FACTORS AFFECTING THE MANAGEMENT OF STRATEGIC CHANGE FOR COMMUNITY POLICING IN THE KENYA POLICE: THE CASE OF NYERI POLICE DIVISION

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ABSTRACT

Organizational change is undertaken as a matter of survival and Kenya police as organization is not spared. Community policing has been found to be a positive step in improving police–public relations and engaging the public in crime prevention; however, the Kenya police is believed not to have succeeded in changing and adapting to policing styles that emphasize working partnerships with client communities; pro-active policing and problem solving. The purpose of this study was to examine factors affecting the Kenya police in the strategic management of change in accommodating community policing principles. The study adopted a descriptive survey design. The locale of survey was Nyeri Police Division within Nyeri County. Chapter one presents the background of the study, the problem statement, study objectives and research questions, significance and limitations of the survey. The second chapter is on literature review capturing the findings, views and opinions of both classical and contemporary scholars on theories of and factors affecting management of strategic change. Various models of change were reviewed in detail. Policing is examined with a view to determine the scope of variables affecting management of community policing as a change strategy within the Kenya police force (read service). Chapter three describes and justifies the choice of a survey research design. The target population was 500 individuals comprising serving police officers from rank and file to senior superintendent of police. Random and non-random sampling methods were used for the purpose of enhancing the representativeness of the sample. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected by dropping and picking structured questionnaires from respondents. descriptive statistics were used in data analysis and the results presented by means of a pie cha Author rt and tables. The study found that; community policing at Nyeri Division has not achieved its objective in all the parameters used in the study, that is, organizational culture, organization structure, resources, recruitment, selection and training, policies and procedures and leadership style. There is an urgent need to relook at the concept of community policing in totality by bringing on board all the stakeholders. This should be able to assist in role definition and resource acquisition and allocation. It was further noted that there was no link between community policing and the factors affecting management of strategic change in community policing within Nyeri Police Division, as such the little gain that community policing has seemingly achieved may be short lived.
INTRODUCTION

Understanding and managing changes are the dominant themes of management today. Adapting to the ever-changing present is essential for success in the unpredictable future. Thompson and Strickland (2003) observe that in fast-changing business environments, the capacity to introduce new strategies and organizational practices is a necessity if an organization is to achieve superior performance over long periods of time. They point out that strategic agility requires a culture that quickly accepts and supports organizational efforts to adapt to environmental change rather than a culture that has to be coaxed and cajoled to change. The Kenya police as an organization is not an exception. The current constitution of Kenya establishes the Kenya police service that has been created by the enactment of the National police service Act. This places an enormous task on the police to engage in a vigorous process of moving from a force to a service. The ultimate challenge for the police now is to adopt management practices that respond to the dynamic and complex security needs of the people of Kenya.

Johnson and Scholes (1998) note that there is no ‘right formula’ for the management of change. The success of any attempt at managing change will also be dependent on the wider context in which that change is taking place. Internal determinants include the time available for change; the scope of the change required; the need and degree of preservation of certain aspects of the organization; the nature and extent of diversity in the organization; the capability in managing change; the capacity for change; degree of readiness for change; and the amount of power wielded by change leaders to lead change in the organization. As the environment becomes increasingly turbulent and complex, innovation becomes increasingly important to avoid obsolete products and practices (Hushion, 1999). Firms should increase experimental behaviour to find novel answers where old ones no longer work (Nadler and Tushman 1990). Consequently, as the environment becomes more complex, firms seeking to gain competitive advantage over other firms in their environment should attempt to become more innovative and proactive. Nevertheless, empirical evidence does not consistently support the claim that firms shift their strategic orientation in tune with shifts in environmental complexity (Hushion, 1999).

There is a common belief especially in successful firms that the way we ‘do things around here’ is a model of best practice and one to be preserved and revered. Managers may be seduced into thinking that it is because of, not in spite of the way they do things and may fail to realize that success stemmed from changes in the industry, the operating context, the demise of a competitor or simple good fortune. Managers should be amenable to the need to embrace change and not fear it and be receptive to new methods of working and organizing (Adamides 2003). Fletcher (1997) suggests that strategic change aims to alter organizational arrangements so as to align individual behaviour with the business strategies. If this is to be achieved there is a need for stakeholders at all levels to take responsibility outside of functional boundaries. To this end, and given the fact that community policing is not a new concept within internal security circles in Kenya, the question is how to infuse the principles of managing strategic change in the police to make it a success.

Traditional Policing

Policing strategy in Kenya has attempted several changes during this century. The traditional model of policing that many departments continue to follow today
(characterized by random preventive patrols, rapid response to calls for service, and after-the-fact investigation of crimes) was the result of choices made by law enforcement leaders thirty or more years ago. At a time of growing concern over police corruption and undue political influence on the police, need arises for strategic shift in policing in Kenya (Furuzwa, 2009). The so called professional policing has made departments more effective at what has become to be known as the traditional measures of police performance: arrest totals, rapid response times, and the like. Citizen fear is more closely correlated with neighbourhood disorder than with actual crime levels. Ironically, order maintenance is a function that has been downplayed under the traditional model—if not actually derided as "social work”—in favour of incident-driven law enforcement activities (Commonwealth Human Rights Initiative (CHRI), 2005).

The forced isolation of the police from the community prevented police from meeting their expectations of preventing (or at least controlling) crime. Despite huge increases in arrests, and a national prison population that has increased over the years, nearly half of all offenders released from prison find their way back in the crime system in a few years. Policing continues to be a dynamic profession. The solutions to yesterday's problems have themselves become the challenges of today. The growing separation between police and the people they serve; technological advancements; an unacceptably high crime rate; and growing fear and disorder in many neighbourhoods—these and other conditions amplify the need for both short and long term change initiatives. The changes that are needed must be both fundamental and sweeping. They cannot simply be new police tactics. They will need to represent a new philosophy and organizational approach to governing and managing problems.

Philosophy Of Community Policing

In the last three decades police agencies in several developing countries have shifted towards a policing style that emphasises working partnership with ‘client’ communities, problem solving rather than reactive policing and increased transparency and accountability. The term “community” includes worksites, schools, churches, private and public agencies, social groups and health care sites. Internally, police organizations have sought to introduce more participatory forms of management, less hierarchical organisational structures and increased representation of minorities (Marks, 1997). These trends have been spurred on in general by three factors: global trend towards privatization; more widespread democratic governance; and the realization that traditional police strategies have not been effective in the fight against crime (Bayley and Shearing, 1996). Community policing focuses on crime and social disorder through the delivery of police services that include aspects of traditional law enforcement, as well as prevention, problem solving, community engagement, and partnerships. Several policies on community policing Operationalization have been tried in Kenya with no tangible results over the last seven years. Community policing requires police and citizens to join together as partners in the course of both identifying and effectively addressing these issues.

Community policing in Nyeri police division

The transition from traditional to strategic management in the Kenya police is as important as it is in any other organisation. Failure to embrace modern organisational management approaches can cause lost opportunities and leave police officers reluctant to
do strategic planning. Lack of sound strategy creates problems in maintaining priorities and reaching organizational goals. Community policing is the most popular policing reform in Kenya today but there is every indication that the police leadership has not made any reasonable adjustments in its structures integrating this concept (safer world, 2008). Provincial police commanders appear to put immense efforts through the divisional police commanders in an attempt to win the confidence of the public and enlist their support on the war against crime but the ground seems rather unripe to sustain this course. Here, three concerns need to be raised; changes in the material manifestations of the Kenya police as an organization, changes in the behavior of police officers and changes in the values of police officers.

Community policing was officially launched in Kenya in the year 2005 at Ruai police station by the head of state. The same was subsequently launched in every police province and police division jointly by respective provincial commissioners and provincial police commanders late the same year. Nyeri town is approximately 150KM North Nairobi. The launching in Nyeri police division took place at Nyeri police divisional headquarters accompanied with a lot of pomp and color. There was a drastic decline in crime within this jurisdiction for the six months that followed. Thereafter, crime rates and status assumed the earlier trends and was reported to escalate in Nyeri suburbs for reasons that could not be immediately established. The main crimes within Nyeri police division comprise the unlawful acts and omissions occasioned by motives of organized criminal gangs (Annual crime statistics, 2010). The manner in which such crimes are organized and executed present a flat form that if the police developed a framework of incorporating the local community in intelligence collection, unearthing of the crime master minds would be possible within a modest expenditure. This paper is intended to explore the challenges facing managing strategic change in the Kenya police as an organization with specific regard to adopting community policing philosophy as a crime reduction strategy within Nyeri police division.

**Statement of the Problem**

Virtually all organizational changes involve changes in the behaviour of organizational members. Employees must learn and routinize these behaviours in the short term, and leaders must institutionalize them over the long haul so that new patterns of behaviour displace old ones (Kotter et al. 1995.) While it is true that there was, and still is scepticism among Kenyans that the rhetoric behind police reform may be “a public relations exercise”(National task force on police reforms, 2009, p25), it is interesting to point out that the government has been making several attempts in introducing the concept of strategic management in the Kenya police department. The need for strategic change in the Kenya police can be traced as far back as early 1990s when Kenya amended its constitution to allow multiparty system. However, efforts by the civil society and donors to engage the government of Kenya on police reforms were without much success. A draft on the national policy on community policing is yet to be approved by the parliament and although the concept is widespread in Kenya, attempts to reorganise the Kenya policing structure to accommodate community policing strategy has remained just that; a mirage.

The GJLOS programme was in the year 2004 mandated by the Kenya government to identify challenges that had hindered the successful mainstreaming of community policing as crime reduction strategy in the Kenya police. The stake holders only identified poor police-public relationship as the main challenge. Their recommendations
included rolling out customer care desks at all police stations and development of a police service charter, both of which were calculated at bringing the members of public closer to the police. Both initiatives achieved very little if any (Ransley, 2009). There were no indicators of alteration in either crime trends or patterns as crime index remained unchanged across the country and Nyeri police division was no exception.

The community policing initiative was officially launched in Nyeri police division in October 2005. Ironically, Nyeri and its environs are gradually becoming notorious as the hub of organised crime in the greater central Kenya region and Kenya at large. This study will endeavour to fill this gap by examining factors that affect strategic management of community policing within Nyeri police Division.

**General objective.**
The general objective of this study was to establish the factors affecting management of strategic change in community policing in Nyeri police division.

**Specific objectives**
To establish how organisational structure affects strategic change in community policing in Nyeri police division.
To establish how organisational culture affects strategic change in community policing in Nyeri police division.
To establish how training and personnel development affects strategic change in community policing in Nyeri police division.
To establish how availability of resources affects strategic change in community policing in Nyeri police division.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Theoretical Review**

**Lewin’s Three-Step Change Theory.**
Kurt Lewin (1951) introduced the three-step change model. This social scientist views behavior as a dynamic balance of forces working in opposing directions. Driving forces facilitate change because they push employees in the desired direction. Restraining forces hinder change because they push employees in the opposite direction. Therefore, Lewin’s model illustrates the effects of forces that either promote or inhibit change. Specifically, driving forces promote change while restraining forces oppose change. Hence, change will occur when the combined strength of one force is greater than the combined strength of the opposing set of forces (Robbins 2003).

**Lippitt’s Phases of Change Theory**
Lippitt, Watson, and Westley (1958) extend Lewin’s Three-Step Change Theory. Their theory focuses more on the role and responsibility of the change agent than on the evolution of the change itself. Information is continuously exchanged throughout the process. Lippitt, Watson, and Westley point out that changes are more likely to be stable if they spread to neighbouring systems or to subparts of the system immediately affected. Changes are better rooted. Two examples are: the individual meets other problems in a similar way, several businesses adopt the same innovation, or the problem spreads to other departments of the same business. The more widespread imitation becomes, the more the behaviour is regarded as normal (Lippitt, Watson and Westley, 1958).

**Prochaska and DiClemente’s Change Theory.**
Prochaska and DiClemente found that people pass through a series of stages when change occurs. The stages discussed in their change theory are: precontemplation,
contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance. Progression through the stages is cyclical, not linear. This is because initially many individuals relapse on their change efforts and do not successfully maintain their gains the first time around. Prochaska and DiClemente have created a spiral model to represent the various stages of their theory. The model takes into account behavioural relapses or return to the previously existing behaviour. In the case of relapses, many individuals do not let up. They can revisit the contemplation stage and prepare for action in the future. The spiral pattern of the model suggests that many individuals learn from their relapses instead of circling around the issue (Prochaska and DiClemente, 1983).

Strategy
The word strategy originally came from a Greek word; strategos, meaning ‘the art of the general’ and it originally implied leadership in the military sense. There is no consensus on when it became used in the business sense, though Alfred Chandler suggested that it resulted from an awareness of the opportunities and needs — created by changing population, income and technology — to use existing or expanding resources more profitably (Chandler, 1977). A strategy is a comprehensive plan of action designed to achieve a defined goal. An organization’s strategy is the process in which it makes use of certain policies, procedures and resources in order to achieve the main objectives of the organization (Van der Spuy 1989a). A strategy is also known as the organization’s game plan and managers often refer to it as their large-scale, future-oriented, plan for interacting with the competitive environment to achieve the organization’s objectives (Boeker, W. 1997).

Strategic Change
From the perspective of organizational development, change is a set of behavioural science-based theories, values, strategies and techniques aimed at the planned change of the organizational work setting for the purpose of enhancing individual development and improving organizational performance, through the alteration of organizational members’ on-the-job behaviours (Porras and Robertson 1992:723). Change may be defined as the observation of difference over time in one or more dimensions of an entity (Van de Ven and Poole, 1995). But these definitions fail to capture the assumptions inherent in different models or theories of change. For example, cultural and social-cognition theories of change would replace the word observation with the word perception in the second definition above. Burns (1996) noted that organizational change refers to understanding alterations within organizations at the broadest level among individuals, groups, and at the collective level across the entire organization.

Strategic organizational change is referred to as a flexible strategic planning process as opposed to a static form of strategic planning. It has been suggested that some key change management variables should include goals and strategies, technologies, job design, organizational structure, and people (Johns, 1983). Analyses of organizational change suggest that an important emerging contrast in change research is the distinction between change that is episodic, discontinuous, and intermittent and change that is continuous, evolving, and incremental. The phrase episodic change is used to group together organizational changes that tend to be infrequent, discontinuous, and intentional. The presumption is that episodic change occurs during periods of divergence when organizations are moving away from their equilibrium conditions. Divergence is the result of a growing misalignment between an inertial deep structure and perceived environmental demands. The phrase continuous change is used to group together organizational changes that tend to be ongoing, evolving, and cumulative. A common
presumption is that change is emergent, meaning that it is the realization of a new pattern of organizing in the absence of explicit a priori intentions. (Orlikowski 1996:65).

**Strategic Management Of Change**

Strategic management can be defined as the art and science of formulating, implementing and evaluating cross-functional decisions that enable an organization to achieve its objectives (Hannagan, 2002). It focuses on integrating management, marketing, finance/accounting, production/operations, research and development and computer information systems to achieve organizational success. (Cummings and Worley, 1997) A successful strategy and the equally successful implementation of the strategy are the most reliable signs of good management (Wilson, 1992). The concept of environment becomes very important in all strategic change management literature. Environment refers to all forces that influence and affect an organization’s structure, strategic options and culture. These are forces that the organization has little or no control over (Johnson and scholes, 1999). Strategic managers of change encapsulate the vision of where the organization should be together with a long-term focus upon the environment. They take advantage of unplanned opportunities and do not ignore the past or the present but keep the future in mind. They follow sequential thinking process where creative ideas are used for learning and risk taking. Strategic management implies the management of strategic change within an organization and its environs.

Change management is defined as the holistic and total adjustment of an organization in order to align it to its environment (Quinn, 1998) and strategic management is the alignment of the mission of the organization with its environmental impacts in order to guide decision making, then strategic management of change refer to planned and controlled process to change behaviour, structure or process in the organization in order for it to reach certain goals and objectives.

**Challenges Facing Strategic Management of Change.**

**Organizational Structure**

In an attempt to enhance flexibility and meet the challenges of rapid change and increasing complexity, there is need to shift from hierarchical, bureaucratic structures to more organic, flatter, matrix or network structures characterised by empowered teams coordinated by vision or purpose rather than policies and procedures (Chandler, 1977). The major impetus for these reconfigurations is the need to develop the organisational agility to focus on clients as core business. Organizational design has been dominated by the requirements of cooperation rather than coordination. As a result, hierarchical structures have emphasized control and the need for unitary lines of command.

If we accept that most enterprises need to deploy multiple capabilities and the coordination needs of different capabilities vary, it follows that organizational structure must encompass different patterns of interaction. Hence, most business enterprises and organizational structures tend to ossify over time as power centres build and interactions become institutionalized. Periodic large-scale corporate reorganizations are not enough: to exploit innovation and entrepreneurial initiative, flexibility in organizational structure is essential. Achieving flexibility may require leaving structures only partially defined (Porter, 1985). This may be especially effective in assisting collaboration between different business units within a company. Rather than attempt to manage business unit linkages from the corporate level, it may be better for corporate to create a context within which businesses can co-evolve. The key elements of such a context are, first, linking rewards to individual business performance rather than to reward collaborative efforts;
second, maintaining porous boundaries to each business such that a multiplicity of voluntary collaborations can thrive between individuals across the businesses.

Organizational Culture.
Culture is defined as the informal values, norms, and beliefs that control how individuals and groups in an organization interact with each other and with people outside the organization. According to Kroeber and Kluckholn (1952) culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts. The essential core of culture consists of traditional (historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values. Culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, and as conditioning elements of future action. This includes both the structure defined by the organization chart, and the unwritten lines of power and influence that indicate whose contributions are most valued.

The positive dimensions of culture are behavioural control, organizational stability and a source of identity. Organizational culture also harbours some drawbacks which include barrier to change and improvement, barrier to diversity, barrier to cross departmental and cross organizational cooperation and barrier to mergers and acquisitions. Deep rooted values in an organization are a major bar to strategic change (Porter, 1985). We should bear in mind that such source of resistance is linked to a strong culture that stresses loyalty and cohesion as key values, limiting at the same time the innovation and creative capability by not allowing the existence of dissident people inside the organization. These characteristics show that it is a serious source of resistance, thus obviously its incidence is higher in changes that seek a fundamental transformation in the organization. The issue of culture is crucial to the leadership of any successful transformation of an enterprise, and accordingly it is important for leaders to understand, monitor and actively manage the culture of their particular organizations.

Scott Morton (1991) contends that one of the challenges for an organization in the 1990s is understanding one’s culture and knowing that an innovative culture is a key first step in a move towards an adaptive organization. Managers have a core set of beliefs and assumptions which are specific and relevant to the organization in which they work and are learned over time. The culture of the organization propagates many of the traditional assumptions which underlie organizations and also makes it extremely difficult to change. This is not something that is unique to organizations but is firmly based in a society which fosters individuality. Everyone tends to be pigeonholed from an early age and it is only to be expected that it be carried to working life. Management education itself promotes specialization by teaching functional courses. Hirschhorn and Gilmore (1992) have identified four psychological boundaries which managers must pay attention to in flexible organizations: authority boundary, task boundary, political boundary, and identity boundary.

Training and Development.
Changes in technology, especially information technology, generate knowledge spreading up at tremendous speed, as well as its quick obsolesce. In the period between 1900 and 1950, the amount of human knowledge doubled, and since then it has doubled every 5 to 8 years. Knowledge is becoming obsolete so quickly that all of us need do double our knowledge every 2 to 3 years in order to keep up with the changes. On the other hand, the increasing complexity, turbulence and uncertainty of the environment requires different and greater knowledge (Hushion 1999). Modern business requires more and more knowledge and skills that are still inadequately present in the formal school
education, i.e. the gap between business requirements and the knowledge acquired at school is growing. Learning organization is organization that promotes learning of all of its members and it transforms permanently. Individuals and societies that do not have enough knowledge are in inferior position, compared to societies and organisations that have it and even permanently acquire new knowledge. That is the reason why we say that success is not among the educated but among those that are learning permanently and everything changes except knowledge acquirement, which is constant.

The fore mentioned statements in the best way show the direction in which learning organizations move. Employee training and development does not imply only obtaining new knowledge, abilities and skills, but also the possibility to promote entrepreneurship, introduce employees to changes, encourage the changes of their attitude, introduce the employees to important business decisions and involve them actively in the process of decision making (Agyris, 1994). The central factor in human resource development is the human resources or the human capital in an organisation. They are viewed as the driving force for the success of organisations because of their skills, competencies, knowledge and experience (Harrison and Kessels, 2004). Moreover, it has been suggested that for organisations to compete successfully in a global economy, it is important to hire sufficiently educated and skilled employees and provide them with lifelong learning. However, these are some of the problems faced by employers and organisations and seen as a hindrance to the effective management, training and development of human resources in a global economy. In the specific context of HRD professionals, the literature has indicated that there is a shortage of HRD professionals who are skilled and experienced systems thinkers who have the ability to manage the vast and specialised function of HRD across organisations for instance.

**Leadership, Policies And Procedures**

The creation and design of change processes within an organization is most often a role of the leaders within it. Change processes which encompass human resources, IT adoption and upgrades, tools and techniques, as well as the basic rules and controls within the organization are the mandate of leaders engaged in the management of change (Wilson, 1992). It is up to the leaders to make these change initiatives tangible rather than abstract and to awaken enthusiasm and ownership of the proposed changes within the corporate milieu. Leaders are responsible for bridging the gap between strategy decisions and the reality of implementing the changes within the structure and workforce of the organization. A myriad of details and effects must be acknowledged and addressed for successful adaptation to change in all sectors of a firm.

Underlying this principle is the fact that almost everything in an organization's infrastructure has an influence on some other part of it. Management style affects culture, technology affects the way staff interacts with customers, and internal communication methods affect how people work together (Wilson, 1992). A holistic approach to change management encourages the redesign and adaptation to change at all organizational levels. In essence, process itself can become the platform for change to occur, as well as the protector of the existent daily operations. A clear picture of how the business operates currently is afforded, as well as a picture of how the business must plan, schedule, and undergo the change process. Nadler (1998) emphasized the importance of leaders in organizing and maintaining a climate for change within organizations. Although participation of all players is necessary, the role of the leader in the change process is
crucial. Dubbed the "champions of change" it is the leaders, - the top management players who keep the change process moving while maintaining the operational integrity of the organization.

Adaptive leaders provide direction, protection, orientation, conflict control, and the shaping of norms while overseeing the change process within the corporate structure (Drucker, 1993). Priorities need to be set which encourage disciplined attention, while keeping a keen eye focused for signs of distress within the company members. Steps to transform an organization were identified by Drucker (1993). The steps included: establishing a sense of urgency; forming a powerful guiding coalition; creating a vision; communicating the vision; empowering others to act on the vision; planning for and creating short-term wins; consolidating improvements and producing still more change and institutionalizing new approaches. A new model of organizational learning is important for survival and adaptation in the new century. Learning is a key requirement for both leaders and followers for any effective and lasting change to occur. Without learning, the attitudes, skills and behaviours needed to formulate and implement a new strategic task will not develop, nor will a new frame by which selection and promotion decisions are made (Drucker, 1993). The authors proposed an action learning process, called Organizational Fitness Profiling to help leaders to learn how to skillfully transform the particular business they are managing. Scheduled dialogues with followers provide information on how leadership style and behaviours impact on values, organizational design, strategies, and follower perceptions. Organizational success is a process of mutual adaptation between leader values and behaviours, existing people, culture, and organizational design amidst an environment of continual and prolific change. This profiling process requires that leaders are courageous enough to learn about their own assumptions and values about change, leadership and management roles and tasks. In essence a paradigm shift in management thinking about leadership and organization development is needed for any tangible change to be realized.

Resources

Many strategy scholars believe that acquisition and development of superior organizational resources is the most important reason that some companies are more successful than others (Harrison, 2004). In order to execute its responsibility, an organization’s management requires information about the resources available to it and their relative effectiveness for achieving the organization’s purpose. Harrison (2004) categorised organizational resources into four classes: human resources, financial resources, physical resources, and intellectual property. Resources are acquired, allocated, motivated and manipulated under the manager’s control. One way to examine these is to look at the organization’s resource base (skill base, capital or financial resources, etc). Organizational resources reflect the organizations’ understanding of the expectations of the society and the linkages it has established with stakeholders (Hussey, 1994).

An organization may well have excellent research skills, but if its primary tasks are in service delivery, then such skills may be more a weakness than strength. However, one should not automatically make the assumption that since idle capacity exists, it should be dispensed with. Such skills may well be quite useful if the organization should need to make changes in order to be more compatible with its environment. While it is important to use all resources efficiently and properly; it is also critical to ensure that the potential value of the outputs is maximized by ensuring they fully meet the needs of the customers for whom they are intended. An organization achieves this when it sees its customers’
objectives as its own objectives and enables its customers to easily add more value or, in the case of final consumers, feel they are gaining true value for money (Harrison, 2004). Strategy execution is concerned with: firstly, creating a portfolio of change programs that will deliver the strategy; and secondly, it involves attracting, allocating, and managing all the necessary resources to deliver these change programs. It is becoming more critical to organizations’ long-term success to excel at strategy execution: those that do will outperform their peers by a wide margin. The fifth reason is the difficulty of securing the required resources to execute the strategy.

Managers struggle to manage resource allocation between those required to manage today’s operations and to deliver the portfolio of change programs. Resolving conflicts between operational and change resource requirements are often left to the discretion of junior staff on a day-by-day basis. As expected, they frequently focus upon earning revenue from the demanding customer, leaving the change programs until time permits. Some strategies fail because not enough resources were allocated to successfully implement them (Bryson, 1988). Lack of resources is generally a bigger threat to capital intensive strategies. Ronald Kubinski (2002) observed this failing in both “fast-growth, new companies that feel understaffed due to growth demands” and companies “under heavy competitive pressure” who felt they could not spare resources to drive strategic innovation. It is generally a good idea to include financial evaluation of a (draft) strategic plan in the process – in part to ensure the strategy does not inadvertently destroy shareholder value and in part to ensure that sufficient resources will be available to achieve goals of strategic change (Bryson, 1988).

Change Resistance
People often resist change in a rational response based on self – interest. However, there are countless other reasons people resist change. Many of these centre on the notion of reactance – that is, a negative reaction that occurs when individuals feel that their personal freedom is threatened. Some of the major reasons for resisting change follow:

Fear of the unknown
Change often brings with it substantial uncertainty. Employees facing a technological change, such as the introduction of a new computer system, may resist the change simply because it introduces ambiguity into what was once a comfortable situation for them. This is especially a problem when there has been a lack of communication about the change (Hannan and Freeman, 1984)

Fear of loss
When a change is impending, some employees may fear losing their jobs, particularly when an advanced technology like robotics is introduced (Lawrence, 1954). Employees also may fear losing their status because of a change. Computer systems experts, for example, may feel threatened when they feel their expertise is eroded by the installation of a more user – friendly networked information system. Another common fear is that changes may diminish the positive qualities the individual enjoys in the job. Computerizing the customer service positions at South-western Bell, for example, threatened the autonomy that representatives previously enjoyed.

Fear of failure
Some employees fear changes because they fear their own failure. Introducing computers into the workplace often arouses individuals’ self – doubts about their ability to interact with the computer. Resistance can also stem from a fear that the change itself will not really take place (Piderit, 2000). In one large library that was undergoing a major
automation effort, employees had their doubts as to whether the vendor could really deliver the state – of – the – art system that was promised. In this case, the implementation never became a reality – the employees’ fears were well founded.

**Disruption of interpersonal relationships**

Employees may resist change that threatens to limit meaningful interpersonal relationships on the job (Piderit, 2000). Librarians facing the automation effort described previously feared that once the computerized system was implemented, they would not be able to interact as they did when they had to go to another floor of the library to get help finding a resource. In the new system, with the touch of a few buttons on the computer, they would get their information without consulting another librarian.

**Personality Conflicts**

When the change agent’s personality engenders negative reactions, employees may resist the change. A change agent who appears insensitive to employee concerns and feelings may meet considerable resistance, because employees perceive that their needs are not being taken into account (Rumelt, 1995).

**Politics**

Organizational change may also shift the existing balance of power in the organization. Individuals or groups who hold power under the current arrangement may be threatened with losing these political advantages in the advent of change (Rumelt, 1995).

**Cultural assumptions and values**

Sometimes cultural assumptions and values can be impediments to change, particularly if the assumptions underlying the change are alien to employees. This form of resistance can be very difficult to overcome, because some cultural assumptions are unconscious. Some cultures tending to avoid uncertainty may be met with great resistance (Lawrence, 1954). Some individuals are more tolerant of ambiguity. The reasons for resistance are as diverse as the workforce itself and vary with individuals and organizations. The challenge for managers is introducing change in a positive manner and managing employee resistance.

**Policing**

The idea of police role, function, purpose, or mission in society requires us to think beyond the technical and operational aspects of police work, and consider the philosophy of policing, and or more generally, the place of legitimate authority in society. The domain of policing has expanded in recent years as private, community based and corporate security services and transnational policing and security structures have taken over many of the jobs and roles formerly performed by state-based policing systems. The legitimate monopoly of coercion by the state has been reduced. These developments have been extensively described (Shearing and Wood 2000); their significance for conceptions and theories of democratic policing has been a staple of scholarly analyses (Stone and Ward 2000); and the practical implications of how to establish, reproduce and sustain the democratic performance of these new, complex and fluid security and policing systems, or the new security architectures of which they are part has given rise to numerous assessments of the problems faced and policy solutions which show promise that they might be effective.
Military policing trends
The trend towards militarization is clear in Kenya, and has led to many of the issues that are apparent in Kenyan policing today. This militarization took place in the context of a general trend towards military dominance following independence; as the emphasis on the military approach increased, the police were operationally and politically marginalised and democracy was diluted. Police were drawn into the government’s political and military games, with secret police units created to balance dissent coming from the politically powerful army. This has led to the police being undermined, violent and brutal policing taking place without the benefit of police accountability mechanisms, the erosion of police jurisdiction and guilt by association. It has also furthered a culture of impunity within the police by allowing actions done under the guise of special joint operations to go unchallenged, where they would have not been allowed under a civilian policing regime.

Political impact on policing strategies.
Discussions are one thing; creating the political will to make the recommendations of those discussions a reality is another (Cordner G 1998). Some departmental decisions are made on the basis of political expediency rather than on the specific merits of the situation. Decisions are made to ensure that politicians look good and to keep the political constituency happy. Politicians foster bureaucracies that bog the system down in red tape and paperwork. Politicians take away some powers the police should have and Policies change because of the people involved, not because of the merits of the situation. A democratic system of government requires the consent of the governed; for instance, police foot patrol is designed to encourage citizen participation and to allow them a voice in setting priorities for the kind of policing programs that residents want in their communities. On the other hand, if special interest groups gain so much power they dictate the agenda, while the rights of common citizens are ignored. At this point political pressure becomes a threat to professional policing (Peak and Glosner, 1999).

Constitutional Reforms
A brief environmental scanning presents strategic opportunities and strengths for the Kenya police in the light of the new constitution. Several bills intended to transform the police include the Coroners’ service bill, the Independent police oversight authority bill and the Private security bill. The National police service bill and the National police service commission bill that were signed into law in between August and September, 2011, marks the point of departure towards a vigorous police reform process in Kenya. The emphasis is to make the police an open system as far as possible by creating an environment for active public participation in security matters. This study will examine challenges facing strategic management of change and make possible recommendations with specific regard to the capacity of the Kenya police to effectively embrace the community policing concept.

Origin and evolution of Community Policing
Community policing is considered a popular contemporary policing approach responding to the decline in public confidence in police; and growing evidence that police forces could not fight crime by themselves (Skogan, 2006). What is commonly understood to be community policing is not an entirely new concept. Community policing can be traced back to the introduction of community constables, known as ‘bobbies’, by Sir Robert Peel in the newly created Metropolitan London Police District during the early 19th
century (Patterson, 2007). Sir Robert Peel rationalised that “the police are the public and the public are the police” (Braiden, 1992 - cited in Fridell, 2004: 4). He believed this statement is the key principle of community policing and that “police should not be separated from, but rather joined in partnership with, the community”.

Community policing as a concept was first introduced in the United States in the 1960's to increase police-community contact and reduce the fear of crime (Innes, 2003). It became a dominant policing strategy in the United States during the 1990's with the introduction of 100,000 new community police officers. The deployment presented a change of focus to encourage problem solving and community engagement as opposed to reactive policing (Innes, 2003).

Fielding (2005) suggests community policing is not a single concept but could mean: “A contrast to rapid response and enforcement-oriented policing, so constables are closer to the community ... a process by which crime control is shared with the public ... or a means of developing communication with the public and interest groups” (Fielding, 1995: 25). Internationally it is agreed that community policing needs to be a long term strategy with long term outcomes to allow for the development of decision making processes and a police culture that fosters the concept (Skogan and Hartnett, 1998). In addition, Skogan and Hartnett argue practices will vary from place to place to respond to the unique situations faced by communities.

Successes associated with community policing.
The following projects and programs have achieved various levels of success: Edwards (1999) wrote about the implementation and impact of community policing in Madison, Wisconsin. They found that it was possible for a traditional police department to change and for officers and the community to benefit from improved attitudes. McElroy et al (1993) evaluated the Community Patrol Officer Program in New York City and found many reasons for satisfaction and optimism for the future. However, they also found some shortcomings in implementation, community involvement, and command support. The United States National Institute of Justice (1992) reported the results of the community policing partnership in Seattle, Washington. They claimed success since crime statistics showed a dramatic improvement in the quality of life of citizens.

Bayley (1989) evaluated community policing in Singapore and stated that through its operations in Singapore police officers have become more adaptive and rational. He saw it as a "model" that would serve other police organizations well and called it "one of the most far-reaching examples of police reform in the world today" (Bayley, 1989:31). A community policing pilot project that started in 1993 in Chicago as a field test was evaluated after two years. The findings were very encouraging. It was found that perceived crime problems had decreased significantly, robbery and auto theft declined, residents had more positive attitudes towards the police and police supervisors involved in the study were more optimistic than their counterparts about the impact of community policing. (US National Institute of Justice, 1995) .Wilson and Kelling (1993) referred to the "Broken Windows" idea. Once a neighbourhood is decaying, it will attract more crime if nobody does anything to prevent the decay and show that people do care. Moore (1994:285) noted that community policing has become so popular that, if police executives are slow to embrace them, communities will force the ideas upon them.

Community Policing Challenges
As an increasing number of studies are conducted on community policing, the pitfalls and challenges of implementing such strategies are becoming more evident. As community
policing grows in popularity and implementation, studies have increasingly found that community policing is not a panacea that is easily implemented with immediate success. Related problems can manifest in three different areas: within the police service; within the community; and in the implementation of community policing initiatives.

**Police Service**

Many studies on the police services in Australia and overseas have documented the challenges faced when implementing community policing. These include barriers from within the police organisational structure and the organisational climate (Giacomazzi et al. 2004), where the absence of strong leadership and encouragement in community policing strategies can negatively impact on community policing practices (Robinson 2003). Whereas police leadership in community activities can be needed and sought by its members, there are some less noticeable hindrances to implementing community policing. Police may also be reluctant to make community policing a priority (Segrave and Ratcliffe 2004) due to the perception that community policing is distinct from other ‘police work,’ thus reinforcing the notion that it is not ‘real’ police work.

**The community**

There can also be quite a romanticised perception that the community will be eager to embrace community policing methods. For some, community members are reluctant to seek and develop a sustainable partnership with law enforcement (Long et al. 2002), and communication constraints can often hinder community policing success, especially in areas with minority and special needs groups (Schneider 1998). Research has also found that community and police cohesion on the problems and solutions existing in a community is not necessarily present, and can be dominated by minority stakeholders (Bohm et al. 2000).

**Implementation**

There is no uniform model of community policing, and adopting the western model can pose problems in developing countries such as low levels of professionalism, disrespect for law enforcement, lack of community organisation and other contextual factors (Davis et al. 2003). Community policing in Nordic countries was found to have limited success, and was abandoned in Finland and Norway. The initiative’s failure was explained as the result of an already high perception of public safety, lack of citizen association of police visibility and safety and traditionally the lack of Nordic citizen involvement in its welfare state (Holmberg 2005). This demonstrates that the practice of transplanting community policing initiatives without accounting for different cultural contexts can prove to be a major hurdle in successful community policing implementation.

**Exclusion**

The most frequent implementation problem cited for community policing is the failure to involve all sectors of the community. The analyses in South Africa show clear evidence of the marginalisation or exclusion from Community Policing Fora of the poor, some racial groups and women. Problems of representativeness have been compounded by CPF becoming the sites of local struggle between political parties and civic associations and an independent local review of the Western Cape project concluded that political tensions still threaten the community policing structures. Although the logic of community policing assumes the availability of inherent community resources – social capital – which may be tapped and enhanced to produce social order; very often such groups have, in practice, limited resources to offer. Writing about the UK, Adam Crawford (1999) also
emphasises the reluctance of some communities to become involved: “Communities are often portrayed as the antithesis of violence and crime. On the contrary, however, the collective values of a community may serve to stimulate and sustain criminality”

Conceptual framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Moderating variables</th>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Organisational structure</td>
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<td>Training &amp; Development</td>
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<td>Organizational culture</td>
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<td>Policies and procedures</td>
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<td>Availability of resources</td>
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<td>Strategic management of change in community policing:</td>
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<td>Inclusive decision making</td>
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<td>Delegation of roles</td>
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<td>Reduction of red tapes</td>
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<td>Rewarding innovation</td>
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<td>Political</td>
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<td>Technological</td>
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<td>Legal</td>
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Methodology

Research Design.
The study adopted a survey research design. Survey research design is a non-experimental, descriptive research method used to gather information about individuals (Sekarah, 1992). The researcher’s intention was to establish the influence of strategic management of change on community policing and therefore this design was chosen due to its effectiveness since it does not involve changing or modifying the situation under investigation and the cross-sectional option that it offers enhances efficiency in data collection and reliability of results. Further, the design allows for collection and analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data due to its low cost and easy access to information.

Population
The target population comprised 500 staff members from rank and file to the divisional commander police commander. The lowest rank interviewed was that of a police constable while the highest was a senior superintendent of police. The table below summarizes population breakdown in terms of ranks:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank population</th>
<th>P.C</th>
<th>CPL</th>
<th>SGT</th>
<th>S/SGT</th>
<th>I.P</th>
<th>C.I</th>
<th>SP</th>
<th>SSP</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>377</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Sample and Sampling Procedure.
The target population of the study was 500 individuals. The optimal sample in every study is the one that fulfils the requirements of efficiency, representativeness, reliability and flexibility. A sample of 30% is an optimum sample under circumstances of this study as proposed by Kothari (2003). The researcher further reasoned that, although the target population is finite and homogeneous, a sample of 30% of the target population greatly reduces the sampling error. The sampling design adopted random (stratified and simple) and non-random (purposive) sampling procedures. Random sampling ensured
information obtained from the sample was representative of the population. Though the target population was by and large homogeneous, stratified sampling enhanced individual stratum homogeneity which resulted in more reliable and detailed information. A stratified sample has a smaller sampling error than a simple random sample since a source of variation is eliminated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sample method</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PC</td>
<td>377</td>
<td>Simple random</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPL</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>Simple random</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGT</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Simple random</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/SGT</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Purposive sampling</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Simple random</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Purposive sampling</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SP</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Purposive sampling</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSP</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Purposive sampling</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>500</td>
<td></td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Data collection
The researcher used questionnaires with closed ended questions. This eliminated interviewer biasness and greatly reduced the generic fear of victimization and intimidation associated with the chain of command within the Kenya police realms. The researcher administered the questionnaires by drop-and-later-pick method.

Data analysis.
Data collected were both quantitative and qualitative. Descriptive statistics which include mean, standard deviation and percentages were used in the analysis.

Data presentation
The study used both quantitative and qualitative data. The data are presented in a pie chart and tables.

Data Analysis and Interpretation
Response rate
A total of 152 questionnaires were issued out. The completed questionnaires were edited for completeness and consistency. Of the 152 questionnaires used in the sample, 132 were returned. The returned questionnaires represented a response rate of 86.8%, which the study considered adequate for analysis.

Factors influencing the successful implementation of community policing
Organizational culture
The respondents were asked to state the extent to which various cultural factors of the Kenya police as an organization have influenced the successful implementation of community policing at their station area. From the findings to a moderate extent; Public relations (mean of 3.0153), Effective communication within the police (mean of 3.267), Attitude towards the public (mean of 3.3258), Professionalism (mean of 3.3864), Human rights (mean of 3.4394), Accountability and transparency (mean of 3.4504) and Ambushes and (fagia) operations (Mean of 3.4621) respectively.

On a least extent, the following factors have contributed to the successful implementation of community policing; Police Integrity (mean of 3.7176), Bureaucracy (mean of 3.8397) and Use of force (mean of 4.0909). In general, the cultural factors of the Kenya police as an organization have not significantly influenced the successful implementation of community policing.

Organisational Structure
The respondents were asked to state the extent to which various factors of the police organizational structure have been an impediment to the process of change in
accommodating the principles of community policing within their station area. From the findings to a great extent; No questioning to authorities (mean of 1.8321), Bureaucracy (mean of 2.0763), Chain of command (mean of 2.1374), Principle of hierarchy (mean of 2.2748), A system of rational rules (mean of 2.4656) and Participatory structures (mean of 2.4809).

On a moderate extent; specialization of sections (mean of 2.5573), general written orders (mean of 2.5725) and division of labour (mean of 2.6336) have been an impediment to the process of change in accommodating the principles of community policing. In general the key impediments in accommodating the principle of community policing with respect to organization structures were no questioning to authorities, bureaucracy, chain of command and principle of hierarchy.

**Resources**

The respondents were asked to state the extent to which various resource factors have contributed to low efforts of change in operationalizing community policing. From the findings, all resource factors were rated to have contributed to a great extent towards the low efforts of change in operationalizing community policing. Specifically the key factors were; Allocation of funds for station operations (mean of 1.3435), Availability of transport (mean of 1.4656) and the amount of funds allocated for community policing implementation programme (mean of 1.4885).

**Recruitment, Selection and Training**

The respondents were asked to state the extent to which the Kenya police organization has exploited various opportunities to revamp and rejuvenate its human resource. The findings indicated that little has been done based on the available opportunities to revamp the human resource in the police force, that is, all the respondents rated all factors to a least extent. The respondents felt that factors which suffer the most were; Involvement of internal and external stakeholders in developing criteria for the selection process (mean of 4.2615), Hiring professionals from other socio-economic fields (mean of 4.2308) as witnessed by opposition by the officers in the current police restructuring program towards the recruitment of the police boss from outside the force and Development of new job description structure for community policing implementation (mean of 4.1846).

**Policies and Procedures**

The respondents were asked to state the extent to which policies and procedures factors had contributed to poor implementation of community policing. As indicated in table 4.8, to a great extent; System to collect and analyse data, and share information on community policing progress (mean of 2.1818), Focus on process (mean of 2.3500), Creativity and innovation (mean of 2.2742), unquestionable compliance with orders (mean of 2.4015), decision making levels (mean of 2.4045) and Command protocol (mean of 2.4242).

On a moderate extent; Focus on crime prevention (mean of 2.6364), Customer focus (mean of 2.6894) and adherence to general regulations (mean of 2.6970) had contributed to poor implementation of community policing.

**Leadership Style**

When asked to rate the extent to which various aspects of leadership had been reviewed to reflect a shift from re-active policing to community policing, the respondents unanimously agreed that little had been done towards this. More specific to the least extent; Rewards to the OCPD, OCS, section heads and patrol units for risks arising from ventures of personal creativity (mean of 4.2868), The chain of command (mean of 4.2791) and Support for mistakes arising from honest and reasonable personal initiatives in furthering community policing (mean of 4.2791).
Summary

The objectives of the study were; to establish how organisational structure affects strategic change in community policing in Nyeri police division, to establish how organizational culture affects strategic change in community policing in Nyeri police division, to establish how training and personnel development affects strategic change in community policing in Nyeri police division and to establish how availability of resources affects strategic change in community policing in Nyeri police division.

On demographic information the study found out that Majority of the respondents attended their initial training at Kenya Police College and GSU. It was further noted males dominated all ranks in the force. Length of service at the stations indicated that majority of the officers had served for 6-10 years in the forces, followed by 11-15 years and 16-20 years respectively. Most officers have a service of between 6-15 years.

The study identified the following factors on organizational culture as of moderate influence on the successful implementation of community policing at their station area; Public relations, Effective communication within the police, Attitude towards the public, Professionalism, Human rights, Accountability and transparency and Ambushes and (fagia) operations. This shows that police force should improve on their organizational culture.

The study further indicated that the Kenya police force faces some impediments on the process of change in accommodating the principles of community policing. Key amongst these impediments were; No questioning to authorities, Bureaucracy, Chain of command, Principle of hierarchy, A system of rational rules and Participatory structures.

On resources, the findings indicated that the police force does not have enough resources to effectively implement community policing. As a result availability of resources has significantly contributed to the low response to effort of change in operationalising community policing. Top of the resources as an impediment were; Allocation of funds for station operations, Availability of transport and the amount of funds allocated for community policing implementation programme.

Human resources are a key component of any change in an organization. This is achieved by having the right people at the right time doing the right jobs (jobs and skill matching). This objective is normally achieved through recruitment, selection and training process. From the study findings, the respondents unanimously agreed that the police force has not taken recruitment, selection and training of personnel as a key component of revamping its human resources, that is, Involvement of internal and external stakeholders in developing criteria for the selection process, Hiring professionals from other socio-economic fields and Development of new job description structure for community policing implementation have not been effected in the force.

Policies and procedures define the operation direction taken by an organization in managing both short term and long term activities. It is what differentiates a performing organization from non performing organization by reducing over reliance on specific personnel. The study indicated that System to collect and analyse data, and share information on community policing progress, Focus on process, Creativity and innovation, unquestionable adherence to orders, decision making levels and Command protocol had contributed significantly towards the poor implementation of community policing.

Leaders are responsible for bridging the gap between strategy decisions and the reality of implementing the changes within the structure and workforce of the organization. The respondents felt that the current aspect of leadership in police force has achieved very little progress in terms of the reviews and restructuring towards community policing. This
has been as a result of; no rewards to the OCPD, OCS, section heads and patrol units for risks arising from ventures of personal creativity, chain of command and lack of support for mistakes arising from honest and reasonable personal initiatives in furthering community policing

**Conclusion**

The study concluded that community policing in Nyeri division has not achieved its objective in all the parameters used in the study, that is, organizational culture, organization structure, resources, recruitment, selection and training, policies and procedures and leadership style. There is an urgent need to relook at the concept of community policing in totality by bringing on board all the stakeholders. This should be able to assist in role definition and resource acquisition and allocation. The study also concluded that there was no link between community policing and the factors affecting management of strategic change in community policing within nyeri police division, as such the little gain made by the implementation of community policing may be short lived.

**Recommendations.**

This study was anchored on Kurt Lewin’s three step- change theory. The basic principle is the forces that influence change in people. Whenever there is need for change, there are two kinds of forces – driving forces and restraining forces. The driving forces push towards the desired change while restraining forces keep the change from taking place. When this theory is applied to strategic change in community policing, the important thing is to identify the driving forces and the restraining forces. Based on the findings, the study made the following recommendations:

Policy makers at both organizational and national level should carry out a complete audit of the current police management, structures, policies, practices and procedures guided by chapters six and fourteen of the constitution on Leadership and integrity and National police service respectively. Adequate budgetary allocation and equipment need to be availed to the police in order to enhance its operational efficiency in general and to mainstream community based policing in particular.

Further, a comprehensive reward mechanism that motivates innovation and encourages inclusive decision making among all police officers irrespective of their ranks need to be developed. This calls for total commitment in fast tracking the Operationalization of the national police service Act to establish a national policy on community policing. It will be imperative at this point to consider reviewing and re- defining the role of police in community policing.

Although community policing has for the first time in the history of Kenya been contemplated in the constitution, a review of existing laws and issues related to community policing (including the independent police oversight authority, enhanced information disclosures, human resource management and capacity building) will be crucial in the making of a police that is consistent with norms of a democratic state. In addition, rolling out a national security policy to enable police recognize the role of other security stakeholders in community policing is recommended.

The National police service commission should initiate an immediate and thorough examination, review and revision of the police recruitment, promotion and deployment process based on suitability, competency and integrity and train more police officers to raise police to population ratio to the UN Standards of 1:450. A thorough and continuous review of the police training curricula to include change management, problem identification and solving should come in handy.
At corporate level, the management should devise a mechanism of extensive consultation with a wide variety of local and international stakeholders on community policing. Comparative benchmarking against best regional and global community policing practices will give the police an international appeal. Immediate creation and enactment of a modern specific code of conduct for the police based on the bill of human rights and professionalism will grant police officers a conducive working environment which is a necessary ground for nurturing community policing action plans.

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