CONTRIBUTION OF NON-STATE ACTORS TO COMMUNITY POLICING IN URBAN INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS: A CASE OF MLANGO KUBWA WARD, NAIROBI CITY COUNTY, KENYA

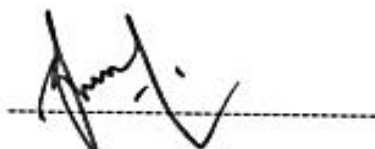**ZACHARY KWENYA THUKU**

Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of the Degree of Master of Science in Governance, Peace and Security in the Department of Governance, Peace and Security Studies, School of Humanities and Social Sciences of Africa Nazarene University
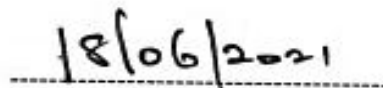
June 2021

DECLARATION

I declare that this document and the research it describes are my original work and that they have not been presented in any other university for academic work.
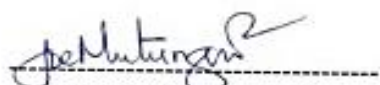
Name: Zachary Kwenya Thuku

18/06/2021

Date

Reg No: 19M03EMGP016
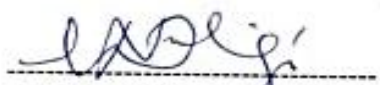
This research was conducted under our supervision and is submitted with our approval as the university supervisors.
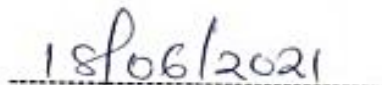
Dr. Joseph Mutungi, PhD

18th June 2021

Date

Dr. Wilkins Ndege Muhingi, PhD

18/06/2021

Date

Africa Nazarene University

Nairobi, Kenya

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my wife Emma who has always supported me in my studies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

Mlango Kubwa is one of the informal settlements in Nairobi located in Mathare sub-county, and has been associated with insecurity incidences such as armed robbery, burglary and looting among others. The increasing population in this area has led to mushrooming of shanties that are highly congested, making security patrols in the area difficult. To address this challenge, community policing programme has been practiced in the area, enjoining a number of non-state actors in the informal settlement. The purpose of this study was to determine the contribution of non-state actors in community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya. Specifically, the study examined the nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors in enhancing community policing, the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing and the challenges and opportunities for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in implementing community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county. Anchored on the broken windows theory and the democratic theory of community policing, the study adopted a descriptive survey design; adopting both quantitative and quantitative approaches to data collection. From a target population of 11,613 comprising of household heads, religious leaders, community-based organizations, national police service, national government administration officers and civil society organizations representatives, the study sampled 385 respondents were sampled, using simple random sampling and purposive sampling techniques. Primary data was collected from the respondents using both questionnaires and key informant interviews guide. A reliability coefficient of 0.877 obtained using the Cronbach Alpha measure of internal consistency and face validity were used to ensure the tools were fit for purpose. The study generated both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data generated was analyzed using descriptive statistics and presented in tables and figures while qualitative data was organized into themes and the content thereof analysed and reported in verbatim to corroborate the findings from the questionnaires. The study found out that most respondents (87.6%) were aware of community policing activities by non-state actors in the study area. These activities included collaboration with the community (63.1%), formulating plans for community policing (27.8%), sensitizing people and communities (56.2%) and undertaking community policing coordination (22.7%). Lack of trust and cooperation, and lack of resources necessary for community policing were reported as challenges undermining the work of non-state actors. Availability of resources could be a major step towards improving community policing in the area. The study concludes that training for community policing to the community was inadequate, and usually took long. The study concludes that non-state actors had a positive contribution to community policing in the area. The study recommends training of the community as well as the police officers in various aspects of community policing. The study also recommends such strategies as trust building by the government and civil society organizations to the residents, and availing of resources necessary for community policing. The study will be significant to the national government, policy makers, community and scholars.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Activities   In this study, this refers to the community policing programs in Mlango Kubwa, which include, among others, collaboration with the community, sensitizing people and communities and formulate plans for community policing.

Community Policing   Community policing in the study refers to the joint efforts of both the police and the locals to discuss and implement strategies in preventing and reducing crime.

Cooperation   In this study, it implies as the process of working together to achieve community policing objectives.

Informal Settlement   Based on this study, this refers to unplanned settlements and areas where housing is not in compliance with the planning and building regulations of Nairobi County.

Non-State Actors   In the current study, they entail groups that hold influence and which are wholly or partly independent of the Kenyan government, and include religious leaders and PBO representatives.

Policy   In this study, it refers to deliberate system of principles to guide decisions concerning community policing in Kenya.

Sustainability   It is defined in this study as the ability of the community policing programs and activities to exist constantly and remain working in the future.

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANU   Africa Nazarene University

CBOs   Community Based Organizations

CSOs   Civil Society Organizations

KII   Key Informant Interview

KNBS   Kenya Population and Housing Census

NACOSTI   National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

NGAO   National Government Administration Officer

NPS   National Police Service

SPSS   Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

UK   United Kingdom

USA   United States of America

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This study is about the contribution of non-state actors to community policing in urban informal settlements specifically Mlango Kubwa. This chapter entails the background of the study on non-state actors and community policing. Further, the chapter presents the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives and research questions. The significance of the study, scope of the study, delimitations, limitations, assumptions, theoretical framework and conceptual framework are also discussed in this chapter.

1.2 Background to the Study

Community policing refers to joint efforts by both the police and the locals to discuss and implement strategies in preventing and reducing crime established through relevant legislations (Geoghegan, 2019). One of the major changes in conflict management world over has been the emergence of non-state actors as major forces in community policing. In China, for instance, non-state actors have helped in devising most of the strategies that require community policing, and involve the communities who conduct independent roles such as public security (Lottholz, 2020). However, in Bangladesh, community policing initiatives by non-state actors have had numerous limitations, which comprise of political interference and varied levels of commitment from relevant stakeholders including lack of enough skills, knowledge and competence among the community policing stakeholders (Krishna, 2018; Pandey, 2018). Krishna

noted that at least 70% of these stakeholders, especially the community, lacked enough skills and knowledge to ensure successful provision of community policing initiatives.

In the United Kingdom (UK), more than 50% of the community policing strategies at the grassroots is heavily dependent on informal policing, which has a dense network of resident committees (Segrave & Ratcliffe, 2017). The same is reflected in other developed countries such as the United States of America (USA) (Malone & Dammert, 2020). However, Malone and Dammert noted that police brutality in the UK and the USA from affected the relationship between the police and the community. In some communities, however, the police, non-state actors and the community have worked positively together and there has been, additionally, increased informal engagements between the police and the stakeholders.

In South Africa, non-state actors are important in community policing efforts, as they engage people and communities at the centre of the conflicts, sensitize them in identifying the inherent problems, formulating plans and implementing decisions over their own lives (Osei-Marfo, 2018). Other countries in Africa have also accepted the role of non-state actors in the implementation of community-based policing as a means of improving security and improving the partnership between the community and the police. These countries include Mozambique, Nigeria, Congo and Tanzania among others.

However, there have been limitations in the efforts of non-state actors in community policing. In Nigeria, there has not been successful cooperative efforts between the people, non-state actors and the police in addressing crime (Iloh & Nwokedi, 2019). Community policing in the country is not in conformity with the principles of community policing, as there are no collaborative efforts between the non-state actors

and the government. All the security stakeholders in community policing have raised negative attitudes towards each other. However, there are efforts being put in place to improve the situation, such as introduction of certain fundamental realities, which constitute the drivers of change for a new police service, for more accountable, intelligence-led, responsive and service oriented policing (Ordu & Nnam, 2017).

In Mozambique, community policing has been aimed at demilitarizing the armed police and creating a responsible and accountable police force that respects human rights (Kyed, 2018). The end of a 16-year war in 1992 led to the adoption of a model based on community forums where voluntary non-state actors and the council of community policing, discussed local problems, facilitated patrols and mediated minor conflicts. However, over time, selection to the council of community policing changed and was executed by the local leaders such as chiefs who primarily practiced nepotism (Kyed, 2017). This resulted in a situation where the community policing committee served the chiefs instead of the community. In Tanzania, the Safer Cities approach has mobilized communities in implementing local crime prevention initiative. This has included the development of the Sungusungu (citizen crime prevention patrols) and the re-vitalization of the establishment of the auxiliary police (Maingu, 2018).

In Kenya, there has been the 'Safer Nairobi Initiative' which started in 2001 and aimed at developing a citywide crime prevention strategy for Nairobi (Muia, 2019). The aspect of community policing has been in practice since 2004 in a bid to enhance personal and community security. Increased patrols, community policing and initiating of Nyumba Kumi initiative have contributed in reduction of criminal activities. Community

policing in the country has been found to be successful in areas such as Ruai and Kibera in Nairobi among other places (Okech, 2017).

Prior to the introduction of community policing, the traditional systems of security provision that existed included vigilantism, regular police patrol and neighbourhoods watch. Regular police patrol and neighbourhoods watch still exists but with the introduction of community policing, vigilantism has declined (Muia, 2019). Community policing has also been given support through awareness creation and training workshops organized by non-state actors amongst other organizations in partnership with the government (Musyimi, 2017).

Trusting partnerships between the police and local citizens' organizations are the cornerstone of community policing. Whenever they are based on trust and mutual understanding, partnerships can foster community vigilance on any form of criminal activities. The engagement of various community groups in Kenya on a broad array of public safety is likely to motivate the local communities to address their own security concerns (Okech, 2017). In addition, community policing initiatives are likely to take cognizance of the various subsets of the population that form a community, with emphasis on the different security needs that each of them values most (Amuya, 2017).

With various policies and strategies aimed at enhancing the partnership between non-state actors and the police, the Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan 2008-2012 serves to enhance partnership between the community and the police in crime management among others. To counteract the negative police image, the plan emphasis on efforts being made to continuously address complaints from the public against the police. In particular, complaints alleging corruption and abuse of power which not only erode the

people's confidence but negate the efforts to create strong community links aimed at fighting crime. The Plan further acknowledges that crime prevention/management will be achieved through sustained community policing and liaison with other security agencies amongst others.

The Administration Police Strategic Plan 2009-2013 also recognizes the need to enhance security and peaceful co-existence, including partnerships with other players within and outside government, and offering a good avenue for the public to engage with members of the Service. The Plan emphasizes amongst other interventions that community policing should be embraced by all. Among the core functions of the Service include community policing focusing on partnership working, community safety and crime prevention. The Plan also intends to pursue the following specific goals and strategies as outlined in the vision 2030 among others: deepening policy, legal and institutional reforms in the Service and crime prevention through enhanced community policing, especially in informal settlements.

Mlango Kubwa is one of the informal settlements in Nairobi located in Mathare sub-county, and hosts approximately 50,000 people (Morgner, Ambole, Anditi & Githira, 2020). Mlango Kubwa area, according to police, is one of the hot spots associated with armed robbers. This is mainly contributed to the existence of inadequate food, lack of proper education, healthcare and other basic services (Ruteere, 2017). The increasing number of the poor in this area has led to shelters which are insecure. The community policing programme is practiced in the area, in order to make the public more aware of the happenings in their surroundings.

There are also a number of non-state actors in the informal settlement, such as Missions of Hope International, Pamoja Action Initiative, Alpha Transformation Organization and MindMe International among others. Therefore, determining the influence these institutions play in community policing can prove essential in enhancing the security of the area. Mlango Kubwa being one of the areas in Nairobi County where community policing is highly practiced, there is still high insecurity incidences in the area, and the role and effectiveness of community policing especially by non-state actors has not been adequately documented. It is in this manner that, Mlango Kubwa was selected to give a better understanding of the contribution of non-state actors on community policing in Kenya.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Despite there being some core operational principles such as positive interaction, partnerships and problem solving on community policing, there are some challenges encountered and more so in the informal settlements (Lottholz, 2020), including Mlango Kubwa. The role and place of non-state actors remains a grey area that has not been given the due attention it deserves, yet the sector remains a critical actor in the role out and implementation of community policing (Kyed, 2017). The activities that this sector uses in complementing the work of the security agencies so as to curb crime and other forms of lawlessness are not fully understood and appreciated. The nature of cooperation between the sector and the state actors is also under researched, and this further amplifies the thinking that there is minimal understanding of the role and place of non-state actors in community policing. The manner in which the existing legal and policy framework is crafted appears to indicate failure of integration of the non-state actors in community

policing. Other challenges that beset the roll out of the program in Mlango Kubwa informal settlement are under researched.

Most existing studies (such as Okech, 2017, Ruteere, 2017, Muia, 2019 and Musyimi, 2017) have focused on the contribution of the community, police and the challenges faced in implementing community policing. These studies have revealed low level of awareness on community policing principles among police officers and the public, with inadequate resources to implement community policing such as vehicles, office space, personnel and community equipment. The contribution of the non-state actors, which is key, has not been analysed adequately and thus there is insufficient knowledge on the contribution of the non-state actors in community policing, especially in Mathare sub-county. This study, therefore, focused on the contribution of non-state actors on community policing in urban informal settlements, focusing on Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the contribution of non-state actors on community policing in urban informal settlements, focusing on Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study was to determine the contribution of non-state actors to community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya. The specific objectives of the study were to:

i.   Determine the nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors in enhancing community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county.

ii.   To assess the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county.

iii.   To explore the challenges and opportunities for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in implementing community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county.

1.6 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study;

i.   What is the nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors in enhancing community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county?

ii.   To what extent does the existing legal and policy frameworks incorporate the inclusion of non-state actors in community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county?

iii.   What are the challenges and opportunities for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in implementing community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county?

1.7 Significance of the Study

As per Creswell and Creswell (2017), significance refers to the value of the research findings and strengths in adding new knowledge or bridging knowledge gaps. The study is of significance to the national government, policy makers, community and scholars. To the government, this study may be an important tool through which the

government will devise strategies towards community policing, for enhanced security. This will also help identify the target groups with ease through use of non-state actors, who are closer to the residents.

To the policy makers, the study may be helpful in developing appropriate strategies that are crucial in community policing. The study will also be significant to the residents of Mathare sub-county, who will be enlightened about improved security through community policing in their environment. Academicians will also benefit by having a source of information in their future studies about the contribution of non-state actors on community policing especially in developing countries.

1.8 Scope of the Study

As postulated by Bryman and Bell (2015), the scope of study defines the parameters in which the research operates. In this study, collection of quantitative data was limited to the community residents (household heads) of Mlango Kubwa and key informant interview guides used for other concerned non-state actors who include religious leaders, Community Based Organizations (CBOs), National Police Service (NPS), National Government Administration Officer (NGAO) and Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) representatives. Geographically, the study was conducted in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county. Methodologically, the study was done using a descriptive cross-sectional research design. The study additionally used semi-structured questionnaires. In terms of content, the study focused on the nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors, the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing in areas such as security and

opportunities and challenges for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county.

1.9 Delimitation of the Study

Delimitation is defined as an aspect that can be controlled by the researcher but can also affect the results of a research (Creswell & Clark, 2017). Based on the scope of study, the study was delimited to the contribution of non-state actors on community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county. The study also was delimited the residents (community), NGAO and NPS officers, religious leaders, CSOs, and CBOs representatives only. The location was also delimited to Mlango Kubwa, and therefore other areas where community policing is practiced were not be part of the study, as information sought was based on non-state actors' contribution in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county only.

1.10 Limitation of the Study

Limitation is defined as an aspect of a study that is not under the control of the researcher. It cannot be manipulated by a researcher to make the study easier (Kumar, 2018). The first limitation the study encountered was the unwillingness of the respondents to give information. Some respondents tried to hide some aspects of what they knew, due to security reasons. The researcher overcame this by ensuring there was approval from the university to conduct the study and also assured the respondents of anonymity and that the information was for study purposes only. The study was also limited by the respondents' unavailability due to work schedules. The researcher overcame this limitation by booking appointments with the respondents. The study was also limited to fear of insecurity incidences, the study area being an informal settlement.

To address this challenge, the researcher ensured that data collection was done during the day, and the research assistants came from Mlango Kubwa, where they are residents and therefore understand the area well.

1.11 Assumptions of the Study

As per Bell and Bell (2015), for the research problem to exist, the researcher must assume some aspects of the study. This study assumed that there were non-state actors practicing community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county, Kenya. The study also assumed that the study respondents were honest in their responses. The study further assumed that the respondents were accessible and willing to share information.

1.12 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework refers to a set of interrelated variables, definitions and propositions that present a systematic view of a phenomenon by specifying relations among variables with the purpose of explaining a phenomenon (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). This study was informed by the broken windows theory, the democratic theory of community policing and the systems theory.

1.12.1 Broken Windows Theory

The theory of broken windows, as hypothesised by Wilson and Kelling (1982), is a criminological theory that states that visible signs of crime, anti-social behaviour, and civil disorder create an urban environment that encourages further crime and disorder, including serious crimes. The theory also observes that minor forms of disorder such as graffiti, litter and prostitution, when not addressed will result in increased severe crime. In the urban informal settlement setting, urban informal settlement policing is affected by urban crime, civil disorder, and deviance among the youth. The theorists claimed that

police ought to address minor disorders in a bid to reinforce improved police-citizen relations and subsequent informal social-control. This enhances the contribution of the community in addressing crime and enhancing law and order. They observed that physical and social disorder impetus instigated criminal incidents in communities. The disorder leads to law-abiding citizens associating their neighbourhoods with insecurity, and thus these citizens withdraw from informal social controls and regulations. Thus there is reduced community participation and contribution to addressing insecurity.

This theory suggests that occasionally, disorders have posed a challenge toward civilian-police interactions hence deteriorating community security and participation. As such, disorder leads to more security gaps because of inadequate practical cooperation between police and the public (Oakley, Dziedzic & Goldberg, 1998). It is also claimed that the impact of disorder significantly erodes moral values of a society, which ends up breeding more criminals. It creates apathy among communities to report crime and participate in other forms of security provision and thus creates a sense of hopelessness that crime will not be addressed. Thus, disorder ultimately invites the invasion of criminals in a community.

Wilson and Kelling (1982) assert that in case police participate in addressing disorder by either removing or repairing it, they are thus combatting crime by enhancing different forms of social relations and community contribution in a law-abiding community, which have strong acceptable values that embrace peace, social control, security and harmony. Broken windows theory, therefore, suggests that lack of order sends a message that behaviour cannot be effectively regulated using social controls in a community with signs that are clearly seen and widespread of disorder. Disorder thus

conveys the lack of restraints and controls to those who may understand this as either tolerance or invitation to criminal behaviour. Therefore, since both aspects of lack of order and criminal activities are accepted in a society, it will probably be challenging to reinforce the required social norm on crime and disorder (Jackson & Bradford, 2009).

The broken windows theory typically implies that petty offences can result to more severe offences if those minor offences are not addressed, removed or repaired. The theory therefore informed the study, in that it emphasizes that the police and the criminal justice system are not enough to address the security concerns, which endangers human lives as well as properties owned. There is therefore need to involve other stakeholders such as the non-state actors and the community, therefore informing the objectives on cooperation and policies supporting community policing. The weakness of the broken windows theory is that it does not address the activities undertaken in community policing by non-state actors from a sociological view, which is addressed by the democratic theory of community policing. Therefore, there was a theoretical gap in the broken windows theory, hence the need for the second theory, the democratic theory of community policing to address the gap in the broken windows theory.

1.12.2 Democratic Theory of Community Policing

This theory by Gordon (2001), argues that community policing tenets mostly borrow ideas from principles of democracy, which indicates that a public officer, for example, a police officer, is accountable to the community for the entire responsibilities that fall into their docket. This theory also pegs on the tenet that community members can generate work for the police. The achievement of a democratic nation largely hinges on the voluntary obedience of law and order by the citizens.

The democratic theory of community policing significantly depends on the pretext that community policing seems to be more democratic than any conventional policing (Akarsu, 2020). This is premised on the notion that it improves the community's capacity to influence policing. Further, communities have intelligible perceptions and interests, and that law enforcement, and the criminal justice system can, and should reflect those interests. Developing several platforms for public communication with the police creates a forum for different groups to voice different ideas and sentiments. The police, therefore, are compelled to tackle disputes amongst values. This confrontation process provides the opportunity in the police decision making for the articulation of rebellious values and norms that also assists officers to have professional maturity of the security personnel. The process is also observed as a way of democratizing the implementation of law and order.

For community policing to be democratic, it ought to pick out and spearhead influence to different stakeholders and interests to whom the police would be less concerned about including minority and marginalized groups (Hope, 2020). Therefore, the government can allow non-government and other stakeholders to undertake such activities as training, coordination and dialogue in community policing success, for enhanced achievement of long term activities. This theory therefore informed the objectives of the study on the activities of activities by non-state actors in community policing. The theory however does not focus on challenges and opportunities for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in implementing community policing, which was covered by the systems theory.

1.12.3 Systems Theory

The systems theory, whose principal proponent is Ludwig Von Bertalanffy (1956), is premised on the perspective that relies on linear, cause-and-effect parameters to explain transformations. These characteristics are dependent on two foundations. First, that interaction takes place between components, and second, that the relationship existing between the different components is linear. In the instant that both conditions are present, the interaction is quantifiable and verifiable through scientific inquiry.

To understand the systems theory, it is necessary to have a fine grasp of the concept system. A system is a collection of different components that interact to form the sophisticated whole (Petricca *et al.*, 2018). An example to this effect could be drawn from the universe, whereby the universe comprises of components as minute as a sub-atomic matter or as massive as galactic bodies. Individual elements are distinct but synergize to make the universe. According to the systems theory, community policing requires systems encompassing numerous segments, for instance the community, work groups, resources, as well as data and information sharing which, put together, form the complex whole (Butos & McQuade, 2017).

It is necessary to acknowledge the integrated status of systems, including the reality that an individual system comprises of not only inputs but also outputs and may in this regard be seen as a self-contained bloc. It is equally crucial to note that community policing structures are constituents of bigger systems that may cut across the entire security industry (Petricca *et al.*, 2018). Further, security systems are continuously changing as they are made, operationalized, revised and even eliminated.

The theory informed the study since it presents a framework that contributes to the security system through cooperation between the actors involved in community policing. This theory therefore, informed the second objective of the study concerning challenges and opportunities for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in implementing community policing, which is part of the independent variables. However, the theory does not shed much light on the design of appropriate community policing and general security regulations and policies, and does not ascertain the degree of data security during information sharing and evaluate existing risks and controls.

1.13 Conceptual Framework

Kumar (2018) defined a conceptual framework as a diagrammatic representation of independent and dependent variables. The independent variables, nature of activities, opportunities and challenges for cooperation and the efficacy of existing legal frameworks and policies are likely to affect the dependent variable (community policing). The independent and dependent variables of the study are summarized using the conceptual framework (Figure 1.1).

Independent Variable   **Dependent Variable**

Nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors
• Collaboration with the community
• Community empowerment
• Formulate plans for community policing
• Undertake community policing coordination

Opportunities and challenges for cooperation
• Trust building
• Confidentiality of information given
• Resources provision in community policing
• Provision of security facilities e.g. surveillance cameras

Existing legal frameworks and policies
• NPS Act 2012
• Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan 2008-2012
• Kenyan Constitution
• Administration Police Strategic Plan 2009-2013
• National Government Coordination Act 2012
• County government Act 2012

Community policing
• Improved coordination in community policing
• Reduced criminal activities
• Good relationships between concerned parties
• Improved trust

Intervening Variables
• Types of crime
• Perception of crime
• Perpetrators of crime

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework
Source: Researcher (2021).

As shown in Figure 1.1, the independent variables of the study include the nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors (measured using collaboration with the community, community empowerment, formulation of plans for community policing and community policing coordination) opportunities and challenges for cooperation (measured using trust building, confidentiality of information given, resources provision in community policing and provision of security facilities e.g. surveillance cameras) and the extent of existing legal frameworks to integrate non-state actors' activities (measured using NPS Act 2012, Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan 2008-2012, Kenyan

Constitution   and Administration Police Strategic Plan 2009-2013). The dependent variable is community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county measured using improved coordination in community policing, reduced criminal activities, good relationships between concerned parties and improved trust.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The chapter reviews interrelated literature on the topic as earlier offered by various scholars, authors and analysts. There is a huge and rising body of works on the contribution of non-state actors on community policing. The proposed investigation also discusses the empirical literature review based on the specific objectives of the study, summary of the literature and identify gaps in knowledge.

2.2 Review of Literature

2.2.1 Nature of Activities Undertaken by Non-State Actors in Enhancing Community Policing

Crowl (2017) observed that during the 1960s and the 1970s, the discussions on community policing were pegged on the welfare of the state and those agencies concerned with social welfare who articulated community policing welfare. Through neighbourhood watch organizations and police consultative committees, the public was involved in crime prevention, but they depended on police expertise. For example, in Britain, several local programmes operated under this framework, giving the police more power to coordinate the function of providing the public, who formed their clients, both the offenders and community members, with help. The study further argues that building on the past, community policing sought to incorporate the community service responsibilities from law and order agencies in the reform era's support of better professional advancement through education and training to mitigate some of the historically negative perceptions about the police. Crowl (2017), however, looks at

community policing activities, but does not cover other factors such as policies that may affect the relationship between the community policing actors and the police, which was covered in this study.

Edwards and Klein (2017) noted that collaborative policing was initiated in the 1980s back when police paternalism, as a model, was in community policing and which then evolved into a partnership with many agencies working together with formal structures. The concept of partnership policing began in the 1980s complying with the multi-agency model, where the police, relevant government offices, the public and non-state actors among others collaborated to address security issues. Comparative experiences show that a professional police service with the engagement of a responsible public is useful in creating a safer environment while yielding fruitful results. This study, however, focuses on collaborative policing, and does not address other variables covered in this study such as existing policies and their efficacy.

Malone and Dammert (2020) noted that police brutality and corruption in the UK and the USA from the nineteenth century into the 20th century affected the relationship between the police and the community. The public did not trust the police and saw them as instruments of maintaining and entrenching that which had been set as precedence, the status quo, of a society that was unjust and discriminatory. The modernization of USA police started in the reform era, in the early 1930 and extended to the 1970s, under which police officials commenced the process of implementing strategies to increase the distance between the public and the police. This was to reduce the corruption believed to be perpetuated by the community and politicians. Professionalism was glorified in support of the services offered. This study shows that the relationship between the police

and the community has not been sustainable for a long time. However, this study does not cover the nature of cooperation in community policing, which was covered in the current study.

In South Africa, Geoghegan (2019) determined that strategies such as holding of meetings by provincial administrators, use of information communication technology, police patrols and street lighting have been used. However, none of these strategies give consideration to participation of community where they collaborate with security agencies to check, report and reduce criminal activities in their area of habitation. This study does not also provide the sustainability of such strategies, which was considered in this study.

In Zimbabwe, Moyo (2019) dwelt on the role of the community policing where the study outlines the roles of different partners in the policing and the components that an analysis of any community policing should consider. The study recommends that other than evaluating effective of a given community policy based on crime fighting tactics, analysis should also consider crime prevention efforts. Therefore, routine and random surveys to be conducted to inform the public and security agents on the effectiveness of the policy. This study, however, does not consider the nature of cooperation between the non-state actors and the police, which was considered in this study.

Zikhali (2019) also sought to find out how the Police implemented the strategic plan for community policing in Zimbabwe. The found that most of the police officers were satisfied with their duties and current duty stations. The lack of modern equipment and community support contributed to deteriorating police performance, as well deteriorating relationships with the community. Further, not all police officers were

involved in the formulation of the police strategic plan. The community- policing concept was well understood by a majority of the police officers but most officers preferred to be placed under the general duties section and believed that the current command structure did not support community policing. Lastly, there was need for financial resources, modern equipment and training on the implementation of community policing. This study looks at the policies and sustainability of community policing, but does not look into the nature of cooperation between the involved actors, which was looked into in this study.

According to a study in Kirinyaga County on the role of community policing in crime prevention, Muchira (2016) recognizes that evaluation of the effectiveness of any community policing is based on reduction in crimes within the neighbourhood, reduction in fear of crimes and satisfaction of the citizens on security issues. In this study, a strong partnership between the police and the community is the main component for evaluation of the community policing and the extent to which security personnel (police officers) work as a team. Furthermore, the study recognizes other components such as proper training of patrol officers and members of public involved in community based policing as well as community sensitizations. These trainings should be communicated in good time and proper planning to facilitate the same done appropriately. However, the study does not discuss other factors such as the sustainability of these activities and the policies involved, which was discussed in this study.

According to Ndili (2016), the highest percentages of crimes are committed by youths. Youths form or enrol to illegal groups and militia under which they operate to undertake criminal activities and disrupt peace of a given area. Therefore, the study

focused on the role of community policing in prevention of youth radicalization in Eastleigh area. The study thereby noted that community members of a given area can identify and prevent radical behaviours and ideologies at manageable stages. This offers a local intelligence to the police service which makes it easier for the security agencies to reduce risks of radicalization. This study however does not address the policies that can support community policing, which was discussed in the present study.

Munyao (2017) established that solving local crime problems and developing plans for crime prevention lies on the extent to which the community and police service share the information. Sharing of information (intelligence) can be smooth and effective when there exists a good relationship between security agencies and the community. Conclusively, the study in Lungalunga sub-county reveals that Nyumba Kumi initiative is working successfully. However, this study focus on the success of the initiative based on surveillance, peace building, policing and accountability rather than its effectiveness based on the main objective of the community policing.

Okallo (2017) noted that most community policing failures result from lack of internal accountability within the police force and citizens. This is an indication that for any community policing, accountability from both the police service and the public should be put in consideration while evaluating the effectiveness of any community policing. Therefore, institutions involved in community policing have to be open for scrutiny by the public and other stakeholders to ensure that they are accountable towards their performances. According to this study, evaluation of community based policy is done through non-participative frameworks such as administration of questionnaires via police customer service desk, through having time event charts and trend analysis,

through crime incidents trend analysis, loggings and crime trend analysis. However, these methods of monitoring and evaluation only evaluate the police service. Citizens of the given neighbourhood are not considered in evaluating the community policy in this study, and was considered in the current study.

Diriye (2015) observed that countries face security threat from multinationals through acts of terrorism. In recognition of these, these countries are collaborating to fight terrorism in unison. In a study on Kenya's cooperation in collaborating with other countries in the globe indicates that 73% of Kenyan citizens agree that Kenya is fully participating in the fight against terrorism. This indicates that Kenyan residents are likely to reflect the same in the community policing. Neighbourhood watch may help to expose criminals who plan terrorist attacks. Diriye's study considers Nyumba Kumi initiative as an effective way to fight against terrorism at the local level. The author also recognizes that the success of the fight against terrorism is mainly affected by the successfulness of the Nyumba Kumi initiative. However, this study does not consider other factors such as existing policies in community policing, which was considered in the current study.

2.2.2 Existing Legal and Policy Frameworks' Integration of Non-State Actors in Enhancing Community Policing

Malone and Dammert (2020) noted that documented policies and strategies have been enforced in the UK and the USA to improve policing functions and accountability in the communities served by the police. This relationship has, however, suffered in history following social unrest and the increase in crime rates in the past decades. The police sought to return to the community actors to reduce unrest and crime. This study shows that the relationship between the police and the community has not been sustainable. This

study, does not cover the nature of cooperation in community policing, which was covered in the current study.

Maiyo (2015) in his study on strategic responses to security challenges by the Ministry of interior and coordination in Kenya recommends that ministry of interior and coordination in Kenya to put up efficient policies to ensure transparency, inclusion, participation and accountability within the ministry after identifying that some officers are corrupt hence hampering the fight against insecurity. The success of the community policing is dependent on the how efficient the police and the neighbourhood coordinate their activities. There is need for laid down regulations guiding this relationship. The two parties have to work in unison to fight against insecurity. However, with coordination recommended between involved parties, how the sustainability can be achieved in missing in this study, which was covered in the study.

Okallo (2017) noted that Kenya has adopted community policing committees and community policing forums to implement community policing. The community policing committee is a small group of community representatives within a location that is responsible for representing the interests and security concerns in community policing forums. The committee represents the diversity of the community and includes the youth, disabled, elderly and women. The members nominate a chairperson and a deputy as well as a representative from the community and a police officer. The committee whenever necessary, request for support and advice from different people with different capacities in knowledge, leadership and community interaction. The way the outlined members in community policing relate is laid down in major policies, but the sustainability of such policies is not known yet.

As per Karuri and Muna (2019), community policing in Kenya is modelled on an interactive engagement with the police. Community policing is envisioned that it will encourage the public to work closely with the police through the formation of security watch schemes such as the Nyumba Kumi initiative and police reservists in the pastoralist areas and having response teams respond effectively and promptly. Emphasis is placed on the need for public awareness, education and capacity building for members of the public that is crucial in enabling constructive participation in addressing crime. That is why in March 2002, The Office of the President created a national steering committee on community policing to implement the concept of community policing. In mid-2002, subsequent meetings among government agencies, police and civil society recommended that moves towards community policing should prioritize accountability in their roles as well as heavily focusing on the empowering of members of local security committees to credibly dispense security services.

Okech (2017) noted that community policing was then first introduced in the country in 2005, by the President of Kenya and was piloted in various locations including Kibera, Ruai, Limuru and Isiolo amongst others. The Kenya National Police Service institutionalized community policing in 2005, which was led by a 15 member's taskforce that were to be dispersed to counties such as Nairobi and Kiambu. The legislative documents that fed into community policing in Kenya encompassed the Kenya National Police Service Act, 2011 and the report on the National Task Force on Police Reforms. Through the presidential appointment of the taskforce in 2003, a subcommittee was enacted with the role of developing the community policing policy. The policy considered community policing principles, national and international best practices and

finalized a draft, which was published in 2004 and attached to the framework of the government on police reform. A collection of standard operating procedures for the community policing was enacted in 2005. Following an evaluation of the community policing pilot areas in Nairobi and Kiambu counties, it was found that a community policing policy is needed to guide community policing.

Muia (2019), discussing the National Police Service Act of 2011, observes that police have a duty to abide by the uppermost professional values and integrity. In addition, they are tasked with upholding accountability, moral standards of the society such as fighting corruption. Also, they ensure transparency and protect the laws of the land while respecting human rights. Policing is done with consent and not through coercion. The police form part of the community and not away from it and offer professional services to the citizens. Both the police and the locals have a duty to find the security priorities of the community, tailor policing to identify and meet community needs and priorities, volunteer their time and efforts, build partnerships and trust, obey the rule of law and be democratic, transparent, and accountable and promote integrity. They are expected to be committed to preventing crime and open to the public and customize police services. The approach to community policing envisions that security is a communal responsibility to obtain a secure environment.

2.2.3 Challenges and Opportunities for Cooperation between Non-State Actors and Security Agencies in Community Policing

As per Dlamini (2018), community policing is a plan that permits the police as well as the locals to collaborate to obtain security and resolve conflicts that can degenerate into hostility. Community policing is therefore comprised of the philosophical

as well as an organizational strategy that facilitates the collaboration among key security stakeholders particularly in a manner that ensures crime reduction, solve problems as well as amicable dispute resolution for better standards of living. However, this study fails to provide the sustainability of such coordination, which was covered in this study.

Adugna and Italemahu (2019) argue that universally, the police service is highly recognized in providing security to the citizen of its respective country through ensuring that the rule of law is adhered to thus enabling citizens to accomplish their social, economic and political dreams. However, most developed countries such as Sweden and the UK have adopted a community based policing program to improve security of their citizens. Community based policing has been embraced after international community realized that most people are of good will and will cooperate with the police to reach to a consensus. Therefore, a collective effort between the police service and the residents of a given area can help in reducing crime rate and violence and terrorism prevention/reduction. This study, nonetheless, does not provide whether the collaborative efforts will work in the long term, which was covered in this study.

Umar and Bappi (2014) observed that developing countries, especially in Africa, have recently embraced community based policing to curb uprising cases of terrorism, crimes and violence. In Nigeria, community policing was adopted with an objective of promoting police-community relationship and in turn reduce the number of casualties suffered by the police service in violent crimes. South Africa too has been on the list of the African countries that have embraced community policing. This study, through a review of secondary studies, demonstrates the importance of evaluating the effectiveness of community based policing. The study also illustrated the importance of partnership,

transparency and accountability aspects in community policing. However, this study relies heavily of secondary studies, and does not provide the policies that support community policing, was obtained through use of primary data.

In Tanzania, Maingu (2018) argues that the roles of the public include exchange of ideas or information on security affecting their area with the police and providing criminal intelligence for the police to act upon. The community is also involved in participating in public forums where they can receive information about community policing, safeguarding the identity of informers and collaborating with the police and the community policing committee to have a good understanding and working relationship. This helps in building trust between themselves and the police. This study does not, however, does not consider other factors such as existing policies in community policing, which was considered in the present study.

In Kenya, recent security reforms have led to introduction of community based policing to combat crimes and acts of violence and terrorism. Okech (2017) recognized that communities are better off if they identify their own security and safety needs and how to meet them. Therefore, communities are actively engaged in planning and implementation stages of identifying solutions to their security needs and problems. Furthermore, they are responsible of monitoring the process of implementing the solutions and giving feedback to the security agencies. Okech (2017) recognizes that community policing consists of partnership, transparency, accountability, mobilization and sensitization elements. From the study, it is very clear that for any country or county to implement any community based policing program effectively, partnership between the police service and the community living in that country or county should be

established to facilitate cooperation. In addition, there must high level of trust between security personnel and the members of the public that is earned by creating a transparent environment. Finally, all the stakeholders have to be accountable. However, this study does not provide supporting policies to community policing, which was covered in the current study.

Ndili (2016) determined that over 90% of the interviewees in the study agreed that increased police operations in Eastleigh area exacerbate insecurity. However, all police commanders interviewed disagree with that notion and suggest that increased police operation help in dismantling any radicalization group. Inferentially, increase in police operations reduces trust between the police and the community and thus, the partnership between the two groups. However, the study recognizes that for the security agencies to prevent and curb the problem of insecurity, the police should engage the community in a given neighbourhood as the community can easily identify suspicious behaviours easier and quicker than the police. The study does not, however, provide the sustainability of such programs, which was covered in this study.

Munyao (2017) observed that under community policing principles, the government formulated Nyumba Kumi Initiative mainly to ensure public participation in security policing and ensuring transparency between the security agencies and the community. In addition, coordination between the police and the members of public will ensure reducing and/or preventing violence and reducing the number of crimes and terrorist attacks. The study reveals that this coordination is working successfully in some places. This study bases its argument on surveillance, accountability, policing and peace

building components all considered together, but does not show how sustainable the coordination aspects are.

Kioko (2017) noted that surveillance is of paramount importance to security management as it helps the security agencies to gather intelligence. In the community policing, the people in the given neighbourhood offer surveillance services and present the intelligence to the security agencies thus making it an efficient component to dismantle any potential illegal group or limit the activities of potential criminals. Most respondents in this study agree that local surveillance provide very useful intelligence to the police and hence helping in reduction of criminal activities. Furthermore, over 50% of the respondents in this study agree that surveillance has a high influence over behaviour change. Due to fear that someone is watching, criminals reduce their activities. This change of behaviour of criminals is important as it reduces the rates of criminal activities, and therefore works in the long term. However, the aspect of policies is missing, and was covered in this study.

Nyapara and Sakataka (2015) in a study on evaluating Nyumba Kumi in West Pokot focuses on partnership, citizen involvement and decentralized decision making as the variables to consider in relation to peace and security of the area. The authors conclude in their study that 98% of citizens are aware of community policing. One of the main objectives of initiating the community policing is to establish an active partnership between the police service and the community in a given area to realise safer community. Partnership between any two or more parties is dependent on the trust and confidence between the parties engaged. However, partnership between the police and members of the community can contribute to either improvement in security or increase in insecurity.

In conclusion, the above studies identify that cooperation, active participation, trust, confidence between the police and the community in a given neighbourhood contributes greatly to community policing in improving security.

2.3 Summary of Review of Literature and Research Gap

From literature reviewed, scholars have indicated that there are various activities that have been undertaken by non-state actors in enhancing community policing. For instance, there are principles that are translated into characteristics of community policing and include ensuring accountability to the legislative instruments of a country and the society, as well as making sure the police are being open and identifiable. In community policing, non-state actors should ensure that the police are professional, people centered on gender, age and group identities and efficient and effective in service delivery (Karuri & Muna, 2019; Maiyo, 2015; Okallo, 2017; Malone & Dammert, 2020). In addition, partnerships between the police and the communities, improved interaction between civilians and the police in a bid to improve public confidence and trust as well as increase avenues in which the poor can access justice including the marginalized areas should be ensured.

Regardless of the role of non-state actors' programs have played, minimal studies have been done to institute the degree to which they contribute to community policing, especially in Mathare sub-county. Though there are studies on the use of force and poor relationships between the police and the community (Ayiera, 2017), there is no study that is addressing the community policing activities by non-state actors in Mlango Kubwa, opportunities and challenges for cooperation between non-state actors and enforcement agencies in community policing. Further, there also exists a gap in the efficacy of policies

used in community policing in Kenya. The concentration of most studies has been on cross border, paying little attention to the contribution of non-state actors on community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county, therefore prompting this study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research design, study site, target population, sample size, sampling procedure, data collection, analysis and presentation as well as the legal and ethical considerations. The study adopted both quantitative and qualitative methods in undertaking this research study. This was necessitated through collection and analysis of data using various data collection tools. The research design used was also supported by the approaches adopted by the study.

3.2 Research Design

As per Devi (2017), a research design is described as holistic strategies that are employed in undertaking the research and is indicative of the guiding blueprint in obtaining answers to the research problem. This study utilized a descriptive survey design aimed at arriving at the desired research findings; by determining those involved in the research topic, what their role is, when, where and how these subjects are affected by the research topic and the implications if this study is not carried out. The study also adopted both quantitative and quantitative approaches to data collection, which are supported by the descriptive survey design. Descriptive survey was therefore adopted for this study because the data was gathered on the contribution of non-state actors on community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya, using both quantitative and quantitative approaches.

3.3 Research Site

According to Kumar (2018), research site is defined as the areas where the target population flourishes and is limited by a physical boundary. The study site where the research was conducted is Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya (Appendix V) which has a population of 48,927 persons as at 2019 population census, increasing from 26,628 in 2009 census. The area also has an approximate length of 3.52 kilometres (Kenya Population and Housing Census (KNBS), 2019) containing 11,130 households. It is located 5 kilometres Northeast from Nairobi city centre, enclosed by Pangani on the West, Thika road on the North and Juja road on the South. The area (ward) is among the 6 wards in Mathare sub-county, which include Hospital, Ngei, Mlango Kubwa, Mabatini, Huruma and Kiamaiko. The area is located under Latitude: -1°15'53.64" and Longitude: 36°50'56.76".

Mlango Kubwa is one of the areas in Nairobi County where community policing is highly practiced (Ruteere, 2017). However, there is still high insecurity incidences in the area, and the role of community policing especially by non-state actors has not been adequately documented. In addition, the increasing population in this area has led to mushrooming of shanties that are highly congested, making security patrols in the area difficult. It is in this manner that, Mlango Kubwa was purposively selected to give a better understanding of the contribution of non-state actors on community policing, looking at the nature of activities undertaken, opportunities and challenges for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies and the efficacy of existing legal frameworks and policies in the area.

3.4 Target Population

Creswell and Creswell (2017) state that target population entails a set of groups of individuals, objects or events from which the sample is drawn. The study targeted the key actors in community policing who include the residents (adult household heads, minimum 18 years old) of Mlango Kubwa, religious leaders, NPS, NGAO, CBOs and CSOs representatives. The target population from which the sample was drawn was 11,130 household heads, 43 NGAO officers, 248 NPS officers, 151 religious leaders, 23 CBOs and 18 CSOs, as indicated in Table 3.1. The population was chosen based on their knowledge and involvement on matters concerning community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county.

Table 3.1: Target Population

Strata	Target Population	Percentage
Household heads	11,130	95.84
NGAO	43	0.37
NPS	248	2.14
Religious leaders	151	1.3
CBOs	23	0.2
CSOs	18	0.15
Total	**11,613**	**100**

Sources: KNBS, State Department for Social Protection, Kenya International Religious Freedom Report, State Department for Internal Security (2020)

3.5 Study Sample

Bryman and Bell (2015) define a sample as the infinite part of a statistical population whose elements are examined in order to gain insight about the population. According to Liamputtong (2019), the representative sample should not be too small or too large, although larger samples have more representative score. In this study the

respondents of the study representing the whole included household heads, religious leaders, NPS, NGAO, CBOs and CSOs representatives.

3.5.1 Study Sample Size

The target population of the study is estimated to be 11,130 household heads, and is considered to be a large population. There are different ways of selecting sample size which include the rule of thumb, using sample size table and using sample size formula. Factors considered include confidence level, size of population variance, size of population as well as cost and budgetary constraints (Kumar, 2018). The researcher used the following formula from Krejcie and Morgan (1970) since it is useful for estimation when dealing with a finite population, as in the current study:

$$S = \frac{X^2 NP(1-P)}{d^2(N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)}$$

Where:

S = required sample size

X = Z value

N = population size

P = population proportion (assumed to be 0.5 since this would provide the maximum sample size)

d = the degree of accuracy (5%) expressed as a proportion (0.05)

To calculate the sample size:

$$S = \frac{1.96^2 \ x \ 11,130 \ x \ 0.5 \ x \ (1-0.5)}{0.05^2 \ x \ (11,130-1) + \ 1.96^2 \ x \ 0.5 \ x \ (1-0.5)}$$

S= 371.3751 ~ <u>372</u>

Therefore, the minimum sample size was 372 household heads. The distribution of the sample size was shown in Table 3.2 below:

Table 3.2: Sample Size

Strata	Target Population	Sample Size	Sampling Strategy
Household heads	11,130	372	Simple random
NGAO representatives	43	2	Purposive
NPS representatives	248	4	Purposive
Religious leaders	151	3	Purposive
CBOs representatives	23	2	Purposive
CSOs representatives	18	2	Purposive
Total	**11,613**	**385**	

Source: Researcher (2021)

3.5.2 Sampling Procedure

Sampling is a deliberate choice of a number of people who will provide the data from which conclusions will be drawn and generalized on the sample it represents (Creswell & Clark, 2017). The study used two sampling methods: Simple random sampling and purposive sampling. According to Bryman and Bell (2015), simple random sampling is used when the target population from a homogenous group is large, and equal chances of representation are sought. As in the case of the study where the household heads are targeted, simple random sampling method was preferred. A random point was picked in the sub-county, where simple random sampling was followed throughout the sub-county. In addition, purposive sampling technique was used for NGAO, NPS, religious leaders, CBOs and CSOs representatives. These groups were deliberately included because the information they possess was important to the study and they had

this information on account of the offices/positions they held. This ensured that the information obtained from the household heads was corroborated with the information from the NGAO, NPS, religious leaders, CBOs and CSOs representatives.

3.6 Data Collection

This section describes the development and piloting of research instruments, instrument validity, instrument reliability and data collection procedure. Primary data was used through questionnaires and key informant guides. Reliability and validity was done on these tools during the piloting phase, which is described in the subsequent subsections. The thresholds for the tests are also explained in the following sub-sections.

3.6.1 Data Collection Instruments

Primary data was collected from the respondents using both structured (closed) and unstructured questions (open-ended questions) delivered in questionnaires (Appendix 1) as well as Key Informant Interview (KII) guide (Appendix 2). The use of closed questions was based on the need to guide the respondents in filling the questionnaire, while open-ended questions gave the respondents a chance to air their views without being restricted to pre-determined outcomes. The questionnaire was structured into four sections; the first section collecting data on the demographic characteristics of the respondents while the remaining three sections each addressing the specific objectives. As postulated by Kumar (2018), questionnaires should be delivered in the same language, structure and phrasing to sample respondents. They are simple and cheap to administer as well as easy to analyze. The researcher administered the questionnaires to household heads. The research instruments were administered with the aid of two research assistants.

The researcher also interviewed key informants to obtain information to corroborate the findings from the questionnaires. KIIs are tools usually administered to individuals who are experts in certain area and provide additional in-depth data so as to enrich information obtained through questionnaires. The researcher therefore administered KIIs to those concerned with community policing in the CBOs and CSOs as well as the religious leaders, NPS and NGAO officers. Data was sorted into notes and audio tapes.

3.6.2 Pilot Testing of Research Instruments

As postulated by Creswell and Clark (2017), the goal of piloting is to ensure thorough understanding of the research variables that are used in a study. Sample research questionnaires was delivered to 37 respondents (representing 10% of the sample size) selected from Mabatini in Mathare Sub-County, in Nairobi City County. Mabatini was selected because it is demographically related to study site and also practices community policing. By piloting the research instruments, the reliability of instrument was boosted by grouping together questions that measure the same concept.

3.6.3 Instrument Reliability

According to Devi (2017), reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument will yield consistent data after established test trials. Reliability is therefore attained when a particular procedure gives similar results over a number of repeated trials (Creswell & Clark, 2017). The researcher administered the instruments to the pilot sample and then scored the questions. The reliability of the test instrument was measured by Cronbach Alpha Coefficient to determine internal consistency by checking inter-relation. Thus, an overall reliability test coefficient result value of 0.877 was

obtained for all questions, and considered significant for this study, therefore allowing for measurement study variables. This coefficient is more than 0.7 that is recommended in literature by studies such as Creswell and Clark (2017) and Kumar (2018).

3.6.4 Instrument Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which the instruments of data collection measures what it intends to measure (Kumar, 2018). The preparation of the instrument and its content was based on the specific objectives of the study. In order to establish validity of findings, the research used face validity and present the instrument to experienced researchers and supervisors in the area of study and try to obtain accurate information. Face validity is a subjective decision of whether measures of a certain concept will appear to measure what is intended to measure. In this regard, the researcher gave the data collection instruments to the supervisors to be able to get their feedback on whether these measures are relevant in measuring what the researcher intends to measure.

3.6.5 Data Collection Procedure

As already discussed, the study employed questionnaires and KII to collect data from the respondents. The researcher therefore trained research assistants for purposes of data collection. The research assistants were instructed on how to distribute and collect the questionnaires. This ensured that the quality of the data collected was up to the required standards for informative findings.

3.7 Data Analysis

The study generated both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data generated was analyzed using descriptive statistics, with the aid of software tools such as

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26. The descriptive statistics included frequencies and percentages. The analysed data findings were presented in tables and figures for ease of interpretation and in accordance with the objectives of this study. For qualitative data, identification of similar phrases, themes and relationships between themes was done. In addition, identification of similarities and differences between population sub-groups (religious leaders, NPS, NGAO, CBOs and CSOs representatives) was done. A critical review and revision of generalizations, paying particular attention to contradictory evidence and outliers was finally done. Qualitative data was then organized into themes, analyzed and reported in verbatim to corroborate the findings from the questionnaires.

3.8 Legal and Ethical Considerations

The researcher endeavoured to address the legal and ethical issues at every phase of the study. Legally, permission to conduct the study was obtained prior to the commencement of the study. Before data collection started, the applicable clearance procedures were undertaken and clearance certificates/letter obtained from relevant authorities. These included an introductory letter from Africa Nazarene University (ANU) and a research permit from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). This set the stage of data collection. The clearance letters were given to all study participants.

Ethically, utmost confidentiality before, during and after interviews was maintained by the researcher in order to conceal the real identity of respondents. Consent was sought from respondents before administering research instruments. The reports generated would be availed on need to know basis and in order to safeguard against

negative dual-use elements of the research. The respondents were also made aware of their right to withdrawal, whenever they felt like doing so.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

The study sought to determine the contribution of non-state actors on community policing in urban informal settlements, focusing on Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya. Specifically, the study sought to examine the nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors in enhancing community policing, the nature of cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in community policing and the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing. This chapter presents the response rate achieved, the demographic information and examines the findings as per the specific objectives.

4.2 Response Rate

In this study, the researcher targeted to collect data from 372 household heads. Questionnaires were distributed to the sample respondents and after all responses were returned, review of the responses was done. After review, considering consistency, legibility and completeness, a total 331 responses had all questions completely responded to and were found eligible for analysis, representing an overall response rate of 89% (Figure 4.1). This response was considered excellent as it was more than 70% as recommended by Kumar (2018). The study also targeted a total of 13 NGAO officers, NPS officers, religious leaders, CBO representatives and CSO representatives, where a total of 12 responses were returned, where audio clips and notes were taken to obtain data from the respondents.
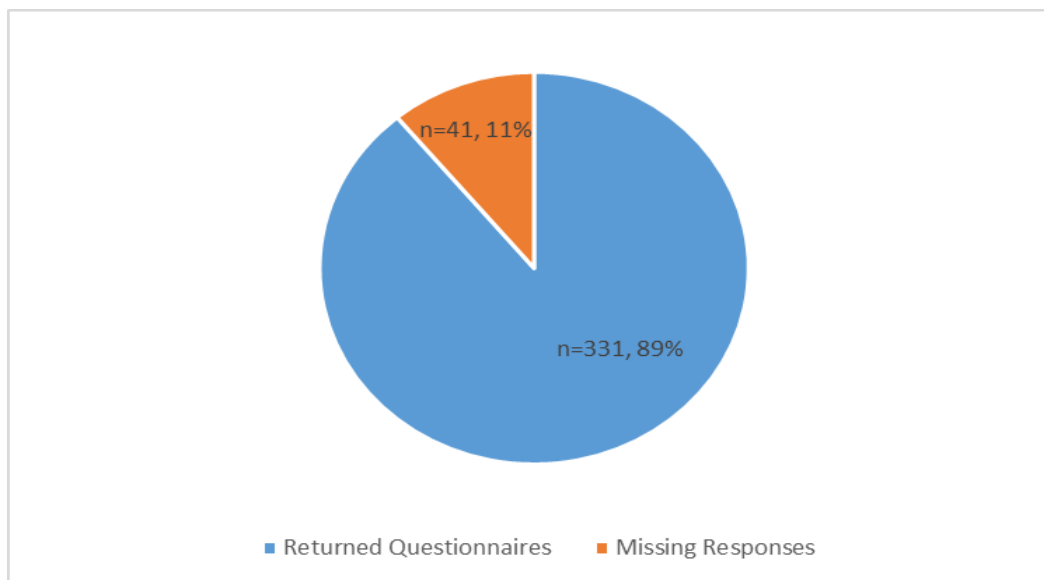
Figure 4.1: Response Rate
Source: Research Data (2021)

4.3 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The demographic characteristics of the participants who took part in the study was sought. The information sought was the gender of the respondent, age bracket, highest level of education attained, marital status, employment status and number of years lived in Mlango Kubwa. These findings are presented in sub-sections 4.3.1 to 4.3.6.

4.3.1 Gender of Respondents

The study sought to understand the gender distribution of the household heads. Determining the gender of the respondents was important in defining the type of household heads who participated in the study. As presented in Figure 4.2, 81% (n=269) of the household heads are male while 19% (n=62) are female. The findings imply that there are more male household heads than their female counterparts. This can be attributed to the prevalence of males being considered as the heads of households, and

therefore the ones participating in community policing in most Kenyan cultures, and this was also the case for the study area.
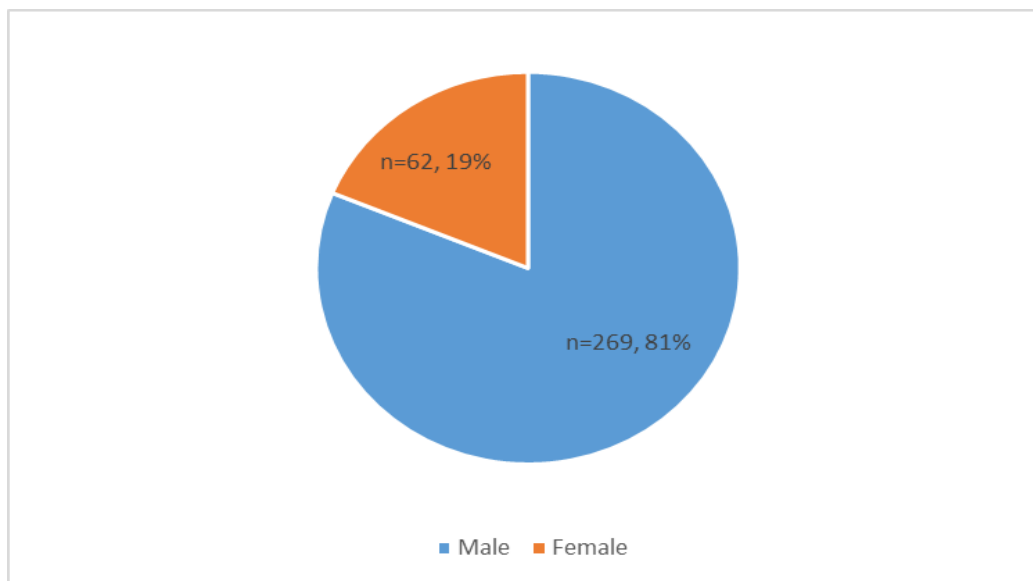
Figure 4.2: Respondents' Gender
Source: Research Data (2021)

4.3.2 Age of Respondents

The study sought to assess the age category of the respondents in order to determine the willingness to adopt and implement community policing by different age groups in Mlango Kubwa. The findings presented in Figure 4.3, indicate that 44.4% (n=147) of the respondents are in the age category 31-43 years, 26.6% (n=88) are in the age category of 18-30 years, 17.2% (n=57) are in age category of 44-56 years while 11.8% (n=39) are in the age category of more than 56 years. The findings show that most household heads were mid-aged, covering the age category of 31-43 years, which implies that community policing depends on the mid-aged people for proper implementation.
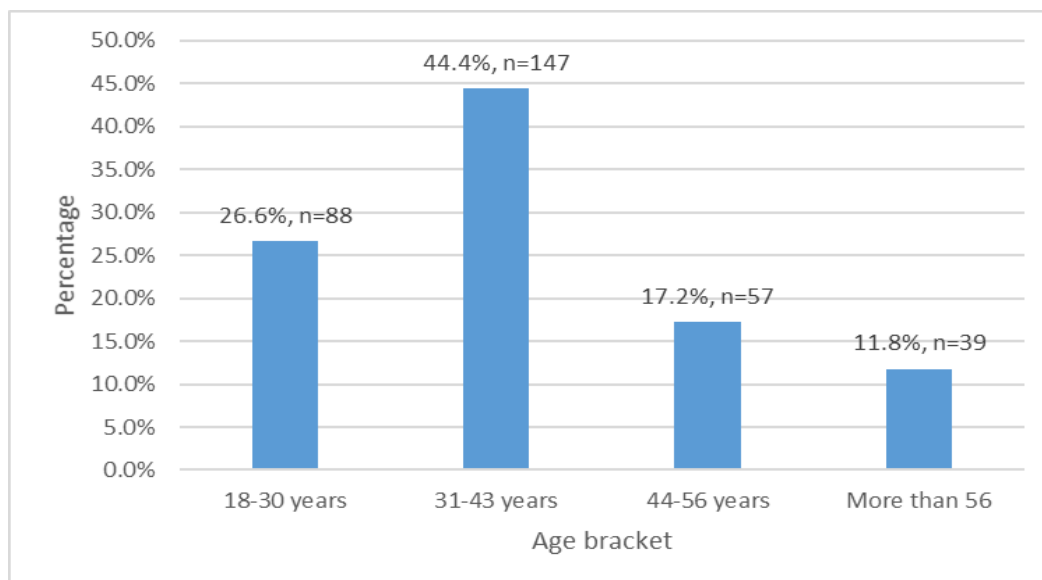
Figure 4.3: Age Bracket of Respondents
Source: Research Data (2021)

4.3.3 Highest Level of Education

The level of education of the household heads was sought in the study in order to determine the capability of the respondents to answer questions postulated to them. The study findings shown in Figure 4.4, indicate that 46% (n=152) of the respondents had attained secondary level education, 26% (n=85) had attained primary education or no education at all, 23% (n=76) had attained college-level education, while 5% (n=18) had attained university education. The findings imply that the respondents mainly attained at least secondary school education, hence did not have problems answering the questions posited to them concerning community policing aspects.
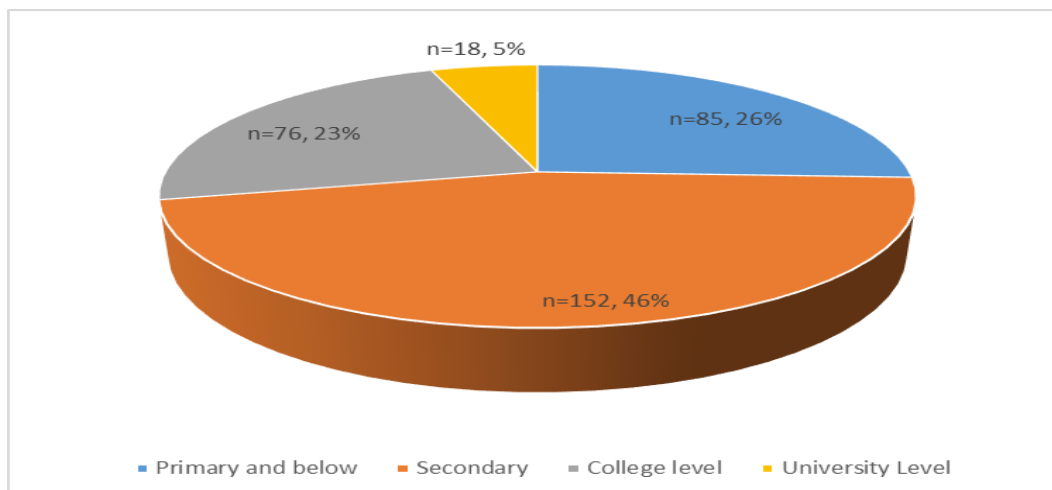
Figure 4.4: Respondents' Highest Education Level
Source: Research Data (2021)

4.3.4 Marital Status

The study sought to understand the marital status of respondents in order to comprehend the respondents' role in the households studied. The findings presented in Figure 4.5, indicate that 75% (n=248) of the respondents are married while 25% (n=83) are single. The findings therefore show that most household heads in Mlango Kubwa were married, hence community policing responses were useful as the household heads are the ones mainly involved in the practice.
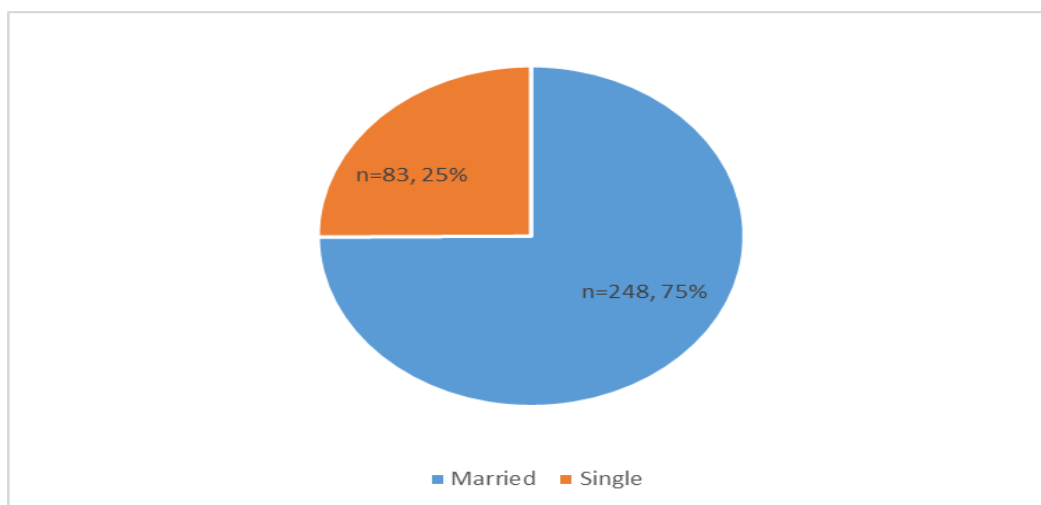
Figure 4.5: Respondent Marital Status
Source: Research Data (2021)

4.3.5 Employment Status

The respondents' employment status was sought in the study in order to find out the sources of income for the household heads, which are useful in determining the factors that may contribute to community policing success. The findings are presented in Figure 4.6. From the findings, it was apparent that 53% of the respondents were self-employment, 41% were employed while 6% were unemployed. Therefore, as much as there is presence of employed personnel in the area, most household heads were self-employed and unemployed, which might derail community policing efforts.
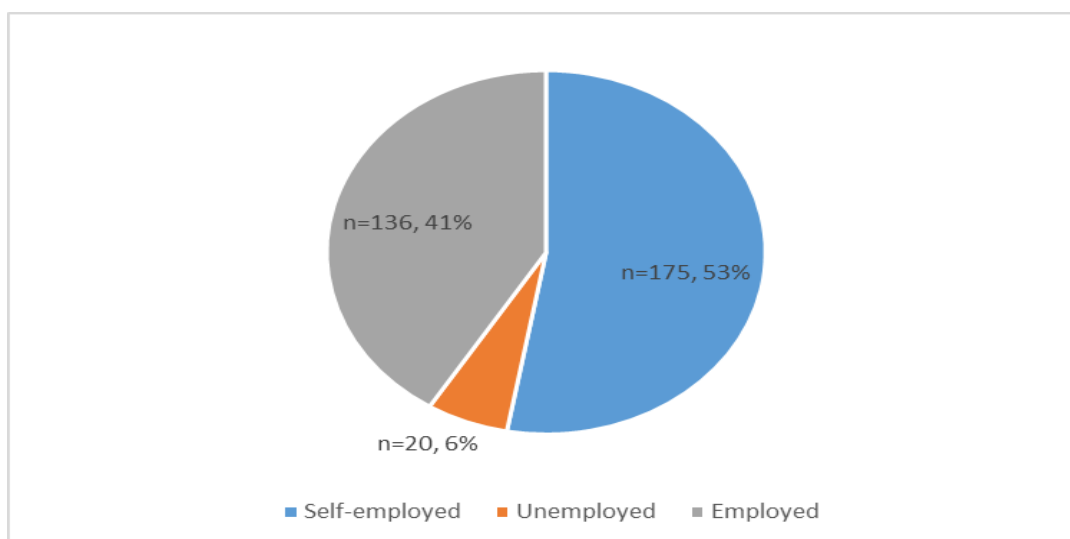
Figure 4.6: Employment Status
Source: Research Data (2021)

4.3.6 Time Lived in Mlango Kubwa

Duration spent in Mlango Kubwa depicts the experience of the individuals with community policing. This study then considered establishing how long the respondents had lived in Mlango and the results were as presented in Figure 4.7. The study established that majority of the respondents (48%, n=159) had lived in Mlango Kubwa for 6-15 years followed by those who had lived for a period of more than 15 years (36%, n=118) while 16% (n=54) had lived in the area for 1-5 years. The findings therefore

indicate that most household heads were residents of the area, thus could competently report based on their observation and experience with community policing.
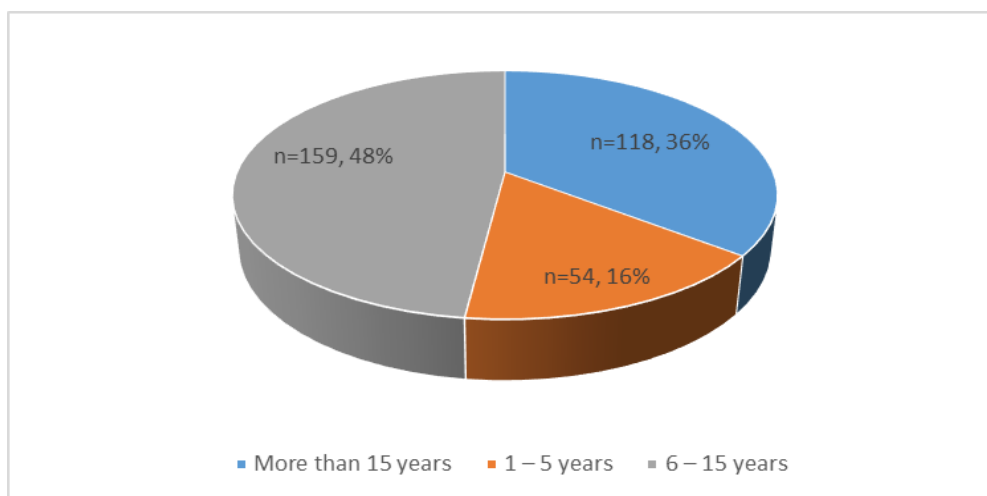
Figure 4.7 Time Lived in the Area
Source: Research Data (2021)

4.4 Presentation of Research Analysis and Findings

The study sought to determine the contribution of non-state actors on community policing in urban informal settlements, focusing on Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya. Precisely, the study sought to examine the nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors in enhancing community policing, the nature of cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in community policing and the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing. The findings of the study are presented in three sections (4.4.1 to section 4.4.3), each sub-section based on specific objectives of the study.

4.4.1 Nature of Activities in Enhancing Community Policing

The first specific objective of the study was to examine the nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors in enhancing community policing in Mlango Kubwa,

Mathare sub-county. The study first sought to determine if there were activities undertaken by non-state actors in community policing in the area. Though all respondents were aware of community policing in Mlango Kubwa, the findings indicate that 87.6% of the respondents were aware of community policing activities by non-state actors in the area while 12.4% were not aware of such activities. For those who were aware of such activities, 63.1% of the respondents identified collaboration with the community, 27.8% identified formulating plans for community policing, 56.2% identified sensitizing people and communities and 22.7% identified undertaking community policing coordination. The findings imply existence of various community policing activities, which were essential in ensuring security of the area. The findings are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Existence of Community Policing Activities by Non-State Actors

		Frequency	Percent
Awareness on existence of Activities	Yes	290	87.6
	No	41	12.4
	Total	331	100.0
Existing activities (Select all that apply)	Collaboration with the community	209	63.1
	Sensitizing people and communities	92	27.8
	Formulating plans for community policing	186	56.2
	Community policing coordination	75	22.7

Source: Research Data (2021)

The study sought to determine how these activities have specifically been used to address community policing in Mlango Kubwa. The responses obtained from the questionnaire and key informants were as follows;

> We participate in a variety of activities with the community for instance through sports as seen through the various football tournaments organized in Mlango Kubwa, involving the youths and other members of the society

in peaceful forums as well as the involvement of youth in development activities in the area (Source: Key informant 1, March 2021).

Non-state actors are very important in helping coordinate the community to participate in various community policing activities for instance barazas, workshops with the members of the community, peace forum, church activities and peace walks organized in the area (Source: Key informant 3, March 2021).

The role played by non-state actors in public participation is mainly seen from the areas of public awareness and the promotion of human rights in the area (Source: Key informant 2, March 2021).

The study also sought to determine the extent to which the activities identified had been used in the area. The study findings presented in Table 4.2, indicate that 64.5% of the respondents who showed existence of activities indicated that the activities had been moderately used, 29.3% said they were highly used while 6.2% said the activities had been lowly used.

Table 4.2: Extent to Which the Activities Have Been Used in the Area

	Frequency	Percent
Low extent	18	6.2
Moderately used	187	64.5
Highly used	85	29.3
Total	290	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

The study sought to determine how effective these activities had been in enhancing community policing in the area. From the findings, 37.5% of the respondents said the activities were very effective, 34.7% said the activities were not effective while 27.8% said the activities were effective. The responses were clearly mixed, showing that some respondents viewed the activities as effective while others did not. The findings are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Effectiveness of the Activities Used

	Frequency	Percent
Not Effective	101	34.7
Effective	80	27.8
Very Effective	109	37.5
Total	290	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

The community policing organizations/agencies the respondents had worked with in terms of community policing in Mlango Kubwa was sought in the study. It was found that 24.5% had worked with local organizations in community policing, 21.5% had worked with international organizations, 23.6% had worked with security agencies while 30.5% had not worked with any organization. The results are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Organizations Worked with in Community Policing

	Frequency	Percent
Local organizations	81	24.5
International organizations	71	21.5
Security agencies	78	23.6
None	101	30.5
Total	331	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

The researcher sought to know who was in-charge of community policing in the area. The findings indicated that 42% of the respondents said the government was in charge of community policing in the area, 32% said the non-state actors were in-charge while 26% said that the international organizations were in-charge as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Nature of Stakeholders Involved in Community Policing

	Frequency	Percent
International organizations	86	26.0
Government	139	42.0
Non-state actors	106	32.0
Total	331	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

On training, the study found that 35% of the respondents had been trained on community policing while 65% had not been trained. This implies that there was a gap in training in community policing aspects. For those who had been trained, the study found that 58.6% had been trained more than 5 years ago, 30.2% had been trained 3-5 years while 11.2% had been trained less than 3 years ago. On the entity responsible for training them, it was determined that 50.9% of those trained had been trained by both the government and non-governmental organizations, 25.9% had been trained by non-governmental organizations while 23.3% had been trained by the government. On the areas trained, the study determined that 45.7% the trained covered implementing community policing, 33.6% covered developing community partnerships and 20.7% covered engaging in problem solving. The findings are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Training on Community Policing

		Frequency	Percent
Have you been trained on community policing?	Yes	116	35.0
	No	215	65.0
	Total	331	100.0
If yes, when were you trained?	Less than 3 years ago	13	11.2
	3 – 5 years ago	35	30.2
	More than 5 years ago	68	58.6
	Total	116	100.0
Who trained you?	Government organization	27	23.3
	Non-Government organization	30	25.9
	Both Government and Non-Government organizations	59	50.9
	Total	116	100.0
Area of Training	Implementing community policing	53	45.7
	Engaging in problem solving	24	20.7
	Developing community partnerships	39	33.6
	Total	116	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

On whether there were community empowerment activities in area, the study found that 38% of the respondents identified existence of community empowerment activities in area, while 33% did not identify with the activities, as presented in Figure 4.8.
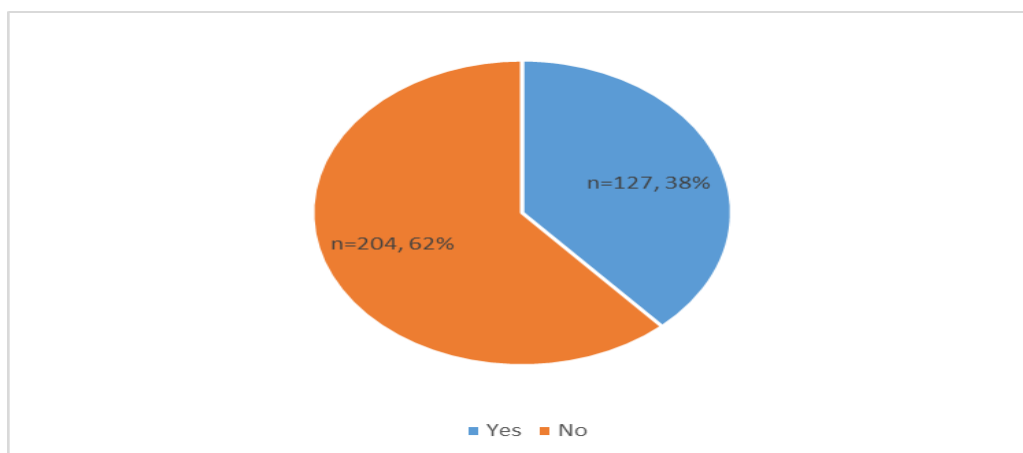
Figure 4.8: Existence of Community Empowerment Activities
Source: Research Data (2021)

For those who had been empowered, the study found that community youth projects such as sweeping and cleaning the area, waste collection, women programmes and sports activities were all as a result of community policing initiatives in the area. The following responses were obtained;

> Through various organizations such as Independent Policing Oversight Authority (IPOA) and Mathare Social Justice Centre (MSJC), these organizations have enhanced community based policing through different activities for instance; probation and preparation and after judgements, implementation of the policing reforms and involving the youths in constructive activities (Source: Key informant 4, March 2021).

> There have been productive activities in the area that have all come as a result of community policing. Instances include engaging youths and women in workshops, where they identify areas where they can be helped, for instance in *Chamas* and sports activities (Source: Key informant 5, March 2021).

On whether the respondents were involved in decision making on matters concerning community policing, the study found that 74% of the respondents had not been involved in decision making in community policing matters while 26% were involved in decision making. Figure 4.9 shows these findings.
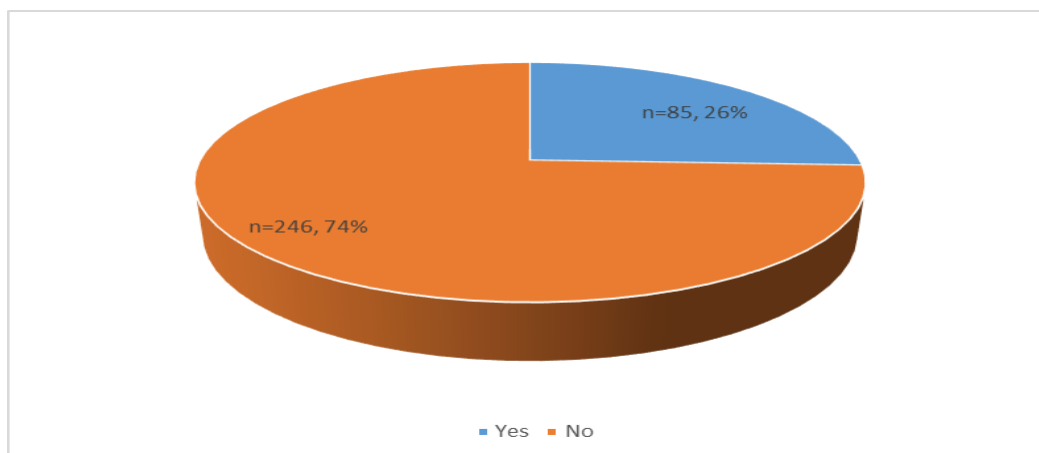
Figure 4.9: Involvement in Community Policing Decision-Making
Source: Research Data (2021)

On the instances the respondents had been involved in community policing, the study found that involvement in Nyumba Kumi approaches in the area, Chief's barazas addressing community policing issues in the community and addressing human rights based approach to community based security issues in Mlango Kubwa were cited. In addition, the study sought to determine if community policing programs led to promotion of justice in Mlango Kubwa. From the findings, 32.9% of the respondents identified community policing to lead to promotion of justice while 67.1% said they did not lead to promotion of justice, as shown in Table 4.7. The specific activities are discussed in the subsequent question.

Table 4.7: Community Policing Programs and Promotion of Justice

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	109	32.9
No	222	67.1
Total	331	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

For those who identified that community policing led to promotion of justice, as well as from the key informants, the respondents identified an improvement in the working relationship between the police and the community, and provision of information needed for promotion of justice has led to better justice provision to affected individuals. The following responses were obtained;

> Before the community policing, police officers were viewed as killers, brutal, corrupt and seen as those who could hardly understand the people. Community policing has made the community to understand that police officers are human beings and can relate and understand other community members, and seek to promote justice to any community member

especially those who have been affected by insecurity incidences (Source: Key informant 6, March 2021).

The roles of the civil society have been instrumental in provision of information to the police officers, preaching peace to community as well as acting as the link between the police and the people (Source: Key informant 7, March 2021).

4.4.2 Extent of Existing Legal and Policy Frameworks' Integration of Non-State Actors in Community Policing

The second specific objective of the study was to assess the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county. In answering this objective, the study first sought to determine the laws and policies that have proven important towards community policing in Mlango Kubwa, and the study found that 57% of the respondents identified the NPS Act, 19% identified the Kenyan constitution, 15% identified the Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan 2008-2012 and 9% identified Administration Police Strategic Plan 2009-2013 as presented in Figure 4.10.
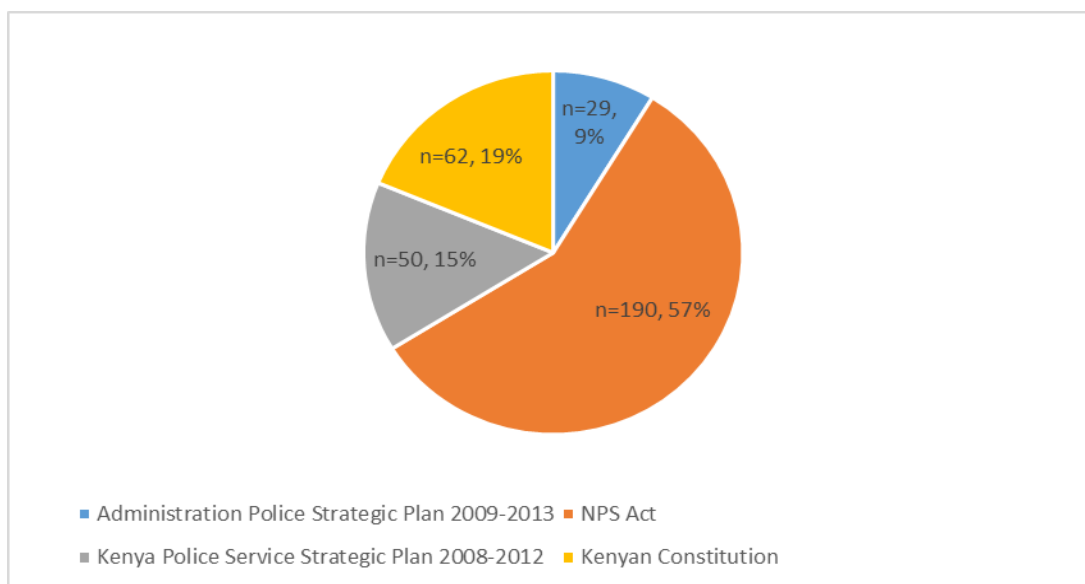
Figure 4.10: Awareness on Existing Legislative Frameworks in Kenya
Source: Research Data (2021)

The study also sought to determine if there are laws covering on reporting of offenders in community policing. From the responses, 41.4% of the respondents indicated that there existed laws on reporting of offenders in community policing while 58.6% of the respondents indicated that they were not aware of such laws. The findings are shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Awareness on Laws on Reporting of Offenders in Community Policing

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	137	41.4
No	194	58.6
Total	331	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

For those who identified the existence of laws on reporting of offenders in community policing, the respondents identified maintenance of law and order in crime prevention, preparation and after judgement law strategies, enforcement of law and order and patrolling in the beat areas as the strategies outlined in laws for reporting and taming crime in the area. The following responses were obtained to support the study findings;

> Community based policing exists through preparation and after judgment laws outlined in the constitution, and through the implementation of the policing reforms which assigns different roles to different people for effective community policing (Source: Key informant 8, March 2021).

> It is important to develop linkages between community and security agencies based on trust between the police and the public. This is outlined in laws such as maintenance of law and order in crime prevention strategies, enforcement of law and order and patrolling in the beat areas (Source: Key informant 9, March 2021).

The study also sought to determine the government measures used in effort to tame crime in Mlango Kubwa. The findings obtained from the key informants indicate

that partnerships with the local organizations, working together with civil society organizations and social protection were all used by the government in community policing. The following responses were obtained in the study;

> There is partnership that has been forged between local organizations and police on areas such as reduction of gender based violence, identification of criminals and provision of security to the locals (Source: Key informant 10, March 2021).

> The community has been encouraged to work together with the civil society organizations, together with the government by the police and other government agencies (Source: Key informant 11, March 2021).

> The government agencies such as the Kenya Human Rights Commission (KHCR) and IPOA has highly been involved in social protection which is crucial as police officers who were found to over-use their force have been punished and judged resulting to promotion of justice to those accused falsely (Source: Key informant 12, March 2021).

The study also sought to determine whether there were public involvement measures used for taming crime. From the findings, it was determined that 33.5% of the respondents identified that such measures existed while 66.5% of the respondents said that the measures were absent. Table 4.9 shows these findings.

Table 4.9: Awareness of Public Involvement Measures for Taming Crime

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	111	33.5
No	220	66.5
Total	331	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

For those who identified the presence of public involvement measures, the study sought to determine how the public was involved in making decisions concerning security in the area. The responses obtained from key informants to support these claims

indicated that sharing of information, awareness creation on security and deliberate working with the police by the community were identified, as follows;

> There is an element of public participation in awareness creation and promotion of human rights. Besides trust, confidentiality is also upheld in regard to highly classified information that could be used as evidence (Source: Key informant 4, March 2021).

> Community policing in the area is participatory in nature where members of a community together with other stakeholders such as civil society deliberately work with the police for improved decision-making on matters regarding community policing (Source: Key informant 6, March 2021).

The study also sought to determine whether there was prosecution and jailing of offenders identified from community policing efforts. From the key informants and household heads, it was determined that there were instances where prosecution was made based on justice and as reported, and other instances where no justice in the prosecution and jailing completely missed out. The following mixed responses were obtained;

> CSOs have been handy in assisting the victims of crime to contact police and start legal redress. The CSOs have also been found at forefront in supporting integration of survivors of violence to settle in their new setting (Source: Key informant 2, March 2021).

> Prosecution and jailing of offenders in the area is very unfair. Most people affected by crime scenes, and even the police, are struggling to find justice in this era where the constitution provides for rights to justice. It is really disappointing to seek for justice for over 20 years without getting it (Source: Key informant 1, March 2021).

The study finally sought the recommendation from the respondents on what was needed to improve community policing in Mlango Kubwa. From the findings, enlisting of hotspots, training of the community, strengthening of the working relationships and

provision of adequate security personnel and resources for community policing were recommended, as follows;

> Training of the community members on security issues and the enlisting of insecurity hotspots is essential. Undertaking of workshops and seminars for exchange of knowledge and capacity building is also needed (Source: Key informant 3, March 2021).

> Strengthening of the working relationships between all parties involved in community policing is needed, as this will lead to improvement on the whole process of community policing. Also, strengthening the departments involved in community is essential, for improved community policing in the future (Source: Key informant 5, March 2021).

> Providing adequate security personnel and resources for community policing is crucial. Regular monitoring of the community by the police can also be used to improve the security of the area. (Source: Key informant 12, March 2021).

4.4.3 Challenges and Opportunities for Cooperation Between Non-State Actors and Security Agencies

The third specific objective of the study was to explore the challenges and opportunities for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in implementing community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county. In answering this objective, the study sought to determine whether there were challenges experienced when undertaking and implementing community policing activities and programs in Mlango Kubwa, the study found that all respondents said there were challenges affecting community policing in Mlango Kubwa. From the open ended questions and key informants, the study found that there were trust issues between the community and police leading to poor partnerships, confidentiality issues on the information shared and resource sharing issues. The responses obtained from key informants to support these claims were as follows;

There are instances where there are trust issues between the community and the police, and this is seen from both parties. The police fear that the information shared may be leaked to unlikely sources, while the public fears that the information given to the police may make them a target from criminals, as the police cannot safeguard the information given (Source: Key informant 7, March 2021).

Building trust and confidentiality between the police and the community is an area that needs to checked. As this is a major area, it can be enhanced between the CSOs and CBOs, the police and the general community through witness protection and preservation of evidence and some confidential information in place. This is also a challenge to other stakeholders since they cannot easily see the confidentiality aspect on various aspects of the society activities and approaches (Source: Key informant 6, March 2021).

There is resource sharing problems especially on resource sharing and conducting of different stakeholders' forums. In most cases information becomes the most shared resource as it is essential in implementation of the community policing objectives in Mlango Kubwa. This calls for partnerships through the use of community outreach and sensitization forums (Source: Key informant 9, March 2021).

The study sought to determine from the respondents whether community policing had improved the cooperation between the public and the police. The findings obtained indicated that 66% of the respondents agreed that community policing improved this relationship, as shown in Figure 4.11.
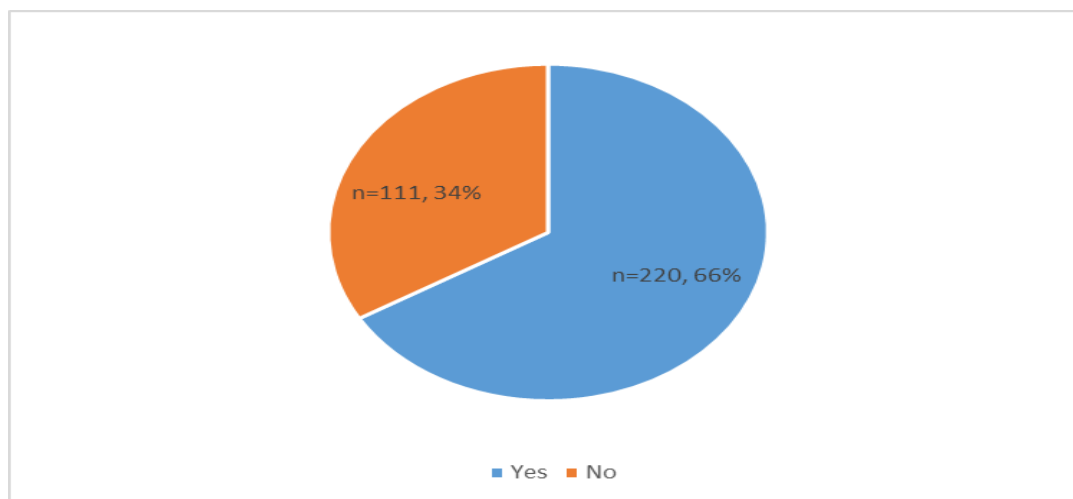
Figure 4.11: Community Policing and Cooperation Between the Public and the Police
Source: Research Data (2021)

The study sought to find whether the cooperation between the public and the police worked in the area. From the findings, it was determined that 56.2% of the respondents identified the cooperation to be working while 43.8% said the cooperation does not work. These findings imply that there were instances where cooperation was present in community policing aspects, while this was missing in some instances. This near split into half in the responses can be attributed to split in insecurity instances and different hotspots in the area. The findings are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Working Cooperation between the Police and the Public

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	186	56.2
No	145	43.8
Total	331	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

On the instances where the community and the police have worked together in community policing, the study found that partnerships in taming gender-based violence, Nyumba Kumi initiative and addressing human rights were cited by the respondents. The following were some of the responses obtained;

> There are some occasions where community policing has seen a combined effort from the public and the police, in working towards a common goal. This is seen through the Nyumba Kumi initiative where the public helps the policed identify hiding areas for criminals, through Chief barazas and addressing of the human rights based approach to community based security issues in Mlango Kubwa area (Source: Key informant 10, March 2021).

> We have partnerships for instance between local organizations and the police on aspects such as reduction of gender based violence from the community for better community policing practices (Source: Key informant 9, March 2021).

On whether the reporting and information management system on community policing was in place, most respondents (63%) identified these systems to be lacking while 37% of the respondents indicated that the reporting and information management system for community policing was present. Figure 4.12 indicates the findings obtained in the study.
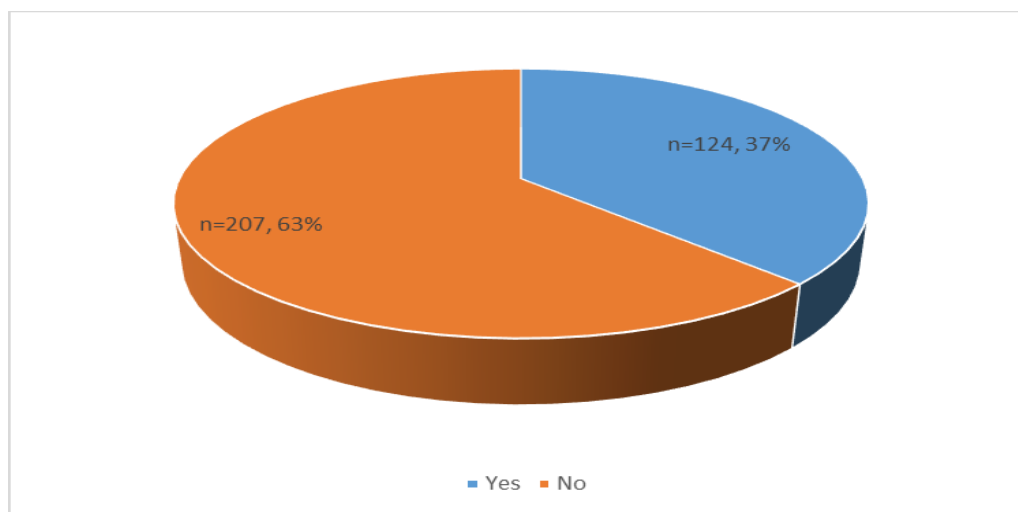
Figure 4.12: Presence of Information Management System for Community Policing
Source: Research Data (2021)

For those who identified the reporting and information management system to be present, the findings showed that 38.7% identified presence of community database, 29.8% identified presence of crime detection systems, 18.5% identified new residents' database while 12.9% identified existence of an offenders' database, as shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Reporting and Information Management System Present

	Frequency	Percentage
Crime detection systems	37	29.8
Community database	48	38.7
Offenders database	16	12.9
New residents database	23	18.5
Total	124	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

On whether community policing improved trust between all the concerned parties, the study findings as presented in Table 4.11, show that 61.3% of the respondents identified that community policing had improved trust between the concerned parties while 38.7% of the respondents said it had not. For those who identified community policing to improve trust, the study found that that 64.4% of the respondents identified the information given to be not confidential while 35.6% identified the information given to be confidential.

The study sought to determine whether the government provides resources necessary for community policing. From the findings, the study found that 36.3% said the government provides resources necessary for community policing while 63.7% said these resources were not availed. For those who identified the resources to be availed, 39.3% of the respondents identified the usage to be very effective, 31.4% said the usage was effective, 17.8% identified the usage to be ineffective while 11.5% did not know. The findings are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Community Policing and Improvement of Trust

		Frequency	Percent
Has community policing improved trust between all the concerned parties?	Yes	203	61.3
	No	128	38.7
	Total	331	100.0
If yes, is the information given confidential?	Yes	72	35.6
	No	131	64.4
	Total	203	100.0
Does the government provide resources necessary for community policing?	Yes	120	36.3
	No	211	63.7
	Total	331	100.0
If yes, how effective has the usage of the resources been in Mlango Kubwa?	Very effective	47	39.3
	Effective	38	31.4
	Not effective	21	17.8
	I don't know	14	11.5
	Total	120	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

For those who identified the resources to be not effectively used, some of the recommendations made to improve the situation were enhancing trust between the police and the public at various settings especially in the use of community policing resources, public participation through the various forums and transparency in medical aids and financial support for those affected. The responses obtained from key informants to support these claims were as follows;

> On resource sharing, there is evidence of sharing of resources especially information between the public and the police. However, transparency in the allocation and sharing of resources remains a challenge. Therefore, more transparency is needed in offering of medical aids and financial support to the affected members of the public (Source: Key informant 3, March 2021).

> Public participation need to be evidenced through instances of public awareness on different community sessions through sensitization and invitation of community members of matters pertaining to community policing in the area. This will make the residents have an ownership feeling and therefore build trust and monitor how resources in community policing are used (Source: Key informant 11, March 2021).

> On use of resources, the police need, and are working towards enhancing trust between them and the public at various settings. Resource sharing should be evident especially through engaging residents at various peace forums organized in the area and the sporting activities, to create knowledge of the available resources (Source: Key informant 3, March 2021).

> Partnerships with the community in resource sharing need to be enhanced. Public participation through the various forums organized at the community levels for example the peace walks and the charitable activity should be done to a greater extent, and this will enhance public participation in resource usage through informing them where the resources are and there intended usage (Source: Key informant 8, March 2021).

The study finally sought the respondents' opinion on the features of a well-coordinated community policing. From the findings, 43.5% of the respondents identified installation CCTV camera at sensitive sites, 22.7% identified better training, 18.4%

identified securitization of key community sites while 3% identified vetting of community officers. The findings are shown in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Features of a Well-Coordinated Community Policing

	Frequency	Percent
Better training	75	22.7
Installation CCTV camera at sensitive sites	144	43.5
Vetting of community officers	10	3.0
Securitization of key community sites	61	18.4
Do not know	41	12.4
Total	331	100.0

Source: Research Data (2021)

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the discussion of the findings, summary of findings, conclusion after the interpretation of the findings and recommendations for practice and policy implication as well as areas for further research.

5.2 Discussion

This section discusses the results on the contribution of non-state actors on community policing in urban informal settlements, focusing on Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya. The presentation of this section is guided by study specific objectives on the nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors in enhancing community policing, the nature of cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in community policing and the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing. Lastly, the chapter presents discussions on how the findings relate to existing studies and findings from empirical studies.

A total of 372 household heads, 2 NGAO officers, 4 NPS officers, 3 religious leaders, 2 CBO representatives and 2 CSO representatives were targeted, where an overall response of 89% was attained and found suitable and eligible for analysis. The findings show that 81% of the household heads are male, implying that household heads are dominated by men. This is consistent with the findings by Amuya (2017) in Kakamega and Ayiera (2017) in Kawangware, Nairobi who also found a male dominance in the household heads.

The findings also indicate that 44.4% of the respondents are in the age category 31-43 years, showing that most household heads are middle-aged in the area. Similar findings were documented by Zikhali (2019) who found that most household heads were aged more than 28 years, but less than 50 years. The study findings also indicate that 61% of the respondents had attained secondary level education. The findings are similar to those by Osei-Marfo (2018) who found that most household heads have some form of education, where most had attained at least secondary levels of education.

The findings indicate that 75% of the respondents are married. The findings are in line with those of Okech (2017) who found that married heads of families covered more than 80% of his study. The findings that 53% of the respondents were self-employment show that unemployment is still prevalent in informal settlements. Similar findings have been posited by Moyo (2019) who found a prevalence of unemployment in Zimbabwe. In addition, the study established that majority of the respondents (48%) had lived in Mlango Kubwa for 6-15 years, indicating that most household heads were residents of the area. Muchira (2016) also found that most people living in the study area were local residents.

5.2.1 Nature of Activities in Enhancing Community Policing

The findings of the study indicate that 87.6% of the respondents were aware of community policing activities by non-state actors in the area. In line with these findings, Ruteere (2017) also found that the respondents in his study were aware of the community policing activities, especially engagement people and communities. This study found further activities by non-state actors, including formulation of plans for community policing and sensitization of people and communities. These findings were also supported

by the key informant responses that people are engaged people through sports, organizing community workshops and enhancing community participation among others.

The study findings indicate that 64.5% of the respondents indicated that the activities, including collaboration with the community, formulating plans for community policing and sensitizing people and communities had been moderately used, with 37.5% of the respondents identifying the activities to be very effective. These findings are different from those of Musyimi (2017) who noted that there is inadequate procedures and activities that has resulted to ineffective community policing in most areas. However, Munyao (2017) established that sharing of information and intelligence was effective when there existed a good relationship between security agencies and the public.

It was found that 24.5% of the respondents had worked with local organizations in community policing, with most respondents (54.1%) not working with any organization. Edwards and Klein (2017) found that collaborative policing was practiced when police paternalism was in community policing and which then evolved into a partnership with many agencies working together with formal structures. This finding therefore disagrees with the present study findings as these relationships was practiced in some instances, and was lacking in most instances. The key informants also indicated that there were trust issues between the community and police leading to poor partnerships, confidentiality issues on the information shared and resource sharing issues.

The findings indicated that 42% of the respondents said the government was in charge of community policing in the area, with the help from non-state actors and international organizations. These findings agree with those of Munyao (2017) that under community policing principles, the government is in charge of the programme, through

Nyumba Kumi Initiative which is aimed mainly to ensure public participation in security policing and ensure transparency between the security agencies and the community. Further, Okech (2017) observed that increased patrols, community policing and initiating of Nyumba Kumi initiative have contributed in reduction of criminal activities, and are all initiated by the government.

On training, the study found that only 35% of the respondents had been trained on community policing while 65% had not been trained. These findings, however, are different from those of Musyimi (2017) as well as the democratic theory of community policing, who found that community policing has been given support through awareness creation and training workshops organized by non-state actors amongst other organizations in partnership with the government. In the current study, though some respondents were trained, the number was small as compared to those who were not trained, and training was done more than 5 years ago for most respondents. Zikhali (2019) also found community-based policing training to be lacking and recommended proper training of patrol officers and members of public involved in community based policing as well as community sensitizations, in line with the democratic theory of community policing. This is also supported by broken windows theory.

The study found that 38% of the respondents identified existence of community empowerment activities in area. For those who had been empowered, the study found that community youth projects such as sweeping and cleaning the area, waste collection, women programmes and sports activities were all as a result of community policing initiatives in the area. These findings are supported by Karuri and Muna (2019) that empowerment through community policing is done through meetings among government

agencies, police and civil society to recommend the areas where the empowering of members of community can be done. This can be through sports activities, creation of jobs and women programmes among others.

The study found that 74% of the respondents had not been involved in decision making in community policing matters. Akarsu (2020) also found that involvement of the public in decision making was lacking. This is also reflected in findings by Hope (2020) as well as in the broken windows theory, that the government did not allow non-government and other stakeholders to undertake such activities as training, coordination and dialogue in community policing process in some areas. However, the respondents were involved in some instances such as Nyumba Kumi, Chief barazas and in addressing justice related issues as a result of community policing issues. The key informants also indicated that that provision of information needed for promotion of justice had led to better justice provision to affected individuals.

5.2.2 Extent of Existing Legal and Policy Frameworks' Integration of Non-State Actors in Community Policing

The study found that 57% of the respondents identified the NPS Act, while others identified the Kenyan constitution, the Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan 2008-2012 and the Administration Police Strategic Plan 2009-2013. In line with previous findings by Karuri and Muna (2019), the NPS Act and the Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan 2008-2012 serves to enhance partnership between the community and the police in crime management among others. The constitution also acknowledges that crime prevention/management will be achieved through sustained community policing and liaison with other security agencies. The Administration Police Strategic Plan 2009-2013

also recognizes the need to enhance security and peaceful co-existence, including partnerships with other players within and outside government, and offering a good avenue for the public to engage with members of the Service. This is in line with the findings obtained in the study.

The findings indicated that 41.4% of the respondents indicated that there existed laws on reporting of offenders in community policing while 58.6% of the respondents indicated that they were not aware of such laws. Muia (2019) agrees that in reporting mechanisms for enhanced community policing, both the police and the locals have a duty to find the security priorities of the community, tailor policing to identify and meet community needs and priorities, obey the rule of law and volunteer their time and efforts to build partnerships and trust. The key informants also identified preparation and after judgement law strategies, enforcement of law and order and patrolling in the beat areas as the strategies outlined in laws for reporting community policing related issues in the area.

The findings obtained from the key informants indicated that partnerships with the local organizations, working together with civil society organizations and social protection were all used by the government in community policing. In line with the findings, Okech (2017) also identified trusting partnerships between the police and local citizens' organizations are the cornerstone of community policing. Whenever they are based on trust and mutual understanding, partnerships can foster community vigilance on any form of criminal activities. Amuya (2017) also identified that community policing initiatives are likely to take cognizance of the various subsets of the population that form a community, with emphasis on the different security needs that each of them values most. This is in line with the findings of the study.

From the findings, it was determined that sharing of information, awareness creation on security and deliberate working with the police by the community were identified to be present by the key informants. In line with these findings, Butos and McQuade (2017) agrees that community policing requires systems encompassing numerous segments, for instance the community, work groups, resources, as well as data and information sharing which, put together, form the complex whole. Munyao (2017) also established that sharing of information can be smooth and effective when there exists a good relationship between security agencies and the police.

From the study, it was determined that there were instances where prosecution was made based on justice, and other instances where no justice in the prosecution and jailing completely missed out. Akarsu (2020) also identified that communities have intelligible perceptions and interests, and that law enforcement should reflect those interests. Developing several platforms for public communication with the police creates a forum for different groups to voice different ideas and sentiments can help promote justice, which is lacking in most cases.

5.2.3 Challenges and Opportunities for Cooperation Between Non-State Actors and Security Agencies

The study determined that 56.2% of the respondents identified that there was working cooperation between the actors involved in community policing. Adugna and Italemahu (2019) citing the broken windows theory and the systems theory, however, disagrees with the study that community based policing has been embraced after international community realized that most people are of good will and will cooperate with the police to reach to a consensus. Therefore, a collective effort between the police

service and the residents of a given area is reached, and helps in reducing crime rate and violence and terrorism prevention/reduction.

On the instances where the community and the police have worked together in community policing, the study found that partnerships in taming gender-based violence, Nyumba Kumi initiative and addressing human rights were cited by the respondents. Umar and Bappi (2014) also observed that community based policing has been embraced to curb uprising cases of terrorism, crimes and violence. As agreed by Okech (2017), communities are better off if they identify their own security and safety needs and how to meet them. In addition, recent security reforms have led to introduction of community based policing to combat crimes and acts of violence and terrorism. Consequently, communities are actively engaged in planning and implementation stages of identifying solutions to their security needs and problems. Furthermore, they are responsible of monitoring the process of implementing the solutions and giving feedback to the security agencies.

Most respondents (63%) identified that the reporting and information management system for community policing was absent. However, Kioko (2017) disagrees with these findings when he observed the systems to be present especially surveillance systems which are of utmost importance to security management as it helps the security agencies to gather intelligence. Kioko (2017) also noted that in the community policing, the people in the given neighbourhood offer surveillance services and present the intelligence to the security agencies thus making it an efficient component to dismantle any potential illegal group or limit the activities of potential criminals. In this study, there was presence of community database, crime detection

systems, new residents' database and an offenders' database, though not extensively used.

The study found that 61.3% of the respondents identified that community policing had improved trust between the concerned parties. However, for those who identified community policing to improve trust, the study found that that 64.4% of the respondents identified the information given to be not confidential, showing confidentiality issues. Nyapara and Sakataka (2015) agrees with the study that one of the main objectives of initiating the community policing is to establish an active partnership between the police service and the community in a given area to realise safer community. This is also in line with the systems theory. However, when this partnership has confidentiality issues, it can contribute to increase in insecurity, as the information sought is not received on time, or is not received at all.

From the findings, the study found that 36.3% said the government provides resources necessary for community policing while 63.7% said these resources were not availed. Lack of resources for community policing has also been identified in studies such as such as Okech (2017), Ruteere (2017), Muia (2019) and Musyimi (2017) who all revealed low level of awareness on community policing principles among police officers and the public, with inadequate resources to implement community policing such as vehicles, office space, personnel and community equipment. However, this study found that the usage of the available resources was successful.

For successful implementation of community policing, 43.5% of the respondents identified installation CCTV camera at sensitive sites, with others identifying better training, securitization of key community sites and vetting of community officers. These

findings align with those of Crowl (2017) who observed that training to mitigate some of the historically negative perceptions about the police was essential in enhancing community policing. Securitization of key community sites and vetting of community officers were also identified in the study.

5.3 Summary of Findings

This study sought to determine the contribution of non-state actors on community policing in urban informal settlements, focusing on Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya. Precisely, the study sought to examine the nature of activities undertaken by non-state actors in enhancing community policing, the nature of cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in community policing and the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing.

Based on the first objective on the nature of activities in enhancing community policing, the study found that most respondents were aware of community policing activities by non-state actors in the area. These activities included collaboration with the community, formulating plans for community policing, sensitizing people and communities and undertaking community policing coordination. These activities had been moderately used, and were somewhat effective. Most respondents had worked with local organizations in community policing, with the government being in charge of most community policing activities in the area. Most respondents had not been trained on community policing with those trained had taken more than 5 years since training.

With regard to the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing, the Kenyan constitution, the Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan 2008-2012 and the Administration Police Strategic Plan 2009-

2013 were identified. There were also strategies on reporting of offenders in community policing which included maintenance of law and order in crime prevention, preparation and after judgement law strategies, enforcement of law and order and patrolling in the beat areas. It was determined that there were instances where prosecution was not made based on justice.

Based on third objective on the challenges and opportunities for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies, it was determined that reporting and management information systems were lacking. There were also instances of lack of trust and cooperation, and lack of resources necessary for community policing. With few resources available, it was determined that the resources were not effectively used. Availability and effective use of resources could be a major step towards improving community policing in the area.

5.4 Conclusion

Overall, the study concludes that non-state actors contributed to community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Nairobi County, Kenya. To answer the first objective on the nature of activities in enhancing community policing, the study concludes that there were activities such as collaboration with the community, formulating plans for community policing and sensitizing people which were moderately used. In addition, training was lacking, with most respondents who had been trained taking over 5 years since training.

To answer the second objective on the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing, the study concludes that the Kenyan constitution and the NPS Act were the most common laws used on community policing.

To answer the third objective on the challenges and opportunities for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies, the study concludes that lack of trust and cooperation and lack of resources necessary for community policing were observed. Therefore, building trust through resource provision and cooperation with the community in community policing activities will aid in solving these challenges.

5.5 Recommendations

Based on the study findings, the discussion and the conclusion made, the study makes the following recommendations:

Overall, the study recommends that the activities by non-state actors should be geared towards reaching every member of the community, as there were instances where some respondents were not even aware of community policing activities by non-state actors in the area. On the first objective on the nature of activities in enhancing community policing, the study recommends that the government should combine forces with CBOs, NGOs and CSOs to train the community as well as the police officers in various aspects of community policing. Training was found to be low, which necessities training of all actors concerned parties in community policing, for it to be effective.

On the extent of existing legal and policy frameworks' integration of non-state actors in community policing, the study recommends laws on enlisting of hotspots, training of the community, strengthening of the working relationships and provision of adequate security personnel and resources for effective community policing.

On the third objective on the challenges and opportunities for cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies, the study recommends such strategies as trust building by the government and civil society organizations to the residents, and

availing of resources necessary for community policing. This will ensure that the residents have a sense of belonging to the community policing activities practiced.

5.6 Suggestion for Further Research

This study was only conducted in Mlango Kubwa in Mathare sub-county. This limits the scope of the study in coverage aspect. The study also measured the viewpoints of household heads and other concerned non-state actors who include religious leaders, CBOs, NPS, NGAO and CSOs representatives only; consequently, the views of other actors such as human rights agencies and international organizations were not measured. The study therefore recommends that other studies be conducted on the same subject using views of those left out for comparative results in the future.

Based on specific objectives of the study, the study recommends future studies on the reasons why training is low, and takes too long to be conducted. In addition, studies on how to improve and enact a functional community policing policy are required. The study further recommends future studies on how community policing challenges can be integrated into laws and policies, and therefore solved at all stages of the policing process.

REFERENCES

Adugna, M. T., & Italemahu, T. Z. (2019). Crime Prevention through Community Policing Interventions: Evidence from Harar City, Eastern Ethiopia. *Journal of Humanities 31*(3), 326-337.

Akarsu, H. (2020). Citizen forces: The politics of community policing in Turkey. *American Ethnologist*, *47*(1), 27-42.

Amuya, L. (2017). *Community Policing in Kenya: Examining the Challenges Derailing Police-Civilian Relations in Teso South Sub-County*. Bungoma, Kenya: Kibabii University. Available at SSRN 3015740.

Ayiera, E. A. M. (2017). Community-led security mechanisms: The case of Mlango Kubwa and Kawangware in Nairobi. *The African Review*, *44*(1), 27-61.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2015). *Business research methods (Vol. 4th)*. Glasgow: Bell & Bain Ltd.

Butos, W. N., & McQuade, T. J. (2017). Polanyi, Hayek, and Adaptive Systems Theory. *Cosmos Taxis*, *4*(1), 1-22.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. New York, USA: Sage Publishers.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. New York, USA: Sage Publishers.

Crowl, J. N. (2017). The effect of community policing on fear and crime reduction, police legitimacy and job satisfaction: an empirical review of the evidence. *Police Practice and Research*, *18*(5), 449-462.

Devi, P. S. (2017). *Research methodology: A handbook for beginners*. New Delhi, India: Notion Press.

Diriye, H. G. (2015). *The effect of terrorism on tourism in Africa in the 21st century: A case study of Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).

Dlamini, S. (2018). *A criminological exploration of community policing forums in Durban, South Africa: a study based on Glenwood Suburb and Cato Manor Township* (Doctoral dissertation).

Edwards, L. H., & Klein, I. (2017). Community Policing as a Solution. *Policing and Race in America: Economic, Political, and Social Dynamics*, 221.

Geoghegan, T. M. (2019). *Promoting public participation in community policing forums: The case of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality* (Doctoral dissertation, North-West University (South Africa).

Gordon, D. R. (2001). Democratic consolidation and community policing: conflicting imperatives in South Africa. *Policing and Society: An International Journal*, *11*(2), 121-150.

Hope, K. R. (2020). Civilian oversight for democratic policing and its challenges: Overcoming obstacles for improved police accountability. *Journal of Applied Security Research, 4*(1), 1-33.

Iloh, E. C., & Nwokedi, M. E. (2019). Non State Actors and Internal Security Management in Nigeria: The Case of Vigilante Groups. In *Internal Security Management in Nigeria* (pp. 523-545). Palgrave Macmillan, Singapore.

Jackson, J., & Bradford, B. (2009). Crime, policing and social order: on the expressive nature of public confidence in policing. *The British journal of sociology*, *60*(3), 493-521.

Karuri, J. G., & Muna, W. (2019). Effects of community policing on crime prevention in Kakamega County, Kenya. *International Academic Journal of Law and Society*, *1*(2), 312-327.

Kioko, E. M. (2017). Conflict resolution and crime surveillance in Kenya: Local peace committees and Nyumba Kumi. *Africa Spectrum*, *52*(1), 3-32.

Krishna, N. (2018). The Rohingya plight: The role of state actors and non-states actors. *The Journal of Defence and Security*, *9*(1), 49-II.

Kumar, R. (2018). *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. New York, USA: Sage Publishers.

Kyed, H. M. (2017). Predicament: interpreting police violence (Mozambique). *Writing the World of Policing: The Difference Ethnography Makes*, 113-38.

Kyed, H. M. (2018). Street authorities: Community policing in Mozambique and Swaziland. *PoLAR: Political and Legal Anthropology Review*, *41*(1), 19-34.

Liamputtong, P. (Ed.). (2019). *Handbook of research methods in health social sciences*. Singapore: Springer Nature.

Lottholz, P. (2020). The Roles and Practices of Civil Society Actors in Police Reform in Kyrgyzstan: Activism, Expertise, Knowledge Production. *International Peacekeeping, 1*(1), 1-32.

Maingu, F. (2018). *Community policing and crime prevention in Tanzania: a case of kinondoni district, Dar es Salaam* (Doctoral dissertation, Mzumbe University).

Maiyo, R. K. (2015). *Strategic responses to security challenges by ministry of interior and coordination in Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).

Malone, M. F. T., & Dammert, L. (2020). The police and the public: policing practices and public trust in Latin America. *Policing and society*, *1*(5), 1-16.

Morgner, C., Ambole, A., Anditi, C., & Githira, D. (2020, June). Exploring the Dynamics of Social Networks in Urban Informal Settlements: the Case of Mathare Valley, Kenya. In *Urban Forum* (pp. 1-24). Springer Netherlands.

Moyo, B. (2019). *Analysing the impact of community policing in managing crime in Zimbabwe. A case of ZRP Rhodesvile* (Doctoral dissertation, BUSE).

Muchira, J. M. (2016). *The role of community policing in crime prevention: Kirinyaga County, Central Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation, Mount Kenya University).

Muia, D. (2019). *Analysis of Community Contribution towards Community Policing in Makina Village of Kibra Sub County, Nairobi County* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).

Munyao, F. M. (2017). Effects of Nyumba Kumi initiative on security management in Kenya, a case study of Lungalunga Sub-County. *Journal of Public Policy and Administration*, *2*(2), 70-95.

Musyimi, P. M. (2017). *Factors influencing the effectiveness of community policing in Kenya: the case of Kangema sub-county, Murang'a County* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).

Ndili, A. (2016). *The Role of Community Policing in the Prevention Of youth radicalization in the Eastleigh Area of Nairobi County* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).

Nyapara, N. A., & Sakataka, W. (2015). Evaluations of community policing project for peace and security in West Pokot County, Kenya. *International Journal of Recent Research in Life Sciences (IJRRLS) 2*(4) 25-38.

Oakley, R. B., Dziedzic, M. J., & Goldberg, E. M. (Eds.). (1998). *Policing, the New World Disorder: peace operations and public security*. DIANE Publishing.

Okallo, A. A. (2017). *Effects of Community Policing in Addressing Sexual and Gender Based Violence in Kenya: A Case Study of Kibera Slum in Nairobi* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).

Okech, R. (2017). *Community policing and Security in Kenya: Case Study of Ngong' Sub-county, 2003-2013* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).

Ordu, G. E. O., & Nnam, M. U. (2017). Community Policing in Nigeria: A Critical Analysis of Current Developments. *International Journal of Criminal Justice Sciences*, *12*(1), 83-97.

Osei-Marfo, M. (2018). *Effects of the combat community policing project on domestic violence in selected rural communities in Brong Ahafo Region* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Cape Coast).

Pandey, V. (2018). *Internal Security and Community Policing* (Vol. 1). Gujarat, India: Allied Publishers.

Petricca, K., Bekele, A., Berta, W., Gibson, J., & Pain, C. (2018). Advancing methods for health priority setting practice through the contribution of systems theory: Lessons from a case study in Ethiopia. *Social Science & Medicine*, *198*(1), 165-174.

Ruteere, M. (2017). Governing Security from Below: Community-Led Security Mechanisms in Urban East Africa. *The African Review*, *44*(1), 1-26.

Segrave, M., & Ratcliffe, J. (2017). *Community policing: A descriptive overview*. Canberra, Australia: Australian Institute of Criminology.

Umar, M., & Bappi, U. (2014). Community policing and partnership: Opportunities and challenges for Gombe State Nigeria. *IOSR Journal of humanities and social science*, *19*(6), 11-15.

Von Bertalanffy, L. (1956). General system theory. *General systems*, *1*(1), 11-17.

Wilson, J. Q., & Kelling, G. L. (1982). Broken windows. *Atlantic monthly journal*, *249*(3), 29-38.

Zikhali, W. (2019). Community Policing and Crime Prevention: Evaluating the Role of Traditional Leaders under Chief Madliwa in Nkayi District,

Zimbabwe. *International Journal for Crime, Justice and Social Democracy*, *8*(4), 109-113.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1 - Questionnaire for Household Heads

This questionnaire is aimed at facilitating the research on the "**CONTRIBUTION OF NON-STATE ACTORS ON COMMUNITY POLICING IN URBAN INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS: A CASE OF MLANGO KUBWA, NAIROBI, KENYA**". Please read each item in this questionnaire and fill in or tick in the spaces provided where appropriate. Your response will be highly appreciated.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. What is your gender?

   Male [   ]   Female [   ]

2. Age bracket?

   18-30 years [ ]   31-43 years [ ]   44-56 years [ ]   More than 56 [ ]

3. Highest level of education?

   Primary [ ]   Secondary [ ]   College level [ ]   University Level [ ]

   Other [ ] (Specify)……………..

4. Marital Status?

   Married [   ]   Single [   ]

5. What is your employment status?

   Employed [   ]   Self-employed [ ]   Unemployed [   ]

6. Number of years lived in Mlango Kubwa

   Less than 1   [   ]

    1 – 5   [   ]

6 – 15   [   ]

More than 15   [   ]

SECTION B: NATURE OF ACTIVITIES IN COMMUNITY POLICING

7. Are you aware of community policing in Mlango Kubwa?

   Yes [   ]   No [   ]

8. Are there activities undertaken by non-state actors in community policing in the area?

   Yes [   ]   No [   ]

9. If yes in question 7 above, what are these activities in Mlango Kubwa? (Select all that apply)

   Engaging people and communities   [   ]

   Sensitizing people and communities   [   ]

   Formulating plans for community policing   [   ]

   Undertaking community policing coordination   [   ]

   Other [   ] (Specify)…………………………………………………………………

10. If yes in question 8, how have these activities specifically been used to address community policing in Mlango Kubwa?

   ....

   ....

   ....

11. To what extent have the activities identified been used in the area?

   Low extent   [   ]

   Moderately used   [   ]

Highly used   [   ]

12. How effective are these activities in enhancing community policing in the area?

Not Effective   [   ]

Somehow Effective   [   ]

Effective   [   ]

Very Effective   [   ]

13. What type of people have you worked with in terms of community policing in

Mlango Kubwa? **(Choose all that apply)**

Local organizations   [   ]

National organizations   [   ]

International organizations   [   ]

None   [   ]

14. Who is in-charge of community policing in the area?

Government   [   ]

Non-state actors   [   ]

International organizations   [   ]

Other [ ] (Specify)……………………………………………………………….

15. Have you been trained on community policing?

Yes [   ]   No [   ]

16. If yes in 15 above, when were you trained?

Less than 3 years ago [ ]

3 – 5 years ago   [ ]

More than 5 years ago [ ]

17. Who trained you?

    Government organization   [ ]

    Non-Government organization   [ ]

    Both Government and Non-Government organizations [ ]

18. What areas were you trained on?

    ....

    ....

    ....

19. Are there community empowerment activities in area as a result of community
    policing?

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

20. If yes, in what ways have you been empowered?

    ....

    ....

    ....

21. Are you involved in decision making on matters concerning community policing?

    Yes [ ]   No [ ]

22. If yes, what are the incidents where you have been involved in community
    policing? …………………………………………………………………

    ....

    ....

23. Do the community policing programs present lead to promotion of justice?

    Yes   [ ]

No   [   ]

24. If yes in above, how is promotion of justice achieved through community policing?

....

....

....

SECTION C: EXISTING LEGAL AND POLICY FRAMEWORKS'

INTEGRATION OF NON-STATE ACTORS IN COMMUNITY POLICING

25. Which of the following laws and policies have proven important towards community policing? (**Choose all that apply**)

Kenya Police Service Strategic Plan 2008-2012   [   ]

Kenyan Constitution   [   ]

Administration Police Strategic Plan 2009-2013   [   ]

Others (please specify) ………………………

26. Are there laws covering on reporting of offenders in community policing?

Yes [ ]   No [ ]

27. If yes, what are the laws on reporting adopted in the sub-county?

....

....

....

28. What are the government measures used in effort to tame crime in the area?

_____

29. Are there public involvement measures used for taming crime?

Yes [ ]   No [ ]

30. If yes, how is the public involved in making decisions concerning security in the area?

....

....

....

31. If yes, is the prosecution and jailing of offenders based on justice?

....

....

....

32. What can you recommend to be done to improve community policing in Mlango Kubwa?

....

....

....

SECTION D: OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES FOR COOPERATION

1. Are there challenges experienced when undertaking and implementing community policing activities and programs in Mlango Kubwa?

   Yes [   ]   No [   ]

2. If yes in above, please list the most common challenges you mainly experience?

   ....

....

....

3. Do you think community policing improves the cooperation between the public and the police?

   Yes [ ]   No [ ]

4. Does the cooperation between the public and the police work in the area?

   Yes [ ] No [ ]

5. If yes, what are the instances where the community and the police have worked together in community policing?

   ....

   ....

   ....

6. Are there reporting and information management system in place on community policing?

   Yes [ ]   No [ ]

7. If yes, state the types of information system in place?

   Crime detection systems   [ ]

   Offenders database   [ ]

   Community database   [ ]

   New residents database   [ ]

   Other [ ] (Specify)   [ ]..

8. Has community policing improved trust between all the concerned parties?

   Yes [ ] No [ ]

9. If yes, is the information given confidential?

   Yes [   ] No [   ]

10. Does the government provide resources necessary for community policing?

    Yes [   ]   No [   ]

11. If yes, how effective has the usage of the resources been in Mlango Kubwa?

    Very effective   [   ]

    Effective   [   ]

    Not effective   [   ]

    I don't know   [   ]

12. If not effective, what can be done to improve the situation?

    ....

    ....

    ....

13. In your opinion, what are the features of a well-coordinated community policing?

    Better training   [ ]

    Installation CCTV camera at sensitive sites   [ ]

    Vetting of community officers   [ ]

    Securitization of key community sites   [ ]

    Do not know   [   ]

THANK YOU FOR YOUR RESPONSES

Appendix 2 – Key Informant Interviews Guide

1) Which activities are undertaken by non-state actors in enhancing community policing in Mlango Kubwa, Mathare sub-county?

....

....

....

2) How successful are the activities being undertaken?

....

....

....

3) What is the sustainability of these activities?

....

....

....

4) What is the nature of cooperation between non-state actors and security agencies in community policing?

....

....

....

5) How can the cooperation be improved?

....

....

....

6) What is the efficacy of existing legal frameworks and policies in enhancing community policing?

....

....

....

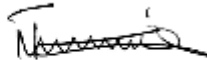**Appendix 3 - ANU Introduction Letter**

12ᵗʰ March, 2021

RE: TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Thuku Zachary Kwenya (**19M03EMGP016**) is a bonafide student at Africa Nazarene University. He has finished his course work and has defended his thesis proposal entitled: - *"Effectiveness of Non-State Actors in Community Policing in Urban Informal Settlements: A Case of Mlango Kubwa, Mathare Sub-County, Nairobi, Kenya"*.

Any assistance accorded to him to facilitate data collection and finish his thesis is highly welcomed.

Regards,

Dr. Titus Mwanthi.
Ag. DVC. Academics

Appendix 4 – NACOSTI Permit

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: 223061

Date of Issue: 17/March/2021

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Mr.. Zachary Kwenya Thuku of Africa Nazarene University, has been licensed to conduct research in Nairobi on the topic: **EFFECTIVENESS OF NON-STATE ACTORS IN COMMUNITY POLICING IN URBAN INFORMAL SETTLEMENTS: A CASE OF MLANGO KUBWA, MATHARE SUB-COUNTY, NAIROBI, KENYA for the period ending : 17/March/2022.**

License No: **NACOSTI/P/21/9606**

223061

Applicant Identification Number

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY &
INNOVATION

Verification QR Code

NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document,
Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

Appendix 5 - Map of Study Area