THE DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH OF THE KENYAN PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR: ITS ROLE AND IMPACT ON SAFETY AND SECURITY

by

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is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at UNISA for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

SIGNATURE:

C. Mbuvi

Date

23/2/15
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would, firstly, like to thank my entire family for their support throughout this research study.

I would also like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my supervisors, Prof. Anthony Minnaar and Prof. Cherita Morrison for their continuous encouragement, support and academic advice during the drafting of this research report.

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SUMMARY

This study aimed to analyse the development and growth of the Kenyan private security sector, and to establish its role and impact on safety and security. The study included determining the impact of the private security sector in Nairobi and the mobile patrol functions on safety and security in Kenya. Furthermore, to determine the impact of the Kenyan private security sector on loss prevention functions; reviewed how special events security and private investigation functions affect the safety and security of Kenyans; and also considered how in-house security functions of the private security sector further influence safety and security in Kenya.

The researcher reviewed previous studies with a view to establish academic gaps which the present study sought to bridge. This study adopted a census survey design and employed quantitative research methods as the main approach to guide the study. The research targeted all of the private security firms in Kenya. There are 23 listed security firms under the Kenya Security Industry Association (KSIA) and 44 under the Protective Security Industry Association (PSIA) - a total of 67 security firms in Kenya.

The research instrument used for data collection was a questionnaire to elicit the required information from the respondents. The respondents were either the Managing Director or Head of Security at these firms, since they have a broad knowledge about the business activities being conducted by the company. Most of them have been with the company for a significant number of years.

Emanating from the research findings it is recommended that the security firms should better train the private security guards in order to enhance overall security being provided to clients. Security guards must be able to respond to different changes in their environment, which include action such as traffic movement; ensure the safety of people among and inside different localities; observing and handling the admittance and exit of individuals and cars and evaluating and
monitoring individuals and coming up with a policy and legal framework for regulating and observing Private Security Company (PSC) activity.

The study concludes that the private security sector in Kenya impacts on and influences overall safety and security. The study, therefore, finds that there has been growth and development of the private security sector in Kenya and it continues to do so currently. Finally, advances the view that a significant relationship does exist between the functions of the private security sector and the development of the private security sector in Kenya which have had an extensive influence on levels of safety and security in that country.
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CCTV</td>
<td>Closed circuit television</td>
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<tr>
<td>CoESS</td>
<td>Confederation of European Security Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4S</td>
<td>Group 4 Securicor</td>
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<tr>
<td>GISES</td>
<td>Global Intelligence and Security Environmental Sustainability Model</td>
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<tr>
<td>IDRC</td>
<td>International Research Development Centre (of Canada)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISECOM</td>
<td>The Institute for Security and Open Methodologies</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISS</td>
<td>Institute for Security Studies</td>
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<tr>
<td>KSIA</td>
<td>Kenya Security Industry Association</td>
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<tr>
<td>NATO</td>
<td>North Atlantic Treaty Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental organisations</td>
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<tr>
<td>PMCs</td>
<td>Private Military Companies</td>
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<td>PMSCs</td>
<td>Private Military and Security Companies</td>
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<td>PSCs</td>
<td>Private Security Companies</td>
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<tr>
<td>PSIA</td>
<td>Protective Security Industry Association (of Kenya)</td>
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<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>Unites States</td>
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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

After the Cold War between the powers in the western bloc which is made up of United States and its North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) allies and powers in the eastern bloc made up of the Soviet Union and its allies in between 1947-1991, a tremendous growth has been experienced in the private security industry in the world over (Avant. 2004: 23). Private Military and Security Companies (PMSCs) have increasingly been replacing or enhancing national military and security workforce in conflict areas as well as areas that are considered not to be adequately serviced by national security workforces (Avant 2004: 31). According to Lock (1999: 11), history shows that it is often the case that the downsizing of militaries, for whatever reason, leads to an increase in private military activity as skilled workforce look for places to use their talents.

With the increase in the supply of skilled workforce on the private market after the Cold War, there was also a concurrent rise in the demand for military expertise. The termination of the Cold War has led to the global threats becoming more diverse, more able, and more hazardous, while the customary reactions to insecurity and struggle were at their feeblest. This change then led to susceptibility which developed into a greater occurrence of state collapse and further led to new areas of instability as viewed by Singer (2008: 49).

Avant (2005: 31) contends that some countries after the Cold War sought to improve and westernise their military sector. This was done as a method of showing qualification for admission into western establishments. This saw leaders of feeble or failing states who were not supported by superpowers in need of help, and non-state players such as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), assemblies of citizens, and private firms in the terrains of feeble or failing nations asked for professional assistance. The western administration
turned to private actors as a result of the increasing expenses of national standing armies, specialised training and armaments research and development, according to Krahniann (2002:112). The revolution in military affairs is seen as a dynamic force to the growing privatisation of the military. The needs and wants for specialised workforce were improved for the reason that there was advancement of high-technology warfare and vital and close collaboration between the industry and the military. Therefore expertise in this field was hired by incorporating private contractors (Huysmans. 2005: 91).

The development towards a privatised military is also seen in a historically more philosophical perspective such as in the French Revolution (Kinsey, 2006: 43). Through the growth of Private Military and Security Companies (PMSCs), however, we might be witnessing a shift from state armies to private security firms according to Cooper and Pugh. 2002:59). The privatisation of security across the globe has attracted extensive attention in recent years, but to date, according to Avant (2005: 44): Kinsey (2006); Krahmann (2005) and Singer (2000). These analyses have remained largely focused on military privatisation and not private security companies.

This research study developed out of an awareness of the importance of the widespread privatisation and globalisation of commercial, non-military security. This involves the provision of day-to-day security services. These services include alarm installation and response, risk analysis manned guarding, and surveillance for a country such as Kenya. This form of private security has grown at a remarkable rate recently, with the global private security sector now priced at US$85 billion having a yearly growing proportion of 8 percent (Abrahamsen and Williams, 2009: 1). Security sector is rising and there is need to set up the development and growth in Kenya and its role and impact on safety and security. As the sector has expanded it has also become increasingly globalised, with the leading companies looking for profitable new markets in developing countries (Stavrou, 2002: 2). Stavrou (2002: 3), the world’s largest security company in
revenue terms, now operates in over 30 countries, and has over 210,000 employees (Stavrou, 2002: 2-3). Group 4 Securicor (G4S) is present in over 100 countries, employing a total of 360,000 people (G4S, 2004). While the third largest Spain based security company, Prosegur, has extend further to over 15 countries in Europe and South America (Avant, 2005: 7-8).

After the 1998 terrorism acts of Kenya, the incident changed the way people perceive and act on safety and security issues (Ngugi, Kimani, Omondi, Wanyama & Fatuma, 2004: 8). According to Schreier and Caparini (2005: 16) private security industry is made up of those organisations that offer security for citizens and possessions under a written agreement and for a gain. Sandoz (1999: 33) state that when the globally, private security industry is regulated effectively and made accountable fully; it will experience a phase of fast growth, that can easily make an important input to the security provision. On the other hand, the actions of an unrestrained or scantily controlled private security industry may bring distinctive problems in authority and in intermediary or post-conflict nations that usually operate as a barrier for peace building, upright leadership and maintainable growth according to O'Brien (1998: 22). This is vital, having been noted that over the past 10 years private security companies have gradually taken responsibilities that were previously the duty of the nation (Chan, 2007: 35).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT
The growth and development of private security in Kenya has come as a result of increasing criminal rates and failure of public security sectors to offer sufficient security to citizens. Wairagu, Kamenju and Singo (2004: 35) state that the development and growth of an operative private security sector needs a controlling charter that institutes certifying and supervising the values while also taking caution and procedures in advancing the security and protection of security guards. The increase in criminal rates resulted to development of the private security industry in Kenya and brought about attrition of the nation's
security as well as economy (Schreier & Caparini. 2005: 112). The services from the government in Kenya began to worsen more in the late 1980s through the 1990s whereby the nation’s spending and investments were diminished during this period of economic decline (Ngugi et al, 2004: 17). The capability of the administration and civic organisations to bring rule and command services has worsened; fraud and financial malpractice have become undiminished. This has resulted to a sharp rise in criminality and insecurity, especially in the Nairobi City, which is the capital of Kenya (Wairagu. Kamenju & Singo. 2004: 35). This progressively outlawed situation has brought about growth in private security sector, therefore becoming one of the areas with the fastest growth in Kenya’s economy according to Wairagu. Kamenju and Singo (2004:35).

An increase in criminal acts and the failure of public security services to offer sufficient security have led people to look for different security services in order to improve their safety and security. As is the case in all countries, Kenyans are extremely anxious about their safety and the fear has been shown through the advancement of the public security sector in the country (Wairagu. Kamenju & Singo. 2004: 38-39). The 20th Century has witnessed a propagation of private security firms in a nation, where people are unwilling to expend on their security (Gumedze. 2007: 24). The workforce’s occurrence of private security firms is observed in many sections of the private and public sector organisations. Despite the noticeable environment of the private security sector in Kenya, no research or study has been done on this problem area (Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo. 2004: 39). Even though the main task of the state is the protection of both individuals and assets, this duty has been left for the private security companies in both rural and urban areas. This has been despite the reality that in the rural and urban areas, safety and protection matters are broadly under private security companies and not in the hands of the state which has the solitary task of protecting both individuals and assets.
The main query arises how the development and growth of the private security industry has had an influence on Kenyans and what is its role. While there are a number of empirical research studies on the development and growth of the private security sector, there is no published research in Kenya. It is against this background, that the study seeks to analyse the development and growth of the private security sector in Kenya and its impact and role on safety and security (Wairagu. Kamenju & Singo, 2004: 41).

Kenya was selected for this research study, as it was among the first African countries to embrace the private security sector. Among the services that the private security sector offers to Kenyans are site or mobile patrol functions, loss prevention functions, special events security, private investigation services and in-house security functions (Wairagu. Kamenju & Singo, 2004: 41-42). As a result, the research will provide an insight into whether the private security sector is appropriate in the developing world of Kenya.

1.3 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY
The rationale for this study is that the findings and results will elaborate the development and growth of the Kenyan Private Security Sector with a focus on its role and impact on safety and security in Kenya. The research will provide an insight into whether the private security sector is appropriate in a developing country such as Kenya.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND AIM OF THE STUDY
The general objective of this study was to analyse the development and growth of the Kenyan private security sector, its role and impact on safety and security. The specific objectives of this study are:

1. To determine the impact of the private security sector on safety and security in Kenya?
2. To determine the impact of the Kenyan private security sector in loss prevention functions and the methods they use to prevent loss.
3. To assess how security at special events and private functions affect safety and security of Kenyans.
4. To assess how the in-house security functions of the private security sector influence safety and security in Kenya.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The research was guided by the following research questions:
1. What is the impact of private security sector on safety and security in Kenya?
2. What is the impact of the Kenyan private security sector in loss prevention functions?
3. Do special events security and private functions affect safety and security of Kenyans?
4. What is the impact of the in-house security functions of the private security sector on safety and security in Kenya?

1.6 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The purpose of the study was to analyse the development and growth of the Kenyan private security sector: its role and impact on safety and security.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY
This study was undertaken in Nairobi, capital of Kenya and focused on private security sector companies. The study targeted all of the 67 security firms in Kenya which included 23 listed security firms at the Kenya Security Industry Association (KSIA) and 44 at the Protective Security Industry Association (PSIA). The study was confined to the Managing Directors or Heads of Security in the firms since they had best knowledge about the security business. The study sought to analyse the development and growth of the Kenyan private security sector: its role and impact on safety and security. One respondent from each of the 67 security firms was selected to participate in the study.
1.8 KEY THEORETICAL CONCEPTS

Security
The level of protection against risk, harm, loss and criminal activity (Bryden & Caparini, 2006: 22).

Safety
The situation of being protected against bodily, communal, spiritual, monetary, political, emotional, work-related, mental, educational or other types or consequences of failure, risk, accidents, injury or other events that may be considered non-desirable (Kinsey, 2006: 12).

Development
The act of bringing progress to a country. It is the organised utilization of scientific and mechanical information to meet specific goals or requirements. Development is the method of profitable and public transformation that is founded on compound artistic and ecological factors and their interactions. (Goddard, 2001: 78).

Growth
An enhancement in some amount over a period of time or and can be enumerated as the variation in the number of people of any group or items in a populace using “per unit time” for measuring (Tsirel. 2004: 47).

Impact
An outcome on something or a measure of the material and immaterial effects (consequences) of one’s things or individual deed or authority upon another (Percy, 2006: 24).

1.9 VALUE/IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH
The private security sector has not been embraced by all the stakeholders in Kenya. There is no documented work and evidence on the development and growth of this sector and whether it achieves its intended objectives. The role and impact of the private security sector in Kenya has also not been researched widely. This is the information gap that the study intended to encapsulate by carrying out this research.
The completed study will therefore be of importance to key interest groups. The study will provide insight to the Government of Kenya on how effective the private security sector can positively impact on the reduction of the crime rate and ease the work performed by the public security sector. The study will also highlight areas in which the institution of private security sector could improve. The study will form the basis for further research by scholars into the area of the growth and development of the private security sector in Kenya.

1.10 CHAPTER OUTLINES

1.10.1 Chapter 1
Chapter 1 provides the introduction encompassing general background of the study. The chapter discusses the statement of the problem, the rationale and objectives of the study. The chapter also discusses the research questions, purpose of the study, scope of the study, the key theoretical concepts and the value/importance of the research.

1.10.2 Chapter 2
Chapter 2 is a discussion on the research methodology used in the study. The chapter encompasses the research design, data used, target population, sampling techniques as well as procedures and methods of analysing the data. The chapter outlines the methods employed by the study in collecting, assembling and analysing data.

1.10.3 Chapter 3
Chapter 3 discusses literature pertinent to the study as written and reviewed by other authors. The chapter delves into the growth and development of the private security sector. The chapter further looks into the development of the private security sector focusing on the capacity of the state: crisis of capitalism; new surveillance technologies: spread of consumer culture; responsibility and risk society, and internationalization.
1.10.4 Chapter 4
Chapter 4 is a discussion of relevant literature pertinent to the study as written and reviewed by other authors. The chapter delves into the growth of the private security sector in Kenya. The chapter looks at the dynamics behind the development and growth of the private security sector in Kenya. The chapter also provides the conceptual framework which identifies the variables under study and their relationships. The chapter further looks at the benefits and challenges facing private security firms.

1.10.5 Chapter 5
Chapter 5 presents the findings of the study. The chapter is a discussion on the data analysis, presentation and interpretation of the study. The chapter covers the response rate, respondents’ demographic data, and development growth role and impact of private security sector in Kenya.

1.10.6 Chapter 6
Chapter 6 is a discussion based on the research findings that are presented and discussed in Chapter 5. This chapter delves into the summary of the findings, the conclusions derived from the findings and the recommendations made for the study.
CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the research design, the data which was used, the target population, sampling techniques as well as procedures and methods of analysing the data are discussed. Research methodology is defined as phases or order of procedures that are essential in planning the kind of information to be collected, from which individual, and the way the data is should be analysed (Rice. 2003: 7). The methodological exposition for this research is discussed in this chapter and includes the research design, data used, target population, sampling techniques as well as procedures and methods of analysing the data. This chapter creates the framework of how the study was carried out, which allowed the study to define the research design used and determined the data collection procedures and tools of analysis employed.

2.2 RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN

A research design is defined as an overall plan for research undertaking according to Saunders. Lewis and Thornhill (2009:45). The research design which was used for this study was the Census Survey Design. A Census Survey Design is used when the purpose of the research is to collect data from all members of the population (Creswell, 2003: 59). The Census Survey Design is justified for this study since all the registered private security firms were targeted in Kenya. Kumar (1999: 34) recommends the Census Survey Design for its capability to yield statistical data about different facets of schooling that are of importance to the stakeholders and scholars.

The study employed quantitative methods and gathered information from the respondents by the use of a questionnaire. The questionnaire for this research study was planned in a manner that respondents had the liberty to give their opinions in answer to the questions inquired without any hints from the interviewer. Some of the questions were open-ended thus allowing the
participants to put pen to paper either positive or negative answers based on the type of questions. The data collected in this way is useful for the researcher if he needs to comprehend how the respondents feel about different subjects on the topic under review (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009: 52).

2.3 LITERATURE STUDY
A literature review is an explanation and a description in detail of any literature that has been researched, penned down and published on a topic by attributed academics and students. A literature review is a selected analysis of already present research which is applicable to the area of study, giving an indication of how its relationship to the study according to Creswell (2003: 62). It clarifies and validates in what way the study may aid in answering some of the queries or cracks in this area of research. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009: 52) state that a literature review is a version penned down by an individual to reflect on the crucial ideas of present information with practical conclusions, as well as theoretic and procedural literature on a certain area of study. Literature reviews are ancillary sources. Therefore they don’t give any novel investigational work. In addition, a literature review can be understood as an evaluation of an intellectual achievement according to Green (2006: 107). The literature review for this study covered the growth of the private security sector, and the development of the private security sector. The literature discussed the development and growth of the private security sector in Kenya and its role and impact on safety and security.

2.4 EMPIRICAL STUDY
An empirical research study is defined as a means of getting ideas and notions by ways of direct and indirect surveillance or know-how (Kumar, 1999: 41). Empirical evidence is a writing of ones unswerving surveillance or know-how and can be examined quantitatively or qualitatively according to Saunders, Lewis and Thorohill (2009: 53). Through giving a number to the evidence or creating logic of it in narrative form, a researcher can reply to empirical inquiries, that must be well
definite and answerable with the responses collected, namely the data according to Heitink (1999: 231). The study gained a great deal from literature accumulated from other authors pertinent to the study, which aided in finding the research gaps that exist.

2.5 POPULATION
A population is defined as an assembly of people or things that use a single or added features where the data can be collected and examined (Ball. 2001: 14). The study was carried out in Nairobi, the capital of Kenya where all security firms have their headquarters. The target population for the study was all private security firms in Kenya. In Kenya, there are 23 listed security firms at the Kenya Security Industry Association (KSIA) and 44 at the Protective Security Industry Association (PSIA), totaling to 67 security firms in Kenya. The study targeted one respondent per security firm. Since the target population was small in number, this study adopted a census survey of all 67 private security firms in Kenya as suggested by Cooper and Schindler (2000: 32). The benefits of using this method according to Cooper and Schindler (2006: 32) are that it increases confidence interval, it has maximum chance of identifying negative feedback and everyone is involved.

2.6 POPULATION AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES
Cooper and Schindler (2006: 24) define sampling as a procedure of choosing a quantity of people to participate in a particular research, whereby the people chosen generally signify the greater cluster from which they were chosen. Sampling basically includes the researcher obtaining a typical cluster that allows them to acquire material about the people (Mugenda and Mugenda. 2003: 41). Selecting a sample is an important aspect of any study undertaking. Since this study involved all private security firms in Kenya, no sampling was done given that all the security firms in Kenya were targeted.
Cooper and Schindler (2000: 35) further define a sampling frame as a list of features where the sample is essentially taken from. The sample for this study thus constituted the Managing Directors or Heads of Security in the firms since they had best knowledge about the security business. One respondent from each of the 67 security firms was selected to respond to the research questions in the questionnaires.

2.7 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

This study involved both primary and secondary data as methods of data collection. Primary data was derived from a structured questionnaire distributed to the private security firms. The questionnaires had both open and closed-ended questions with the aim of establishing the development. Growth, role and the impact of the private security sector on safety and security in Kenya. Secondary data was gathered from library material, private security sector journals and reports media publications and various Internet search engines covering security, safety, and the private security sector.

2.7.1 Questionnaires

A structured questionnaire (Appendix 1) was used to collect the primary data. The questionnaires had primarily close-ended and a few open-ended questions because respondents of the study were assumed to be literate and capable of answering questions adequately. Kothari (2004: 59) denotes the questionnaire as the most essential tool because of its capability to gather a great amount of data in a reasonably fast timespan. Creswell (1991: 39) states that it assures secrecy and privacy of the basis of information by secrecy while at the same time ensuring standardisation.

2.7.2 Pilot study

The questionnaires needed to be effective and therefore a pilot study was done beforehand. A small representative of the sample was used in the pilot study. Five Security Managers participated in the pilot study. A pilot study was essential
for unexpected alterations to be assumed by the time the final questionnaire was released to the respondents. It also ensured the precise phrasing, organising; typographical mistakes and the phrasing of the questions were corrected beforehand. An effective questionnaire for pre-testing was done with both open-ended and closed questions. This was for purposes of easier statistical analysis of the collected data.

2.8 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES
The researcher obtained an introductory letter from the University of South Africa to collect data from the private sector security firms in Kenya and then personally delivered the questionnaires to the respondents and had them completed. The questionnaires were delivered at the respondents’ place of work and picked up within two days. Follow-up calls were made to ensure effectiveness in filling in the questionnaires. Out of 67 questionnaires which had been administered to the interviewees. 61 of them were returned for analysis. This translates to 91.0 percent return rate of the respondents. Overall, the response rate was considered very high and adequate for the study.

2.9 DATA INFORMATION ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION
Data from the completed questionnaires was summarised, coded, tabulated and checked for any mistakes and exclusions. The study used Frequency tables, graphs and charts to illustrate the results. The questionnaire responses were analysed using a computer Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20.0 programme. The open-ended questions responses were then listed to obtain percentages correctly: the answers were then stated by use of descriptive narrative as qualitative analysis. Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistics such as averages, percentages, means and standard deviations.
2.10 VALIDITY, RELIABILITY AND ACCURACY OF COLLECTED INFORMATION

2.10.1 Ensuring validity
Validity is used to indicate if the things measure what they are intended to measure (Yin, 1996: 28). Content validity was used in the study to analyse if the questionnaires answered the study queries. Alterations and add-ons to the study instruments as well as sessions and deliberations with the supervisor were done to bring out content validity.

2.10.2 Ensuring reliability
Instrument reliability is defined as the reliability, steadiness or dependability of an investigation. The study used Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha approach to measure internal steadiness of the questionnaires. Creswell, (1991:45) recommends Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha approach because of its capability to provide average split-half association in all different available ways of distributing the assessment into two portions. Cronbach’s Coefficient Alpha is a scale measurement instrument essential in measuring internal steadiness in descriptive survey studies (Foddy. 2008: 78). The questionnaires were acknowledged at dependability indices of 0.78. According to Creswell, (1991: 45), questionnaires should be accepted at reliability indices of 0.50 and above.

The study used a data collection procedure known as the self-administration approach and also scrutinized the procedure to make sure that unplanned individuals did not answer the research instrument or were not interviewed. The questionnaires were completed and help pursued where necessary, therefore increasing the reliability.

2.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS
While this research contributes to the knowledge of private security sector in Kenya. It maintained utmost confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents.
The study guaranteed that the respondents were given freedom to partake and share voluntarily throughout the study.

In addition, the Researcher ensured that the necessary research specialists were referred to and consent given and diligent clarifications given to the respondents before beginning of the research. In conducting the study, the Researcher strived to follow the study ethical rules, Specific written and verbal consent was therefore the foundation for the respondent to contribute in the research. No respondent was coerced into giving information he/she felt was not relevant to be revealed in terms of safety or individual reasons,

The research also observed the Code of Ethics for research at UNISA which focuses on integrity, quality of research and standards of excellence. The Code provided the study with an overview of the requirements and standards that have been set regarding behaviour and the minimum standards for conducting ethical research.

Information was treated as confidential and information that was gathered was utilised for the aim of this study and no revelations were made to any other party in order to shun away from avoid plagiarism, all research sources used in the study were accredited. Data collected was presented and analysed as accurately as possible. Additionally, every person who contributed to the achievement of the study were acknowledged. Therefore, ethical considerations were observed in this study.

2.12 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The research focused on a critical area in security which falls in the docket of the organisational security department. The private security firms may have therefore felt that this research was a direct affront to their work and they would have been unwilling to disclose all the relevant data for the study.
There were a few uncooperative respondents: 2 of the respondents were unwilling to fill in the questionnaire or failed to return it or refused to be interviewed altogether. Nevertheless, this was minimised by creating link with the respondents and guaranteeing them that the aim of the research was only for academic purposes. The Researcher handled the problem by carrying out an introduction letter from the University of South Africa and assuring the respondents that the information was to be used purely for academic purposes.

2.13 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH
The findings of this study will be of value to the government of Kenya and other private security stakeholders. The study findings will aid the government to know the extent to which private security operators are helping in curbing security challenges and could be used to formulate the necessary policies and legislation in relation to security development and growth.

The findings of this study will also benefit students. Anyone willing to research on further studies on this issue will be able to use the research findings as the foundation for further research. Citizens of Kenya will understand more about security and why private security operators are important in any country. This study will enable them to make decisions concerning security and what the best solutions to the problem of crime and other security challenges are.

2.14 CONCLUSION
This chapter was a discussion on the research methodology that was used for the research study. It covered amongst others the research design, data used, target population, sampling techniques as well as procedures and methods used in analysing the data.

The next chapter, Chapter 3, discusses literature pertinent to the study as written and reviewed by other authors. The chapter delves into the growth and development of the private security sector. The chapter further looks into the
development of the private security sector focusing on the capacity of the state: crisis of capitalism: new surveillance technologies; spread of consumer culture: responsibility and risk society, and internationalization
CHAPTER 3
PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR

3.1 INTRODUCTION
According to analysts, the demand for private security services is on the rise due to changes in economic, demographic and political sectors, which have led to increased divergence in the world (Gumedze. 2007: 26). Coincidentally at the same moment that these advances are happening, the country and public leaders are declining in the direct task of safeguarding public security. Goddard (2001:71) defines a Private Security Company as a listed citizen business that specialises in offering contractual profitable services to local and international firms with the aim of protecting people and industrial assets in the confines of applicable law. Clapham (1999: 120) states that for security functions to guarantee utmost elasticity and rate efficiency, they are progressively being entrusted with the private security industry.

Private security firms have as a result turn out to be accountable for making certain community security and guarding property (both public and private) in a widespread range of areas. These include very risky areas such as airports, foreign embassies and commercial banks. Confederation of European Security Services (CoESS) (2003: 56) denotes that the private security companies are also giving security services at unrestricted occasions and companions for very important transportations such as very important persons (VIP) and in other countries prisoner transport replacing a significant amount of roles earlier delivered by police. Clapham (1999: 115) defines security as the amount of protection against danger, damage, loss, and criminal activity. Security in terms of safety incorporates organizations and procedures that enable or advance security which is a rule for both individuals as well as corporate entities. Security is also defined by The Institute for Security and Open Methodologies (ISECOM) (2001), as a method of guarding whereby a parting will be formed in-between the property and the risk.
Safety on the other hand is the state where one is guarded against protected against social, physical, financial, emotional, political, occupational or other types or costs of catastrophe, disappointments, mistakes, calamities, injury and damage which can be well thought-out to be non-desirable, according to Kinsey (2006: 11). Private sector security all the same refers to guards who are employed by companies. Businesses or individuals to safeguard the commercial centres, enclosed areas, shopping malls, offices and residential areas buildings. Private sector security guards are contracted to guard possessions (both belongings and individuals) (Piazza, 2007: 69). A national is almost certainly more probable of coming across private sector security daily than public security (Mandel. 2001: 129). Private security guards, however, are restricted by state laws to witnessing, recording and preventing criminal offences which means they have not been authorised to utilise any power or arrest anyone. The financing of private sector security officers is not done by the state finances, therefore they are not answerable to the general public but to whoever hires them (Percy. 2006: 13).

Throughout time in history the society has always been concerned with security at both the individual as well as communal levels since security looks robustly on economy and individuals’ livelihood according to Hyden (2005: 155). Wairagu. Kamenju and Singo (2004: 29) define security as liberty from peril, which is, guard from corporeal or undeviating crime and liberty from panic or fear which means a feel of protection and virtual comfort in legal, cultural, political, and socio-economic relations. Attempts to offer such security have advanced ultimately, portraying the changing circumstances and conditions of human subsistence (Tidy, 1987: 51). The association between the government and security came about ever since the nation was discriminated as being solely lawful and recognised supplier of safety and protection according to Hutchful (2000: 28).
As philosophies of a nation were predisposed by the notions of Max Weber a German sociologist, political economist and philosopher, the stipulation of security was observed as the most elementary responsibility and undertaking of the state and referred to it as the ‘Weberian State’. Perceptions of security has transformed over time, mostly for the reason that the mode in which the state has carried out its task of giving security to the citizens and private apprehensions. Facts put forward that even throughout the duration when the endowment of security has been deemed to be the chief responsibility of the country, Private Security Companies (PSCs) and Private Military Companies (PMCs) were before now on operational and the existence increased with time (Schreier & Caparini, 2005: 112).

3.2 THE GROWTH OF THE PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR
The privatisation of security has attracted widespread interest in current years, but to date these analyses have largely focused on military privatisation according to Krahmann (2005) and Singer (2000). By dissimilarity, this research project grew out of an interest in the widespread privatisation and globalisation of commercial, non-military security that is providing everyday security services such as manned guarding, alarm installation and response, risk analysis and surveillance in Nairobi, Kenya. This sort of private security has being developing and growing at an outstanding rate in the last two decades according to Gimode, (2001: 89).

Evidence proposes that the development of private security services (PSS) has been observable throughout the globe (Holmqvist. 2005: 56). It is estimated there were about 500 000 guards working for 10 000 private security firms amongst European Community member states in the year 1999 (C0ESS, 2003: 57). The United States of America has also encountered a high expansion rate of private security firms in with time (Reno. 1999: 130). Africa has also not been not been left out by these advances. Various researchers have come up with various justifications of why the private security sector has developed to exceptional
stages in diverse areas across the globe, with some stating it is as a result of the weakening of conditions in countries or highly competent states (Piazza, 2007: 76).

Despite the fact that common features of the expansion can be recognised, the circumstance of each nation and each area stay vital. Various observers such as Hutchful (2000: 34) and Holmqvist (2005: 45-59) have asserted that the development of the private security sector in Africa is an indicator of the country’s flaws and the disappointment of the nation to offer security for its residents by the setting up of operating law-and-order organisations. Other analysts have highlighted the point that private security firms will develop in a place where there are the creation of corresponding organisations of power or authority (Reno, 1999: 130).

According to Richards and Smith, (2007: 148), the increase in the number of explanations is a suggestion of the fact that private security sector has developed to challenge state pre-eminence of security matters. The private security sector growth has brought forth a number of compelling questions with reference to the ability of states to offer security to their citizens. Chesterman and Lehnardt, (2007: 86) append that because of the influence the private security sector may have on the nation and since security remains one of as a key worry of all citizens in all countries, the necessity for research into this area can barely be over emphasised.

Howe, (1998: 307) contends that what is similar in all nations, the Kenyan residents are extremely anxious with reference to their safety and this worry can be seen by the growth of the private security sector in the country. The last decade has seen a rise in the number of private security firms in a country where individuals are not so keen to spend on their security (Simon, 1995: 46). The existence of these private security firms is noticeable in the locations of both private and public sector corporations. In spite of the observable nature of the private security sector in Kenya, currently, there is no study that has been
dedicated to them. Despite the reality that in different areas, issues of security are mainly in the hands of private companies rather than in the nation (Ngugi et al. 2004: 37).

Johnston (1999: 176) asserts that it is crucial to observe further than mere negative consequences. Despite the fact that the growth of private security sector certainly raises meticulous enquiries about the effect of profitable codes of ethics, integrity and responsibility, the return of private policing should be regarded as an opportunity to identify and tackle significant questions of modern-day governance, and not only as a setback. For Johnston (1999: 176-177), distribution of domination to corporate, profit-making and domestic locations situated outside, or on the borders of the nation is regarded as a chief feature of present-day culture. Researchers such as Trim (2005) see no primary challenges with this development.

Trim (2005: 456), anticipated a Global Intelligence and Security Environmental Sustainability Model (GISES) so as to represent a ‘all-inclusive architecture’ which aids the growth of a business amongst the government departments, different intelligence and security organisations law enforcement agencies, and other organisations and establishments found in public and private industries. According to Trim (2005: 595), the model agree to open and efficient communication between the various national security officers, law enforcement officers, and commercial intelligence and security officers involved in containing and counteracting the actions of organised crime mobs and associations, and world-wide extremist crowds.

Intellect will be a blend between public and private security since the Weberian model of bureaucratic management is merely not matched to the intelligence occupation. Foddy (2008: 270) states that in the twenty-first century, the effective intelligence government will be those who do not follow the previous stipulated rules. These people should therefore face the governmental bureaucrats instead
of letting guidelines to order intelligence and also successful intelligent leaders should be communal as opposed to secretive; sharing as opposed to stealing; thinking critically as opposed to silencing the opponents. Foddy (2008: 276) denotes that the residents of a nation should be very associated in the skills of intelligence. Government officials and stakeholders ought to be made responsible by the citizens for imprudent choices with appalling results for the forthcoming time and the providing of valuable intelligence to the society will assist them insist on making accountable decisions with regard to health of the public, the atmosphere, violence cultures, scarcity of water and energy as well as additional neo-modern pressures to the overall welfare.

3.3 THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR

The growth of the private security sector in Kenya is a post-colonial observable fact. There is no proof of the existence of private security organisations to any extent in Kenya during the colonial period (Ngugi et al. 2004: 83). According to Clapham (1999: 120), Ever since the colonial nation was run as a martial creation and presented a characteristic instance of the monopolisation of the means of domination in its safeguarding of law and order, this has always been the case. The security forces were the solitary entity allotted with the duty of upholding law and order and the stipulation of security to the citizens of the nation. Under colonialism, the notion of security was clear in a partial way. For example, security is observed in relation to deterrence of revolt by the local populace and something that was observed as a risk in opposition to the continuance of colonialism law (Reno. 1999: 130). The defence of the local populace at distinct and business heights was not seen as a main concern of the colonialism regime. The colonialism administration was very vexed with its own security as opposed to the security of the people (Holmqvist, 2005: 49).

According to Linz and Stephan (1996: 68), there is confirmation to point out that even in the colonialism era sole white colonisers employed protectors to protect their houses. Throughout the colonialism era in Kenya the colonisers dreaded
that the native populace could carry out criminal acts against them. The white settlers believed that it was more secure to employ a personal security guard to protect their houses during daylight and at night. The security guards may perhaps ring the alarm in event of an ambush. Therefore, most colonist houses had guards vetted by individual white home owners. A good number of white people possibly could have borrowed this idea from colonialism administrators whose homes were constantly under watch. This is because the local populace was prone to unlawful deeds (Bryden and Caparini. 2006: 178).

Sandoz(1999: 31) asserts that while it is tricky to establish the criminal rates during the colonialism era, facts proposes that the initial stages of private security through this epoch were aggravated by the dread of goods loss or likelihoods of corporeal forcefulness. Ottaway and Mair (2004: 15), append that the dread of the native inhabitants was grounded on mindfulness of the unfortunate relations it had with the colonisers’ populace. A dissimilar observation even though not essentially contradicting the former opinion, is that the employment of guards by colonisers was incorporated into the colonial determinants of class, the employment of guards was seen to be more of a community matter as opposed to a security issue.

Private security guards were as a result the building blocks of the private security sector in Kenya. Gradually, a changeover to enable private security firms to pay the security guards as opposed to being paid and recruited by persons. It was only in the after-colonialism era that the private security sector was established in Kenya (Ngugi, et al 2004: 1 17).These companies remained very minimal for the first two decades of independence. The causes for the advancement do not have any evidence anywhere as there is no documentation or evidence. The coming of independence came with many challenges for the employers (Kinsey, 2006: 13).

Allan (2008: 204) states that whereas in the colonial era colonist bosses had a freedom of doing things in a way the liked as far as work matters were
concerned, in the post-colonial age employees received a lot of compassion from officials and labour laws changed. Huntington (1993: 99) states that security guards were questioning their employers on wages and individual employers were called upon to be acquainted with the work regulations of the nation. Confronted with several disagreements and having to use up long time periods attending to these disagreements and being called to the work branches formed a lot of uneasiness for most managers. Allan (2008; 204), states that he is unsure of what precisely happened, but it emerges that individual employers were ready to present this responsibility to companies. In this way they were certain that they would no longer have to be concerned about all the labour issues related to recruiting and attending to the wage disagreements by the private security guards.

Many top global organisations and local ones rely on private security firms for the safety of their investments (Ngugi. et al 2004: 121). The security services rendered by these companies are well incorporated in the business and domestic area of Kenya. Schreier and Caparini (2005: 59) state that in other regions of the world these private security companies have turned out to be public safety and protecting public and private property in a widened variety of locations, including high-risk areas such as power plants, banks and embassies among many other high risk locations.

The debate on why the private security sector has developed so rapidly during the last decades has been the subject matter of academic attention. Allan (2008: 207) states that the significant shifts have occurred rather unexpectedly by mainly historical standards. It took close to a number of centuries for public policing to ascertain supremacy over privately hired security agents, and less than three decades to reserve the trend (Forst. 2000: 21). The rising private security industry in some countries now hires more personnel than the public police (Button, 2007: 110).
According to Bayley and Shearing (1996: 585), upcoming generations will look back at the present era as a time when one structure of policing ended and another took its place. Policing is no longer monopolised by the public police but offered by other institutions and most importantly by private companies on a commercial base. The law enforcement do not monopolise policing any longer as they used to as stated by Shearing, (2005: 59). Viewed previously. Bayley and Shearing (2001: 61) state that it could be debatable that the monopolisation of policing services by government is an anomaly. In the words of Zarate (1998: 78), the figurative domination on policing asserted by the present criminal justice state may possibly just be a historical malfunction in a longer-term pattern of multiple policing providers and markets in security. A noteworthy structural transformation lies in the scale of private policing (Zarate, 1998: 84).

Jones and Buzan, Waever and De Wilde (2002: 133-134) state that a public control has never really existed. The private security industry was comparatively well recognised even all through the golden age of public policing in the 1950s. The thought of a public domination over policing was as much a subject of image as of substance: the idea that sovereign states could warrant crime organised to their subjects has been a fable, and a powerful one. Jones and Buzan, Waever and De Wilde (2002: 134) additionally argue that present developments are better offered as the extension of a long-term development extending back several decades, rather than a sudden shift occurring in the last years of the twentieth century. According to Buzan, Waever and De Wilde (2001: 830), private security has always been with us.

Regardless of whether private security is a new experience or not, most scholars will concur that throughout the last decades private security has been expanding in significance and degree according to Strange (1996: 212). Diverse hypothetical arguments can be found in Literature, explaining this rising pre-eminence of private security. In the subsequent sections the different flows of influence on the privatisation of security will be followed as distinguished by
Buzan, Waever and De Wilde (2001: 835-842). Rodney (1992: 770), states that the deeper social changes of post modernisation are changing the role of the security institution within the whole collection of security processes, because for example the rise of public police itself was a model of modernisation.

3.3.1 The capacity of the state

Economic constraints are said to be a significant factor for the growth of private security (Zarate. 1998: 245). The economic crisis according to (Zarate. 1998: 245) is the end result of the breakdown of post-war corporatism commonly referred to as the budgetary restrictions experienced by the country which led to a shortfall in public funding for public security organisations. The consequential order gaps were filled by other providers, namely the private security sector (Buzan, Waever and Dc Wilde. 2001: 836). The development in private security is not merely a shift of tasks from the public to the private sector. Privatisation of security poses challenges to the manner both countries and markets have operated in the current system (Avant, 2005: 263).

Public spending on public security has been significantly augmented in the last decades. The capability of the state is nevertheless challenged hence the failure of the state to present security in adequate measure to restore confidence to the public (Zarate, 1998: 269; Forst, 2000: 42). Crime statistics, for example, are basically too high for the public policing institutions to deal with. This way, the state created a shortage in the provision of security which the market seeks to make good. The sum of public police officers has increased greatly through the last years and both the economic and political resources allocated to public policing are on the increase (Zarate. 1998: 269). As a result, Jones and Buzan. Waever and Dc Wilde conclude (1999: 228) the more sensible and influential position they suggest is that rising demands by the public have inspired the development of both the public and private sectors in policing.
3.3.2 Crisis of capitalism

A more fundamental analysis of the increase of private security sees the change taking place as associated to consecutive predicament of capitalism (Forst, 2000: 38). The guarding of profit has become increasingly more intricate, and the flexibility and softness required under late present conditions favour private over public provision (Avant. 2005: 34). Said differently, the reason of late capitalism involves and feeds on the commodification of security (Shearing and Stenning. 1983; Spitzer. 1975). A whole variety of governmental services are being privatised and security is for that reason just one further governmental segment that became a contender for privatisation (Forst. 2000: 38: Avant. 2005: 34-35). But. as Buzan, Waever and Dc Wilde (2001: 836) finds, this thought may be useful in understanding some of the transformation we witness, but it is basically incorrect that an effortless shift of functions between public and private sectors has taken place, although some parts of the security obligations have been privatised in some countries (Button. 2007: 110: Edmunds. 2001: 56). Together the public and private policing have developed. According to Weiss (2007: 3) though, the political wealth of private security has assumed different types and functions in response to the altering needs of capital and the revolution of the state.

Every era of free enterprise covered a unique security complex. The present era demands private security for running the surplus population in unsuccessful states that are incapable or reluctant to provide governmental security and for managing fright and insecurity in contemporary societies (Van Buuren. 2009: II). Abrahamsen (2005: 340) analyses the principles of security as a progression of capital accrual as vel1 as state strategy. Abrahamsen (2005: 340) states that on the one hand there is commercialisation of security, in which security is to be attained via the activities of capital and on the other hand the securitisation of capital, in which capital accrual is increasingly being conducted in the name of security.
3.3.3 New surveillance technologies

New technologies are often seen as gathering of information for commercial purposes. The consequence has been the speedy materialisation and development of markets in surveillance and control (Abrahamsen and Williams, 2009: 122). Private security companies employ all sorts of surveillance equipment such as CCTV (Wakefield. 2005: 530). Surveillance is defined as the key role in commercial security, linked to the broad task of providing information for risk analysis (Johnston. 1999: 189; Ericson and Haggerty. 1997: 93).

According to Abrahamsen and Williams (2009: 125) the amalgamation of security technologies and risk based views account for the development of particular parts of private security. Risk is a meticulous way of thinking in relation to and responding to possible dangers. Buzan, Weaver, and Wilde, (1997: 111) add that primarily calculative, risk works by scheming and controlling spaces, through the compilation of figures and the production of groupings of danger and by surveillance. Risk is, for that reason, a technique of approaching security that can be employed by private actors just as efficiently as by public ones. Risk in security develops the field of action and impact private security companies contributing to the potential trans-nationalisation of their skills and services (Abrahamsen and Williams. 2009: 125-126).

According to Ball (1999: 23), a different approach to view the function of technology in the development of private security is the arguments that privatisation and commodification of security can indeed assist governments make the most of progress in information technology in the civilian economy. By developing close relationships, the public security sector can optimise the technological spin on. A case in point is that privatisation will join the military with the civilian sector which is driving technological changes in the information era and will generate the most cost-efficient solutions (Avant. 2005: 32).
3.3.4 Spread of consumer culture

According to Mathews (1989: 223), security is a service to be consumed, it becomes a commodity. Such utilisation does not merely have to do with material satisfaction, but with influencing symbols to put up identity. However, public police administration makes the police more business-like. This is the image of the police as suppliers of a professional service and of the public as consumers of that service; the remaking of the police as an institution able of delivering like an responsive commercial enterprise a competent, efficient, prompt, courteous, value-for money, proficient, skilled, professional service to all its customers (Buzan, Waever and Dc Wilde. 2001: 899).

Harker (1998: 376-378) notes the contradiction in this rebranding of the police. On the one side the police attempt to mould down consumer demands for their services, thus stripping the police off their sanctified position as symbols of Law and Order. But in doing so, police have resorted to a discourse in which it is generally taken that consumers are autonomous; are offered a choice between alternatives; have preferences which can call for no explanation, and can exit with their custom if these preferences remain unsatisfied. Therefore, consumers’ risk deterioration and entrenchment of public disappointment in the police (Harker, 1998: 374). The citizens with the necessary income and the needed character are increasingly coming to see the attractions of being a client of the security industry rather than a client of the police.

The security market according to Harker (1998: 384-385), offers a way out from politics, that is break Out from the democratic necessities that are present at the fight for a share of public policing. Security market offers individuals the opportunity to become customers using their purchasing power to gain some private security for themselves, rather than citizens seeking to use their right to be heard to secure the services of the police (Buzan, Waever and Dc Wilde. 2001: 899). This way, private security is serving to plan, look forward to and bring forth a tribalised, neo-feudal world of private orders in which social togetherness
and common citizenship have collapsed (Harker. 1998: 384). The more the purchaser culture governs, the less human safety will be seen as an basic feature of relationships and the value of the relationship of citizens with others, which in turn will make it more complex to frame policing in ways that clarifies its connection to questions of social equality, fairness and integrity as contended by Harker (1998: 385).

3.3.5 Responsibility and risk society
The conception that a single sovereign authority possibly will rule all social life was improved in the last century by the establishment of a strong state and the expansion of a public police force which maybe a typically figurative specialized domination over the purpose of crime management (Kempa. Stenning & Wood. 2004: 560). This legend of sovereign crime management (Forrest and Murie. 1996: 448). However, proved untenable as the confines of the state’s capability to preside over social life became more and more evident. As a result a fresh orientation labelled as the responsibilisation strategy was formed which Forrest and Murie (1996: 452) defines as a political strategy based on making citizens liable for their own actions and encouraging communities to take dynamic roles in crime prevention and control.

This new approach of managing crime concerned the central government seeking to take action on crime not in a direct way but using state agencies, but by activating indirectly non-state agencies, organisations and civilians (Kempa. Stenning and Wood, 2004: 565). Expressions such as partnerships, activating communities or creating active citizens can be observed as feature of this latest approach. Its key endeavour is to entrust task of crime prevention to agencies, organisations and individuals who are relatively outside the country and to persuade them to act appropriately (Forrest and Murie. 1996: 452). The reasonable message being that the state on its own is not and cannot be in charge of preventing and controlling crime. Each person has to be acquainted
with that they have their own obligation in reducing crime opportunities and increasing informal control regardless of who they are in the society.

Baley and Shearing (1996: 591) clearly warn that responsibilisation should not be understood as the delegating of state functions, or essentially as the privatisation of crime control. On the contrary where the policy works, it leaves the state machine more influential than before, with an extensive capacity for action and influence (Bayley and Shearing, 1996: 591). Nevertheless, one of the costs of the responsibilisation strategy as stated by Bayley and Shearing (1996: 591-592) is the motivation of the market for private security and the wearing down of the symbolic view of the state as the public’s representative and chief protector. An additional reality that contributes to the motivation of private security in the circumstance of the policy of responsibilisation is that, as Kempa, Stenning and Wood (2004: 566) state, the existing neoliberalism perception is the operation of the market as the engine of dynamic citizenship.

The society and businesses are given the undertaking of being accountable in a meticulous circumstance and bearing towards the market as a result the strategy of responsibilisation is amalgamated into corresponding strategies of privatisation and public expenditure reduction (Forrest and Murie, 1996: 453). Zarate (1998: 269) argues, by rising the countries investments in protection and putting crime and risk at the peak of the political and societal agenda, governments generated insecurities and a feeling of insecurity that cannot be easily be assuaged. Successive governments have formed a black hole that the private security industry is no more than too content to stop and the state to see full.

3.3.6 Internationalisation

Small (2006: 144) contends that security has to be structured horizontally and to pay no attention to borders. Consequently the severity and determination of most states which still function hierarchically in an endeavour to defend their sovereignty, new systems of capitalist public and private companies have arisen
Private security agencies operate transversely across national borders, forming extensive security networks concerning the relations of both autonomous companies and mother companies directing their branches in other nations (Gerspacher and Dupont, 2007: 362-363). Similar views are echoed by Small (2006: 167) who affirms that, large private security firms run at an international level, advertising their services to multinational corporations, non-governmental organisations and governments. According to Gerspacher and Dupont (2007: 363) and Small (2006: 167-168), private security firms, put up for sale expertise and technologies until that time restricted to state security field. Some of the private security firms receive public funds to handle and deliver police support programmes overseas. In other countries, the government support agencies recurrently contract out police support programmes to private security consulting firms (Ottaway & Mair, 2004:67).

3.4 CONCLUSION
This chapter provided a review of the literature related to the study that illuminated the work which influenced this research and justified the need for the current study. The literature review for this study has covered the growth of the private security sector, and the development of the private security sector focusing on the capacity of the state, crisis of capitalism, new surveillance technologies, spread of consumer culture, responsibilisation and risk society, and internationalisation.

The next chapter, Chapter 4, is a discussion of relevant literature pertinent to the study as written and reviewed by other authors. The chapter delves into the growth of the private security sector in Kenya. The chapter looks at the dynamics behind the development and growth of the private security sector in Kenya. The chapter also provides the conceptual framework which identifies the variables under study and their relationships. The chapter further looks at the benefits and challenges facing private security firms.
CHAPTER 4
THE GROWTH OF THE PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR IN KENYA

4.1 INTRODUCTION
This chapter presents literature related to the study on the growth of the private security sector in Kenya. The chapter looks at the dynamics behind the development and growth of the private security sector in Kenya. The chapter also provides the conceptual framework which identifies the variables under study and their relationships. The chapter further looks at the benefits and challenges facing private security firms.

4.2 THE DYNAMICS BEHIND THE DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH OF THE PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR IN KENYA
Many scholars have juggled with the reasons behind the development and growth of private security firms in different countries of the world. Although several comparisons can be identified, it is not enough to make wide generalisations. In the case of Kenya, there are several factors behind the growth of the private security, which have a tendency of revolving around state, market, politics, and corruption issues (Gimore, 2001: 21). Wairagu, Kamenju, and Singo (2004: 34-36) state that development of Kenyan security companies had a lot to do with the longing by people to make sure that there is individual safety and that of their families and properties. From colonialism time into the independence period, Kenyans were attacked, robbed and in some cases killed while in their homes or carrying out their business. Therefore, there exists a direct correlation between the development and growth of the private security sector and the increasing crime levels (Mkandawire & Soludo, 1999:101).

The insecurity levels have increased as there are a big number of firearms in the unlicensed individuals’ hands. (Ngugi et al, 2004:53). A basis of concern has been the inability of the country to deal with the rising crime levels and people
have been forced to move more and more towards using private security. In addition, the development of the state’s economy has taken unparalleled angles (Richards and Smith, 2007:153). It is now impossible for the nation to effectively carry out its purpose of being a security shield thus there have emerged new actors in the security field according to Richards and Smith, 2007: 150-158).

The private provision of security and military services challenges conservative assumptions about the function of the nation state as the chief guarantor of security for its individuals (Holmqvist, 2005: 53). Failure of the nation to offer security aggravated different replies from citizens of Kenyan. The main response in the urban areas was to turn to private security firms while the main response in the rural areas was to form Community Policing Forums (Ngugi et al, 2004: 57). Ngugi et al (2004: 57) contend that these Community Policing Forums to a great extent operate outside the parameters of state security institutions as community based security agencies. Wairagu et al (2004: 76) state that the chief motivating factor behind the creation of community police forums is an increase of crime that has led to loss of property especially cattle. The area citizens became highly impatient with the inadequacy and bureaucracy of the Kenya Police as well as other state security institutions. The community therefore, took their security into their own hands and ended up forming a vigilante structure that was operating outside the legal structures of Kenya (Wairagu et al, 2004: 76).

The development of the private security sector in Kenya, especially from the 20th Century onwards, has been largely influenced by a change in global reasoning and practice on security (Ngugi et al, 2004: 48). With the marketisation of the public sphere, this has been the main case, which has come in the form of the ‘privatisation revolution’ (O'Brien, 1998: 67-69). This has gone hand in hand with the principle of globalisation and most world states have been affected. Privatisation is based on the notion that states can maximise their effectiveness and efficiency through comparative advantage and healthy competition. Thus, a belief in the superiority of the marketplace over government in the provision of
services is well represented. The most important product of this has been an increase in outsourcing of service provision (Gumedze, 2007: 77). Today, a huge number of services that were traditionally offered by the nation are now offered by private companies (Chan, 2007: 39).

4.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
Mugenda and Mugenda (2003: 31), define a conceptual framework as a hypothesised model identifying the notions under study and their relations. Figure 4.1 is the researchers own conceptualised relationship between variables in the proposed study. The study’s perceived functions of the private security sector for individuals and organisations, include in-house security; private investigation; loss prevention functions and site or mobile patrol functions. The model shall be put to the test so as to establish the significance of the proposed relationship.
Figure 1: Perceived functions of private security sector

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
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<td>(Outsourced services)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Site or mobile patrol functions</td>
<td>Safety and Security</td>
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<td>Loss prevention functions</td>
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<td>Special events security, Private investigation</td>
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<td>In-house security functions</td>
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One of the main functions of private security firms are offering the site and mobile patrol functions whereas loss prevention function is responsible for protecting monetary and tangible assets of both the individuals and companies (Tilly, 1987: 58). There are a number of private detectives/investigators who frequently work for insurance companies to investigate suspicious claims while a large number also work for attorneys in civil cases (Gumedze, 2007: 70). Many private investigators were initially hired to search for evidence of adultery or other misconduct within a marriage in order to establish grounds for a divorce, before
the introduction of no-fault divorces. According to Popplewell (2009: 89-91), the private security sector has come in handy because most of these roles executed by the firms in this sector.

A person who is usually privately and formally employed to protect property assets, or people is known as a security guard or security officer. Regularly, security officers wear uniforms and their duties involve protecting property by maintaining a high visibility presence to prevent illegal and inappropriate actions, observing (either directly, through patrols, or by watching alarm systems or video cameras) for signs of crime, fire or disorder; then taking action and reporting any events to their clients and emergency services as deemed necessary (Rigakos, 2002: 56). The ‘detect, deter, observe and report’ methodology is generally practiced by many security firms. Security officers are not tasked with the role of making arrests, but have the power to make a citizen’s arrest, or else act as an agent of law enforcement at the appeal of a police officer (Popplewell, 2009: 93). The principal duty of a private security officer is the prevention and avoidance of crime by implementing company regulations and can act to protect lives and property (Rigakos, 2002: 57). Security officers are also skilled to arrest unlawful individuals and control procedures (such as handcuffing and restraints), run emergency equipment, carry out first aid, take precise notes, write reports that are detailed, and execute other duties as needed by the client they are serving according to Pastor (2003: 98-102).

4.4 BENEFITS OF PRIVATE SECURITY FIRMS

The benefits that come about from the private security sector according to Abrahamsen and Williams, (2005: 56-59) and Bryden and Caparini (2006: 112-118) include the following:

4.4.1 Employment and the quality of staff

According to Wairagu, Kamenju, and Singo (2004: 14), the private security sector is a key employment source in Kenya, and it is presently projected that the sector
employs 48,811 people. Given the high dependency ratios in the country, it is further projected that that the industry provides indirect support to a total of 195,524 people (Wairagu, Kamenju, and Singo, 2004: 15). Private security provides the much needed employment, therefore playing a vital part of the economy. The regional headquarters for the United Nations are in Nairobi and taken together, international clients offer a substantial and particularly profitable market for private security companies (Bryden & Caparini, 2006: 112).

4.4.2 Regional expansion
There has been an expansion of a number of Nairobi-based private security companies into other East African countries and Kenyan companies have a noteworthy share of the private security market in a number of neighbouring countries. The early development and growth of the sector in Kenya has given companies a competitive advantage in countries such as Uganda, Tanzania and Rwanda, where the private security market is now growing (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2005: 56). The largest operations in East Africa are the KK Security which has their offices and human resources in Tanzania, Uganda, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Burundi, and Rwanda, where KK Security has almost 50 percent of the alarm producing market in Kigali, the capital of Rwanda (Gumedze, 2007: 55).

Gumedze (2007: 55) asserts that there is also a significant regional presence by the Security Group, with offices in Tanzania, Uganda, and Ethiopia. Likewise, Ultimate Security has established branches in Uganda and Tanzania, while Securex has offices in Uganda (Gumedze, 2007: 56). Presently, Kenya acts as a hub for the opening out of various humanitarian and development activities into southern Sudan and also the DRC, which presents new openings for PSCs with global organisations, NGOs and various types of extractive industries making up the bulk of prospective clients (Ngugi et al, 2004: 53). Currently, the only Kenyan company with operations in Goma and Bukavu in eastern DRC is KK Security.
The company is also considering going into the Sudan as their expansion strategy (Bryden & Caparini, 2006: 113).

4.4.3 Technological advancement
Abrahamsen and Williams, (2005: 57) put an emphasis on the notion that there is a move towards increasingly great, business and professionally-managed companies and is likely to have a significant force on the growth of the industry and the services it comes up with, mainly by forming economies of scale and by creating improved access to capital. There is also a universal agreement that the upper-end of the security market in Kenya is fast moving toward technological solutions and that the future may well be largely dominated by alarmed response services as opposed to the traditional manned guarding.

4.4.4 Industry associations
Currently, there are two rival industry associations in Kenya: the Kenya Security Industry Association (KSIA) and the Protective Services Industry Association (PSIA). Widely speaking, KSIA is an association of the larger companies, whereas PSIA consists of the medium to smaller PSCs (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2005: 58). KSIA is older than PSIA and currently has a membership of 21 companies. The main objective of KSIA is to set up and maintain high quality standards and good practices in the private security sector and also to offer a central organisation to work together with government, police and emergency services. Technical and operational standards that all members must comply with are specified in KSIA, with an aim of making KSIA membership a ‘seal of quality’ to its clients. In principle, KSIA’s membership is open to all PSCs, and check-ups are taken on to make certain that the standards are adhered to (Ngugi et al, 2004: 73). Companies have been disqualified for failing to fulfil the requirements in the past (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2005: 58-59).
4.5 CHALLENGES FACING PRIVATE SECURITY FIRMS

The start-up of security firms does not require any special license meaning that security companies in Kenya are registered in the same way as any other company. In addition, a large number of companies have not been registered at all. The companies differ significantly in size, with the greater percentage being small to medium-sized, owner-managed companies, which employ less than 100 workforce, according to Chan (2007: 103-107). Some of the problems that the private security sector faces as highlighted by the Global Coalition for Africa 1999/2000 Annual Report in Chan (2007: 103-107), include the following: affordability; the move towards regulation; lack of regulations and criminal activities; wages and working conditions; co-operation in the security sector; monitoring and review; co-operation with the police and regulatory issues.

4.5.1 Affordability

Abrahamsen & Williams (2005: 25) contend that the major markets for private security services are commercial clients, ranging from industries, banks, government agencies and commercial firms to embassies, international organisations, NGOs, and refugee camps. There are a full range of services offered by the leading companies including radio alarm response, satellite tracking, electronic intruder alarm systems, perimeter protection and access control, guard dogs, as well as in some cases fire and rescue services, whereas the a large number of companies offer only manned guarding for access control and perimeter patrol. Chan (2007: 103) states that, there is an expanding and growing business in cash-in-transit and cash management, as more and more clients become conscious of their vulnerability in an increasingly armed environment.

According to a study by Ngugi et al (2004: 66), the suburban market is comparatively small comprising of only 10.7 percent of total business. The suburban security is largely segmented and only a minority of private residences is capable of affording the services provided by the leading private security
sector companies. The cost of alarms and rapid response services in Nairobi currently stands at between 6 000-7 000 Kenyan Shillings\(^1\) (Ksh), while the addition of a 24-hour guard service will take the total monthly cost to around Ksh 50 000 (Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo, 2004: 41-43). Therefore, this service is outside the financial and economical reach of the huge majority of households and at the upper end, residential security services can only be afforded by the wealthy citizens, expatriates and staff of international organisations, embassies and others. Accordingly, the large proportion of people who are unable to afford some form of private security depend largely on the small, often unregistered companies, which provide guards at a high cost of between 3000-5000 shillings a month (Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo, 2004: 41-43).

4.5.2 The Move towards regulation
According to Chan (2005:104), the main duty for private security companies basically lies within the Minister of Internal Security, which is located in the Office of the President. However, at present there are no policies pertaining to the sector, and also there are no special requirements for the registration and licensing of private security companies. For this reason, it is a usual grievance among representatives of the sector that it is as effortless to set up a private security company as it is to open an ice cream kiosk and there is universal concern that this lack of policies and rules has led to a huge number of unethical companies, that provide poor services and callously exploiting their guard forces (Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo, 2004: 44).

4.5.3 Lack of regulations and criminal activities
Chan (2005:104-105) asserts that despite the size of the sector, there are no policies or necessities in terms of the training and selection of guards and the quality of training and services differs considerably from company to company. According to Gumede (2007: 67) most private security companies offer some training for their security guards, but there are a number of PSCs that place

\(^1\)Current exchange rate December 2014 1USD$ = approx. 90 Kenyan Shillings.
guards on duty with little or no knowledge of the essential security provision, while there are other PSCs that offer relative extensive courses. With the unevenness of training and standards, there have been raised alarms are frequently raised about the quality and integrity of security staff, with accusations that the security guards are working with the criminals (Chan, 2005: 104). Majority of the security companies claim that they carry out some form of recruitment selection and need potential employees to certify that they have no criminal record by providing a certificate of good conduct, they also freely acknowledge that the trustworthiness of this information is highly questionable.

The Kenya Security Industry Association (KSIA) needs all its members to subscribe to ‘Staff Check’, a database that includes information on their workforce, including guards previously employed by PSCs or laid-off for misconduct (Ngugi et al, 2004: 60). This is done as part of the companies’ effort to make sure that higher quality and standards are maintained. Members of the Protective Security Industry Association (PSIA) are not required to subscribe to this service and it is clear that the quality of selection and background checking of prospective human resource is highly unpredictable between companies (Ngugi et al, 2004: 60). There has been an increased concern over the crash between guards and organised criminal activities, the selection process and background checks are of essential importance to the sector’s reputation (Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo, 2004: 42).

### 4.5.4 Wages and working conditions

Currently, the most important, and most controversial, area of government regulation of the private security sector is the prerequisite of a minimum wage according to Chan (2005: 105). Providing guard services is an infamously low-paid occupation and this is also the case in Kenya, where guards often work very long hours for very small salary. In May 2003, as a way of containing the level of exploitation, the government introduced a new minimum wage for the private security sector. This brought the minimum wage for a guard to Ksh 9469, and it
includes monthly housing and other allowances, (Ngugi et al, 2004:53). According to Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo (2004: 44) an ordinary practice in many firms is to pay their security guards different remuneration depending on which agreement they have been given, thus causing considerable dissatisfaction, as guards at the same level of experience can earn very different remuneration. This practice also means that the security guards are at high risk of losing out when there is an increase in competition that forces the security companies to reduce their wages. Declaration of a minimum wage for the sector is one of the most contentious issues in the security industry today, making majority of these companies to refuse to publicly to adhere to the Legal Notice (Gumedze, 2007: 26).

Gumedze (2007: 26) point out that working conditions for guards also differ significantly for example, some of the guards have a normal working day with 12 hours and one day off per week or per fortnight while others report no overtime, and in addition no annual leave. In the same way, Gimode (2001: 64) points out that there is a problem with the lack of insurance and social benefits for guards as well as the little enforcement and control of working conditions. It is also important to note that guarding is a very risky profession in Kenya. While criminals often carry firearms, machetes and other weapons, the guards are only issued with a baton and a whistle. As an outcome, attacks and violence towards security guards are not rare according to Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo, (2004: 54-55). Whereas guards are often given instructions to retreat and wait for police aid when faced with aggressive and/or armed intruders, it is clear that they remain a first line of defence and hence at danger from the violence. In such situations, a lot of organisations express concerns that police regulations make it hard to issue guards with body armour, as this entails a firearms certificate (Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo, 2004: 55).
4.5.5 Co-operation in the security sector

According to Ngugi et al (2004: 83) regardless of Kenya’s very high and increasing crime and insecurity levels, there is remarkably little co-operation and co-ordination of security projects. The connection between the police and the private sector is often characterised by competition and doubt and a lack of regulations consistency undermines oft-stated needs to attain greater co-ordination and effectiveness. A lack of obvious direction from the police and/or the government over the suitable duty of private security and the association between the public and private security sectors has made this situation worse, as have divisions within the private security industry itself. Efforts are underway currently, supported and funded by the government, to form a security working group as an initial step toward increased clarity and co-operation among the key stakeholders and participants in the security sector (Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo, 2004: 75-76). If successful, this procedure could play a vital role in forming a forum for discussion and planning for the future course of security provision in Kenya.

4.5.6 Monitoring and review

Since there are currently no governments monitoring or reviewing processes for PSCs, this function falls to the industry relations. To a significant extent, KSIA carries out this responsibility with respect of its own members. PSIA is also seeking to enforce these specialised standards, but as of yet no processes and plans exist (Chan, 2007: 105). The extent to which the proposed Private Security Regulatory Authority will be capable of monitoring and reviewing PSCs remains to be seen. Nonetheless, the government’s irregularities in regards to the minimum wage issue give no reason for optimism (Richards and Smith, 2007: 151).

4.5.7 Co-operation with the police

Richards and Smith (2007: 41) affirms that the connection between private security providers and the public police is crucially vital in the effective delivery of
security. In Kenya, this association is highly influenced by the lack of any clear regulatory framework for the private sector, and the absence of a clear and consistent regulatory framework structuring the public-private security bond (Ngugi et al, 2004: 73-76). This is in part a result of different levels of police authority that make detailed arrangements with private security providers in their regions and is also in part due to variations in leadership and the police reform procedures that are currently in process according to Ngugi et al (2004: 75). Because of these reasons, there is at present very minimal formalised collaboration between the public and the private security sectors (Chan, 2007:106; Piazza, 2007:81). Wairagu, Kamenju and Singo, (2004: 45) emphasise that a high degree of suspicion is also in existence, with the private security guards regarded as frequent law-breakers by the police and PSCs being quick to point out the connection of criminal activities by the police officers. Presently, a number of diverse forms of collaboration exist between the police and the PSCs, but most of these are ad-hoc, unexplained and not formalised. The most straightforward collaboration is possibly the co-operation with the division of the Kenyan Police Force known as the Administration Police, where the armed force is for hire to clients, including embassies, banks, supermarkets and PSCs (Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo, 2004: 66).

4.5.8 Regulatory issues
The key problem facing the Kenyan private security sector is the advancement of a policy framework for licensing and monitoring, which will make sure there are higher standards and quality of service as indicated by Ngugi et al (2004: 89). It is also critical that plans are taken to enhance the safety of security guards. There is an obvious worry across the PSC sector that it’s their security guards being unarmed is becoming highly insufficient in a setting of increasing crime and violence. A number of organisations appear to avoid the problem by arming a small number of their guards through individual firearms licenses, a process that is not illegal but also not officially recognised (Chan, 2007:106).
Gumedze (2007: 116) contend that some private security industry representatives support such a selective use of firearms as a future model, where a small number of highly-trained constituent of some PSCs are given permission to work in a restricted armed-response capability, but acknowledge that this would necessitate effective regulation and oversight. While majority of PSCs are emphasising that arming the security sector is highly risky, a large proportion of the same PSCs show very minimal eagerness of arming their guards. Instead, they offer an answer that entails closer collaboration with the police. This is also the place maintained by both the KSIA and the PSIA (Wairagu, Kamenju & Singo, 2004: 48).

The level to which the PSCs can be monitored and reviewed by the proposed Private Security Regulatory Authority remains to be seen, but the government’s inconsistency in regards to the minimum wage does not give any reason for optimism. Most significantly, virtually all thriving regulatory structures for the private security sector depend upon a high level of involvement by the industry. However, in the eyes of some industry participants, efficient moves to control the Kenyan sector are likely to worsen divisions within it, whereas guidelines that avoid acrimony are not likely to be successful. It will thus be very hard for the government to introduce a successful regulatory regime if there are issues that deep and have not been resolved that persist within the industry (Mkandawire & Soludo, 1999:108).

4.6 THE PUBLIC SURVEILLANCE FUNCTIONS OF PRIVATE SECURITY
The growth of mass private property across the globe is identified by Shearing and Stenning (1981: 55) as an important factor in the growth of private security in both size and profile, as assets owners have recognised the profitable advantages of employing their own security forces. They are not only capable of specifying the functions performed by the security staff, but to authorise these officers to sustain conditions of right of entry to the property, and to keep out any visitors who breach these conditions, since in ordinary law countries, the law
gives property owners the right to choose who may enter and remain on their property. For the mass private property owner, efficient utilisation of private security services can be done owing to economies of scale and a comparative immunity to a free rider effect in their investment in security (Gimode, 2001: 90).

According to Bryden and Caparini (2006: 35) rather than depending upon support from the police, resorting to private methods of order maintenance makes property owners to be better placed to make certain that policing strategies within their territories go together with their profit-maximisation goals. Kinsey (2006: 19) argues that, for the commercial client of private security, any policing policy must be proven effective on cost, since a business will not take on a security solution that is more costly than the main predicament. Therefore, in general, companies will look to stop a loss rather than try to recover the loss incurred, and to make changes to the current state of affairs in which any problems arise, rather than to draw on the slow and expensive criminal justice procedures in search of sanctions. In Jones and Buzan, Waever and De Wilde (2002: 30) views, private security human resources and the security hardware that they have at their disposal (for example, radio communication and closed circuit television (CCTV) technology), have become essential to the successful governance of such territories, making possible a pre-emptive move to security in contrast with the reactive style of state police agencies.

Shearing and Stenning (1981: 13) see ‘surveillance’ as being the vital feature of the work of security workforce, as seen in many features that independently may appear to be too small to warrant this label. These include the appearance of not being backed by authority, a continuous presence, a low visibility, a generally unskilled status, membership of the institutional structures that they operate to control, an infrequent recourse to physical coercion and an integrative rather than a segregative approach. Howe (1998: 99) argues that the preventative goals of private security are aided by their unlimited access to the regions that they are engaged to patrol. Forst (2000: 32) carries an implied hypothesis that the guards
will have entry to the whole area to be watched, a responsibility that is now more attributed to the private sector than the public police force that he created.

Research by Norris and Armstrong (1999: 60-62) and McCahill (2002: 48) on the operational practices of closed circuit television (CCTV) camera operators in municipal CCTV schemes in the UK, shows how people are vetted for observation, increasing queries into the ethics of procedures which target known offenders and people engaging in non-criminal anti-social behaviour; those emerging or behaving in a different way in relation to area or temporal standards, or those who seem to query the existence of cameras by gesture or behaviour, in each case before someone has committed the offence. When a violation has taken place within a large private property setting, a person may be requested to leave the building. Yet Von Hirsch and Shearing (2001: 14) equate the exclusion of people from privately prohibited open and unrestricted spaces with punishment without trial and see it as an uneven punishment when that exclusion is long-term or permanent. Gray and Gray (1999: 90) argue for an acknowledgment in English courts of the rule that public members should have ‘reasonable access’ or unrestricted access to such spaces, referring to cases in the US and everywhere else where the rule has been upheld and affirming that property rights allow arbitrary exclusion are unsuitable to contemporary property relations.

The endorsement of inter-agency partnerships in the control policy of crimes has escalated a blurring of agencies’ operational restrictions, as well as a movement away from a crime control agenda that focuses on the spectacle of discovery and sentence. Forrest and Murie (1996: 43) described this tendency as developing part of a governmental responsibilisation strategy, in which central government looks to endorse action by non-state agencies and organisations, with crime control no longer being regarded as the core duty of the skilled police officer or other criminal justice agents but as property that is shared. For Ericson (1994: 167), the drift towards responsibilisation strategies and away from a punishment-based criminal justice system, is greatly reflects the wider development of risk
management, whereby, ‘The concern is minimal with the labelling of criminals as outsiders, and more on developing a knowledge of everyone to ascertain and manage their place in society’ (Ericson, 1994:168). As part of this tendency, Johnston (2000: 57) noted a rising orientation within the police towards gathering of information, proactive intervention, anticipatory engagement, systematic surveillance and rational calculation of results, demonstrating ‘an ethos comparable to that found in the commercial security sector.’ Thus, the activities of security workforce have become increasingly well-matched with the goals of the police, and the empirical research has offered a chance to see the extent to which inter-agency collaboration was occurring with respect to the security workforce in three mass private property settings.

4.7 VALUES INSIDE PRIVATE SECURITY

Diverse appreciations of private security can be found in the literature. According to Percy (2006: 17), criticism of the private security industry is generally founded on its for-profit nature, which is often blamed for putting the outcome and efficiency over ethics, and the search of the private interests of the user at the expense of the general public good. Chanaa (2002: 6-11) for instance, refers to the many instances of illegal, unprofessional and unethical behaviour of private security officials. As pointed out by Mandel (2001: 134), there has been an increase in suspected and reported incidents of the bugging of premises by private investigators as well as breaking and entering, taking hostage or gaining private information from the police.

Forst (2000: 55) gives a warning that the possibility for incompetence and misbehaviour is huge. The screening and vetting for private hiring is often sloppy and there is no training, thus resulting in the employing of the security workforce that has gun incidents, criminal records, brutal confrontations on the street due to lack preparedness, and the bankruptcy of private agencies that are scrupulous or managed poorly (Chanaa, 2007: 117). According to Schneider (2006: 305), the classified and for-profit nature of the private security work gives many chances
for specialised duplicity, malpractice, and unethical, unprofessional and even unlawful activities by private investigators. Writing on the experiences in Poland with the emergence of the private security sector, Los (2002: 175), states that from its introduction, this emerging industry has inter-linked ex-communist power networks that share general interests with various global networks involved in gathering of intelligence, organised crime, and dubious banking and business operations. The industry has attracted a large percentage of the former secret services and regular police workforce, as well as many communist and post-communist police chiefs, army and secret police generals and other high officials. The communist operatives came with secret information, expertise, equipment, political connections, informer networks and the willingness to use violence (Los, 2002: 176).

Button (2007: 11) sees two major concerns namely: the infiltration by those with unwanted character into the industry and the poor performance principles. Few public examples are witnessed amongst private investigators. The 1983 Australian Law Reform Commission’s report into privacy in Chesterman and Lehnardt (2007: 56) established that private personnel can be tempted strongly to engage in infringements of privacy. It therefore made a conclusion that private personnel might commit intrusion, might get and reveal information in circumstances amounting to an infringement of confidence in the legal sense and might also breach legislation aimed at making some activities illegal. These activities include those that relate to introduction of telecommunications, revealing of official secrets, and the use of listening devices (Chesterman & Lehnardt, 2007: 56).

According to Prenzler & King (2002: 5) the 1992 New South Wales Independent Commission against Corruption inquiry, revealed that private inquiry personnel acted as the intermediaries in a huge trade in classified information. Van Steden and Sarre (2007: 12) point out on the private security guards’ poor public image as they are regarded typically as unskilled, morally wrong, dishonest and shady
‘wannabe’ cops. The nature of this trendy representation of the industry is stimulated by North-American studies on private security which reveal guards and private investigators as ageing, marginally paid, uneducated and quickly trained males, some of whom are criminals or have a criminal record (Avant, 2005: 33).

According to Zarate (1998: 272), illegal histories, unlawful activity and the resort to hostility, are the common incidence of individuals who work in the security sectors of guarding, patrolling, door stewards and cash transit. Local criminals are cautious to become involved in the security industry, not only because it is profitable in its own right but also because it provides access to illegal markets. Zarate (1998: 260), sees it as less the threat of violent behaviour or extortion than the scope for fiscal impropriety that puts into query just what security is given by the private sector. According to Zarate (1998: 272), in the most troublesome cases, organisational security is bought openly at the cost of the security of others. Marx (1995: 88) promotes a more nuanced insight, stating that private agents, standing between a legal system that is not always fine and users who are not always bad, have a distinctive idea and freedom. Neither cops nor crooks, their state can be very powerful, even if fraught with moral ambiguity and temptation.

Mandel (2001: 129) focused on the private security industry within South Africa’s borders. To some individuals, private security means criminals, yet, to others, it means private military companies (PMCs) and private security companies (PSCs) (Chesterman and Lehnardt, 2007: 29). Rightly or wrongly, a lot has been written down on PSCs and PMCs and their relation with criminal activities (Richards & Smith, 2007: 48). Sometimes, PMCs or private military outfits (and not necessarily PSCs) are irresponsibly compared to mercenaries without any consideration of the duty they play in the contemporary security architecture (Hanggi, 2005: 145).
In 2006, the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) embarked on a project entitled Regulation of the Private Security Sector in Africa that was supported by the International Research Development Centre (IDRC) of Canada, under project 103396 (Richards & Smith, 2007: 51-56). The main focus of the project was the private security sector in South Africa, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Uganda. The research reports were published and shared with policy regulators, including the African Union, with an aim of contributing to a revision of the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) 1977 Convention for the Elimination of Mercenarism in Africa. During the earlier project, the ISS identified areas for further study, including the private security sector's role in African conflicts, peacekeeping and charitable aid operations (Richards & Smith, 2007: 51-56).

One of the tribulations noticed by researchers is the issue of purchasing power on the private security market. If private security and justice is directed through the market, it will not result in the communal aim of uniform justice for all, as those lacking in purchasing power are systematically barred from participation (Kempa, 1999: 205; Avant, 2005: 220). How can the 'poor' take part in purely market based approaches to enclave governance? One of the 'ironies' of private security is that it is least affordable by the very neighbourhoods that tend to need it the most. Forst (2000: 45), states that wealthy communities are generally willing and able to tax themselves more for public police and to buy more private protection. As Forrest and Murie (1996: 463), asserts, once security stops to be guaranteed to all citizens by a sovereign state, it has a tendency of becoming a commodity, which, like any other product, is distributed by market forces rather than according to necessity. The grouping that suffers most from crime has a tendency of being the poorest and the least powerful members of society and will usually not have the resources to buy security. This discrepancy between rich and poor will tend to push society towards a fortified, set apart society and the end of any left-over civic ideal (Forrest and Murie 1996: 463). The accessibility of private security in an open market-place permits privileged people and
companies to purchase more protection than their less privileged counterparts (Van Steden & Sarre, 2007: 11).

Van Steden and Sarre (2007: 11) point at the increase of security enclaves or gated communities that would, due to their exclusionary nature, cause more insecurity. When individuals draw back from wider society into their fortified, feudal-like enclaves, there is no promise that their feelings of nervousness and unease will be reduced. Paid private security has a tendency of sweeping marginalised segments of the community out of fortunate spaces occupied by the rich (Kempa, Stenning & Wood, 2004: 564). Bayley and Shearing (1996: 593) also recognise the challenges of private policing favouring organisations and people that are well-to-do. There is likely to be unfair distribution of security along class lines if private policing is not balanced by public policing. They predict another crisis encapsulated in private policing: the affluent sectors of society who pay most of the taxes may remove resources from the public sector, arguing that they were paying two times for security once to the administration and once to engaged private security. There is some evidence that can be established that the ‘chronic’ under policing of lower-and-middle-income areas in the United States is the effect of this tendency towards tax reduction. “Without doubt, the people who are most interested in tax reduction are those who feel fairly secure and expend most of their time in privately protected places” (Bayley & Shearing 1996: 593).

A similar criticism is given by Singer (2003: 226) in the case of private military firms. When marketed, security is over and over again not about collective good, but about private means and ends. The privatisation of security threatens strengthening sectors inside nations is necessary for any thriving system. When security is turned into a product that can be purchased or sold, society is, in effect, polarised. The rich are favoured essentially. Producing closed-off enclaves engages the setting of interior boundaries. Such privatised enclaves are in a
sense an abandonment of the communal empire in security. They symbolise a ‘secession of the successful’ from the rest of people (Singer, 2003: 227).

Academics, however, while agreeing that private policing can increase to a division between wealthy and underprivileged in the security delivery, argue that the ways out are readily available and that private policing also could be beneficial for society. Shearing (2005:61) for instance, argues that a decrease of the police role and status may not confirm to be a terrible thing. It will simply mean, from a past perspective, that a bump that had been very dominant for an epoch in the governance of security moved from the centre of the field to the border and that this nodule had simply established itself to be inappropriate than other nodes that were more flexible and more inventive in responding to the issues of governance as viewed by Shearing (2005: 62).

There are three ways that can be illustrated to stop the division between wealthy and poor in the security provision (Bayley & Shearing 1996: 593). First and foremost, the numbers of traditional police may be increased in underprivileged high-crime areas. However, the Bayley and Shearing (1996: 593) state that this could also be unlikable for the underprivileged, because it could lead to an intensification of customary law enforcement. Secondly, the community police can take on the public policing model for economically underprivileged high-crime areas. Neighbourhood and order-maintenance policing includes many of the adaptive, consensual, product-oriented duties of private security. Lastly, the public themselves might come up with their crime-preventing capabilities.

Traditional responsibility mechanisms are often said to be in poor condition to the morphology of safety networks (Dupont, 2004: 83). Existing policy means are more often than not focused on the works of solitary firms or people operating in well-defined areas or domains, but they do not appear to be well prepared to handle mergers of interests transcending these boundaries. According to Buzan, Waever and De Wilde (2001: 844), the rise in marketisation of crime control increases vital problems about the leadership of private security.
4.8 CONCLUSION

Previous research has been done on the concept of private security sector but not totally. Some or most of the research was able to examine the regulation of private security sector for example in 2006 the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) embarked on a project entitled ‘Regulation of the Private Security Sector in Africa’ while Mandel (2001: 139) focused on the private security industry within South Africa’s borders. Van Steden and Sarre (2007: 11) indicated the increase of gated neighbourhoods or security enclaves that may be due to the exclusionary nature or insecurity of the public. When citizens retreat from the larger community into their fortified, feudal-like enclaves, there is no assurance that their feelings of nervousness and restlessness will be reduced. According to Buzan, Waever and De Wilde (2001: 844), the rise in marketisation of crime control increases vital problems about the leadership of private security. These examples show that there is insufficient information on private security sector that calls for a study such as this.

From the studies described above no clear conclusions on the development and growth of the security sector have been drawn while not much information concerning the role and the impact of private security sector is available. There are also conflicting outcomes on the meaning of private security and how it should be utilised by administration to protect its citizens’ security and safety. On the other hand, some authors such as Gumedeze (2007: 23-35); Richards and Smith (2007: 5); Foddy (2008: 18-20); and Wakefield (2005: 3) even came up with different outcomes within their studies depending on the goals of private security companies. By focusing on each single country and dealing with particular subjects at a given time, brought out inconsistencies which this research will try to overcome, as well as the possible errors and prejudices of former research as discussed above and come up with conclusive recommendations on this area of study.
This chapter comprised of a discussion of relevant literature to the study as written and reviewed by other authors. The chapter delved into the growth of the private security sector in Kenya, the dynamics behind the development and growth of the private security sector in Kenya and the conceptual framework which identifies the variables under study and their relationships. The chapter further looked at the benefits and challenges facing private security firms.

The next chapter, Chapter 5 presents the findings of the study. The chapter is a discussion on the data analysis, presentation and interpretation of the study. The chapter covers the response rate, respondents’ demographic data, and development, growth, role and impact of private security sector in Kenya.
CHAPTER 5
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION
In this chapter the key issues related to data presentation, analysis and interpretation are discussed. This chapter is presented in three different sections. In the first section, the research response rate is computed and presented. In the second section, the demographic characteristics of the participants were described. The third section presents and interprets the findings on the four key objective areas of the study. The responses were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The data has been presented in tables, graphs and charts.

5.2 THE STUDY RESPONSE RATE
Out of 67 questionnaires which had been administered to the interviewees, 61 of them were returned for analysis. This translates to a 91 percent return rate of responses. Overall, the response rate was considered very high and adequate for the study as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of the respondents by responses rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response Rate</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Returned</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>91.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Returned</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Issued</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS
The respondents in this section of the study were from private security firms in Kenya. The categories were characterised by gender, age, marital status and
home language. Also the constituency where the respondents lived; the constituency where they worked; rank, academic qualification before joining private service; highest academic qualification reached; occupation before joining the private security service; the year the company was established; ownership of company and length of service. The summary of the private security firms’ distribution by gender is given in Table 2.

**Table 2: Distribution of respondents by gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>96.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the data shown in Table 2, out of 61 respondents who participated in the study, 59 (96.7%), the majority, were males, while two (3.3%) were female. The findings could be an indication that most of the private security firms in Kenya have majority males in administrative positions. The distribution of the respondents who are the private security firms’ Managing Directors or Heads of Security by age is given in Table 3.

**Table 3: Distribution of respondents by age**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 20 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28-32 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33-37 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38-42 years</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43-47 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Group</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48-52 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 52 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>61</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from the data shown in Table 3, that the majority of the private security firms’ Managing Directors or Heads of Security (21) fell in the age bracket of 38-42 years (34.4%); 19 are aged 43-47 years (31.1%); 12 are aged 33-37 years (19.7%); six are aged 28-32 years (9.8%), three are aged 48-52 years (4.9%) and none is aged below 20 years or above 52 years of age. The findings reveal that the private security firms in Kenya are headed by able people who by their age are fit for duty and are also assumed to have necessary experience age wise in security matters. The distribution of the respondents by marital status is given in Figure 2.

**Figure 2: Distribution of the respondents by marital status**

![Marital Status Chart](image)
The results in Figure 2 indicate 3.3 percent of the respondents are single, 83.6 percent are married, 9.8 percent are separated while 3.3 percent are divorced. The findings reveal that majority of the respondents represented by 83.6 percent are married. The findings herein give an implication that management of private security managers can be assumed to be responsible people who take security with firmness bearing in mind they are family people and possibly would want the environment to be safe for their own in turn serving diligently. The distribution of the private security firms by the home language used is given in Figure 3.

**Figure 3: Distribution of the respondents by home language**

![Pie chart showing the distribution of respondents by home language.]

The results in Figure 3 indicate that the majority (36) of the Managing Directors or Heads of Security in private security firms use both English and Kiswahili.
languages (59.0%) while 25 use English as their home language (41.0%). The findings imply that are well educated and can communicate well with clients and staff with no breakdown of communication. The distribution of the respondents by the constituency or area in which they live in is given in Table 4.

Table 4: Distribution of respondents by constituency they live in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constituency lived in</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Embakasi</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kasarani</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Langata</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makadara</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starehe</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamukunji</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dagoretti</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westlands</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>61</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 4 indicate that the majority (14) of the private security firms’ Managing Directors or Heads of Security live in Langata; nine of the respondents live in Makadara constituency (14.8%); eight of the respondents live in Embakasi and Starehe constituencies with a combined percentage of 26.1 percent. Seven of the respondents live in Kamukunji and Westlands Constituencies with a combined percentage of 23.0 percent, while four of the respondents live in Kasarani and Dagoretti Constituencies with a combined percentage of 13.2 percent. The distribution of the respondents by the area where they are work stationed, is given in Table 5.
Table 5: Distribution of the respondents by area their work is stationed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constituency stationed in</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Embakasi</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kasarani</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Langata</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makadara</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starehe</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamukunji</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dagoretti</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westlands</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>61</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 5 indicate that the majority (18) of the private security firms’ Managing Directors or Heads of Security are stationed in the Starehe Constituency, with 14 of the respondents stationed in the Westlands Constituency (23.0%) and 13 of the respondents stationed in the Makadara Constituency (21.3%). Seven of the respondents are stationed in Embakasi Constituency (11.5%); four of the respondents are stationed in Kamukunji Constituency (6.6%); three of the respondents are stationed in Langata Constituency while one of the respondents is stationed in Kasarani and Dagoretti Constituencies with a combined percentage of 3.2 percent. The findings reveal that private security firms are almost evenly distributed in the Capital City of Kenya revealing they can reach the needs of all citizens across the economic divide. The distribution of the respondents by rank are given in Figure 4.
The results in Figure 4 indicate that the majority (35) of the respondents who participated in the study are Managing Directors, therefore 57.0 percent, while 26 of the respondents are Heads of Security in the private security firms (42.0%). The findings reveal that management of private security firms have the same shared knowledge, which is key to the success of any organisation.

The study sought to establish the job functions of the respondents. The following were some of the responses given by the respondents. The responses include:

- to head the security operations of the firm;
- monitoring progress of the firm;
- control the operations of the firm;
- ensuring all the annual business plans and budget are achieved;
- and planning, controlling, implementing and managing the company’s business growth, operational effectiveness, administration and financial performance;
- co-ordinating the security guards;
• leading operational risk management activities to enhance the value of the firm;
• developing and monitoring programs to address the welfare of the employees of the firm;
• creating a culture for success and performance of the firm;
• managing business growth;
• managing and ensuring excellent customer relations;
• identifying protection goals, objectives and metrics consistent with the corporate strategic plan;
• managing the development and implementation of the security policies, standards, guidelines; procedures to ensure ongoing maintenance of security;
• working with external consultants as appropriate for independent security audits; and
• overseeing incident response planning as well as investigating security breaches and assisting in disciplinary and legal matters associated with such breaches where necessary.
• The distribution of the respondents by qualifications before they joined the private service is given in Figure 4.
Figure 5: Qualifications before joining private security service

The results in Figure 5 indicate that the majority (36) of the respondents joined the private service with an undergraduate degree (59.0%); 15 of the respondents joined the private service with a post-graduate degree (24.6%); six of the respondents joined with a higher diploma qualification (9.8%) and 4 of the respondents joined with a diploma (6.6%). The findings reveal that majority of private security firms in Kenya are run by educated personnel which is a good sign in corporate governance towards success of the private security industry in Kenya. The distribution of the respondents by highest educational qualifications achieved so far is given in Figure 6.
The results in Figure 6 indicate that more than half (42) of the respondents attained a post-graduate degree (68.9%) as their highest academic qualification. The figure further reveals that 15 of the respondents have attained an undergraduate degree (24.6%) and four of the respondents attained a higher diploma qualification (6.6%) as their highest academic qualification. The findings imply that the majority of the Managing Directors and Heads of Security in the private security firms so far attained advanced their academic achievements and are therefore well qualified for the positions they hold. The findings imply that majority of private security firms in Kenya are managed by well-educated personnel, which is a good indication in corporate governance towards success.
of the private security industry in Kenya. The distribution of the respondents by occupation before joining the private security service are given in Table 6.

**Table 6: Distribution of respondents by occupation before joining the private security service**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Security Service</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cargo Handler</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneur</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Worker</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineer</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountant</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditor</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT technician</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>61</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 6 indicate that the majority (24) of the private security firms’ Managing Directors or Heads of Security were in security service before joining the private security service (39.3%). Fourteen of them were entrepreneurs (23.0%), while four of the respondents were engineers, auditors and IT technicians with a combined percentage of 19.8% before joining the private security service. The table further shows that three of the respondents were accountants (4.9%) before joining the private security service, two of the respondents were social workers and in human resource with a combined percentage of (6.6%) before joining the private security service. Only one respondent was a cargo handler (1.6%) before joining the private security service. The findings give an indication that a majority of private security firms’
Managing Directors or Heads of Security were in the security service before they joined their current private security firms. The distribution of the private security firms by years in operation since establishment is shown in Figure 7.

**Figure 7:** Firms years in operation since establishment

![Figure 7: Firms years in operation since establishment](chart.png)

The results in figure 7 reveal that more than half of the respondents (34) indicated that their companies were established 1-10 years ago (57.4%); 17 of the respondents indicated they were established 11-15 years ago (27.9%); five of the respondents indicated that the companies were established over 20 years ago (8.2%) and four of the respondents indicated that the companies were
established 16-20 years ago (6.6%). The findings reveal that in between 1-10 years ago there has been a rise in demand for private security in Kenya which is evident by the number of firms established in that period. This gives an indication that out of the demand for private security there has been growth in the private security industry in Kenya. The same findings could imply that citizens of Kenya have found public security not enough to cater for their needs hence the demand and establishment of half of the private security firms during the same period. The distribution of the respondents by ownership of the private security firm is given in Figure 8.

**Figure 8: Ownership of the company**
The results in Figure 8 indicate that the majority (58) of the private security firms are locally owned (95.0%) while only three of the private security firms are foreign owned (4.9%). The findings reveal that private security in Kenya is majorly owned by local investors implying that security experts in Kenya are capable to handle internal security issues and providing the private security services to the citizens. The distribution of the respondents by their length of service in the private security service is presented in Table 7.

### Table 7: Respondents length of service in the private security service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Service</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10 years</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 20 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>61</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings in Table 7 indicate that the majority of the respondents (25) have been in the private security service for 1-10 years (41.0%); 18 of the respondents have been in the private security service for 11-15 years (29.5%); nine of the respondents have been in the private security service for 16-20 years (14.8%). Table 7 further revealed 11.5 percent of the respondents have been in the private security service for more than 20 years while 3.3 percent have been in service for less than one year (3.3%). The findings reveal that majority of private security managers or heads have been in the private security service for a long period of time indicating they have experience and expertise in the private security sector.
5.4 DEVELOPMENT, GROWTH, ROLE AND IMPACT OF PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR

This section looks at the development, growth, role and impact of private security sector which is the objective of the study. Comments from the respondents on the development and growth of security firms in Kenya since 2009 are given in Table 8.

**Table 8: Development and growth of security firms witnessed in Kenya since 2009**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Development and growth of security firms witnessed in Kenya since 2009</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>61</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from the data shown in Table 8 that all of the respondents, 61 (100.0%) agreed that there has been development and growth of security firms witnessed in Kenya since 2009. From the findings on the number of years the private security firms were established has revealed growth and development in the private security sector in Kenya which Table 8 findings support. Some of the responses as to how the private security firms have developed are the following: there has been an introduction of different services in different firms such as the prevention of unauthorised activity or entry, traffic regulation, access control and fire and theft detection and prevention. These services can be broadly described as the protection of personnel and/or assets. Some firms have introduced roving patrol, bodyguards and guard dog services into their services, thus enhancing growth and development. Introduction of security services to foreign missions and state events thus enabled prosperity and expansion of the private security firms to other countries across East Africa and Africa in general. The effect of the private security sector on safety and security of individuals is given in Table 9.
Table 9: Effect of private security sector on safety and security of individuals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of private security sector on safety and security of individuals</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from the data shown in Table 9 that all the respondents 61 (100.0%) agreed that the private security sector affects the safety and security of individuals. The findings reveal that the private security sector in Kenya impacts the safety and security of individuals and in return positively influencing the national security of the country which the public security aims at achieving. The effect of private security sector mobile patrol functions on safety and security of individuals is given in Table 10.

Table 10: Effect of private security sector mobile patrol functions on safety and security of individuals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of private sector mobile patrol functions on safety and security of individuals</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from the data shown in Table 10 that all the respondents 61 (100.0%) agreed that the private security sector mobile patrol affects the safety and security of individuals. The findings are an indication that private security firms stick to their mandate of providing security to citizens of Kenya aiding the public security agencies in alienate crime. The findings are an indication that
private security firms stick to their mandate of providing security to citizens of Kenya aiding the public security agencies in alienate crime.

The study sought to establish the impact of loss-prevention functions of the private security sector on security and safety. The explanations given by the respondents were that many corporations seek to prevent loss rather than try to recover the loss after it has occurred and to proactively take action rather than wait to draw on the slow and costly criminal justice process in pursuit of sanctions. Thus, private security firms have become fundamental in enabling a pre-emptive approach to security in contrast with the reactive style of state police agencies. Insecurity results in loss of investment, therefore constraining growth of private sector and the economy in general, thus loss-prevention helps curb this. Insufficient loss prevention functions of the private security firms lead to the loss of business opportunities as well as a revenue loss to the country, thus affecting safety and security of individuals. The effect of private security sector special events security and private investigations on safety and security of individuals is given in Table 11.

Table 11: Effect of Private Security Sector Special Events Security and Private Investigations on Safety and Security of Individuals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect of private security sector special events security and private investigations</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from the data shown in Table 11 that all the respondents, 61 (100.0%) agreed that the special events security and private investigations offered by private security sector have an impact on safety and security of individuals.
Some of the responses from the respondents include the following:

- ...the private investigators often work with specific people such as the attorneys in civil cases and insurance companies to investigate suspicious claims.

- ...in cases of a divorce, they look for evidence on adultery and if the special events security co-ordinators and private investigators do not handle it well and carefully, it will affect the security and safety of all the people involved.

The study sought to establish the impact of the in-house security functions of the private security sector on security and safety. The responses from the respondents were the following:

- ...the security guards are employed to protect properties by maintaining a high visibility presence to deter illegal and inappropriate actions, observing (either directly, through patrols, or by watching alarm systems or video cameras) for signs of crime, fire or disorder and if there is any problem, they would know how to deal with it;

- ...the security guards are trained to take action and report any insecurity incidents that they come across, failure to which may interfere with the security and safety of individuals or organisations.

The study sought to establish what role the growth and development of the private security sector has played in relation to security and safety. The explanations given include: private security sector has resulted into employment opportunities for many Kenyans thus enhancing security in many regions as well as uplifting people’s lives. At present, there are over 40 000 security guards across Kenya and implying Kenyan citizens have confidence with the security guards to guard them and their possessions other than relying on public security.
The study sought to establish the impact of the in-house security functions of the private security sector on security and safety. The responses from the respondents were the following:

- the security guards are employed to protect properties by maintaining a high visibility presence to deter illegal and inappropriate actions, observing (either directly, through patrols, or by watching alarm systems or video cameras,) for signs of crime, fire or disorder and there is any problem, they would know how to deal with it;
- the security guards are trained to take action and report any insecurity incidents that they come across. Failure to which may interfere with the security and safety of individuals or organisations.

The study sought to establish what role the growth and development of the private security sector has played in relation to security and safety. The explanations given include: private security sector has resulted into employment opportunities for many Kenyans thus enhancing security in many regions as well as uplifting people’s lives. At present, there are over 40 000 security guards across Kenya and implying Kenyan citizens have confidence with the security guards to guard them and their possessions other than relying on public security.

The study sought to establish the impact of private security firms on security and safety. The responses from the respondents were the following:

- private security firms have led to increased security across the country;
- security guards are able to manage individuals, vehicles and materials in a safe and professional manner while assessing a situation for threats,’
- ...security guards are able to deal with different types of people that they come across, for example people under the influence of drugs and alcohol,’
- security guards respond to emergency situations and to minimise the impact of an incident at the work site: and
... better opportunities for the security guards thus enhanced security and safety of individuals and the nation at large.

The influence of the private security sector on safety and security is given in Table 12.

**Table 12: Influence of private security sector on safety and security**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence of private security sector on safety and security</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from the data shown in Table 12 that all of the respondents 61 (100.0%) agreed that the private security sector influences safety and security. The extent to which the functions of the private security sector influence safety and security is given in Table 13.

**Table 13: Extent to which the functions of the private security sector influence security and safety**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence of private security sector on safety and security</th>
<th>Least Extent (%)</th>
<th>Less Extent (%)</th>
<th>More Extent (%)</th>
<th>Most Extent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Site or mobile patrol function</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss-prevention functions</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>73.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special events security</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>86.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private investigation</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>93.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-ordination of activity</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>83.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-house security functions</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>86.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results in Table 13 indicate that the majority of the respondents agreed that site or mobile patrol function (98.3%), private investigation (93.4%), in-house security functions (86.9%), special events security (86.9%) and loss-prevention functions (73.8%) influence security and safety to the maximum. The table further shows that a large proportion of the respondents agreed that loss-prevention functions (26.4%), co-ordination of activity (16.4%), special events security (13.1%) and in-house security functions (13.1%) influence security and safety to a lesser extent. The findings on Table 12 and Table 13 give a very clear indication of the significance of the private security sector on safety and security in Kenya. The findings reveal that site or mobile patrol function, private investigation, in-house security functions, special events security and loss-prevention functions are factors of the private security sector that influence safety and security in Kenya to a very great extent.

**FURTHER COMMENTS ON HOW PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR CAN CONTRIBUTE TO ENHANCING SAFETY AND SECURITY**

The study further sought to establish if the respondents had any further comments on how private security sector could contribute to enhancing safety and security. The responses from the respondents were the following:

- Enhancing the chances of offenders being apprehended:
- Training the private security guards in better ways to enhance security:
- Security guards need to respond to changes in their environment', which includes actions such as erratic movement, ensuring the safety of persons between and within locations, monitoring and managing access and egress of persons and vehicles and observing and monitoring people:
- The government should learn from the experience of other countries in dealing with private security companies (PSCs) and define a policy and legal framework for regulating and monitoring PSC activity:
- Improve the working conditions of the private security guards,'
- ..without insight into the make up or hiring of PSCs, the state runs the risk of being inappropriately influenced by the industry and its clients.

5.6 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Table 14: Correlation analysis: Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Site or mobile patrol function</th>
<th>Loss prevention functions</th>
<th>Special events security</th>
<th>Private investigation</th>
<th>Co-ordination of activity</th>
<th>In-house security functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Site or mobile patrol function</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss prevention functions</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.574</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special events security</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.350</td>
<td>.222</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private investigation</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>.189</td>
<td>.128</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-ordination of activity</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.292*</td>
<td>.364**</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>-.146</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-house security functions</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.458</td>
<td>.222</td>
<td>.281*</td>
<td>.361**</td>
<td>.172</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The Pearson’s correlation co-efficient of security and safety and loss prevention functions is (0.574), special events security (0.350), private investigations (0.243), co-ordination of activity (0.292) and in-house security functions (0.458).
These coefficients imply that there exists a positive association of loss prevention functions (57.4%); special events security (35.0%); private investigation (24.3%); co-ordination of activity (29.2%) and in-house security functions (45.8%) to security and safety. This positive association suggests that when one increases, security and safety will also increase.

5.7 INDEPENDENT T-TESTS

Table 15: Group statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>Gen</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Site or mobile patrol function</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>.130</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss prevention functions</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.439</td>
<td>.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special events security</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>.345</td>
<td>.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private investigation</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>.281</td>
<td>.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.707</td>
<td>.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-ordination of activity</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.378</td>
<td>.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-house security functions</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.326</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.707</td>
<td>.500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15 reveals the findings of group statistics of the variables of private security sector which are presented in the next page.
Table 16: Independent sample tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site or mobile patrol function</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>.711</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss prevention functions</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>6.072</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special events security</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>1.707</td>
<td>.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private investigation</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>4.301</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-ordination of activity</td>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>2.493</td>
<td>.120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results from the Table 15 and Table 16 will be discussed together.

| In-house security functions | Equal variances assumed | 2.690 | .106 | .023 | 59 | .120 | .381 | .242 | -.102 | .865 |

Table 15 indicates the group descriptive statistics and Table 16 reveals the independent sample tests or the t-test results. The t value, degrees of freedom, and p values are the most important parts of this table. Degrees of freedom (df) reflect the sample size (df = N-61). The p value indicates the probability of Type 1 Error (rejecting the null when it is actually true) for the analysis.

Thus: - Males reported the site or mobile patrol function influence security and safety more frequently than the females did, \( t(61) = .016, \ p < .05, \ Ms = 3.98 \) and 4.00, respectively.

Males reported loss prevention functions more frequently than females, \( t(61) = .026, \ p < .05, \ Ms = 3.75 \) and 4.00, respectively.
Males reported Special events security more frequently than females, \( t(61) = .034, \ p < .05, \ Ms = 3.86 \) and 4.00, respectively.
Males reported private investigation more frequently than females, \( t(61) = .026, \ p < .05, \ Ms = 3.92 \) and 3.50, respectively.
Males reported co-ordination of activity more frequently than females, \( t(61) = .037, \ p < .05, \ Ms = 3.83 \) and 4.00, respectively.
Males reported In-house security functions more frequently than females, \( t(61) = .023, \ p < .05, \ Ms = 3.88 \) and 3.50, respectively.

Therefore, a p value should be no more than a 0.05 probability of Type 1 Error. Since the p value in all the statements (<0.05) is lower than this, it is certain that the result could be called ‘statistically significant,’ meaning that there is a significant relationship between the functions of the private security sector and the development, growth, role and impact of private security sector.
5.8 CONCLUSION
This chapter was a discussion on the data analysis, presentation and interpretation of the findings of the research study. It covered the research response rate; the demographic characteristics of the participants, and the findings of the study. The responses were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The data were presented in tables, graphs and charts.

The next chapter, Chapter 6 will be a discussion based on the research findings that was presented and discussed in Chapter 5. The chapter will delve into the summary of the findings, the conclusions derived from the findings and the recommendations made for the study.
CHAPTER 6
FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION
The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings, recommendations and conclusion of the study. This study aimed to analyse the development and growth of the Kenyan private security sector, and to establish its role and impact on safety and security. The study included determining the impact of the private security sector in Nairobi and the mobile patrol functions on safety and security in Kenya. The study also wanted to determine the impact of the Kenyan private security sector in loss prevention functions; assessed how special events security and private investigation functions affect safety and security of Kenyans; and assessed how in-house security functions of the private security sector influence safety and security in Kenya.

The researcher reviewed previous studies with a view to establish academic gaps which the present study sought to bridge. This was done through a literature review. The procedure included: reading, evaluating the methodology employed in terms of design choice, target population, sample and sampling procedure data collection instruments and their suitability, validity and reliability, data collection procedures, data analysis, findings and recommendations. The study benefited from the literature review as it guided the present study by pointing out areas that needed to be investigated.

This study adopted a census survey design and employed the quantitative research methods as the main approach to guide the study. The research targeted all of the private security firms in Kenya. There are 23 listed security firms under the Kenya Security Industry Association (KSIA) and 44 under the Protective Security Industry Association (PSIA) totaling to 67 security firms in Kenya. The respondents were the Managing Director or Head of Security at the
firms, since they have a broad knowledge about the business and have been with the firm for a significant amount of time.

The research instrument used in data collection was a questionnaire to elicit information from the respondents. To ensure validity of the instruments, expert opinion was sought. Data analysis was started immediately after the field study. Data was summarised into frequencies and percentages and presented in graphs, pie charts and tables. This final Chapter comprises of a discussion based on the specific research objectives.

6.2 FINDINGS

The findings reveal that the majority of the respondents who participated in the study were males (59) aged between 38-42 years (21) who are married (51) and speak both English and Kiswahili (36). The findings further revealed that the majority of the respondents live in Langata Constituency and are stationed in the Starehe Constituency. The findings also revealed that a majority of the respondents (35) are Managing Directors in the security firms whose job functions include:

- to head the security operations of the firm;
- monitoring progress of the firm;
- controlling the operations of the firm;
- ensuring all the annual business plans and budget are achieved;
- planning, controlling, implementing and managing the company’s business growth, operational effectiveness, administration and financial performance;
- co-ordinating the security guards;
- leading operational risk management activities to enhance the value of the firm;
- developing and monitoring programs to address the welfare of the employees of the firm;
• creating a culture for success and performance of the firm; managing business growth;
• managing and ensuring excellent customer relations; identifying protection goals, objectives and metrics consistent with the corporate strategic plan; managing the development and implementation of the security policies, standards, guidelines;
• creating procedures to ensure security is maintained on an ongoing basis;
• and overseeing the incident response planning as well as the investigation of security breaches and assist in disciplinary and legal matters associated with such breaches where necessary.

The findings also depict that the majority of the respondents (36) indicated had attained an undergraduate level of education before joining the private service and the highest education qualification they have attained is a post-graduate level of education. The majority of the respondents (24) indicated were in the security service before joining the private security service. The majority of the respondents (34) indicated that their companies were established 1-10 years ago, are locally owned and those that are foreign owned are 71-100 percent and owned by companies from either the United States of America or the United Kingdom. The findings also revealed that all the respondents are working in the administration department and have been in the private security service for 1-10 years.

The findings depict that all the respondents (61) agreed that there has been development and growth of security firms witnessed in Kenya since 2009 and these developments include the introduction of different services in different firms such as the prevention of unauthorised activity or entry, traffic regulation, access control, and fire and theft prevention and detection. These services can be broadly described as the protection of personnel and/or assets. Some firms have introduced roving patrol guards, bodyguards, and guard dog services into their services, thus enhancing growth and development. They also introduced security
services to foreign missions and state events thus enabling prosperity, expansion of the private security firms to other countries across East Africa and Africa in general and inclusion of development assistance programmes that have their place in addressing the economic and social problems that lie beneath Private Security Companies (PSC) growth.

The findings revealed that all the respondents (61) were in agreement that the private sector and mobile patrol functions affect safety and security of individuals. The findings further revealed that the impact of loss-prevention functions of the private security sector on security and safety include many corporations seeking to prevent a loss rather than trying to recover the loss after it has occurred and to change the situation in which any problems occur rather than to draw on the slow and costly criminal justice process in pursuit of sanctions. Thus, private security firms, and the security hardware that they have at their disposal (such as radio communication and closed circuit television (CCTV) technology), have become fundamental to the successful governance of such territories, enabling a pre-emptive approach to security in contrast with the reactive style of state police agencies.

Insecurity results in loss of investment, therefore constraining the growth of the private sector and the economy in general. This insufficient loss prevention function of the private security firms leads to loss of business opportunities and loss of revenue to the country, thus affecting safety and security of individuals.

The study findings also revealed that all the respondents (61) were in agreement that the private security sector’s special events security and private investigations affect the safety and security of individuals. The study also revealed that the in-house security functions of the private security sector have an influence on security and safety. The majority of the respondents (59) indicated that the private security sector has played a significant role in the growth and
development of security and safety in Kenya that has led to employment opportunities for many people.

The majority of the respondents (51) indicated that the impact of the private security firms on have led to increased security across the country; security guards are able to manage individuals, vehicles and materials in a safe and polite manner while assessing a situation for threats and incidents; security guards are able to professionally deal with different types of people that they come across, for example people under the influence of drugs and alcohol. Security guards also respond to emergency situations and help to minimise the impact of an incident at a worksite. Better opportunities for the security guards thus also enhanced security and safety of individuals and the nation at large.

The study findings revealed that all the respondents (61) agreed that the private security sector influences safety and security and that site security or mobile patrol functions, private investigation, in-house security functions, special events security and loss-prevention functions influence security and safety to the utmost.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the findings above, the following recommendations were made on the development and growth of the Kenyan private security sector, its role and impact on safety and security.

6.3.1 Recommendations for policy and practice

It is recommended that the security firms should train the private security guards to enhance security. Security guards need to respond to changes in their environment, which include action such as traffic movement; ensure the safety of persons between and within locations; monitoring and managing the access and departure of persons and vehicles and observing and monitoring people and define a policy and legal framework for regulating and monitoring PSC activity. They should also improve the working conditions of the private security
guards. With no insight into the make-up or hiring of PSCs, the state runs the risk of being inappropriately influenced by the industry and its clients.

It is also recommended that the government should learn from the experience of other countries in dealing with PSCs, enhance the chances of offenders being apprehended and regulate the PSCs. It is important for the government to remove the two-tier private security system that currently divides Kenyans by social status. Wealthy citizens protect their homes using personnel from PSCs and high-tech defences. The middle class forms associations to jointly employ private individuals for security and the poorest Kenyans are thus the unprotected, except perhaps by volatile vigilantes.

6.3.2 Recommendations for further research
This study sought to analyse the development and growth of the Kenyan private security sector, its role and impact on safety and security attempting to bridge the gap in knowledge that existed. Although the study attained these, it mainly focused on private security firms only. The there is need to replicate the study, using the public security in an attempt to compare the findings.

There is a need to conduct a similar study which will attempt to look at the reform and reconstruction of the security sector; and the effect of regulating the private security industry in Kenya.

6.4 CONCLUSION
The study found there has been development and growth of security firms witnessed in Kenya since 2009. Among some of this witnessed developments are: an introduction of different services in different firms such as the prevention of unauthorised activity or entry, access control and fire and theft detection and prevention, some firms have introduced roving patrol, bodyguards and guard dog services as part of their services broadly described as the protection of personnel and/or assets. From the study findings it was found that private security sector
has resulted into employment opportunities for many Kenyans thus enhancing security in many regions as well as uplifting people’s lives. Kenyan citizens have confidence with the security guards to guard them and their possessions other than relying on public security.

The study found that the private security sector in Kenya affects the safety and security of individuals which in return positively influences the national security of the country which the public security aims at achieving. From the findings the study found out that the private security sector mobile patrol affects the safety and security of individuals, an indication that private security firms stick to their mandate of providing private security to citizens of Kenya aiding the public security agencies in alienate crime.

The study further found that insufficient loss prevention functions of the private security firms lead to the loss of business opportunities as well as a revenue loss to the country, thus affecting safety and security of individuals. The study also found that special events security and private investigations offered by private security sector have an impact on safety and security of individuals.

From the study findings in-house security functions of the private security sector on security and safety influence safety and security in Kenya in that the security guards are employed to protect properties by maintaining a high visibility presence to deter illegal and inappropriate actions, observing signs of crime, fire or disorder and if there is any problem, they would know how to deal with it. This ends up helping public security alienate crime in the country. The study found that the special events security and private investigations offered by private security sector have an impact on safety and security of individuals. The private investigators help a lot when it comes to insurance, cases of divorce and other spy jobs and as a result affect the security and safety of all the people involved.
The study concludes that the private security sector in Kenya influences safety and security. The study has found that there exists a positive association of loss prevention functions (57.4%); special events security (35.0%); private investigation (24.3%); co-ordination of activity (29.2%) and in-house security functions (45.8%) to security and safety. This positive association suggests that when one increases, security and safety will also increase. The study has also revealed that site or mobile patrol function, private investigation, in-house security functions, special events security and loss-prevention functions are factors of the private security sector that influence safety and security in Kenya to a very great extent.

The study, therefore, concludes that there is growth and development of the private security sector in Kenya and a significant relationship exists between the functions of the private security sector and development of the private security sector in Kenya which influence safety and security to a very great extent.
LIST OF REFERENCES


Faculty of the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, USA.


9 August 2012

[Public Relations Officer/Security Manager]
[Security Services]
[Nairobi]
[Kenya]

Dear [Public Relations Officer/Security Manager]

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO DO RESEARCH FOR MTECH DEGREE (SECURITY MANAGEMENT) ON THE DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH OF THE KENYAN PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR: ITS ROLE AND IMPACT ON SAFETY AND SECURITY AT YOUR ORGANISATION

Mr Charles Mbuvi is currently a Masters student at the University of South Africa (UNISA), busy with his research for a MTech in Security Management. His research title is "THE DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH OF THE KENYAN PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR: ITS ROLE AND IMPACT ON SAFETY AND SECURITY".
The research study seeks to analyse the development and growth of the Kenyan private security sector; its role and impact on safety and security. The key objectives of this research project are:

i. To determine the impact of the private security sector sites in Nairobi or mobile patrol functions on safety and security in Kenya.

ii. To determine the impact of the Kenyan private security sector in loss prevention functions.

iii. To assess how special events security and private investigation functions affect safety and security of Kenyans.

iv. To assess how the in-house security functions of the private security sector influence safety and security in Kenya.

The researcher will develop specific questionnaires to inform the four key objectives of the research study. The researcher will gain permission and support from the Department before scheduling any interviews with relevant employees in the organisation. The researcher will interview the Public Relations Officers or any other senior manager in the firms who have knowledge about the business and have been with them for at least a year. These interviews will focus on the development, growth, role and the impact of private security sector on safety and security in Kenya. The researcher will personally administer the questionnaires.

The researcher will take into account all relevant ethical considerations, especially in relation to the freedom from physical or psychological harm; disclosure about the nature of the research; and privacy.

All the information that is received from the participants will be treated with the utmost confidentiality (e.g. respondents will remain anonymous and no reference will be made of the organisation for which they work. Organisation and personal
names will not be used in the research report. Participation in the research interviews will also be on a voluntary basis.

The results of the research study will contribute to the Kenyan Government security's body of knowledge, on how effective the private security sector can positively impact on reducing the crime rate and easing work performed by the public security in order to speak a common language with regards to security. It will also highlight areas in which the institution of private security sector can improve.

The results of the research will also assist in identifying the tangible resource needs of the security department. The envisaged clarity of the role and function of the security department should ensure aligned with the security department’s role and impact and eliminate any duplication or conflict. Clarifying these roles should generate the following benefits and advantages:

- *Enable top management to focus and have the correct expectations from the Security and Public Relations Officers department with regards to security.*

- *Enabling corporate security professionals to co-operate with a common understanding with the private security sector.*

- *Identifying and raising the appropriate skills profile of the security professional within government and assist with recruitment and personal development.*

- *Positioning and structuring the security department appropriately to its roles and functions.*
Attached for your information is the approved research proposal, inclusive of the draft questionnaire.

____________________________(Prof)
A. de V. Minnaar
Programme Head: Security Management
Department of Criminology & Security Science
School of Criminal Justice, College of Law

___________________
(Mr)
Charles Mbuvi
MTech Student
Programme: Security Management
Department of Criminology & Security Science
Student Number: 369 39 579
Tel: (+254)710-611486
ANNEXURE B: PROFORMA SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE
SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. Gender: (Please tick)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Ages (age groups)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-22 years</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-27 years</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28-32 years</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33-37 years</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38-42 years</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43-47 years</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48-52 years</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53 and above</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Marital status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Home language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiswahili</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Where do you live?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Embakasi</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kasarani</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Langata</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Where are you stationed?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Embakasi</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kasarani</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Langata</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makadara</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starehe</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamukunji</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dagoretti</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westlands</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Rank ____________________________________________

8. What is your job function? ____________________________

9. Qualifications when you joined the private security service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher diploma</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post graduate</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Highest educational qualifications at present
### Secondary Education Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher diploma</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post graduate</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. Occupation before joining the private security service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security service</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driver</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual worker</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Specify)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. When was your company established?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 10 years</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15 years</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 – 20 years</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 50 years</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. a) Is your company wholly Kenyan owned?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. b) If not, what is the percentage of foreign ownership?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-30%</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-50%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-70%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14. What country is the foreign ownership from? ________________________

15. Department/Section _________________________________

16. Position you hold in the private security firm?

______________________________

17. Length of service in the private security sector? (Please tick)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-10 years</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 50 years</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION B: DEVELOPMENT, GROWTH, ROLE AND IMPACT OF PRIVATE SECURITY SECTOR

1. Has any development and growth of private security firms been witnessed in Kenya since 2009? (Please tick one)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How has it developed or grown over the years? (Please discuss)

.........................................................................................................................................................
.........................................................................................................................................................
.........................................................................................................................................................

2. Does the private security sector site affect safety and security of individuals in any way? (Please tick one)
3. Does the private security sector mobile patrol functions affect safety and security of individuals in any way?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If yes, how?

………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………

3. What is the impact of loss prevention functions of the private security firms on security and safety? (Please explain)

………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Do special events security and private investigation functions, which are offered by the private security sector firms, affect security and safety? (Please tick one)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If yes, how?

………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………
………………………………………………………………………………………………

5. What do you think is the impact of in-house security functions of the private security sector on security and safety? (Please explain)
6. What role has the growth and development of private security sector played in relation to security and safety? (Please explain)

7. What do you feel is the impact of private security firms on security and safety? (Please discuss)

8. Does the private security sector influence security and safety? (Please tick one).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If yes, please indicate to what extent the functions of private security sector influence security and safety with “1” being the least effect and “4” being the most effect?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Site or mobile patrol function</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss prevention functions</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special events security</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. Any further comment(s) on how private security sector can contribute to enhancing safety and security?

........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
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