving issues were implemented without community contribution. It was also found that CP officers were taking on their roles independent of the community in identification and provision of solutions to issues prevailing in the community which essentially ruined the efficacy of the CP initiative. Another hindrance that was found was the measurement of performance based on practices of law enforcement rather than on the extent of established and sustained relationships with the community, which as Bucqueroux (2007) posits, leads to lack of expected performance outcomes.

According to Walker and Kats (2005), organizational transformation is delineated as the orientation of structures of management, staff and systems of information to provide support to the partnership between the community and security officers in proactive policing processes. CP points to major changes in security officers' role. A study by Carrol, Buracker and Associates Ltd (2007) in the United States revealed that CP effectiveness is limited in instances when security officers operate independent of

community participation. Police independence tends to isolate them and is a source of friction not only between police officers themselves but also between police and the community. Successful CP initiatives were established to be the ones where a wholeness approach was embraced. Nonetheless, a wholeness approach is argued by Cordner (2009) to be problematic.

Davies *et al.* (2013) opines that in instances where security officers work as specialized units, difficulties erupted especially with establishment of credibility and maintaining status among fellow officers who still ascribe to traditional practices of criminal justice and law enforcement. Davies *et al.* (2013) adds that police organization structure plays a significant role in influencing the quality and level of decentralization which fundamentally enhances working relationships between security agencies and the public.

Onwudiwe (2009) study on CP in Nigeria concluded that frequency of police transfers, especially of senior officers was challenging to the efficacy and success of CP. The study revealed that 55% of residents had a strong indication of senior officers' frequent transfers affecting CP performance. The study indicated that as police got acquainted with their jurisdictional areas and created conducive environments with CP committees, they were transferred, which was a challenge to CP and negatively affected its efficacy.

According to Masese and Mwenzwa (2012), possible hindrances to CP are unidentified and unaddressed during design stages of CP initiatives. Some common organizational challenges comprise poor involvement by management of police departments in designing the initiative, shortfalls in implementation and monitoring, resource allocation and personnel deployment differences, disagreements and confusion with regard to

changes in structures and systems in the department, differences between middle level management, conflict between command-and-control styles of management, preferential treatment of CP officers and line officers' expanded decision making.

Masese and Mwenzwa (2012) and that the CPF is a consolidation of individuals from police and community comprising local leaders, CBOs and residents, whose role is identifying and solving problems. The CPFs are established in residential and business areas and in estates close to police stations for complementary participation and ease of communication. The CPFs are instrumental in problem identification affecting the community, provision of Contact Policing Unit (CPU), organization of joint sensitization forums in collaboration with CPU, planning and implementation of CP programmes and monitoring and evaluating the formed committees (Kenya Police, 2014). Ultimately, joint efforts by CPFs enhance the unity and strength between the community and police.

According to Zhao et al. (2002), fear of crime can be countered and normalcy ensured in neighborhoods when innovative CP strategies are adopted and implemented. In a study in Michigan, Polzin (2007) established that strategy inadequacies are a main challenge in CP. In Polzin (2007) argument, successful CP implementation is achieved by security officers employing strategies in change management. For almost 30 years, CP has been in place and its practice has been wide in scope in North America and Europe, compared to other areas (Brogden, 2004; Ruteere & Pommerole, 2003). CP has widened in scope to developing countries as a result of aid programs that are focused on police reformation (Brodgen, 2004).

Neild (2007) argues that CP implementation does not explicitly address malpractices in police departments, arguing instead that CP should be adopted only when police problems are solved. In this regard, clear national structures and institutional standards as well as mechanisms facilitating policing accountability need to be established prior to CP implementation. The summation is that in this way, the risk of undemocratic structures of power can be prevented.

Various researches have been conducted focusing on CP efficacy and effectiveness, covering both police and citizen perspectives. According to the Cincinnati Community Sector Team Policing Experiment (1977), it was found that job satisfaction among police officers played a key role in efficacy and effectiveness in CP (Mazerolle, Bennet, Davies, Sargeant & Manning, 2013).

In the context of Kenya, partnership between police and members of the community was initiated in 1990s, albeit limited to the CBD in Nairobi (Ruteere & Pommerole, 2003). Afterwards, variety of CP programmes were established with the collaboration of NGOs (Saferworld, 2008). The National Task Force on Police Reforms report after the 2007/08 PEV revealed a strong case that there is need for strengthening of CP so as to facilitate public participation in security and safety services provision. The report further recommended for National Policing Policy fast tracking, which is instrumental in providing an institutional and legal framework through which CP is implemented (Kiarie, 2012). Former president H.E. Uhuru Kenyatta emphasized on CP. On October 20th 2013, the former president reiterated that security is all peoples' mandate so long as they are

Kenyan citizens. He further added that vigilance is the initial principle of security, hence necessary for CP, especially ‘Nyumba Kumi’, to be embraced.

Subsequently, various researchers have concluded that the core element of CP is prevention and control of crime (Skolnick & Bayley, 1988), hence it will be beneficial to society in the long term (Segrave & Ratcliffe, 2004). According to Skogan (2006), the capacity of communities in crime prevention is enhanced by encouragement towards improvement of safety.

The emphasis of crime prevention in CP is proactive rather than reactive as is evident in traditional models of policing (Cordner, 1999). Nonetheless, communities acknowledge and value elements of the traditional approach such as reactive investigation and rapid response but augurs that it is necessary for victimization to be addressed and prevented as well. Emphasis of CP on prevention comprises the fact of community’s need to be satisfied and security to be prioritized, not only with regard to property but also with regard to wellbeing. Ultimately, interests of members of the community have to be safeguarded.

2.4 Summary of Research Gaps

Western methods to failed and transitional societies perceive policing as a “thin blue line”, and a primary guarantor of order, development and legitimacy in society. In countries where there is a higher prevalence of crime, inefficacy in the judiciary and low investments in the economy, CP and reform in police departments are posited to be instrumental strategies in facilitating social change and realizing development. CP has

continually been perceived positively in various researches in both developing and developing countries. The CP program is surmised to be the antidote to problems of crime marring communities and neighborhoods across the globe. However, in as much as research has emphasized its benefits, there are still confusions on the realities of CP. In several instances, CP has been resisted from both individual and institutional scopes. Reforms in police departments is equally challenging, considering that security officers are grossly undertrained and underpaid, coupled by enduring mistrust against them by communities. In other instances, there is poor consultation and participation which leads to overall failure of CP for example in Uganda, where attention was not paid to the fact that the needs of communities are varied. Demands for solutions by local communities against rising crime rates have resulted to low enthusiasm and ultimately, abandonment of CP practices. Implementation hindrances and organizational variables have also contributed to the shortfalls experienced in CP. Nonetheless, the summation is that the issues are systematic, hence many societies perceive CP as irrelevant. The practices of community policing have mainly discredited or ignored security provision methods and policing which are carried outside the state's purview. Dismissal of CP practices has been due to lack of legal status and lack of accountability. Ownership of CP programmes is essential for success. Initiatives should be localized, borrowing practices from other contexts only when the success records in the contexts from which the practices are borrowed from are applicable to experiences of local communities. The National Police Service in Kenya decided unilaterally to adopt and implement CP amidst little discussion with communities, much that inclusion was not accorded to all groups for engagement which ultimately presents presenting an unfavourable outcome of CP against crime.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

Grant and Osanloo (2014) avers that, “Theoretical framework is the ‘blueprint’ or guide for a research; it is a framework based on an existing theory in a field of inquiry that is related and/or reflects the hypothesis of a study”. A theoretical framework is the basis upon which a researcher develops and anchors their study (Kivunja, 2018). The study therefore was guided by the broken window theory by Wilson and Kelling (1982).

2.7.1 Broken Window Theory

According to Lombardo and Lough (2007), specific community police programs and community meetings are instrumental in helping enhance the informal mechanisms for social control that are inherent in neighborhoods that have a high prevalence of criminality and disorder, which allows community members to make a contribution towards maintaining control. Broken Window Theory’s relevance in the study is significant as it gives an explanation of the direct association between distressed communities and criminality.

Introduced by James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling in 1982 in their book *‘The police and the neighborhood’*, Broken Window Theory, is based on the summation that crime and disorder are related to development sequences. The theory is founded on the idea that signs of disorder such as broken windows are an indication that individuals in the community do not care which results to greater fears of criminality and lower levels of efficacy in the community. The outcome of non-caring attitudes and fears of criminality is even greater signs of criminality and disorder, a cycle that perpetually leads to societal

and community's decay. In an instance where a building's window is broken and unrepaired, the theory surmises that the remaining windows will also be broken, since the window left unrepaired is an indication that there is an uncaring attitude in the neighborhood hence more broken windows will not have any repercussion from law enforcement. This form of vandalism may happen anywhere once the sense of civil obligations and mutual regard are disregarded which signals lack of concern within the community.

According to Wilson and Kelling, neighborhoods with abandoned property are also characterized by growing and untended weeds, broken windows and lack of discipline to children. To a greater extent, such neighborhoods are vacated by families which gives room to individuals with uncaring attitudes to move in, hence facilitating criminality and disorder in the neighborhood. As a response, individuals have less interaction with one another, activity in the neighborhood streets become less and less which leads to the area having a higher vulnerability to criminality.

Lombardo and Lough (2007) argue that community withdrawal leads to high levels of drug use and sale, mugging and prostitution. Broken Windows theory is instrumental for community policing due to the acknowledgement that when behaviour is left unattended, community controls break down which lead to criminality. Wilson and Kelling surmise that it is necessary for law enforcement to be more attentive to deviance and maintain effective and efficient policing.

Nonetheless, Broken Windows theory has been challenged by various criminologists and researchers. Taylor (2001) in the book "Breaking away from Broken Windows"

attempted to determine the origin of civility and establish whether it is responsible for eroding urban life. Taylor concluded that strategies by police aimed at maintaining order and reducing fears associated with crime could be misdirected. Hence it is essential that strategy adoption by law enforcement doesn't take an axiomatic route. The argument is that instances of incivility are better understood as outcomes of economic disadvantage, instead of symptoms of disorder and disorganization in the neighborhood, thus fighting criminality is pivotal compared to reducing criminality. According to Sampson and Raudenbush (1999), crime and disorder are manifestations of similar explanatory processes. They have common social and structural origins. Thus, the cause of criminality and disorder in the community and neighborhood is weak efficacy within the community and structural disadvantages, which in general sense is shortfall of the community in regulating the conduct of its members.

In the context of this study, broken windows theory is relevant because it attempts to guide the study by exploring the role of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in combating crime in Baringo North Sub-County, Kenya. The theory alludes that visible signs of crime, anti-social conduct and civil disorder create an environment which promote further criminality and disorderliness.

2.8 Conclusion

Literature reviewed has revealed that CP emerged as an approach of addressing the relation between members of the community and police officers. therefore, police establish relationships with members of the community and need the community

members' willingness to provide information concerning crime in their neighborhoods. Additionally, security officers implement pragmatic values to policing, which create the perspective that their role is maintaining safety in the community. Previously, it was understood by the community that their role was to reaffirm social norms promoting public safety. In line with this view, this study delved into the varied attempts of identifying the community policing concept and specifically, on the legal, policy and institutional frameworks of CP, the role of the community and police in implementation of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy and the effectiveness of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in reducing crime.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter outline the research methodology that was applied to this study. It provided the operational framework within which data was collected and analysed. The chapter gives detailed discussion of the context, methodological research design of the study, study area, target population of the study, sample design and sample size, data collection instruments, validity and reliability of instruments, data analysis, and ethical considerations that was employed in the study.

3.1 Research Design

Kothari (2004) delineates research design as a conceptualization within which a researcher conducts a study; it comprises the blueprint for which the researcher collects, measures and analyses data. The researcher employed qualitative descriptive survey research design. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), a descriptive survey study is concerned with finding out the what, where and how of a phenomenon under study. The qualitative approach was preferred in this study because it allowed for analysis of different variables at the same time and thus enabling the researcher to describe the problem under study. The design employed descriptive approach and this enabled the researcher to accurately and systematically describe a population, situation or phenomenon under the investigation.

3.2 Study Area

This study was carried out in Baringo North Sub-County. The study area has five divisions namely, Kabartonjo, Barwessa, Bartabwa, Saimo Soy and Saimo Kipsaraman. Baringo North borders Tiaty sub County to the North, Baringo Central Sub County to the East, and Elgeyo Marakwet County to the West. According to 2019 census, Baringo North Sub County has a population of 104,871, predominantly Aror Sub ethnic community of Tugen community of Kalenjin. Being a volatile area with number of cases of cattle rustling, inter-ethnic conflicts, cases of rural crime cases, it was justifiable for the researcher to carry out the study in this particular region. The area falls under the Arid and Semi-arid (ASAL) with very harsh climatic and physical terrain. The poverty level in the region according to national statistics is 43.7%. the road infrastructure in the study area is good in some parts and in bad condition especially in the areas bordering the neighboring counties.

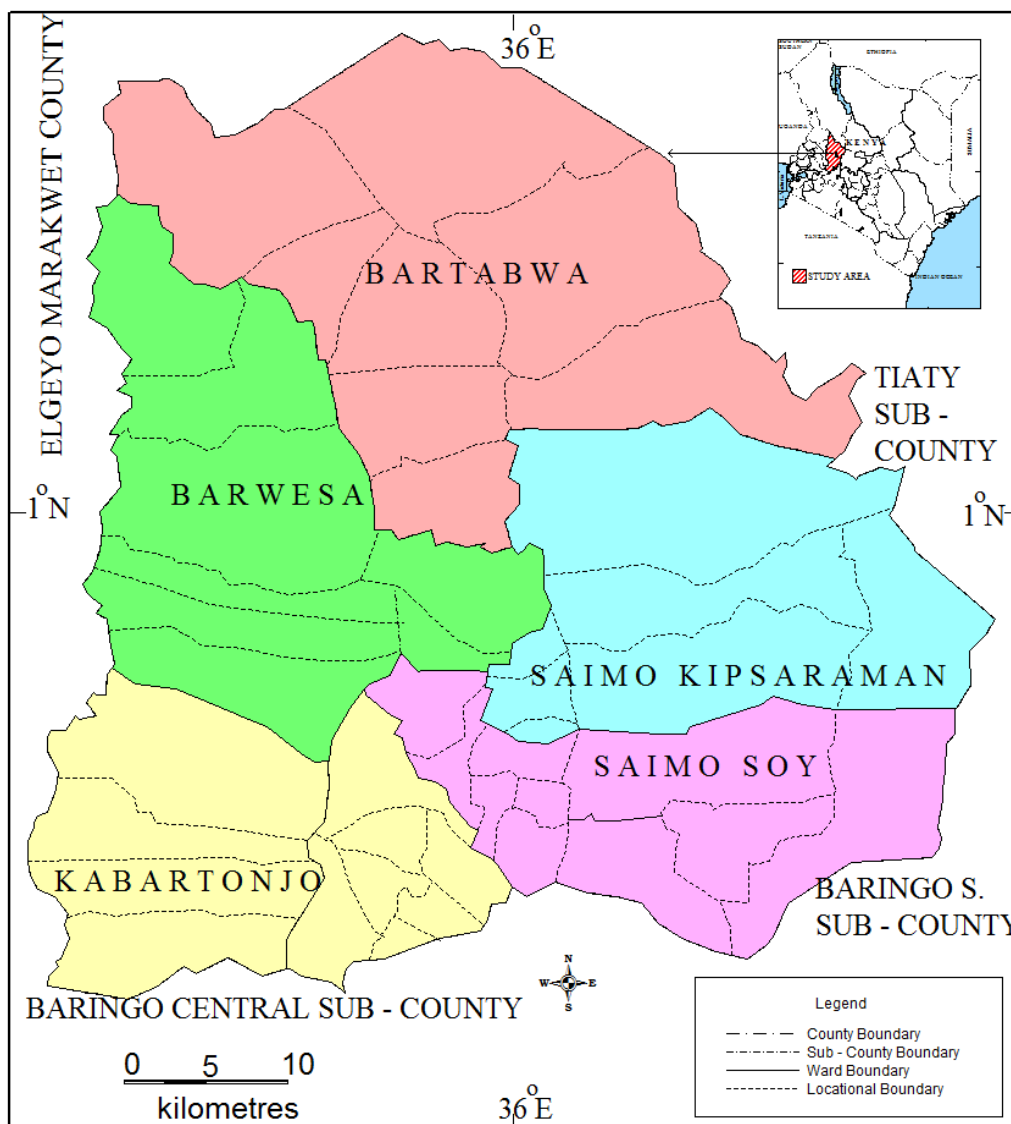


Figure 3.1 Map of Baringo North Sub-County

Source: Moi University Geography Department GIS Lab.

3.3 Target Population

The target population of the study comprised of the administrative divisions, police stations and other stakeholders of security sectors (SCPC, OCS, WC) in Baringo North Sub-County. The study also targeted NGO's, CBO's especially the representatives of the

organizations. Furthermore, the study also targeted the local administrators of the five wards. The study employed a total of 25 respondents.

3.4 Sampling Design and Sample Size

The researcher used purposive sampling method. According to Sharma (2017), the advantage of purposive sampling is that generalizations can be made from the study being sampled. Additionally, the researcher can choose from a wide range of non-probability approaches befitting the study. Alternatively, Sharma (2017) argues that the disadvantage of purposive sampling is that the prevalent challenge is the tendency of bias, considering the sample has been arrived at as per the researcher's judgment. Therefore, the representativeness of the sample arrived at cannot be defended. This form of sampling was used by the researcher to select respondents that were informative and enabled the researcher to answer the research questions and meet the study's objective (Neuman, 2006). Zikmund (1991) posits that purposive sampling is a non-probability technique whereby the researcher selects sample units based on convenience or personal judgment regardless of the population's representativeness. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), by using purposive sampling, the researcher uses cases with respective information that will facilitate answering the research question. In this study, purposive sampling was used to sample 25 respondents, which included 8 local administrators, 1 SCPC, 1 OCS, 5 WC, 5 NGO representatives and 5 CBO representatives in Baringo North Sub-County. This was done purposively through targeting of key respondents who have pertinent information as well as the stakeholders.

The sample size is as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Sample Size for Local Administrators

Wards	SCPC	OCS	WC	NGO's	CBO's	Local Administrators	Sample Size
Bartabwa	1	1	5	5	5	2	25
Barwessa						2	
Kabartonjo						2	
Saimo – Kipsaraman						1	
Saimo-Soy						1	
Total	1	1	5	5	5	8	25

Source: (KNBS Baringo, 2009)

3.5 Research Instruments

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) defines an interview schedules as a list of questions the researcher asks the participants in the study. Interview items are standardized for the study's context and circumstance that allows researcher to ask them in the same way. Interview schedules are structured, unstructured or semi-structured. This study used semi-structured and informal interviews. The informal approach was selected due to the fact that it allowed the participants to be relaxed during their participation and it encouraged them to be spontaneous and provide complete responses. The researcher conducted the interviews on the local administrators, SCPC, OCS, WC, NGO representatives and CBO representatives. Interview questions were informed by the themes of the study; hence they were aligned to objective. The NGOs targeted in this study were Noringo Women Network, Citizen Participation Forum, CEDGG, Action-Aid International Kenya and World Vision Action Program. The CBOs targeted by the study were CIPAF CBO,

Tumaini CBO, Testai CBO, Baringo Peace Advocacy and Baringo Agro-Pastoral Community Network.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

The procedure for data collection provides the researcher with a guideline through which data is collected, processed, analysed and reported. This procedure improves the usefulness, timeliness, accuracy and comparability of the research. Easwaramoorthy and Zarinpoush (2006) argue that interviews are appropriate in instances when the researcher needs to collect in-depth information concerning participants' thoughts, opinions, feelings and experiences.

Interviews were appropriate when the phenomenon is related to issues requiring complex queries and probing. Additionally, face to face interviews are appropriate when the population targeted by the researcher can communicate better through interviews compared to other forms, such as through phone or writing. In this study, interview schedules were used as it was applicable to the local administrators, SCPC, OCS, WC, NGO's and CBO's within Baringo North Sub-County. The researcher visited the selected individuals in the sub-county on approved dates of appointment and personally conducted the interviews.

3.7 Validity and Reliability of Research Instrument

Validity is referred to as an instrument's ability to measure what it has been designed for. Kothari, (2006) states "Validity is the most critical criterion and indicates the degree to which an instrument measures what is supposed to measure. In other words, validity is

the extent to which differences found with a measuring instrument reflect true differences among those being tested”. In order to enhance instrument validity, the researcher reviewed the interview items aided by supervisors to ascertain that they were relevant to the study.

Reliability on the other hand, refers to repeatability of consistency of an instrument, meaning that the outcome of the instrument is consistent upon several instances of being administered. According to Boit, Wangare and Magero (2009), the main concern with reliability is that results produced by the instrument are consistent. It is the requisite that in another instance, results achieved by other researchers or results from different contexts will be comparable or replicable. Kothari (2006) surmises that an instrument is deemed reliable if results provided in varying administrations are consistent. In order for the interview schedule to measure what it was to measure; pilot testing was done before the interview schedule is used in actual data collection. Interviews in the pilot testing were carried out on ten respondents from two location which were Kabutiei and Ossen locations in Baringo North. However, the respondents who participated in the pilot study were not involved in the final study. From the pilot study, the researcher ascertained that the responses met the threshold.

3.8 Data Analysis

The study collected qualitative data hence data analysis was carried out using content analysis. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) aver that content analysis is an approach the researcher uses to make inferences by being systematic and objective in identifying

specific aspects of information and data using associated trends. Hsieh and Shannon (2005) add that content analysis is a systematic qualitative narrative of the materials and objectives of the study. Data collected through interviews was therefore transcribed into text using verbatim transcription. The advantage of verbatim transcription is that it allows for the recording all aspects of the interview. Collected data was thematically presented in line with the study's objectives. The thematic categorization of data enabled the researcher to reduce the wide variety of information to more limited set of attributes composing a variable to draw conclusions on the research question. Conclusions of findings from the data collected was presented thematically.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The researcher strictly adhered to professionalism and ethical guidelines of research throughout the duration of this study. The study was concerned with Maximum confidentiality as well as adherence to respondents' willingness to comply to participate in the processes. The study also ensured that there was no biasness or falsification while collecting data and conducting the research thus ensuring that the study's findings were truly representative (Kour, 2014). The researcher also ensured that it acknowledged and cited all the relevant literature to promote the originality of research and alleviate possible cases of plagiarism (Resnik, 2011). Welfare of the respondents will be of key essence. As a procedure the study begun when approvals, permits and authority to conduct the study shall were obtained from NACOSTI and Moi University.

CHAPTER FOUR

LEGAL, POLICY AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK OF COMMUNITY

POLICING IN BARINGO NORTH SUB-COUNTY

4.0 Overview

This chapter delves into the framework on community policing in Baringo North Sub-County. The framework includes the initiatives that address insecurity from the standpoint of sectorial and administrative contexts. Various organizations in Kenya collaborate with community policing initiatives in order to achieve crime deterrence. Structural and social efforts are therefore instrumental in combating crime. In this chapter, the legal, policy and institutional framework guiding community policing has been discussed. It delineates community policing as an approach where citizens are enlisted as stakeholders in crime control and prevention. The approach involves four main ways of achieving such partnership; demonstration of police prioritization of community's and individuals' needs; consultation with citizens in development of crime prevention methods and local enforcement of law and order; mobilization of community participation in activities towards prevention of crime; and adoption of proactive problem-solving approaches towards prevention and control of crime. There are four aspects that idealize community policing. Firstly, the philosophical aspect which refers to beliefs and ideas underlying community policing; second, the strategic aspect which refers to philosophies into action; third, the tactical aspect which refers to strategies and philosophies translated into behaviour, programs and tactics; and fourthly, the organizational aspects which refers to the support provided towards promotion of

community policing. In this section, the institutional and legal framework and policy is delved into, emphasizing on elements of community policing. The section also delves into Administration of Police Act (1958), Police Act (1988) Police Reforms; Governance; Justice; Law and Order Sector (GJLOS) Reforms; and Kenya Police Service and Administration Police strategic plans.

4.1 Demographics of Respondents

The study targeted 25 respondents, comprised of 1 SCPC, 1 OCS, 5 Ward Commanders, 5 NGO representatives, 5 CBO representatives and 8 local administrators from Baringo Sub-County. The demographic data of the respondents was characterized with age and gender. With regard to gender, the findings revealed that a high percentage of the respondents were male, represented by 64%, while only 36% of the respondents were female. With regard to age, the highest number of respondents, 40% were between the ages of 36-40 years, 24% were between the ages of 41-45 years, 16% were aged between 46-50 years, 8% of the respondents were aged below 30 years and above 50 years respectively, and the least percentage of respondents, 4% were aged between 30-35 years.

Table 4.1 Codes Representing the Respondents**Table 4.1 Codes Representing the Respondents**

Respondent 1	SCPC (Sub-County Police Commander)
Respondent 2	OCS (Officer Commanding Station)
Respondent 3 - 7	Respondent 3 – Ward Commander Bartabwa Respondent 4 – Ward Commander Barwessa Respondent 5 – Ward Commander Kabartonjo Respondent 6 – Ward Commander Saimo-Kipsaraman Respondent 7 – Ward Commander Saimo Soy
NGORep 1 - 5	NGORep 1 – Noringo Women Network NGORep 2 – Citizen Participation Forum NGORep 3 – CEDGG NGORep 4 – Action-Aid International Kenya NGORep 5 – World Vision Action Program
CBORep 1 - 5	CBORep 1 – CIPAF CBO CBORep 2 – Tumaini CBO CBORep 3 – Testai CBO CBORep 4 – Baringo Peace Advocacy CBORep 5 – Baringo Agro-Pastoral Community Network
Respondent 8 - 12	Respondent 8 – Local Administrator Bartabwa Respondent 9 – Local Administrator Barwessa Respondent 10 – Local Administrator Kabartonjo Respondent 11 – Local Administrator Saimo-Kipsaraman Respondent 12 – Local Administrator Saimo Soy Respondent 13 – Local Administrator Bartabwa Respondent 14 – Local Administrator Barwessa Respondent 15 – Local Administrator Kabartonjo

4.2 Legal Framework of Community Policing in Kenya

Kenya's National Police Service has adopted community policing and has put in place a directorate through which the program's strategies are handled. The NPS Service Act No. 11 recognizes community policing as a policing approach which is founded on the local community's voluntariness in participating with law enforcement towards maintenance of peace. It thus recognizes that law enforcement officers must cater to the local community's needs and collaborate in identifying security problem and solving them. Formation of the County Policing Authority across all counties is further prescribed in the Act (NPS Act, 2011). Respondent 1 emphasized on the authority's structure, especially on the context of the NPS Act, by saying that:

“The Authority is to be made up of the Police Commanders, the County Governor and representatives from the business sector, religious groups, and Community Based Organizations, people with special needs in the respective counties. The county policing is mandated to promote community policing initiatives, receive reports from the community policing forums and monitor crime trends and crime patterns in the counties and devise action plan to counter crimes.” (Respondent 1)

The 1958 Administration of Police Act is a key legislative piece that the administration police is legitimated by. However, Cap 63, Cap 75, Cap 85 and Cap 128 of the Laws of Kenya are all relevant. Further, in the Chiefs Act (Cap 128), it is stipulated that administration police are agents of law enforcement. In the 1988 Police Act, specifically in Section 14, it is laid out that the functions of police officers is preventing and detecting crime; apprehending offenders; and enforcing all regulations and laws that the service is mandated, among other duties and responsibilities.

The 2010 Constitution of Kenya established democratic policing as a key principle in security and policing. The constitution's Article 244 (e) necessitates that the national police service embraces partnerships with communities and the society. According to provisions of the constitution, all policies enacted towards policing must take into consideration, respect for rule of law, basic human rights and freedoms. According to the 2011 NPS Act, specifically Article 96 (1), the community and police should work in harmony, collaborate and partner, effectively utilizing cooperation and communication so as to facilitate better delivery of services. Further, the constitution established citizen oversight committees aimed at enhancing policing, which led to the formation of Independent Policing Oversight Authority for purposes of ensuring that the rule of law is upheld by law enforcement officers and that they observe basic rights and freedoms of all citizens (IPOA Act No. 35, 2011).

Regardless of establishment of varied bodies mandated with watching over law enforcement officers, Hill (2009) argues that actual change in practices and activities of policing is only achievable by attitudinal change both by the public and the police. The author adds that structures, frameworks and procedures outlined in legislation with regard to policing may not have desired output when the attitudes of primary stakeholders in the process is lacking. Hill further points out that majority of individuals have approved the "hard" approach of police dealing with crime. Ogada (2012) also surmises that Kenya's policing is far from being transformed unless a change of attitude across the society is embraced. Similarly, respondent 2 said:

“Many people in Kenya believe that the police institution works for the interest of a certain class of people in the society. Majority of the populations see the police as instrument for the mighty and powerful to oppress and make them achieve their goals with little care for those down the economy ladder. Civilians who volunteer information to the police feels at risk and betrayed by the police who cannot keep confidential the informers thus creating mistrust.” (Respondent 2)

Braiden (1992) concurs that successes of community policing are achieved in environments where trust is mutual between the community and police officers. Law enforcement officers have become members of the community and have been integrated in such a way they that they comprehend the environment and individuals in which and whom they serve. However, the prevailing misconception is that policing authorities tend to usurp their responsibilities with respect with policing, and instead end up interfering with matters of intelligence.

Ruteere (2012) posits that the relationship between the public and the police has always been marred by mistrust. The author argues that the efficiency and effectiveness of services offered by police has always been thought to be negatively impacted by such mistrust. This was also emphasized by Respondents 8 and Respondent 11, who held the opinion that:

“The police institution in Kenya was reluctant in believing that the public or the outside society could play a role in shaping the police policy and reforms.” (Respondent 8)

“The public are seen as a hindrance to the goals of policing and no need to consult them on policing issues.” (Respondent 11)

Adambo (2005) surmises that adoption of western forms of community policing by African nations requires that local aspects causing varied challenges in controlling and preventing crime be considered, such as government type, social organization, levels of

poverty and culture. Alternately, Kelling and Core (2008) conclude that operational and organizational frameworks should be strengthened in police institutions where initiatives of community policing are established. In Kenya's context, Masese (2010) argues that there is little support extended to law enforcement officers which hampers full legislative structuring of community policing ideals.

4.3 Policy Framework of Community Policing in Baringo -North Sub County

Brogden and Nijhar (2005) posit that community policing is perceived as an antidote to issues of insecurity, disorder and crime. The focus on partnerships between the community and police makes it pivotal in addressing issues at local level and gives it a high capacity of bringing neighborhood efforts together to counter criminality (Ochieng, 2004). Baker (2008) also argues that community policing is established as a pivotal instrument in reducing poverty and crime. Further, Groenewald and Peake (2004) surmises that community policing has a significant role in broadening community's goals of development. Subsequently, in the explanation of community policing, Respondent 4 and Respondent 7 added that:

“Community policing has been identified as a valuable resource in addressing a wide range of issues including the proliferation of Small Arms and Light Weapons, tackling organized crime, generating political legitimacy, improving the image of the police and as an answer to human rights problems.” (Respondent 4)

“There are thus a myriad of objectives underpinning community policing interventions and understanding these is critical in clarifying how and why community policing is used.” (Respondent 7)

The stakeholders involved in community policing tend to have varied understandings and expectations regarding the goal and objective of community policing programs, hence there lacks coherence, cohesiveness or agreement with regard to the purpose of community policing programs. Call (2003) establishes that diverse objectives is a reflection that among police officers and departments, there are different ways that community policing is understood and implemented, which can be associated with complexities in the philosophy and overall framework. As such, community policy is largely ambiguous, and the ambiguity enhances its susceptibility to differences in expectations and priorities by law enforcement officers, government officials, the community as well as international stakeholders. Despite that all stakeholders are incomparable, the differences in interpretation have a high probability of diluting, distorting and defeating the goal and objectives of community policing (Ruteere & Pommerolle, 2003).

Various studies that have investigated community policing in different contexts establish that there is a stronger tendency of law enforcement officers perceiving community policing as an instrument through which information can be gathered to enhance crime prevention and crime controlling activities (Ferreira, 1996). Along the same line, NGO Rep3 and CBO Rep 4 said:

“Once the citizens trust the police they will provide the police with information and assistance to help prevent crimes and to arrest more criminals.” (NGOREp 3)

“From a perspective of information provision, police expect an improved relationship with the community to facilitate intelligence-led policing, and in some cases, it has led to more effective criminal investigations.” (CBORep 4)

In the context of Hong Kong, Lee King (2009) indicates that community policing has encouraged neighborhoods to extend information to law enforcement officers, which is crucial to enhancing investigations and informs effective collection of intelligence against criminality conducted by criminal groups. However, according to Brogden and Nijhar (2005), the characterization of community policing within the demarcations of intelligence gathering has a probability of conflicting with the expectations of communities with regard to collaboration and involvement in neighborhood policing and with their desire of acting as producers of order and safety (Skolnick & Bayley, 1988). The suggestion is that police officers have the tendency of interpreting community policing as a method through which instruction is to be provided to the community rather than taking their views, observations and perceptions into consideration.

Respondent 10 indicated that a relationship has been developed and is maintained between police and the community. With regard to information sharing as an objective of the police, they stated that:

“the sharing of information between communities and police officers has been undertaken through Information boxes called “Toa Habari kwa Polisi”, which has allowed individuals to pass information confidentially to police officers to prevent and reduce crime.” (Respondent 10)

In some instances, police officers have used community policing as an instrument of justifying zero tolerance approaches to crime prevention and control, which emphasizes the preventive approach of community policing and the requirement for disorder and other forms of crime to be handled strictly (Ruteere & Pommerolle, 2003). The method is reflective of the broken windows method which surmises that signs of neglect, disorder and incivility, seen by the presence of broken windows, creates an impression of lack of

social control, and leads to even greater fears of criminality and extends into grave instance of crime. The zero tolerance technique has been said to be a hard approach of community policing (Dixon, 2000).

Nonetheless, whereas studies view zero tolerance as a community policing method, other studies indicate that community policing is a misrepresentation of the broken windows aspect and encourage a return to traditional policing approaches which evidently do away with community policing principles (Scheider, 2009). This perspective tends to promote activities intensify and reproduce authoritarian notions and brutalizes policing approaches of policing which have a high possibility of contributing to tarnished police image and exacerbating mistrust towards police, which a factor that community policing aims at remedying. According to Ruteere and Pommerolle (2003), in the context of South Africa, the Good Hope and Clean and Safe programs are examples of how police image can be tarnished by adopting zero tolerance techniques. The two programs in South Africa were primarily focused on removal of undesirable individuals from cities through cracking down on beggars and street children, which resulted to frequent arrests and harassment of the flagged individuals (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2007). Whereas the result may have been safer neighborhoods for individuals living in affluent areas, the manner in which the process was carried out was considered unethical in terms of principles guiding community policing, human rights and community consent.

The tendency of police institutions to perceive community policing goals as a contribution to enhanced capacity of preventing and controlling crime is not a suggestion that there is a lack of human rights advocacy in the police. Rather, evidence suggests that

there are officers who champion for the adoption and implementation of community policing. Nonetheless, by advocating for community policing, such officers have had to contend with an institutional culture that focuses more on crime fighting instead of community involvement due to the fact that community involvement comes with increased accountability on the part of police. In instances where police have a poor record of observing human rights, the adoption and implementation of community policing is hampered because police may be unwilling to admit past shortcomings. Ruteere and Pommerolle (2003) show that the Kenya police have been reluctant in the past to collaborate with Kenya Human Rights Commission (KHCR) in implementation of reforms due to the fact that the evidence had been brought up against police concerning human rights violations which led to confrontation between the two institutions.

Despite its delineation, community policing is infrequently introduced at communities request or with consultation with community members. Instead, community policing programs are often imposed on targeted communities. Local neighborhoods in varied contexts show different understanding of the aspects of community policing, and their focus is highly reliant on various factors such as previous relationship and trust with police officers, levels of crime in the neighbourhood and the neighbourhood's political economy. This sentiment was echoed by Respondent 5, who said that:

“In many cases communities have seen community policing as an opportunity for making the police more accountable and responsive to local needs. That is, they expect to collaborate with the police to identify problems and develop shared solutions, seeing community police consultative forums as avenues for accountability, complaint and redress.” (Respondent 5)

This is mostly evident in areas where police have in the past acted as state oppression agents. The objective and goal of community policing may become conflicting with those established by law enforcement officers. For instance, in South Africa, Brogden and Nijhar (2005) posit that whereas police officers perceive community policing objectives as assess of information and maintained attachment to ideas of police control and authority, many communities held an agenda of reversing the imbalance of power and enhancing accountability of police to the needs of the community. Community policing was emphasized to be about control of police and less on crime prevention.

Nonetheless, Brogden and Nijhar (2005) aver that the perspective of human rights makes much presumption on local community priorities. In instances where rates of crime are considerably high, objectives of the community may coalesce with police priorities of fighting crime, especially as police clamor for stringent policing and call for actions to be taken towards combating crime as is deemed necessary (O'Neill, 2005). Hence, in some contexts, communities tend to tolerate and request tougher and more visible methods of policing. Both the police and communities are therefore susceptible to notions that community policing tends to be soft on criminal activities and that focusing on human rights may hamper effectiveness and efficiency of police action.

In highlighting the community's role in community policing, NGORep 1 was of the opinion that:

“there have been instances of raising awareness of community policing and its potential benefit for the community. In the same scope, members of the community who are both victims and perpetrators of crime have been reached out through community-based forums. In return, the community members are involved in efforts to improve safety in the area.” (NGOREp 1)

However, in other instances, the community may not perceive community policing as pertinent at all, or may perceive it as hindering their interests, as was established in the response by CBORep 2 who said that:

“In some poor neighbourhoods, crime can be an integral part of the local economy and many residents benefit from the proceeds of these illicit activities.”
(CBORep 2)

Subsequently, evidence shows that their continuation is tolerated (Minnaar, 2009). In tranquil contexts, crime may not be seen by the community as an issue (Grabosky, 2009) and in other contexts, community policing may be perceived as one among many issues that communities are concerned with (Cain, 2000). Cain adds that for example in Trinidad and Tobago, neighborhood watch is not integrated to police information exchange or crime prevention and control. Rather, the police have tailored own agendas disregarding the significance of locating issues of criminal activity in hierarchical priorities within neighborhoods. In such instances, the community ends up being disinterested in community policing – deprioritizing it, which essentially hinders the involvement of other actors in achieving the objectives and goals laid out in initiated and implemented programs.

Notably, rarely is it likely that the community is spoken in a cohesive and singular sense, as it gives the suggestion of homogeneity and uniformity that is considered inexistent. Many communities’ and neighborhoods’ heterogeneity, more so in urban regions, only means that a large scope of priorities and interests are encapsulated. It is established for example that in Northern Ireland, the extensive stratification of society is a significant hindrance to community policing implementation (Brogden & Nijhar, 2005).

Responses from NGORep 2 and CBORep 5 alluded to the necessity of understanding the power relations between stakeholders of community policing in order to achieve effectiveness and efficiency. They said that:

“Understanding community objectives in community policing thus requires an understanding of the community itself – the various interest groups involved, the power relations between them, as well as an understanding of the contexts in which communities find themselves, which will prioritise different perspectives on the best ways to combat crime.” (NGORep 2)

“It is the powerful, educated and politically connected that tend to dominate community policing committees and hijack them for their own purposes or interests. These circumstances will influence the objectives that communities see community policing as fulfilling.” (CBORep 5)

States have adopted community policing reforms for various reasons and prioritized varied objectives. In some states, community policing was historically perceived as an efficient way to address and prevent criminality compared to reactive and predominantly traditional methods (Brogden & Nijhar, 2005). Other states adopted community policing as a pivotal component of wider democratic reform, emphasizing on accountability, transparency and human rights. For example, Marks et al. (2009) argues that in South Africa, adoption of community policing was as a form of democratic governance and civic participation. In other contexts still, states implement community policing as a method of projecting power into areas where government presence is limited, which is a way of complementing limited resources. Through cooperation with or co-opting the community and community leaders, the state is able to widen its authority (Dinnen & Braithwaite, 2009).

Other researchers have been cynical, identifying the tendency of government officials to uptake community policing language as a way of accessing resources from donors, or as

a way of enhancing police public image without necessarily making investment in genuine reforms against repression by law enforcement officers. For example, Hills (2012) posits that governments tend to have no political will for accommodation of reforms that are aimed at reducing political power. Hills adds that elites' goals and objectives are pertained to improvement of police image, rather than enhance accountability and democracy. Conclusively, such a response is a challenge to the practice and knowledge theory that underpins policies in the western states with regard to police democratization and reform and suggest further reasons of self-interest for governments and police institutions in so far as community policing is concerned.

Responses from Respondent 12 and Respondent 9 with regard to participation of other actors apart from the police indicated that:

“there was sensitization on community policing through local ‘Barazas’ while the Government and civil societies also undertakes training on civic education programmes by holding seminars.” (Respondent 12)

“Local ‘Barazas’ are aimed towards helping in dissemination of community policing information. They give the community an opportunity to raise specific security and safety concerns with the local government and security agencies and generate joint solutions.” (Respondent 9)

Involvement of NGOs and donors in community policing programmes as part of development strategies adds more complexities to the understanding of what community policing is aimed at achieving. Not only is there evidence of stakeholders' priorities frequently conflicting, especially where international and national stakeholders are concerned, or where interests of different national actors coincide, but there are more cases of internal priorities and objectives competing, as there is lack of coherence in terms of overall goals and objectives of initiated and implemented community policing

programs. A large percentage of participation and collaboration by NGOs involve civic education. The NGOs in the study area leaned towards civic education with regard to community policing, as pointed out by NGOREp 5 who said that:

“the goal is not only to teach people about their rights and duties in a participatory democracy, but also to increase the public’s understanding of the new roles and responsibilities of citizens and police in the democratic society.”
(NGOREp 5)

One of the main goals of NGOs and donors involved in community policing is the establishment of democratic institutions that are focused on improving and addressing human rights (Brogden & Nijhar, 2005). Community policing programs and interventions that are supported by donors are mostly fitted within a wider suite of reforms reflecting the liberal notions of state building agenda (Ellison & Pino, 2012). However, the goals of NGOs and donors have also been amplified by international contextual changes. Considering that interest has grown in transnational criminal activity for example illicit financial flow, drug trafficking and terrorism, it means that international development assistance objectives, more so with regard to security and policing have taken an international aspect (Duffield, 2001a; Bayley, 2001). This is clear, for example in the G8’s Africa Action Plan which states that “Poverty, underdevelopment and fragile states create fertile conditions for violent conflict and the emergence of new security threats, including international crime and terrorism. There is no lasting security without development and no effective development without security and stability” (Willet, 2005). The growing focus on connections between security and development means that objectives of donors with regard to community policing have at times, also shifted to strong responses of fighting crime (Bayley, 2001). According to Casey (2010), for

instance, the shift in priorities is seen in availability of funding for projects, which suggests that community policing has been integrated in homeland security.

Additionally, the aspect of ‘securitization of development’ as termed by Duffield (2001b) that began in mid-1990s and intensified by the September 2001 terrorist attacks in the US as well as by the War on Terror policies, has enhanced the perception of states as key to provision of security. On the other hand, it means that non-state actors, especially those considered to be outside the security purview, are perceived as dangers to liberal orders, and are therefore marginalized (Richmond, 2003). NGOREp 5 emphasizes this context by indicating that:

“the community policing objectives of donors, like those of the community, cannot be assumed to correlate with a human rights approach. Rather, their objectives will vary depending on the international, as well as national, political context.”
(NGOREp 5)

Issues of congruence also exist in terms of objectives within international agencies that provide assistance to community policing, Biddle et al. (1999) argues that community policing implementation in the United Kingdom for instance, is often a reflection of competition between different agency perspectives, instead of adherence to coherence in policy. This means that developmental goals by DFID for instance, varies with the more political and diplomatic goals of the Foreign and Commonwealth Office. Further, NGOs and donors often have certain interests that are more likely to be seen in goals expected to be achieved with community policing. This point is elaborated by the response from CBORep 1 who said that:

“Organizations concerned with reducing the proliferation of Small and Light Weapons, for example, are likely to place greater emphasis on the information gathering potential of community policing, whilst those concerned with democratization and social justice are more likely to prioritise accountability, transparency and inclusion.” (CBORep 1)

Dinnen (2007) argues that the effect of various NGOs and donor agencies working with different agendas in states having limited capacities can be for purposes of crowding crucial space for capacity development by local actors’ approaches, which may have a reverse outcome than what is expected, for instance shutting down opportunities for capacity building instead of creating them. NGOs and donor agencies hence add to the complexities of community policing goals and objectives, and the objectives of such institutions as well as their political interests need to be considered.

4.4 Institutional Framework of Community Policing in Baringo North Sub County

Overall, as a national policy framework, the objective of Kenya Vision 2030 is security improvement with the goal of lowering cost of business and providing all citizens with secure working and living environment. The focus is achieving this objective by promotion of cooperation between public and private entities and enhancing participation between community and civilian agencies for security and safety to be improved; improving policy, initiating institutional and legal reform so as to enhance the manner in which law and order is enforced; improvement of community policing practices and activities; and adoption of ICT in detection and prevention of crime (GoK, 2008).

The necessity for reforms in police institutions was acknowledged by the government of Kenya as far as 1990s when the constitution was amended, allowing the development of a multi-party state. However, reforms were disjointed, albeit improved by the 2003

Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (ERSWEC) that involved reform of police institutions within its goal of enhancing governance. Primarily, the ERSWEC focused on decreasing the imbalance in ratio between police and citizens from 1:850 to 1:450; developing and implementing public empowerment programs to facilitate trust building between citizens and the police; enhancing effectiveness and coverage of service by police through training and recruitment on technology and reiterating the need for officers' activities to be informed by law; providing police with adequate equipment; and enhancing housing conditions for law enforcement officers (CHRI, 2006).

The GJLOS Reform Programme focuses on sustaining sector-wide reforms in areas of priority that included prevention of crime and police reform. GJLOS was expected to make significant contributions towards community policing by implementing responsive policies, enforcing regulation and law through preventive and proactive policing; improving delivery of services by focusing on accountability and improved response supported by technology for crime to be reported and victims to be processed; reducing impunity and corruption in police institutions; improving access to justice, more so for vulnerable and marginalized populations by improving the ratio between police and citizens; enhancing gender-sensitivity and women's proportion in service; and developing more participative and informed citizens who have the capacity of providing community support for initiatives of community policing.

Further, the Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan (2008-2012) aims at propelling enhancement of partnerships between police and community in management of crime.

With regard to addressing the negative image of police held by the public, the plan emphasizes on appropriate efforts to solve issues and concerns regarding police as raised by the public. Particularly, complaints of alleged power abuses and corruption that create a negative perception of police and hamper efforts aimed at creating strong community and police relationships in crime control and prevention are addressed. In addition, the plan reiterates that crime management and prevention is achievable by sustaining community policing and liaising with other agencies.

The Administration Police Strategic Plan (2009-2013) acknowledges that it is pertinent for coexistence and security to be enhanced, as well as collaboration with other stakeholders both outside and inside government; providing proper avenues through which citizens are able to engage with security agencies and police. The plan reiterates further interventions that should be implemented in community policing and acknowledged by all stakeholders and emphasizes that police are mainly purposed with ensuring working partnerships, safety of communities and preventing crime. The plan also pursues certain strategies and goals as Vision 2030 outlines which include; enhancement of policies, reforms at institutional and legal capacities of police; and prevention of crime by enhancing community policing. Further, the plan identifies various reforms and areas through which police image can be improved, requiring focus on provision of support by respective government and security offices.

The National Task Force on Police Reforms (2009) recommended three items; legal, policy and institutional reforms; accountability, partnership and police image; and logistic and tooling capacity, terms and conditions of service and professionalism, and

operational preparedness. With regard to legal, policy and institutional reform, amendments included establishing the Police Service Commission; National Policing Council and Provincial Authorities and developing the National Policing Council, which is mandated with determining and promoting resource sharing for instance national training facilities so that unhealthy competitions and overlapping functions can be mitigated. Whereas the National Policing Council focuses on coordination between national policing services, authorities in each county fill gaps at decentralized levels.

Regarding partnership, accountability and police image, various amendments included establishment of Independent Oversight Authority, which is mandated through the constitution to execute its functions and protect its responsibilities from police, political and executive interference. Specifically, the measure focuses on enhancing confidence of citizens that police misconduct will be impartially investigated and perpetrators will be held accountable as per the dictates of law. In promotion of community policing the authority preparedness in terms of police operations, logistic and tooling capacity, terms and conditions of service and professionalism of police provide discourse on the aspect of police service and issues that directly impact police morale and standards.

The aspect of enhancing the national security for citizens is entrenched in the Kenyan constitution, Chapter 14. In the constitution's Section 239, the national security agencies have been referred as: the Kenya Défense Forces, the National Police Service and the National Intelligence Service. In Section 243 of the constitution, establishment of the National police Service is highlighted to consist of the Administration Police and Kenya Police. The functions and objects of the National Police as referred to in Section 244 are,

prevention of corruption, practice and promotion of accountability and transparency, and promotion of collaboration with society.

The Independent Policing Oversight Authority Act (2011) further provides effect to Article 244 which highlights that police are expected to maintain discipline and professionalism and aim towards practice and promotion of accountability and transparency. The Oversight Authority also investigates and monitors police operations that impact citizens. Contrastingly, the Independent Policing Oversight Authority Act effects oversight by the public on police matters.

Respondent 3 and Respondent 6 indicated that the institutional set up allows for engagement of different organizations, but also indicated that there is a challenge with the perception that the mandate to mitigate and counter crime is solely for security officers.

Their responses are as shown below:

“In so far as institutional set up is concerned, many organizations in Kenya, both in Government and in civil society, are engaged in activities to deter crime and violence. While there is a range of initiatives to address insecurity in several sectors and administrative levels, efforts are scattered and poorly coordinated.” (Respondent 3)

“Tackling crime and violence are still very much considered the responsibility of the police and the criminal justice system. As a result, structural, social and environmental causes behind the high rates of crime and violence are overlooked, as are the opportunities for addressing them.” (Respondent 6)

World Bank (2010) holds that if insecurity and crime levels are to be reduced efficiently and effectively, it is pivotal for institutional capacity to be increased on both prevention and control capacities, and facilitate appropriate coordination approaches. In this context, “The Government has engaged higher education institutions to develop modern models

of fighting crime and transform the police force into a professional service. The initiative started at Kenyatta University with the formation of Peace and Security Studies” (Sunday Nation, 2010).

The National Youth Policy (2006) refers to deviance and youth crime in the same delineation with crime and drugs as issues of concern. The policy makes propositions towards creation of visibility on problems of crime and drugs through awareness campaigns and creation of awareness; supporting physical, institutional and social programs aimed at preventing and controlling crime, and promoting collaboration with institutions in the scope of preventing crime as well as with rehabilitation programs (World Bank, 2010).

The concerns of security and safety have been interlined with urban development. Such initiatives have had significant impact in the incorporation of violence and crime as components of urban management through audits of crime, surveys of victimization, establishing partnerships with private sector and neighborhood associations, and introducing street lighting and rehabilitating public spaces (UN-Habitat, 2001).

4.5 Legal, Policy and Institutional Challenges facing Community Policing in Baringo North Sub-County

According to a US study by Community Policing Consortium (2012), myriad challenges still hamper community and police efforts towards achievement of successes in community policing. Various police institutions have done away with community policing as a component of traditional approaches in crime control and prevention

through the creation of special police units or through dedication of full-time patrols, whereas majority of law enforcement officers maintain business as usual. Several police departments in the United States increased their human resources to facilitate enhancements in policing while at the same time attempting to adopt novel approaches. Nonetheless, significant changes in how police officers approached policing activities was not embraced.

A study by National Center of Community Policing established that by and large, community policing was adopted, albeit without contributions of neighborhoods in identifying, prioritizing and solving issues. The study found that officers in community policing worked independent of the neighborhoods with regard to identification and provision of solutions to issues, which essentially had a negative outcome on the effectiveness of community policing. The second hindrance was officers' measure of performance in so far as community policing was concerned. Specifically, performance measures were founded on type of service, and institutional measures instead of officer aptitude in establishment of partnerships with the community, resulting in an inability of extending rewards respective to officers' efforts (Bucqueroux, 2007).

According to a study in Michigan State by Polzin (2007), inadequacies in strategies was identified as a key challenge in achievement of community policing successes. Polzin added that there is need for officers to embrace change management stratagems if community policing implementation is to succeed. Carroll, Buracker and Associates Ltd (2007) conducted a survey in the US and established that community policing effectiveness is limited by tendency of police operating as specialized agencies. Notably,

specialization of police creates environments where friction and isolation prevail between police and the community. Successful programs in community policing were established to be the ones that incorporated an organizational strategy. Nonetheless, Cordner (2009) argues that the organizational strategy presents challenges of its own. According to Cordner, officers in community policing were isolated in institutions where the specialized or dedicated approach was preferred. Specialized or dedicated units were established to be less credible which hampered the success of community policing overall.

Wassel and Rajalingam (2014) carried out a study in East Timor investigating perceptions of officers in community policing, and established that significant gaps existed between what was delineated as crime and actual incidents of criminality that occurred. The Integrated Information Management System (IIMS) that stored records of crimes reported only had the capacity of recording crimes forwarded to the Prosecutor General. Nonetheless, 60% of all reported crimes were addressed through mediation in the community and half of all crimes went unreported.

Such outcomes hampers police effectiveness in evaluation of community policing programs in determining program effectiveness in crime prevention and control and also hampers police plans and strategies with regard to allocation of resources respective to trends and patterns of prevalent crimes. For instance, in East Timor's Manufahi District, reports show that no crimes have been experienced for over a year. However, what is clear is that majority of events are resolved locally through informal approaches. It is pivotal for such events, though resolved informally, to be recorded so as to allow for

appropriate and consistent deployment of resources and to allow for effective tracking of community policing progresses in crime prevention and reduction. Faced with inadequacies in data analysis and data collection, it is challenging to establish whether adopted and implemented strategies achieve efficacy.

Onwudiwe (2009) conducted a study on community policing in Nigeria's context and found that officer transfer frequency was challenging the efficacy of community policing in the country. Majority of participants in the study established that senior officers were frequently transferred which basically had a negative and significant effect on overall performance of community policing. Further, it was established that police were acquainted with their operation areas, creating a conducive environment which facilitated collaboration with the community and aided the identification and knowledge of criminal activities, however, such operational developments were affected with transfer to new areas of operation, making community policing unsustainable in the long run and made it ineffective. The study focused on members of committees of community policing and the public, surveyed randomly and did not take the accounts of officers. Thus, police perspectives were not captured, which leads to the summation that the study lacked in scope of perception, especially considering that officers form a part of the community in so far as community policing is involved.

According to a study by Taylor, Fritsch and Caeti (2008), there are five major hindrances facing the efficacy and effectiveness of community policing, which are; insufficiency in holistic research as majority of studies focus on specific initiatives, piecemeal implementation of community policing by governments, lack of proper implementation

strategies by police, political interference that affects accountability of officers, and difficulties in determination of intricacies in the relationship between police and the community. Challenges pinpointed by Taylor et al. (2008) are still prevalent, for example in the context of Uganda Police Service, which similarly suffers from lack of motivation due to lack of opportunities, hence community policing suffers as a result of lack of coordination, prevalence of improper consultation with citizens and lack of community policing training and guidelines.

Heald (2009) carried out a study in Tanzania's context, focusing on reformations in community policing, interviewing officers in various districts and following up on post-training feedback. In the study, Heald surmised that community policing efficacy and effectiveness relied on appropriate instruction and adequate training of police officers. Majority of officers in the study indicated that the training was not only complex but was also mainly theoretical. In part, such issues arise from inconsistencies in lessons learned during training and practicalities in the field. For instance, whereas training introduced officers to house-to-house approaches, the approach was not introduced uniformly across different police institutions and standardization was lacking hence there was no uniformity in how data was collected by police. In the study, it was recommended for training to be supplemented with further knowledge dissemination on community policing for police, as well as introducing special training for example problem solving that would be beneficial for all officers, be it in community policing or not.

According to Masese and Mwenzwa (2012), probable difficulties to community policing are mostly not addressed and identified in the design period of community policing

programs. Some of the organizational challenges include lack of police involvement in program design, monitoring and implementation; disagreements with regard to deployment and personnel and allocation of resources disagreement and confusion on departmental and structural change; indifference in management; friction between control and command styles of management; and issues with regard to decision making across police officers' varying cadres.

Police service ratio has been argued to have a great effect on community policing efforts. The gap has been addressed by private security agencies who have experienced dramatic growth increases and great demand simultaneously due to their involvement in control and prevention of criminal activity (Minnaar & Ngoveni, 2004; Minnaar, 2005). Due to limited resources both human and financial, challenges exist with meeting the various security and safety needs of the community. As such, private security agencies fulfill needs which are unlikely to be satisfied by police officers as a result of large populations (Schonteich, 2009 cited in Nyaura & Ngugi, 2014). Additionally, private security has a greater capability of part-time or permanently employing security officers, which is considered impossible in the case of public policing due to the strictness of regulations in the public service dimension (Schonteich, 2009). Subsequently, private security and public police are not to be left to address security issues and concerns on their own, which necessitates involvement of the larger community in development of neighborhood watches and other methods of crime control and prevention.

Davis *et al.* (2003) in a study on community policing, aimed at determining differences of programs in developing and developed contexts. In the study, they revealed that

community policing programs differ in different environments hence there is no one size fits all framework. The differences in programs were as a result of differences in cohesion in communities, police centralizations, trust and respect levels towards law enforcement etc. which play an instrumental role in successes or failures of community policing.

On one hand, researchers have mainly agreed on community policing philosophy and its viability, arguing that its application is practical and as such is efficient and effective in controlling and preventing criminal activities, disorder and delinquency. Basically, it improves relationships between state and society and enhances trust (Brenya & Warden, 2014; Baker, 2007). According to Baker (2008), regardless of existing failures in implementation of community policing, evidence exists suggesting that community policing is relevant, sustainable and valuable. More so, Baker adds that community policing strategies augment the capacity of police and enhances image of police departments, which improves collaboration and trust between local communities and police. Further, Bacon (2015) provides evidence from Liberia, in a study that investigated the relationship between women, security, peace and reforms in police departments. Two crucial goals were analyzed with regard to reforms in the Liberian National Police, which were responsiveness and representation. Bacon surmises that in so far as these metrics are concerned, the Liberian National Police is considerably successful due to the fact that female officer percentages rose from 2 percent to 17 percent and police response to issues of sexual and gender based violence was improved. Brenya and Warden (2014) posit that community policing is pivotal in establishing better support and tied between local groups and police officers which improves crime awareness among local communities.

Alternatively, other scholars such as Grabosky (2009) criticize community policing from the perspective that it is rhetorical. The main criticism is that community policing is a public relations attempt that is not realistic, is challenging to be successfully implemented and has a high likelihood of failing to control and prevent crime. According to Klockars (2008), community policing despite its lofty objectives is unworkable. Nonetheless, criticisms against community policing focus mainly on the program flaws for instance the dominant failing arising from competing perspectives, marginalization and negative attitudes by communities towards police (Brogden & Nijhar, 2005). Other researches provide the suggestion that community policing impact is ambiguous. Gill et al. (2014) study concluded that strategies in community policing have a positive and significant impact on satisfaction of citizens, perspectives regarding disorder and legitimacy of police officers, however, the positive impact was limited with regard to fear of crime and trend of criminal activity. CBORep3 was of the opinion that:

“an objective of CP that has been constantly stressed upon is the role of CP in improving security and rebuilding trust between the government (people) and the people (public). The idea is that, often, the police is perceived by the community to be “the face of the executive” and the government as a whole, thus the role it plays in successful transformation cannot be underestimated.” (CBORep 3)

Meyer (2006), surmises that this is significant particularly in contexts of conflict, where police perception is predominantly negative, as they are seen as agents of brutality meted by the state.

For efficacy to be achieved by crime reduction methods, it is vital for community engagement to be emphasized. Members of communities should be acknowledged for the role they play in accomplishment of security objectives (Masese & Mwenzwa, 2012).

Nonetheless, in some countries, implementation of community programs is impeded which leads to policing maintaining the attitude of separation between law enforcement officers and citizens. Additionally, lack of engagement by the police has been increasing regardless of various efforts to promote community policing, which basically detaches the community from the strategy altogether (Groenewald & Peake, 2014).

A study by Mammus (2010) concluded that community policing major challenges were shortage of manpower, inadequacies in funding, inadequacies in infrastructure and logistics, lack of technology adoption and adequate information for all targeted areas to be serviced. Other aspects that hindered community policing success were established to be lack of expertise among police, insufficiency in training and education and poor service conditions.

Newham (2013) argues that the prevalence of poor relationships between the public and law enforcement officers, lack of trust has a significant effect on community policing. Prevalently, cooperation between police and citizens is lacking, investigation procedures and police processes are inadequate, the focus on dialogue is not enhanced and collaboration and cooperation is not emphasized by heads of police departments to individual officers so as to maintain close public association (Rakgoadi, 2009). Hence, with poor understanding not only on the part of the community but also on the part of police makes it challenging for initiatives aimed at controlling, preventing and crime to be implemented through the application of community policing.

Respondent 2 also indicated that maintaining a relationship between the police and the public is one of the challenges facing community policing, saying:

“The relationship between police service officers and the residents of the community has long been negative and impacted to a large extent by the police service’s role as the visible agent of government, tasked with executing past policies of control and suppression, fueling distrust and resentment.” (Respondent 2)

Nyaura and Ngugi (2014) argue that inadequacies in institutional facilities for police officers, poor channels of communication were attributed to the difficulties of implementing the ‘Nyumba Kumi’ initiative. Additionally, extensive corruption, low work force quality, low training levels, unfriendly perception of police and low drive of the police makes them unprepared to make the initiative a success (Alemika & Chukwuma, 2010). Such challenges are the same as challenges facing police officers whose conditions are deplorable yet expected to satisfy the security expectations of citizens. According to Makara (2008), the National Police Service is faces considerable shortages of resources, is plagued by poor consultation with the community and is largely shortchanged with regard to training.

A response from NGOREp 4 emphasized that challenges facing police officers hampers the effectiveness of community policing, adding that:

“Police service officers faced with these challenges may result to corruption in order to sustain their families. This in turn affects the core theme of Nyumba Kumi Initiative, which is to prevent crime. Police service officers may also be lured to collude with the criminals in engaging in crime who are the enemies of Nyumba Kumi Initiative.” (NGOREp 4)

Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (2007) argues that training inadequacies among members of the community are a key component affecting success of ‘Nyumba Kumi’ initiative. Efficacy in the initiative not only requires adequate training for police, but also for the community. According to Rakgoadi (2009), training efficacy is

instrumental for development of attitude, skill, and knowledge and for reorienting perceptions as well as refining existing skill. Essentially, training ought to target misconceptions hampering success of the initiative. Strategies that are crucial in helping doing away with misconceptions on the initiative include accurate conduction of community need assessment, inclusion of all stakeholders in data collection towards development of effective strategies, ensuring adequacy of resources for the program and evaluation and modification of programs as needs arise.

CHAPTER FIVE

ROLE OF POLICE AND THE COMMUNITY IN IMPLEMENTATION OF 'NYUMBA KUMI' COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGY IN BARINGO NORTH SUB-COUNTY

5.0 Overview

Basically, law enforcement is concerned with individuals – about associations and management. It is also concerned with protecting and serving people and their basic rights. It involves ensuring that officers themselves are welcome in the community and are not vulnerable. Therefore, law enforcement is unworkable in environments characterized by isolation. As a result, community policing is an operational strategy aimed at addressing the many challenges police officers are confronted with in their line of duty. Further, it is an approach and principle focused on supporting human rights, democratic policing and good governance. Models of community policing are not only diverse, but may also have variety of characteristics. Nonetheless, various studies have established four main areas of CP which this study focused on, which are CP crime prevention, partnership between community and police, organizational capacity of police and problem-solving capacity of police and community.

5.1 The Police Force in Community Policing

The police force is delineated as government employees who are tasked with enforcing the law and maintaining order. The police force mainly prevents crimes, protects property and lives of people. The force's power is hinged on the constitution which gives an

outline of their role. The police patrol streets, guard against crime, and assist people with a variety of issues and in so doing, finds itself participating in CP.

NGO Rep 4, while highlighting the role of the police in CP, stated that:

“to the Police Force, community policing is a means of achieving effective and efficient crime control in the society. The fundamental basis for community policing is the law of the land, especially since we are a democracy.” (NGOREp 4)

Apart from crime investigation, police are tasked with preventing criminal recurrence. In this regard, the police carry out investigations, which is mainly done by responsible and professional constables. The success of investigations majorly rely on officer training, available resources and competence complemented by cooperation by members of the public when possible. However, with regard to crime prevention, the police cannot be successful without the public since various factors attributable to crime are out of their control. Therefore, it is the police’s role to develop good conditions which will lead the community to provide information on criminal occurrences. In such aspects, the police should use public effort or community effort for crime to be successfully controlled.

Respondent 1 added that:

“with community policing, the police force departments become members of the community. Cities and counties embracing community policing tend to involve the police much more into community work and this creates bonds of trust and reliance between the police and the public or the community. In the process, police officers find themselves open to the community, unbiased and sensitive to the concerns of the community.” (Respondent 1)

From the statement, it can be ascertained that CP is a new approach involving officers’ are meant to listen to the community’s issues, complaints and viewpoints. The police also

display sincere compassion and empathy in a holistic manner. Situations involving the community allow the police to develop a variety of skills such as planning, organization, problem solving and critical thinking which are all deemed instrumental for the efficiency, effectiveness and success of CP in crime control.

Central to transiting to CP by law enforcement, there is a key query – “How do the police identify and deliver high quality services to the community?” The answer relies on efficiency of police in delivering services requiring systematic processes in assessing the public’s needs and translating the needs into police programs and services which can be delivered effectively and efficiently. In this regard, police become sensitive to the community’s needs rather than focusing on their own. Furthermore, police develop a deeper understanding of the relationship between police work and community perception or the social environment. Citizens are perceived by officers as partners sharing the responsibility of priority identification, development and implementation of responses.

It is argued that when police make patrols in the community, interest in the community is generated and perceptions regarding their activities are formed by the community. For example, in Finland’s case, the police have been conducting local surveys on how the public perceives the police and their opinion regarding security. The surveys have established that the goal of CP is the application of a strategy in preventing and tackling crime and developing sustainable relationships between the public and police to enhance cooperation. With the philosophy of community policing, the image of police changes from a crime-fighting agency into one hinged on cooperation and consultation with the public (Ganjavi, Le-Brasseur & Whissel, 2000).

Reiterating the remarks from Respondent 1, Respondent 2 was of the opinion that:

“the police force has been able to function autonomously and majority of the police officers could not be eager to open up the police priorities to public debate and to give up their operational autonomy. Nevertheless, because of the growing demand and the need for a more interactive relationship between the police and the public, the police constables have changed from traditionalism and embraced community needs. This has led to improved relations between the police force and the community although a lot is still desired.” (Respondent 2)

Assessment of the community’s views regarding certain activities by police and the necessity of the activities to be provided by police is a crucial point where cooperation between community and police can be implemented. Furthermore, community feedback on the activities by police plays a significant role in rationalization of resources (Jiao, 1998; Hesketh, 1992). Appropriate models of community policing in any community depends on matching police activity with expectations of the community (Jiao, 1998). Practically, it is facilitated by the detection and understanding of how the community perceives police activities (Beck, Boni & Packer, 1999) and the role that the community plays in assisting police in carrying out their mandate effectively and efficiently. The first step in the development of a strategy that focuses on police and public cooperation is identifying discrepancies in the manner in which police are perceived and how the community prefers police activities to be, which the public identifies as having their needs met as mandated of police (Beck *et al.*, 1999).

There has been focus on priorities of the communities regarding police activities by querying the satisfaction levels of the community with activities of the police. Skogan (1996) in a survey conducted in the UK sought to find out the priorities and activities of police from the perspective of the community. The results of the survey revealed that

there was utter dissatisfaction by the community especially with regard to police patrols, despite that the community supported patrols as an approach of crime prevention. Patrols was perceived highly above quick response to calls, crime investigation, detection and arrests of offenders. The summation is that the community majorly perceives patrols as an effective police activity in crime prevention (Kelling, 1990; Shapland & Vagg, 1987; Skogan, 1996; Trojanowicz, 1986). The probability is that the public sees pro-active patrols as a way of improving police capability and enhancing crime prevention in myriad ways. Police patrols seem to be valued highly by the public as it impresses a sense of security on the public (Trojanowicz, 1986), increases public satisfaction with police activities (Kelling, 1990), and enhances the image of police upon the public (Salmi, Voeten & Keskinen, 2000).

5.2 Community Policing Partnership in Crime Reduction

The success of community policing is hinged on cooperation between the community and police as stakeholders of the strategy. The community takes on the responsibility of reporting crime to officers as well as voluntarily becoming witnesses in instances when crimes are committed. Alternatively, the police mobilize both organizations and individuals to be participants in prevention of crime in myriad ways (Lombardo & Lough, 2007).

Police reports reveal that the approach of collaboration and partnership in countering insecurity led to reduction of crime rates by more than 40%, further resulting in an increase in level of trust between the public and law enforcement officers. Not only does collaboration and partnership improve crime prevention and enhance trust, but is also

increases police accountability (Haberfeld & Cerrar, 2008). In Kibera, an area faced with challenges of prevalent crime, members of the community who were perpetrators and victims of criminal activities participated in efforts towards improving safety through a variety of community projects. The community collaborated with police in launching a variety of campaigns to raise awareness with regard to dangers of crime and particularly, drug and substance use which is associated with criminal tendencies. Kibera residents gained confidence and openly discussed security and safety issues plaguing the area and which they were confronted with on a regular basis. More opportunity for collaboration was established for instance, local development fund, Adopt-a-Light and Lang'ata constituency Development fund which were aimed at improving the environment to curtail criminal activity. For example, Adopt-a-Light erected high mast flood lights, providing the residents with security against criminals lurking in alleys. The project by Adopt-a-Light reduced muggings, hence achieved prevention of crime by appropriately designing the environment. Travis (1996) argues that environmental design significantly contributes to reduced crime incidents, more so in areas where policing is poor. Essentially, criminals take advantage of areas that are developed poorly due to the manner in which such areas provide an environment for them to commit crimes.

Generally, in the context of Kibera, partnership projects led to significant improvement in cooperation and trust between the community, civil society and police. Kibera residents grew comfortable in their approach to police, confidently believing that they would be supported and their security needs would be met. Alternatively, police felt that they had the support of the community, which led to improved function and crime prevention activities. Essentially, with collaboration between police and the community, and the

difference in outcome compared to lack of collaboration, police realize that without citizen participation bred from mutual trust, security problems cannot be adequately solved by them alone (Smith & Cornish, 2003). Additionally, many issues and concerns are resolved appropriately by agency collaboration. Hughes (1998) augurs with this supposition, considering that collaboration in prevention of crime and safety of the community have become pivotal, considering the associated shortfalls of traditional approach of policing.

In Isiolo, where a CP pilot project was carried out, it was established that the primary causes of disorder and crime were associated with economic and social variables. Youth unemployment, involvement in prostitution and high drug usage among youth were the predominant causes of criminality. In addition, there was also a high level of small arms proliferation in the location. The initial step with the CP program was raising awareness and providing support for CP components and philosophy, which involved development of community partnerships. In line with the CP philosophy, the program-initiated partnerships between the community, government officials and law enforcement officers, corresponding to certain issues and concerns that plagued the area, after which partnerships were signed. Further, a steering committee involving community representatives, local provincial administration and the police was implemented.

In the Isiolo case, the steering committee was responsible for organizing myriad activities aimed primarily at raising awareness in the community and ensuring that residents acknowledged the need for police engagement in tackling safety and security challenges experienced in the area. The program also succeeded due to the fact that there was

commitment among all stakeholders in countering crime and enhancing security, which resulted to development of policing partnerships in an organized and orderly way, founded on the consultation principle and by partners buying-in into the program, which ensured efficacy and effectiveness. This reveals that with inclusivity in CP programs, good governance, collaborative decision making and adequate resource distribution, success, efficacy and effectiveness is inevitable.

Similarly, CP is instrumental in improvement of national security as internal security in general relies on information and intelligence either regarding crimes committed or crimes that are yet to be committed. The source of intelligence and information needs to be from the community for the reason that criminals are individuals living in the society or are individuals who are members of the community where crime is prevalent. Internal security is a requirement for an environment to be peaceful and conducive for both local and foreign investment. Furthermore, a peaceful and conducive environment facilitates progress in all areas of life. In this way, the concepts of development and security, community justice and governance are merged to produce desired outcomes as far as security is concerned.

With the bureaucratic and centralized command structure, enforcement-oriented policing has paved the way for a philosophy of inclusivity based on facilitating partnerships between the community and law enforcement officers aimed primarily at solving disorder and criminal tendencies (Williamson, 2008). There is need for law enforcement officers to practice active engagement with communities they are in partnership with so as to address issues related to crime, including collaborating with other private and public

entities (Cordner, 1998). Therefore, the community and law enforcement officers are required to work together not only as a way of solving crime related issues, but also in order for the fear of crime, disorder and neighborhood decay to be reduced (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990).

Mwangi (2002) in a report titled “The need for a national policy on community-based policing”, states that:

“community partnership means adopting a policing perspective that exceeds the standard law enforcement emphasis. This broadened outlook recognizes the value of activities that contribute to the orderliness and well-being of a neighborhood. For Police officers to be effective in their law enforcement duties, they must create a relationship of trust and confidence with the community.”

The relationship between stakeholders such as police and the community should be founded on trust, challenging individuals to accept their fair share of responsibilities to the policing strategy, which evidently facilitates the establishment of priorities and development of responses to issues of crime (Trojanowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990). Law enforcement officers are merely one among various agencies that are mandated with addressing security problems in the community, and as such, other collaborative agencies should also take up their mandate and strategize on problem solving and crime prevention in partnership with law enforcement agencies (Young & Tinsley, 1998). It is pertinent that citizens take part in issues of security not merely as a civic duty but also as an element of being patriotic to the country. The community is regarded as a pivotal component in the success or failure of CP programs (Vinzant & Crothers, 1994). The expression “community partnership” dominates both public and private sector

management ideologies which makes it crucial that it be considered in CP (Roth *et al.*, 2004).

Braiden (1992) argues that establishment and maintenance of trust is the primary objective of community policing partnership's initial component. Previously, when serious crimes were committed, law enforcement officers came out, encouraging the community to be willing to provide pertinent information leading to arrest of the criminals or aid police investigations. The concept of wilful provision of information to law enforcement officers to address crime is similar to community policing, which is centred on partnership. However, there is a distinction between the two contexts. In CP, the community embraces the police as members of their society, and by such membership to the community, they take part in the community's activities for instance assisting victims of crime and resolving domestic conflict, which play a role in the development of trust between the community and police. Trust enables police to have more access to information provided by the community which would enhance crime prevention.

According to Barley (1996), law enforcement officers and members of the community need to work in close association with community organizations, businesses and any entity suitable to enhance issues on quality of life such as working with municipalities in removing graffiti, as well as with landlords, for proper maintenance of property such as recreation facilities, parks and establishment of youth programs with necessary institutions. Innes and Roberts (2008) posits that "there are significant benefits to be accrued by connecting the police and communities". There are various studies on community policing strategies which discuss practical issues from police and

professionals' viewpoints. Nonetheless, majority of previous studies do not give a discussion on the effectiveness and quality of partnerships in community policing and its role in crime reduction. Studies in the Kenyan context are limited, and it is within this demarcation that discourse on how community policing influences crime reduction is appreciated.

To emphasize on the necessity of partnership as a strategy to counter security issues, Respondent 3 indicated that the 'Nyumba Kumi' initiative had enhanced community and police cooperation, saying that:

"the community is able to provide information to the police without the fear of being victimized. The police have guaranteed the community of confidentiality in their participation to provide information for investigations. As a result, security issues are handled effectively through the established partnership." (Respondent 3)

A report presented by the 2009 Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM) in Uganda established a framework on critical strategies for combating crime. Community policing's institutionalization in Uganda has been instrumental in promoting the merits of a community method in the minds of both the public and the police. Diversification of the process necessitates for citizens to trust law enforcement officers, while on the other hand, police are required to trust the public for the community approach to be efficient, effective and successful.

The crime prevention approach focuses on early intervention and identification of problems by officers in the CP program such that conflict based on lack of understanding between them and the community is avoided. The primary principles of CP crime prevention are based on programs and research conducted in the United States in 1970s

(Rosenbaum, 1986). Programs including citizen patrols and improved lighting are some of the examples. According to Roth (2004), prevention, in many ways, has been the pathway to CP, as various early collaborations with the community have mainly been preventive. For prevention to be enhanced, law enforcement officers need not only to attend meetings of tenants, residents and property owners, but also organize them for the sole purpose of enhancing information sharing which is a key tool in reduction and prevention of crime. Alternately, Sherman and Eck (2006) argue that programs such as community meetings and neighborhood watch play a key role in preventing crime, hence it is pertinent that the effectiveness of CP crime prevention strategies in reduction of crime in the Kenyan context be investigated further.

Accordingly, when asked to elaborate on police-community partnership in the area, Respondent 9 intimated that:

“community policing has remained a key approach to identification of suspects, mobilization of the youth and provision of counselling to them in collaboration with other partners. Using community policing, the Police have sensitized the public on the crimes and asked them to report to the nearest police units. This has assisted in checking the escalation of crime a result attributable to the community policing effort.” (Respondent 9)

The sentiment was shared by Respondent 2 who added that:

“as an administrator of the area and as a member of the local community policing forum, one of the roles we play is to communicate with the community so as to gather information on criminal activities in the locality. Apart from using this communication as a strategy to activate partnership, we also use it as an avenue to talk to the community on the achievements of their participation, which allows them to be willing to talk both to us and the police officers.” (Respondent 2)

5.3 Police-Community Problem Solving and Crime Reduction

According to Young and Tinsley (1998), problem solving is interactive, and involves communities and law enforcement officers identifying issues of crime and arriving at proper solutions. Essentially, problem solving is hinged on the presumption that “crime and disorder can be reduced in small geographic areas by carefully studying the characteristics of problem in the area. And then applying the appropriate resources” and the presumption that “Individuals make choices based on the opportunities presented by the immediate physical and social characteristics of an area. By manipulating these factors, people are less inclined to act in an offensive manner.” Kelly (1988) argues that problem solving is instrumental with regard to CP and therefore, problems shouldn’t only be with regard to crime, as much as solutions don’t necessarily revolve around arrests (Weisheit *et al.*, 1994). Law enforcement officers and the community need to be empowered such that they adopt techniques necessary for problem solving and utilize opportunities in their efforts to address conditions causing criminal incidences (Cordner, 1998).

The problem-solving component of CP depends more on crime prevention than traditional approaches, through offender deterrence, victim protection and making locations prevalent to crime less conducive to problems identified (Office of Community Oriented Policing Services, 2007). On the other hand, Bucqueroux (2007) posits that problem solving should be measured by posing the question “is the problem solved?” instead of the focus being on traditional approaches, such as number of arrests. According to Cordner (1998), there are four steps associated with problem solving that

can incorporate community input, which are problem identification, problem analysis, determination of alternative solutions and, implementation and assessment of response.

While highlighting the need for police and community collaboration, CBORep 4 had this to say:

“community policing allows community members to bring problems of great concern to them to the attention of the police. Once informed of community concerns, the police should work with citizens to assist in solving the problems of concern to the police.” (CBORep 4)

Generally, problems in the community comprise idleness and unemployment among youth, who often congregate in street corners, increase in street families around estates rummaging through garbage and fear in the neighborhood. An example of the problem solving method is officer patrols that may bring up cause and effect relationships, such as between drug and substance abuse and domestic violence and as a result lead to closure of pubs that cause overdrinking beyond allotted hours, or programs implemented to aid individuals with alcohol and drug addiction in the community. Another solution to such a problem in this case would involve police and the community coming together to provide alternative housing for domestic violence victims and extend counselling services to them and their dependents.

5.4 Community Participation in Community Policing

It is pertinent for community consultation patterns to be examined whenever community members face issues of criminality. Participants revealed that there are community members who have been making reports of crimes to law enforcement officers with the urge that the criminality be addressed. However, wide-spread preferences exist aimed at

consulting with community elders and other institutions involved in informal policing as alternative approaches to counter the security issues. Friedman (1992) emphasizes that CP as a policing philosophy is aimed at effectively and efficiently achieving crime control and reducing fear among citizens as a result of enhanced police service.

Particularly, Friedman (1992) emphasizes that relying on the community resource, accountability of law enforcement officers, enhanced sharing of decision making between the public and police, and concern for human rights is pivotal for successful CP. Contrastingly, as evidence has revealed, CP significantly includes shared understanding of security issues and the need for information to be extended not only to law enforcement officers, but also to other institutions to tackle problems of criminality. Reporting to the police is evidently due to the fact that the community acknowledges the police authority and its mandate in enforcing law and order. Evidence further suggests that police are pivotal to consultations concerning approaches aimed at crime prevention and reduction due to their constitutional mandate. From perspectives of group and individual contexts, it is inarguable that the public is urged to collaborate with law enforcement. However, the challenge is that the community tends to have a negative perception of the police, which holds back successful implementation of CP.

Informal approaches such vigilantes in combating criminality are perceived as an alternate method through which security and safety can be maintained in the community. Other than the fact that law enforcement have to be consulted on the uptake of vigilantes, the consultations are means to be procedural, and in line with the criminal justice system, regardless of whether or not community expectations with regard to potency and response

has been met by the vigilante groups. Despite that Friedman (1992), US Department of Justice (2012), Okeke (2006), Ratcliffe *et al.* (2005) and other authors have respectively showed appreciation of CP significance in control and prevention of crime, Rowe (2008) posits that varied variables for instance differences in cultural environments and inadequacies in understanding of peculiar aspects tend to hamper policy transfer to other contexts. Summarily, Friedman (1992) adds that the concept of CP has in many occasions been misapplied and misunderstood by agencies and individuals claiming to have put it into practice.

Response from Respondent 2 indicated that:

“Consulting the community members for relevant crime information should be seen as a conventional thing to do, most especially in view of the importance of information to crime prevention and control. However, there is perception among police participants which suggested first, that community members lack the basic understanding of the police activities. Secondly, it was observed by police participants that there is trust gap in the police’s relationship with community members despite the availability of anonymous suggestion boxes to facilitate information management.” (Respondent 2)

Based on this statement, the community’s perceived inability of accepting law enforcement officers as equal stakeholders in crime prevention and control negative affects the collaboration between the two stakeholders. Further, law narrations by law enforcement officers also gives the impression that the community is dissatisfied in terms of officers’ accountability and responsibility in providing security and safety. Considering what is described as frustration by law enforcement officers, the suggestion is that community leaders and community members need to develop better attitudes towards police such that they are able to present themselves and provided much needed

information with regard to crimes committed as well as participating in provision of ideas on how CP can be enhanced so as it satisfactorily meets their expectations.

Generally, the consensus is that there is a gap between the community and law enforcement officers, which hinders them from reporting criminal activities, which is not only disturbing, but frustrating and surprising, more so in the view that police efficiency and effectiveness as well as success of CP relies on information provided by community members.

Correspondingly, the scenario is perceived to have a significant effect on the community's capacity to give useful information to police officers to help them in controlling and preventing crime. For the police officers, refusal by community members to provide pertinent information regarding criminal activities not only affects their ability to provide security and safety, but also makes them unable to update records that are instrumental in the development of much needed intelligence. Consequently, low capacity of police records, resulting from inadequacies in information provision by the community, hampers the ability of law enforcement officers to curtail crime.

In so much as this notion seems to be held by the minority, what is certain is that the notion reflects overall "refusal to report" as commonly being the community's attitude. Nonetheless, in this regard, the uniqueness is that there is an attitudinal change in the community, which pushes them towards cooperating with law enforcement officers that may be resultant of attitudinal change on the side of the police as well, more so in their engagement with the community. Evidence supports the summation that there is a significant and positive correlation between officers' attitude and collaboration by the

community, which is also mitigated by community attitudes, hence with positive attitude from both the police and the community, crime control and prevention activities yield expected outcomes. For example, Morgan and Newburn (1997) as cited by Newburn and Reiner (2012) reiterate that CP emergence was squarely rooted on the increasing acceptance that law enforcement officers at their best and in most instances would merely provide partial solutions to issues of crime that they encounter. This is due to the fact that police officers are limited in terms of scope, meaning that they can't be in all places at once, monitoring activities of all individuals, which invariably places the community as a pivotal component of the CP framework.

Despite there being claims that the relationship between the community and police has been enhanced, there is a significant perception that crime has increased. However, the increase in crime rate is blamed by police officers to be as a result of development in the economy. Subsequently, the main issue in this case is the perceived attitudinal change of the communities towards law enforcement officers, which is noticed by sections of the police force. The contention is how the variables associated with the perceptions between the community and the officers can be determined, which essentially brings about the gap in trust between the two stakeholders of the CP program. Notably, such discourse would provide insight especially when provided by law enforcement rather than from the community members, due to the fact that in the provision of security and safety in the community, police engagement plays a pivotal role in enhancing engagement which leads to increased interaction and information sharing that is necessary for CP efficiency, effectiveness and overall success.

Notably, the law enforcement officers follow their own patterns of crime response and other associated concerns. According to Respondent 2 on the ‘how’ question in addressing issues of crime, the response was that:

“the police under normal circumstances get tip offs from the members of public, most especially victims. Personnel mobilisations for routine patrol activities are also a way to put criminals on check. In addition, various departments in the police organisation are structured to facilitate responses to whatever problems on the way of the police in area of jurisdictions.” (Respondent 2)

Respondent 1 pointed out that poor attitude by the communities is unfortunate since it hinders police receiving important information that would lead to crime control and prevention, saying that:

“the police response rate to emergency situations is likely not in tandem with the expectations of the community as regards crime control.” (Respondent 1)

This gives the summation that there is need for significant amount of preparation with regard to logistics for instance fuel, which are pivotal for facilitating police officers’ day to day activities as well as necessary training. In terms of logistics, they are perceived to be low, which means that police officers are in most part, unable to meet the demand of efforts in crime control and prevention in a manner that would be considered satisfactory by the public, thus bringing about notions about the appropriateness of informal approaches such as vigilantes.

In addition, NGOREp 2 further indicated that:

“there is perception that apart from the usual reports about crime made available by some of the victims, police do go to where there are perceptions of crime incidences to make arrests and engage the suspects in interrogations to determine who commits what, when and how, within the boundaries of the law.” (NGOREp 2)

The perception also indicates that in some instances, crime victims who may have made reports of crimes within a certain timeframe may find themselves turning around and asking for the report to be withdrawn, which results from pressure towards them by other stakeholders. Nonetheless, it is perceived that it is the police officers' duty to take up their responsibility, bringing the culprit to face the consequences of their criminal behavior, such that it acts as a deterrence to other individuals in the community who present similar inclinations towards criminal behavior.

Overall, although members of the community are argued to not be in possession of crucial information for law enforcement officers, the perception is that the public is significantly reliable in terms of the police gathering information on instances of crime and individuals inclined to commit crime, which basically means that the public is a key component of problem solving. As such, further development and improvement in relations between community and police is essential, if CP is to be successful.

CHAPTER SIX

EFFECTIVENESS OF 'NYUMBA KUMI' COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGY IN CRIME REDUCTION IN BARINGO NORTH SUB COUNTY

6.0 Overview

A crucial component of implementation is analysis of efforts in community policing, both with regard to achievement of appropriate organizational changes and accomplishment of external goals including establishment of suitable relationship with the community and reduction of crime levels, disorder and fear. Essentially, continual analysis of these efforts satisfies various significant needs.

All governments and public agencies as well as police officers, must have the capacity of accurately providing accounts of relative activities to taxpayers and policymakers. Thus, continual analysis of not only performance, but also policy must be a key function of organizations involved in policing. Further, analysis is instrumental when organizations are undergoing significant change, necessarily changing the entails of community policing. Consistent analysis of the change processes is essential as it aids managers in determining the best approach through which the process of implementation can be tracked. Effective stratagems should also be identified to allow managers to make informed and suitable decisions on where limited resources can be effectively and efficiently allocated.

Continuous analysis is also pivotal as it gives organizations a path through which actions can be taken, and informs management on how to be efficiency and productive in

practice. Thus, analysis is important in determination of aspects of community policing that need to be sustained, changed or done away with, and in extension, it provides main decision makers with a pathway through which the cost-effectiveness and impact of efforts towards community policing can be evaluated. Additionally, analysis helps in the determination of whether appropriate change in support systems is taking place, and also in determining whether suitable efforts are made, leading to goal attainment. Summarily, analysis is instrumental in communication of expectations held by agencies to other stakeholders of the community policing program.

Providing the community with a way of measuring the appropriateness of efforts towards community policing is instrumental in sustaining ties, participation and documentation of progresses that have been achieved. Subsequently, community policing evaluation by community leaders and government agencies has an effect on construction of cooperation between the community and security officers in the future. Through the process of analysis, police officers are able to enhance responsiveness to the needs of communities, which basically improves partnership and trust which are the cornerstones of community policing.

Development of sound programs of analysis should start with strategic plans which provide an outline of objectives, goals, timelines and approaches, as well as assigning necessary personnel for both external and internal changes. Established responsibilities and goals are the benchmarks for performance analysis and allows leadership in police organizations to pinpoint roadblocks and failures that would hinder effective and efficient process, which allows them to chart progresses and take note of accomplishments.

6.1 Assessing Internal Changes

Significant gaps may exist between actions and policy in community policing programs, and as such, it is instrumental for management to take all aspects of the program into consideration in implementing necessary procedures and policies. It is pivotal for leaders to constantly ask themselves, “How is the implementation going? Is it on track? What problems are occurring? What help is needed?” Answers to such questions enables the program to consistently be evaluated so as to achieve expected goals and meet established objectives.

In small organizations, such queries are answerable through proper management, which involves leaders of institutions visiting key leaders in the processes of program implementation to ascertain the extent of efforts made towards program success. Leaders also make consultations with officers on patrol, aimed at obtaining their perspectives with regard to the program implementation framework. Across all organizations, leaders carry out meetings regularly with personnel mandated with the implementation of the community policing program, asking for adequate reporting on efforts aimed at re-establishing the goal of accountability through addressing problems as they arise. Regularly reporting on the problems and progresses associated with certain timetables and objectives as supplied by program stakeholders is instrumental in ensuring that the process of implementation stays on track.

Analysis of intangible changes for instance management decentralization have a tendency of presenting varied complexities. The management and leadership of implementation are tasked with having regular meetings with other stakeholders so as to have discussions

with regard to decision making. Periodically, surveys can also be undertaken which are instrumental in determining modifications that may have occurred in style of implementation and management that may have an impact on the implementation process, as well as in determining any hindrances that have been presented as a result of unexpected outcomes. With such information at hand, the leadership and program stakeholders can be able to make appropriate adjustments in mandates of management, supervisors and police officers to ascertain success of the community policy program.

6.2 Three Criteria for Assessment

Evaluation of the significance of community policing is key for varied reasons. The main decision makers of the program evaluate the cost-effectiveness and impact and police officers are thus able to measure either its successes or failures respective to activities and policies. As with methods of implementation, measures of analysis differ with respect to organizations' size and policy nature. Consistent monitoring expedites the process of implementation, attracting support and enhancing problem solving, revealing novel opportunities through which partnerships with communities can be made more productive. Previously, efforts by police have been analysed traditionally, following narrow criterions such as statistics of crime, calls made to police, police responsiveness, prevalence of citations and arrests etc. Nonetheless, these forms of analysis have been established to take place in instances where severe crimes have increased.

Whereas the traditional analysis methods are still valid, they are only effective and efficient in measuring tactics in crime fighting, rather than gauging the impact of efforts towards crime prevention. Changes in scope call for a revision of evaluation systems

especially with regard to individual performance as well as agency performance. With police officers taking proactive roles in deterrence of crime, a broader scope in criteria of analysis that incorporates traditional approaches of crime fighting with those encompassing partnerships with the community and problem solving is instrumental.

Traditional activities of controlling crime are one among the various ways through which the strategy of community policing and security officers can be assessed. Various indications of community policing success are considered intangible for instance, less or no fear, improved interaction with members of the community etc. Thus, assessment of community policing strategies is both quantitative and qualitative. The values promoted by the department form the foundation of suitable qualitative approaches to effectiveness. Analysis rewards both individual and organizational behaviour and enhances crime deterrence as well as addressing other concerns and issues in the neighborhood. Evaluation of police officers is hinged on ingenuity, initiative and creativity. Three main criteria, equity, efficiency and effectiveness are used in provision of qualitative and quantitative measures that are needed in assessment of successes of community policing strategies.

6.2.1 Effectiveness of Community Policing

Effective community policing strategies significantly reduce crime in the neighborhood, decrease fears of crime among citizens, and improve the community's life quality. The main goal in community policing is provision of high-quality security services to communities and neighborhoods, thus, customer satisfaction is pivotal for measuring effectiveness. Perspectives of progression among members of the community and

persistent feedback from all stakeholders of the program and is crucial in enhancing analysis of successes. Routine and random surveys play a significant role in informing police officers and other institutions on how the performance of the program is perceived by the public, levels of concern and prevalent issues, which make security agencies aware of the notions that members of the community have as partners of the program.

Respondent 12 augured, indicating that:

“one of the core components of community policing is community partnership. Therefore, an early measure of effectiveness is the number and type of community partnerships that have been formed. The cooperation and participation of community members is necessary to deter crime and reduce the fear of crime in the neighborhood.” (Respondent 12)

From this perspective, what is presented is that assessment of the extent that community policing is effective involves determination of whether issues and concerns have been addressed and establishing whether police officers and other stakeholders have taken up partnership efforts and embraced the components of problem solving associated with the program.

Analysis plays a crucial role in measuring whether problems associated with the program are solved and provides a pathway through which the problem was addressed and solved. As earlier mentioned, the prevalence of arrests is one among many possible measures that problems can be solved effectively. Problem solving does not necessarily mean arrests, and in various instances, it is not an assurance that the problem will be permanently done with. Measures of analysis are thus satisfactory if they properly credit security officers with successfully abating problems using other alternative approaches instead of overreliance on arrests. Contribution of police officers to problem solving and

consultations with members of the community, reveals effectiveness and concern of officers, creating goodwill for the police, which is essential to the success of the CP program.

The extent and form of issues and concerns addressed and the scope and creativity of solutions arrived at, gives a way of measuring the effectiveness of community policing. Inarguably, not all issues and concerns revolve around criminality, and a variety of issues and concerns are not prioritized by law enforcement officers. Nonetheless, in instances where serious crimes are involved, fears and concerns of members of the community are prioritized by police.

Accordingly, Respondent 3 said that:

“in community policing, officers act as facilitators to mobilize community support. They may also function as mediators in disputes between individuals or organizations, or take responsibility for referring a problem to the appropriate social or government agency.” (Respondent 3)

Effective utilization of community and government agencies in addressing concerns and issues associated with community solving indicates working policies. Furthermore, deployment and intelligent utilization of resources of the community in problem solving strategies and sensitively handling dissent, becomes essential components in assessment of officers' performance and program success.

Enhanced capacity of participation by the community in efforts of reducing and preventing crime is another pointer to the success of community policing. Members of the community many hold back from acting their part if they are suspicious or afraid. As such, members of the community should be willing to collaborate with officers in

different ways, such as conversion of abandoned buildings to reusable assets to involvement of police in neighborhood watch. Further, the community should also be comfortable with provision of information regarding criminality in their areas of residence.

In fact, crime reporting through calls made to police may considerably be enhanced during the initial stages of program implementation due to the fact that the community's confidence in police officers and trust is at a high level. Nevertheless, the prevalence of calls made to police tends to reduce over time, which gives a quantitative measurement of the effect of community policing (Robert, 1983).

A key indication of the success of community policing is commitment towards increased levels of resources especially by the community to enhance efforts in crime reduction. Consultations and fiscal participation by private and public stakeholders, educational institutions and the corporate community is a demonstration of working partnerships between law enforcement and the community. As such, community members initiate and implement projects without necessarily relying on officers' motivation, which leads to incremental successes of the CP program.

Renewed community activities also have the capacity of demonstrating the effectiveness of efforts in CP, more so in locations where the public is fearful of leaving their homes. Fear reduction also leads to the development of perspectives among members of the community about waning criminality. Enhanced willingness by members of the community to walk to parks and schools, go to stores, restaurants and have outdoor entertainment is an overall signal that the public's fear of crime has decrease to walk to

parks and schools, go to stores, restaurants and have outdoor entertainment is an overall signal that the public's fear with regard to the prevalence of crime has decreased. The fact that public are reclaiming neighborhoods is also argued to be a significant factor in deterrence of future criminality and basically adds vigour to the community's environment.

Improved life quality is challenging to measure, though it is an essential goal for CP and is established in community members' perceptions, ideas and comments. Basically, dealing with drunks, prostitutes, gangs and panhandlers and eradicating them from the streets with the help of not only the police but social, public and private agencies, is touted as having a significant effect on the community's life quality. Removal of signs that point to neglect such as abandoned buildings, cars and debris reflects that the efforts of CP programs are successful in bringing order and observance of law in the community.

In community policing, the function of law enforcement officers involves providing services that previously have been considered to not be within the purview of policing, which include assisting crime and accident victims, arbitrating disputes be it at domestic or neighborhood capacity and provision of emergency social and medical services. Consequently, an analysis of the scope of calls to police officers between calls reporting criminality vis a vis calls for social assistance may be instrumental in providing a measurement to the extent of successful community policy programs.

6.2.3 Efficiency

Efficiency refers to the capacity of achieving the most outcome respective to resources available. In measuring community policing effectiveness, police resources, private agencies, local government, business community, the neighborhood and citizens need to be delineated. Through analysis, it should then be determined whether utilization of resources is maximized for problem solving. Agencies with capacities of successfully improving and realigning their resources by establishing partnerships with the community have a higher probability of making community policing both cost effective and efficient.

Moore and Stephens (1991) posit that two main shifts should take place within police organizations if efficacy is to be realized in community policing programs. Strong collaboration and partnership efforts should primarily be established with communities. The police organizations' command structure should also be decentralized such that decision making, problem solving and accountability is enhanced across all aspects of law enforcement. Predominantly, decentralization plays a crucial role in challenging police officers to be more effective and creative, making timely decisions that are influenced by factual first-hand knowledge. Further, decentralization provides agency leaders with more opportunities for strategy formulation, which leads to enhanced performance not only of individual officers, but of the entire organization as well.

In decentralized police organizations, neighborhood patrols are mandated with satisfying the daily needs of the community. The activities of neighborhood patrols are guided and backed by supervisors in the program. Their assignments and shifts provide them with a chance of functioning successfully. Subsequently, officers on patrol who carry out police

tasks and functions can initiate and sustain strong bonds with the neighborhood. The “pride of ownership” enhances motivation of both police and the community towards addressing concerns and issues affecting harmony and security of the community.

There is a higher experience of job satisfaction among law enforcement officers arising from taking up higher accountability and responsibility levels. Police are more so, able to quickly address concerns and issues, which allows them to immediately see the outcomes of their decisions, actions and efforts. In instances where higher job satisfaction and morale is realized, there is an even higher probability that efficacy is realized in terms of mobilizing the community. Enhanced motivation, provision of pertinent support and appropriate rewards improves police job satisfaction, which extends into higher success ratings of community policing. The responsibilities and roles of all police are modified to ensure that the efficacy, effectiveness and success of community policing is informed by both leaders of police organizations as well as police themselves. Essentially, it is important that components of reward be accordingly revised so that the success of community policing is realized.

Prinslow (1993), posits that community involvement increases community policing efficiency and relieves the strain regularly experienced on police resources. Collaboration of police and the community is a way of bringing new resources to issues and concerns, even traditionally considered problems that are referred to be “police only”. Respondent 2 was of the opinion that:

“there is virtually no limitation on how much more effective and efficient the police can become, working collectively as a partner with community members while, at the same time, saving fiscal resources, and frustration on the part of constituents.” (Respondent 2)

With decentralization in decision making capacities and partnerships between the police and community members, new issues are engendered that must be countered to enable efficient operation of community policing programs. It is essential for budgets to reflect community policing goals through allocation of resources and money proportional to achieved outcomes. Decentralization provides officers with greater mandate of daily operations with direct input to decisions concerning budgets and with such responsibility, they are also accountable for actions and resultant outcomes.

It is equally instrumental for efficacy to be implemented in all aspects of community policing, from establishment of community demarcations that lead to productive partnerships to embracement of technologies that aid on enhancing communication. In line with this, respondent 9 said that:

“Expanded and thorough training is paramount in an efficient shift to community policing. Intensive training, although initially costly in terms of finance and time, eventually makes the process more efficient, as well-trained and experienced personnel share practical knowledge with colleagues.” (Respondent 9)

In large agencies, efficiency can be enhanced through redefinition of job functions across all levels of management. For instance, a large organization putting mechanisms in place for community policing would require sergeants’ coordination of decision making as much as necessary and to consult with lieutenants on resolutions involving long term or large resource commitments. In turn, lieutenants would need to apprise captains with regard to occurrences across their operational locations. Such amendments to roles for

managers at mid-levels would result to efficacy due to few supervision levels. Whereas a significant role of supervision is helping in maximization of amount of time officers spend in neighborhoods, community policing requires coordination of supervisors with regard to activities aimed at problem solving across and within the community, help in securing resources, evaluating decisions and activities, and providing support and guidance to officers.

Goldstein (1990), argues that controlling service calls is instrumental in achieving fiscal and time efficiency. Call prioritization and enhanced communication can be achieved through technological improvements which also improves partnerships between the police and community. Alternative strategies for responding to non-emergency calls are delays by officers and officers responding by appointment. Situations considered to be low priority can be addressed through telephone, mail-in and walk-in reporting. Evidence suggests that these approaches are pivotal in saving time, reducing frustration among officers and have a satisfactory outcome to callers. Efficiency and effectiveness are key yardsticks through which achievements of community policing can be measured, but equity, which is also a major aspect through which community policing progresses are judged, largely impacts community policing successes.

6.2.4 Equity

Equity is firmly grounded in the constitution of Kenya, and all law enforcement officers are mandated to uphold it. Primarily, equity is a principle of community policing, which means that all individuals have a say in their governance. Police relate better with people

as individuals due to the fact that there is close cooperation and are perceived as important to the community. Therefore, community policing can be an instrument for enhancement of democracy. Community policing extends opportunities for integrity to be emphasized, fairness to be upheld and equality to be facilitates because police have to work in close association with the public and increasingly face ethical dilemmas. As understood, equity in activities of community policing has three aspects; equity in police services access by all, equity in treatment of all persons as dictated by the constitution, and equity in police services and resources distribution regardless of varied communities.

6.2.5 Equal Access to Police Services

All individuals, regardless of personal characteristics, affiliation, religion or race are bound to have equal access to services provided by police for complete and productive partnership between the community and law enforcement. The primary principle of community policing is ensuring respect for all individuals and being sensitive to their needs. Law enforcement officers in neighborhoods should therefore be non-discriminative against members of communities. In addition, law enforcement leaders should ensure that services provided by police are available readily for all individuals in the community.

Additionally, communication lines must be maintained with all community partners in efforts of community policing. Favouritism is a crucial factor that hampers cooperation between communities and law enforcement officers, when certain groups are seen to be given more focus by police over other groups. It is essential that vocal populations in the community are not given an upper hand over other populations, due to the fact that the

perception would be that the vocal group is using community policing as a pathway through which their own purposes can be served. Therefore, police must ensure that behaviours that would threaten the sustainability, efficiency, effectiveness and success of community policing programs are countered.

6.2.6 Equal Treatment under the Constitution

Police officers are to treat everyone as required of them and as expressed in the Kenyan constitution, considering that their duty is to protect and serve all citizens as they enforce the law. Officers should therefore pay attention to citizens' rights regardless of whether they are perpetrators or victims, which facilitates the development of and maintains trust between the public and police. Further, all individuals must be treated impartially and respectfully – including those considered to be poor, homeless or handicapped. Police must carry out their duties disregarding stereotypes or other bias, hence use persuasion and reason instead of coercion. This is because any form of injustice to the community, while hampering participation and collaboration also causes hostility, frustration and violence. Unethical behaviours on the part of law enforcement officers has a significant and negative effect on community trust, which is a pivotal ingredient to success of community policing. Evidence reveals that there have been confrontations in the past between police officers and community leaders or community activists which have presented myriad challenges to the successful implementation of community policing.

6.2.7 Equal Distribution of Police Services and Resources among Communities

Due to the fact that community policing tailors police services to the community's needs, it is pivotal that the services be equitably distributed among minority and poor populations of the community. The police should take care that in this case, each and every individual receives the necessary services. For equitability in service and resource distribution among each and every community, communities should articulate their needs and be willing to collaborate with police in ensuring that the necessary services are provided. Minority and poor neighborhoods may be challenging for equitable distribution of services and resources for instance, due to police officers' perceptions of the communities and lack of established cooperation and trust resulting from class and race issues.

Sparrow et al. (1990), surmises that some communities have negative perspectives towards police officers and are thus unwilling to participate and collaborate with them to improve security and life overall in the community. Police must acknowledge that in some instances, communities seem helpless due to the fact that they feel abandoned and would only participate and collaborate with the police if effective alliances are established and maintained. Evidence shows police units that established relationships with communities that flowered in the long run, revealing that police and community collaboration leads to positive outcomes not only with regard to crime reduction and prevention but also with quality of life.

In addition, communities should not be given preference of one over another; meaning that all communities should equally be able to access services from police officers.

Nonetheless, equity does not always translate to equality in services and resources distribution by the police. Communities that are considerably wealthy tend to make more contributions to the process of problem solving compared with less wealthy communities. Resultantly, rates of crime tend to be high in some communities, necessitating more intervention from police, hence a larger capacity of resources is required to effectively and efficiently deal with the problem of crime and transform the neighborhoods from areas where fear of crime prevails and into community assets.

6.3 Assessment of the Community Policing Process

Community policing analysis is a continuous process which needs to involve re-evaluation of the measures of analysis themselves. With community policing experience, police agencies are able to develop frameworks that chart failures and successes accurately as well as indicating where it is necessary for changes to be made to the developed measures. The policing agencies' values should provide guidance to community policing and should also guide decisions made and actions taken. Overall, organizations in community policing should be responsive to the priorities of communities and service demands from the initiation of community policing programs.

Community policing is essentially a method of policing that acknowledges the shared responsibility and independent of the community and police in establishing secure and safe environments for all communities. Its focus is establishment of equal and active partnerships between the public and police through which community safety and crime concerns can be addressed jointly, leading to the determination and implementation of suitable solutions. It creates a collaborative effort and develops understanding between

the community and police concerning their roles in crime reduction and prevention, by supplementing law enforcement patrols through neighborhood watch and private guards. The process is achievable through capacity building, education, and enhancement of police and community members to enable participation to constructively address crime issues and concerns.

Successes of community policing may be analyzed and evaluated through taking a look at the program's efficacy and effectiveness and the scope that it has been embraced by targeted communities. The primary goal of community policing is conflict resolution between and within groups of the community in a way that enhances stability and peace. To initiate community policing, a community policing forum has to be started, which is a group of persons from different committees such as residents, local leaders, community based organizations and the police having regular meetings for the identification and determination of solutions to crime issues in their locations. Subsequently, the community policing forum makes sure that the policy of community policing guides, informs and enhances activities of policing by being in constant consultation and allowing collaboration with all willing stakeholders in the community, thus keeping a trend data of crime that the police can utilize in crime reduction and prevention.

Notably, community policing relies heavily on collaboration, to which Respondent 10 stated in agreement, that:

“community policing is a collaboration between the police and the community that identifies and solves community problems. With the police no longer the sole guardians of law and order, all members of the community become active allies in the effort to enhance the safety and quality of neighborhoods. Community policing has far-reaching implications with regard to security.” (Respondent 10)

The widened scope of crime prevention and control, the emphasis on ensuring that members of the community become active collaborators in the problem solving process, and the significant role of police patrols in community policing necessitates that key changes be implemented in police organizations. Neighborhood patrols partnered with police organizations are instrumental in helping members of the community garner resources and support to facilitate problem solving and enhancing life quality. Members of the community raise their concerns, extend advice and address prevailing concerns by taking action. However, the creation of constructive collaboration between police and the community calls for creativity, energy, patience and understanding by all stakeholders.

Community empowerment is pivotal for crime deterrence and adding vitality in communities. In some neighborhoods, it may take time for barriers of mistrust and apathy to be broken down and pave way for the forging of meaningful partnerships between the community and police officers. Respondent 1 intimated the significance of trust between police and community, saying that:

“trust is the value that underlies and links the components of community partnership and problem solving. A foundation of trust will allow police to form close relationships with the community that will produce solid achievements. Without trust between police and citizens, effective policing is impossible.”
(Respondent 1)

In implementing community policing, Kenya adopted the ‘Nyumba Kumi’ initiative. The ‘Nyumba Kumi’ concept translates to ‘ten households’. However, as the name suggests, the concept is not limited to a certain number of households. The households number is not to be imposed, limited or fixed by extraneous variables but determined by aspirations shared by the households clustered in an area. The ‘Nyumba Kumi’ initiative is still

formative and the study analyzed its effectiveness in prevention and control of crime as well as its sustainability in the long run. Security practitioners, public servants and decision makers have innovated policies, working practices and institutional reforms founded on analysis and evidence to achieve crime reduction in Kenya.

In reiterating the importance of community policing to security, Respondent 3 indicated that:

“Nyumba Kumi Community security initiatives is still being implemented and we shall be analysing weather it will help communities to build on the resources and skills they already have to their advantage in addressing their security concerns.”
(Respondent 3)

It brings to focus that initiatives towards community participation are meant to build sustainable relationships between police, local government and the community, primarily for enhancing community resilience so as pressures leading to criminality can be withstood. Persons’ experiences of security and safety in their individual localities should profoundly be affected by international and national institutions, programs and policies. In this regard, it is pertinent that bridges between county and national authorities, informal and informal security agencies, civil society, communities and individuals be established for purposes of minimizing and addressing concerns and challenges of communities as far as crimes are concerned.

In Kenya, it is prudent for policy needs to be updated, essentially to focus on variables attributed to hindrances of community policing progress especially in areas where there is prevalence of conflict. In this regard, security of communities, access to justice and enhancing decision making and participation should be entrenched in accountable,

responsive and fair governance practices, which would involve empowerment of individuals at grassroots level so that they participate not only in decision making, but also in identification and resolve of problems associated with security, and enhancing police responsiveness, accountability and community inclusiveness.

Community policing initiatives address myriad security issues such as crime, gender-based violence, lack of trust between security agencies and communities, proliferation of weapons and inter-ethnic conflict. However, it is pivotal to acknowledge that individuals' lives are integrated and security issues and concerns are more often interlinked to wider issues of human security related to education, livelihood and health. Community policing strategies are successful, efficient and effective through local partnerships which facilitate identification and prioritization of security and safety needs and brings communities together with local authorities, providers of justice and police to address varied problems of crime.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.0 Overview

This chapter provides the summary, conclusion and the study's recommendations, based on findings presented in prior chapters. The study's findings contribute to policy formulation and knowledge on the phenomenon. Recommendations are also provided for further study, policy and practice. The study was focused on the role of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in combating crime in Kenya: a Case of Baringo North Sub-County.

7.1 Summary of Findings

The first objective of the study was to discuss the legal, institutional and policy framework of community policing. In Kenya, community policing is largely perceived as one of the key driving forces of police reforms and the proposed shift to democratic policing which involves the nation's citizens. Within the community policing framework, Kenya's policy matches the worldwide trend of initiatives towards police reform which hold community policing as a significant strategy in establishing confidence in the police and instituting transformative justice. Kenya's framework comprises efforts by government and civil society towards addressing insecurity and crime in myriad sectors. Accordingly, Kenya Police Strategy Plans have emphasized the significance of police and community partnership in crime management. Additionally, Vision 2030 has established strategies such as institutional reforms in the police service which are aimed at embracing

community participation in countering crime and insecurity, as well as improving police image and initiating high levels of police accountability and professionalism. According to Vision 2030, such strategies are instrumental in the pursuit of collaborative efforts between the community and police service, and in extension, to the success of community policing in crime prevention.

The second objective of the study was to establish the role of police and the community in implementation of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy. Community policing is hinged on collaboration between stakeholders of the community, government and law enforcement officers. What this means is that the success of community policing relies not on one individual's or one aspect's effort but from the combined effort of all those involved in its guiding philosophy. However, as the findings revealed, other stakeholders for instance youth, have a low level of participation in community policing. Furthermore, law enforcement officers who are instrumental in implementing community policing are not only partly involved but are also unprofessional in their activities and conduct which render communities to perceive community policing negatively. As such, there is need for youth engagement in community policing and maximization of opportunities for success of community policing. This is due to the fact that law enforcement officers are pivotal for community policing in crime prevention and individuals whom they serve, work towards prevention of crime. Therefore, for community policing to be effective, a certain level of stability and law and order is necessary, established by the police and community in commune with each other.

The third objective of the study was to determine the effectiveness of ‘Nyumba Kumi’ community policing strategy in reducing crime. The findings established that community policing is effective regardless of the fact that crime keeps rising, which points to the necessity of development of further interventions addressing emerging issues including but unlimited to social, economic and technological issues with a focus on police performance in facilitating and enhancing community engagement in community policing affairs. The study also identified that vigilante groups play a significant role in effecting community policing. Vigilante groups mainly composed of youth who have chosen to participate in community policing with a focus on countering tendencies of crime in the area.

7.2 Conclusions

In line with objective one, which was to discuss the legal, institutional and policy framework of community policing, the study concludes that Kenya’s framework on community policing has followed the key phases that include pre-engagement analysis and assessment; program design and planning; management and implementation; and evaluation and drawback. The framework has thus been informed by the various issues concerning crime and insecurity, especially in consultation between various actors, such as police, the community, government, and the civil service society. As such, strategy plans strive to ensure continuous oversight and focus on policy goals and objectives of community policing strengthening the participation of all stakeholders in the formulation and implementation process.

On the second objective, which was to establish the role of police and the community in implementation of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy, the study makes the conclusion that the strategy is also hinged on information sharing, by the community members to the police officers, as well as trust building, through empowerment and capacity building initiatives, by the police officers to the community members. This therefore calls for community members to provide needed information as is their participatory prerogative, and for the police to change the perception of the community members towards them in order to counter any hindrances towards crime reduction.

In regard to objective three, which was to determine the effectiveness of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in reducing crime, the study concludes that the strategy is effective in crime reduction more so with the participation and empowerment of the community. The effectiveness of the 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy heavily relies on the coordination of the stakeholders who are central to it, thus, the people who are affected by crime; the members of the community, and the people who are tasked with ensuring that there is security; the police officers who carry out their duties in the community.

7.3 Recommendations

Based on objective one, which was to discuss the legal, institutional and policy framework of community policing, the study recommends that policy should provide for streamlining and mainstreaming of the 'Nyumba Kumi' and community policing initiatives. In this manner, the government, media and other relevant and participating organizations should thus, endeavour to connect the different strategies, aligning them

with the 'Nyumba Kumi' initiative in order to establish a more consistent system in existing state and non-state policy structures. Additionally, the national crime prevention strategy should be coordinated in order to effectively monitor, evaluate and report on advancements and progresses of police reforms, which are aimed at furthering the goals and objectives of community policing in crime management.

Based on objective two, which was to establish the role of police and the community in implementation of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy, the study makes the recommendation that approaches such as use of patrols; contacting individuals in the community for provision of information; adoption of watch programs, information sharing; door to door approach; improving hotline feedback and response; employing familiar officers and reduction of response time is essential for community policing effectiveness, efficiency and success as well as crime reduction overall. There is also need to strengthen the relationship between the police officers and members of the public especially where there is mistrust by members of the public towards the police, which will curtail the hesitation of the community in being active participants in the efforts to reduce crime.

Based on objective three, which was to determine the effectiveness of 'Nyumba Kumi' community policing strategy in reducing crime, the study recommends that to increase effectiveness of the strategy, the community and the police should bond and trust needs to be elevated between them in order to address crime effectively through unbridled participation. Additionally, vigilante groups which are core contributors to community

policing also need to be catered to by police officers especially on matters of providing them with security since they are volunteers in the crime prevention efforts in the area.

7.4 Suggested Areas for Further Research

The study recommends the following areas for further research:

This study sought to assess the ‘Nyumba Kumi’ community policing strategy in reducing crime in Kenya. Although the study attained its objectives, it mainly focused on only one locale that is Baringo North Sub-County. There is need therefore, to replicate the study using many other constituencies, counties and sub-counties in Kenya in an attempt to compare the findings for purposes of generalizability.

REFERENCES

- Abrahamsen, R., and Williams, M.C. (2007). Securing the City: Private security companies and non-state authority in global governance, *International Relations*, Vol. 21, No. 2, pp. 237-253.
- Bacon, L. (2015). Liberia's Gender-Sensitive Police Reform: Improving Representation and Responsiveness in a Post-Conflict Setting. *International Peacekeeping*. 22. 1-26.
- Baker, B. (2008). Community policing in Freetown, Sierra Leone: Foreign import or local solution? *Journal of Intervention and Statebuilding*, Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 23-42.
- Bayley, D. (2005). *Community Policing: The Implementation Process*, State University of New York, Albany.
- Bayley, D.H. (2001). *Democratising the Police Abroad: What to do and how to do it*, Issues in International Crime, Washington, DC: United States Department of Justice, <https://www.ncjrs.gov/pdffiles1/nij/188742.pdf>.
- Beck, et al. (1999). *The use of public attitude surveys: What can they tell police managers? Policing. International Journal of Police Strategies and Management* vol. 22.
- Biddle, K., Clegg, I. and Whetton, J. (1999). *Evaluation of ODA/DFID Support to the Police in Developing Countries: A synthesis study*, Vol. 1, <http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/SEC6.pdf>.
- Brann, J.E., and Suzanne, W. (1992). *COPPS: The Transformation of Police Organizations. Community-Oriented Policing and Problem Solving*. Sacramento: Attorney General's Crime Prevention Center.
- Brenya, E and Warden, E (2014). Bridging the Great Divide: A Case Study of the Ghana Community Policing as a State-Society Synergetic Developmental Approach. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies* Vol. 5(2): 242-247
- Brogden, M., and Nijhar, P. (2005). Community-oriented policing: The Anglo-American model.
- Brogden M & Nijhar P. (eds). *Community policing: National and international models and approaches*. Devon, UK: Willan Publishing

- Bucqueroux, B. (2004). Community Policing in the Years Ahead: And Now for the Really Hard Part in *Community Policing: The Past, Present, and Future*, eds. Fridell, L., & Wycoff, M. Police Executive Research Forum: Washington.
- Bucqueroux, B. (2007). *What Community policing teaches us about Community Criminal Justice*: Retrieved from <http://www.policing.com/articles/pdf/ccj.pdf>
- Bureau of Justice Assistance (BJA) (1994). *Understanding Community Policing: A Framework for Action*. Washington DC: Bureau of Justice Assistance, US Department of Justice.
- Cain, M. (2000). Orientalism, Occidentalism and the Sociology of Crime, *British Journal of Criminology*, Vol. 40, pp. 239-260.
- Carroll Buracker and Associates Ltd (2007). *Elements of Community Policing*, Carroll Buracker and Associates Ltd Retrieved from <http://www.buracker.com/sanfran.html>.
- Casey, J. (2010). Implementing Community Policing in Different Countries and Cultures, *Pakistan Journal of Criminology*, Vo. 2, No. 4, pp. 55-70.
- CHRI (Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative) (2006). *The Police, the People, the Politics: Police Accountability in Kenya*, Nairobi: Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative at 13 and 14.
- Cordner, G. (1998). Community policing: Elements & Effects, in (eds.) Alpert & Piquero, *Community Policing: Contemporary Readings*, Waveland Press, Illinois.
- Cordner, G. (2007 a). *The Key Elements of Oriented Community Policing*, *Regional Community Policing Institute*: Colorado.
- Cordner, G. (2007 b). *Community Policing: Principles and Elements*, *Regional Community Policing Institute*: Eastern Kentucky University.
- Couper, D.C., and Sabine H.L. (1991). *Quality Policing: The Madison Experience*. Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum.
- Davis, R.C., Henderson, N.J., and Merrick, C. (2003). Community Policing: Variations on the Western model in the developing world. *Police Practice and Research*, Vol. 4, No. 3, pp. 280-300.
- Dinnen, S. and Braithwaite, J. (2009). Reinventing policing through the prism of the colonial kiap, *Policing and Society*, Vol. 19, No. 2, pp. 161-173.
- Dinnen, S. (2007). A Comment on State-building in Solomon Islands, *The Journal of Pacific History*, Vol. 42, No. 2, pp. 255-263.

- Duffield, M. (2001a). *Global Governance and the New Wars*, Zed Books, London.
- Duffield, M. (2001b). Governing the Borderlands: Decoding the power of aid, *Disasters*, Vol. 25, No. 4, pp. 308-320.
- Eck, J.E., and William, S. (1987). *Problem Solving: Problem-Oriented Policing in Newport News*. Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum.
- Eck, J.E., and William, S. (1989). *A Problem-Oriented Approach to Police Service Delivery* Police and Policing: Contemporary Issues, ed. Dennis Jay Kenney. New York: Praeger.
- Ellison, G. and Pino, N.W. (2012). *Globalization, Police Reform, and Development: Doing it the Western Way?*, Palgrave Macmillan, New York.
- Easwaramoorthy, M., & Zarinpoush, F. (2006). Interviewing for research. *Canada Volunteerism Initiative*, 1-2.
- Ferreira, B.R. (1996). The Use and Effectiveness of Community Policing in a Democracy, in M. Pagon (ed), *Policing in Central and Eastern Europe: Comparing firsthand knowledge with experience from the West*, College of Police and Security Studies, Ljubljana, Slovenia, <https://www.ncjrs.gov/policing/use139.htm>.
- Gill, C. & Weisburd, D., Telep, C., Vitter, Z. & Bennett, T. (2014). *Community-oriented policing to reduce crime, disorder and fear and increase satisfaction and legitimacy among citizens: a systematic review*. *Journal of Experimental Criminology*.
- GoK (2006). *Governance, Justice, Law and Order Sector (GJLOS) Reform Programme; National Integrated Household Baseline Survey Report*, Nairobi: GJLOS.
- Goldstein, H. (1997). *Problem-Oriented Policing*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Grabosky, P. (2009). Community Policing, East and West, North and South, in Peter Grabosky (ed.), *Community policing and peacekeeping*, CRC Press, Boca Ranton, Florida, pp. 1-11.
- Groenwald, H., and Peake, G. (2004). *Police Reform through Community-Based Policing: Philosophy and Guidelines for Implementation*, Saferworld and International Police Academy, September 2004, New York, http://pksoi.army.mil/doctrine_concepts/documents/UN/POLICE_REFORM.pdf.
- Hills, A. (2008). The dialectic of police reform in Nigeria, *The Journal of Modern African Studies*, Vol 46, No. 2, pp. 215-234.

- Hills, A. (2012). Lost in Translation: Why Nigeria's police don't implement democratic reforms, *International Affairs*, Vol. 88, No. 4, pp. 739-755.
- Innes, M. (2003). *Understanding Social Control: Deviance, Crime and Social Order*, McGraw-Hill International: New York.
- Innes, M. and Roberts, C. (2008). Reassurance policing, community intelligence and the co-production of neighbourhood order, in Williamson T (eds.). *The handbook of knowledge based policing: Current conceptions and future directions*. Sussex: John Wiley.
- Joyce, P. (2006). *Criminal Justice: An Introduction to Crime and Criminal Justice System*, Willan Press: London.
- Kelling, G.L and Coles, C.M (1990). *Fixing broken windows*, The Free Press: New York.
- Kelling, G.L., Robert W., and Hubert W. (1988). *Police Accountability and Community Policing*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice and John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University.
- Kenya Police (2014). *Community Policing*. Retrieved from the Kenya Police official website www.kenyapolice.go.ke.
- Lee King, W. (2009). The Effect of Community Policing on Chinese Organised Crime: The Hong Kong case, in Peter Grabosky (ed.), *Community Policing and Peacekeeping*, CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida, pp. 187-200.
- Marks, M., Shearing, C. and Wood, J. (2009). "A Thin or Thick Blue Line? Exploring alternative models for community policing and the police role in South Africa", in Peter Grabosky (ed.), *Community Policing and Peacekeeping*, CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida, pp. 153-168.
- Mastrofski, S. (2006). 'Critic - Community Policing: A Skeptical View' in *Police Innovation: Contemporary Perspectives*, ed. D. Weisburd and A. Braga, Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Meese, E. (1991) *Community Policing and the Police Officer. Perspectives on Policing* Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice and John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University.
- Meyer, V. (2006). *International administration by the United Nations: the maintenance of security and order*. Kovac, Hamburg
- Minnaar, A. (2009). "Community Policing in a High Crime Transitional State: The Case of South Africa Since Democratization in 1994", in Dominique Wisler and Ihekwoaba D. Onwudiwe, *Community Policing: International Patterns and Comparative Perspectives*, CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida.

- Minnaar, A., and Ngoveni, P. (2004). The relationship between the South African Police Service and the private security industry: Any role for outsourcing in the prevention of crime. *Acta Criminologica*,
- Moore, M.H., and Darrel W.S. (1991). *Beyond Command and Control: The Strategic Management of Police Departments*. Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum.
- Mwangi, J. (2002). *The Need for a National Policy on Community Based Policing*.
- National Police Service Act (2011). *Community Policing Forums and committees*.
- Nyaura, J.E., and Ngugi, M. N. (2014). *Challenges Faced by the Local Private Security Guards (“Watchmen”) in Eldoret Municipality, Kenya, towards Community Policing: A Criminological Perspective*.
- Ochieng’, J.M. (2004). “*Perceptions of Community Policing: Interrogating a Process*”, Kenya: Centre for Minority Rights Development (CEMIRIDE), December 2004.
- Oettmeier, Timothy N., and William H. Bieck (1988). *Integrating Investigative Operations through Neighborhood-Oriented Policing: Executive Session #2*. Houston: Houston Police Department.
- Office of Community Oriented Policing Services (2007). *Organizational Elements*. Retrieved from: <http://www.Cops.usdg.gov/print.asp>
- O’Neill, W.G. (2005). *Police Reform in Post-conflict societies: what we know and what we still need to know*, International Peace Academy, New York.
- Palmiotto, M. (2000). *Community Policing: A Policing Strategy for the 21st Century*. Jones and Bartlett Publishers: Boston.
- Richmond, O. (2003). ‘Realizing Hegemony? Symbolic Terrorism and the Roots of Conflict’, *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism*, Vol. 26, No. 4, pp. 289-309.
- Rosenbaum, Dennis P., Eusevio Hernandez, and Sylvester Daughtry, Jr (1991). *Crime Prevention, Fear Reduction, and the Community Local Government Police Management*, ed. William A. Geller. Washington, D.C.: International City Management Association.
- Ruteere, M. and Pommerolle, M. (2003). Democratizing security, or decentralizing repression? The ambiguities of community policing in Kenya, *African Affairs*, Vol. 102, No. 409, pp. 587-604.
- Sadd, S., and Grinc, R. (1996). *Implementation Challenges in Community Policing Innovative Neighbourhood Oriented Policing in Eight Cities*. Retrieved from <http://www.ncjrs.gov/txtfiles/implcp.txt>.

- Scheider, M.C. (2009). *Community Policing Nugget: Broken Windows and Community Policing*, Community Policing Dispatch, Community-oriented policing services (COPS), United States Department of Justice, http://cops.usdoj.gov/html/dispatch/January_2009/nugget.htm.
- Schönteich, M. (1999). Fighting crime with private muscle: The private sector and crime prevention. *African Security Review*
- Segrave, M., and Ratcliffe, J. (2004). *Community Policing: A Descriptive Overview*, Australian Institute of Criminology.
- Sharma, G. (2017). Pros and cons of different sampling techniques. *International journal of applied research*, 3(7), 749-752.
- Sherman, L.W. and Anthony V.B. Cordner, in G.W. Craig B.F., and Chuck W. (1991). *Research, Planning and Implementation. Local Government Police Management*, ed. William A. Geller. Washington, D.C.: International City Management Association, 3rd edition.
- Sherman, L., and Eck, J. (2006). Policing for crime prevention, in Sherman LW, Farrington DP, Welsh BC & Layton MacKenzie DL (eds.), *Evidence-based crime prevention*, 2nd ed. London: Routledge.
- Skogan, W.G (1996). *Disorder and decline*, The Free Press: New York.
- Skogan W.G (1996). *The police and public in England*, Her Majesty's Printing Office: London.
- Skogan, W.G., and Hartnett, S. (1998). *Community Policing: Chicago Style*, Oxford University Press: New York.
- Skolnick, J.H., and Bayley, D. (1988). *Community Policing: Issues and Practices around the World*, National Institute of Justice: Office of Communication and Research Utilization.
- Smartt, U. (2006). *Criminal Justice*, Sage: London.
- Sparrow, M.K. (1988). *Implementing Community Policing. Perspectives on Policing*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice and John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University.
- Sparrow, M.K. (1993). *Information Systems and the Development of Policing. Perspectives on Policing*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Justice and John F. Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University.

- Tilley, N. (2003). 'Community Policing, Problem-oriented Policing and Intelligence-led Policing' in *Handbook of Policing*, ed. T Newburn, Willan Publishing: Cullompton.
- Torronen and Korander (2006). Preventive Policing and Security Plans: The Reception of New Crime Prevention Strategies in Three Finnish Cities. *Journal of Scandinavian Studies in Criminology and Crime Prevention*, 6 (2): 106-127.
- Trojanowicz, R.C. (1986). *Evaluating a neighborhood foot patrol program*, Sage Publications: Oak.
- Trojanowicz, R., and Bucqueroux, B. (1990). *Community Policing: A contemporary perspective*. Anderson Publishing Co: Ohio.
- UN-Habitat (2001). *Global Urban Indicators*, Nairobi.
- US Department of Justice (2012). Community Oriented Policing Services. *Community Policing Defined*. ISBN: 978-1-935676-06-5.
- Vinzant, J. and Lane, C. (1994). Street-Level Leadership: Understanding Community Policing, *Criminal Justice Review*, 19(2): 189-211.
- Virta, S. (2006). *Community Policing: The Sage Dictionary of Criminology*, eds. McLaughlin, E., and Muncie, J. Sage: London.
- Wadman, Robert C., and Robert K. Olson (1990). *Community Wellness: A New Theory of Policing*. Washington, D.C.: Police Executive Research Forum.
- Weisheit, R.A., Wells, L.E., & Falcone, D.N. (1994). Community Policing in Small Town and Rural America. *Crime and Delinquency*.
- Willett, S. (2005). New Barbarians at the Gate: losing the liberal peace in Africa, *Review of African Political Economy*, Vol. 32 No. 106, pp. 55-76.
- Williams, H. (1991). *External Resources. Local Government Police Management*, ed. William A. Geller. Washington, D.C.: International City Management Association.
- Wycoff, M.A. (1988). *The Benefits of Community Policing: Evidence and Conjecture in Community Policing: Rhetoric or Reality* ed. Green, J., & Mastrofski, S. Praeger Publishers: New York.
- Young, W., and Tinsley, Y. (1998). *Options for the development of COP/problem solving policing in New Zealand*, Victoria University of Wellington: Wellington.

APPENDICES

Appendix I: Introduction Letter

RICHARD KIPLAGAT KANDIE.
P.O BOX 7623,
ELDORET
10th April 2019.

MOI UNIVERSITY
P.O BOX 3900,
ELDORET

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: INVOLVEMENT IN ACADEMIC STUDY:

My name is Richard Kiplagat Kandie, I am a postgraduate student in Moi University pursuing masters of Arts Degree in Public Administration and Policy. I am currently conducting a research on the 'Role of 'Nyumba Kumi' Community Policing Strategy in Combating Crime in Baringo North Sub-County, Kenya'. You have been chosen for this study and I would like to assure you that the information collected will solely for research purposes and your identity will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Thanks for your cooperation.

Richard Kiplagat Kandie.

SASS/PGPA/06/15

Appendix II: Consent Form

PROJECT TITLE: ROLE OF 'NYUMBA KUMI' COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGY IN COMBATING CRIME IN BARINGO NORTH SUB-COUNTY, KENYA.

Introduction and Purpose

I wish to request your participation in the study by providing responses to the interview questions that I wish to ask. The responses would be confidential and would only be used for the purpose of this study.

Thank you.

Procedure

If selected to participate in the study, you will be asked to participate in interview schedule. The interview will be recorded using an audio recorder to enable us capture your views accurately.

Right to Refuse or Withdraw

Your participation in this research project is entirely voluntary. At any point in time you may withdraw from the study or refuse to participate altogether. If you do choose to participate, but prefer not to answer certain questions, you are free to do so.

Risks, Stress, or Discomfort

You are always free to choose not to answer questions that make you uncomfortable.

Confidentiality

All information given in this study will be kept confidential. Your name will not be used on any of the documents, reports or publications resulting from this study. Only the researchers will view your responses. All responses will be stored under the researchers' control. Your name, or other identifying information, will not appear anywhere on the interview record. All paper information will be destroyed once the research purposes are fulfilled.

Participant Statement

This activity has been explained to me and I agree to participate in this study. I have had the opportunity to ask questions. I understand that I can choose not to answer some questions and can stop participating in the study at any time.

Study Participant:

Signing below means you choose to be in this research study.

Signature of Participant: _____
Date: _____

Appendix III: Interview Schedule

The purpose of this interview schedule is to find information on the effectiveness of community policing in reducing crime and challenges that face the proper implementation of community policing. It is important to note that the information provided will remain confidential and is meant for academic purposes only.


Designation

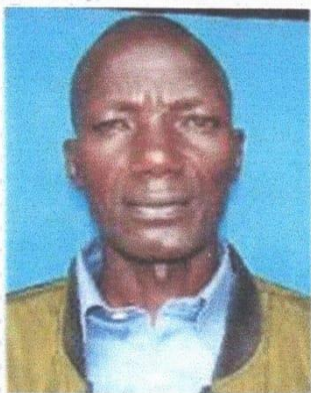

Part A:

1. What do you mean by the term 'community policing'?
2. How often do you see police officers patrolling your area?
3. How long do police officers take to respond to a distress call and what makes them to delay?
4. Has community policing been effective in reducing crime?
5. In your view, what are some of the benefits of community policing?
6. In your view, has the rate of crime reduced since the inception of community policing?
7. In your opinion, what should be the role of public in the proper implementation of community policing?
8. What are some of the challenges faced in proper implementation of community policing?
9. Give possible ways of improving the effectiveness of community policing in relation to reduction in crime.
10. What determines the effectiveness of community policing in crime reduction?

Appendix IV: Research Permit

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT: **Permit No : NACOSTI/P/19/78321/27942**
MR. RICHARD KIPLAGAT KANDIE **Date Of Issue : 13th February, 2019**
of MOI UNIVERSITY, 0-30100 **Fee Received :Ksh 1000**
Kabarnet, has been permitted to
conduct research in Nairobi County
on the topic: THE ROLE OF "NYUMBA KUMI"
COMMUNITY POLICING STRATEGY IN COMBATING
CRIME IN KENYA. A CASE OF BARINGO NORTH
SUB COUNTY
for the period ending:
12 TH February, 2020


Applicant's Signature



Director General
National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation