

**SECURITY MANAGEMENT AND PRIVATE SECURITY COMPANIES IN  
KENYA: A CASE STUDY OF KAMUKUNJI IN NAIROBI CITY COUNTY,  
KENYA**

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**ABSTRACT**

**Purpose:** The contemporary world is experiencing economic ‘melt down’ and globalization has exported crime and other vices leading to an upsurge in crime that challenges security agents. This trend has led to a strain on state security agencies, compromising their performance and creating gaps. In Kenya, since the KDF entered Somalia in pursuit of Al Shabaab insurgents, the attacks by the insurgents to Kenyan soft targets have been enormous. The pressure on security agents coupled with their low number has led to state fragility within the borders which necessitates presence of Private Security Companies (PSCs) to bridge the gap. This study sought to investigate the effects of PSCs on security management in Nairobi. The general objective of this study was to establish the effects of PSCs in Security Management in Nairobi. The specific objectives were to; =establish how capacity of PSCs affects security management, to investigate how vulnerabilities of PSCs affect security management and examine how organizational structure of PSCs affects security management. This study focused on Kamukunji Sub County of Nairobi City County which harbours Eastleigh, a very fast growing business hub in Nairobi suburbs that has attracted traders and other opportunists.

**Methodology:** This study employed both the Integrated Threat Theory and the New Public Management Theory model. Integrated Threat Theory fundamentally highlights conditions that lead to perceptions of threat, which in turn affect attitudes and behaviour. This theory however

only creates conditions for the response but has a gap in how this can be replicated in a number of areas or regions. To address the gap, the study focused on New Public Management Theory model that is designed to decentralize the mode of state operations. This can be achieved through devolving security management activities to PSCs. This study used a descriptive survey research design. To collect the relevant data for the study, the researcher used a structured questionnaire that was administered purposively. This was entered into a program and developed into a database from where it was analysed by use of measures of central tendency and central variability.

**Results:** Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to discuss the findings of the study. The sample population that constituted 84 respondents comprised 65.5% male respondents and 34.5% female respondents. From the findings, there was variation of 37.4% on Security management in Nairobi that could be attributed to the influence of capacity, vulnerability and organization structure of PSCs.

**Recommendations:** It is recommended that, the Private Security Regulator sets minimum academic entry level for PSCs, set and enforce a standardized training curriculum for all PSCs including how to handle firearms, identify the minimum equipment that is required for running a PSC and the required competency in handling the equipment and standardize the remuneration packages for the PSC personnel. The National Intelligence Services (NIS) should cultivate a structured engagement of PSCs to positively vet and build their capacity to enhance counter terrorism strategies. PSCs should be embedded in the 'Nyumba Kumi' initiative to assist the local administration in the fight against crime.

**Key Words:** *Private Security Companies, International Governmental Organization, National Security Intelligence, Human Intelligence, Al Shabaab, 'Soja', 'Nyumba Kumi'*

## **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

The contemporary era of terror threat has forced many nations to rethink matters security, where the hiring of Private Security Companies (PSCs) has been on a steady increase to supplement the security apparatus of the states. PSCs are companies that engage clients within a state to offer security services, which have been a preserve of the state, at a fee. These services may range from training, intelligence gathering to logistics. Singer (2004) in his policy paper on Iraq operations defines PSCs as business providers of professional services intricately linked to warfare. Generally, PSCs are geared towards making profit out of the security services they offer to their clients.

According to Litavski (2012), the private security industry internationally sprung up in the 1990s after the confluence of three crucial factors - the end of the Cold War, transformation of the nature of warfare and normative growth of privatization in all sectors. The interaction of these factors made room and created demand for private security industry. Litavski (2012) argues that the vacuum that the end of the Cold War created in the supply of security led to significant downsizing of national armies because there was no longer competition in the world politics hence global insecurity rose. The end of the Cold War, also demobilized over six million well trained soldiers, many of whom could only find suitable jobs in the private security sector. The experiences that these soldiers had in the military could only be effectively harnessed by PSCs to enhance their operations. Unless checked well, this combination of both former service members and new entrants in the security field is bound to compromise performance and effectiveness of the PSCs because they are not at the same level of training.

While discussing the ‘drawdown fiasco’ in the Gap ‘Theory of Crime’, Lock (2019), draws a nexus between, military down-sizing and the growth of the security industry. When there is an excess of demobilised soldiers, they either are recruited into private security firms or may opt for black market security groups courtesy of the drawdown. Those who join PSCs enhance the security management while those that join the black market are a hindrance to security management because they may join militia groups who indulge in illicit activities.

Spicer (1998) asserts that ‘the end of the Cold War triggered conflicts that had subsided for so long due to the presence of superpowers to be rekindled. The superpowers had worked as monitors on the international scene where they monitored conflicts within their areas of influence and ensured that truce prevailed among their faithful members. At the same time, most national armies were downsizing and deeply upsetting media images of soldiers killed abroad like it happened to the United States (US) in Somalia in 1993 had a very negative effect on the desire of governments to deal with resolution of conflicts in crisis areas. As states downsized their militaries, regional conflicts kept increasing hence compromised the capacity of militaries therefore heightening the need for conflict resolution.

This in effect increased the demand for private security across the globe whose performance and effectiveness had to be checked to ensure they measure up to the demand created on the world scene. Advanced technology which has transformed the nature of warfare in terms of strategy, doctrine and privatisation of most sectors including the military are equally key factors that have led to the increase in the demand for private security in the world. Though technology increases the capacity of any firm hence improving the performance, it leaves notable vulnerabilities. Advanced technology has improved operations in all sectors but equally its vulnerabilities have been utilized by criminal and terrorist agents to threaten the peace in states. Private security enables countries to handle their peculiar challenges locally where local private firms are deployed to handle security issues at home.

Developed Western conventional armies like United States Army have become more reliant on private security and military services. This however appears a new phenomenon for developing countries that strictly hold the traditional Weberian concept of the 'state as being the sole depository of legitimate violence', (Weber 1978). However, where the state's monopoly of violence is lacking, state fragility is rife. According to Di John (2010), state fragility is the inability of a state to provide basic functions to its citizens. Developing countries drag their feet when it comes to use of private security because they doubt the capacity of these PSCs in handling security challenges in their regions. This is a matter of great concern given that, in the recent past, many private actors have steadily assumed roles that were traditionally the responsibility of the state.

While examining the phenomenon of state collapse Ngunyi and Musambayi (2014), drawing from Zartman et al, argue that there are three critical tasks whose failure may qualify a state collapse status; state as guarantor of security that is the sovereign authority and as an institution. A state that fails to effectively undertake these roles is tending towards fragility hence collapse. It is the duty of a state to guarantee security in all parts within its territory, if this security is not assured by the state or is offered by another entity altogether, then the state functionality will be in doubt. States are therefore expected to hold onto the instruments of power that will guarantee security in the entire territory.

Many international governmental organizations (IGOs) and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) like United Nations (UN) missions abroad have also witnessed PSCs being contracted to work in hostile environment. According to Schreier (2000), the UN missions in Iraq and Afghanistan witnessed the highest number of PSCs with most of the members participating in the mission comprising of retired military officers from US and abroad. When analysed globally, this industry seems to be experiencing an exponential growth, which is worth studying. Critically, an uncontrolled and poorly regulated private security industry is likely to pose unique governance challenges that may affect their operations and is prone to be an obstacle to peace building, good governance and sustainable development.

After the terrorist attack on US in September 2011, PSCs have increased in number, enhanced their capacities, gained legitimacy and become central in the provision of security. This has been a success since the intelligence gathering agents are easily concealed within the public unlike soldiers whose uniforms compromise their presence. As Avant (2005) argues, the private security sector was instrumental to the success of the 2003 US-led Iraqi invasion. However, in regions where the state is fragile, PSCs have suffered profound vulnerabilities to their personnel due to terror activities. In Africa, according to Elsea, Schwartz and Nakamura (2008), South Africa has been on the forefront in the use of PSCs to supplement the country's military and police to fight crime. PSCs have been very effective in community policing and general local administration matters in the country.

Time could be ripe for African leaders to join the world in adopting PSCs to supplement the security apparatus in fighting crime on the continent. In East Africa, Uganda seems to have embraced use of PSCs more than the other countries with over 58 registered PSCs most of whom have capacity to tackle crime and insecurity. According to the African Security Review (2004), 'it is important for security officers to have bomb-threat training and emergency crisis training, especially for those located in soft target areas where the general public congregate.' Such training is what will enhance the effectiveness of PSCs in handling crime.

In Kenya, the use of PSCs to supplement state security has been on a steady increase since the war on terror began. After the January 2019 terrorist attack on Dusit D2 hotel in Nairobi, some members of public demanded the empowering of both PSCs and private individuals to fight terror. PSCs can be instrumental for VIP protection details, picketing including guarding government buildings and other sites, convoy security, operational coordination like managing and establishing command, control and communication centres, intelligence gathering and analysis, security training and logistics support. However, training is very critical for the performance of the PSCs roles. According to Mkutu (2007), training imparts appropriate knowledge and influences the attitudes of employees, which is critical in delivery of effective humane customer services leading to better work output and high levels of customer satisfaction.

### **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Economic ‘melt down’ and globalization have exported crime, terrorism and other pandemics leading to an upsurge in criminal activity that continually challenges the capacity of security firms. This trend has led to state fragility where a strain on the state agencies like the military and police compromises their performance and creates gaps where criminal gangs evade the strong hand of the law to perpetrate heinous acts. During emergency situations in the world, very few states will be willing to respond with their armies and if any they do so very late that conflict cannot be easily abated.

At the outbreak of the Rwandan atrocities in 1994, as Nakamura (2008) argues, one of the South African private security firms, ‘Executive Outcomes’ is reported to have approached the UN Secretary General, Kofi Annan, to offer its services in protection of the population. Although the UN was firmly set against using PSCs to address the crisis, the world proved unable to timely mobilize military forces to address the emergency. This indecision may be attributed to the genocide that resulted in over 800,000 casualties. Had the UN agreed to the suggestion to deploy the readily available South African PSCs as a stop gap measure awaiting the deployment of the military, the genocide could have been averted or consequences minimized. The UN however had no legislation for use of PSCs in such conflicts at the time hence aggravating the situation.

With the incidence of terrorism and sporadic terror attacks, the world population has continued to be vulnerable since the performance and capacity of security agents has continually been challenged. In Kenya, since the Kenya Defence Forces (KDF) entered Somalia in pursuit of Al Shabaab insurgents, the attacks by the insurgents on Kenyan soft targets has been enormous posing great challenge to security agents because they fight an amorphous entity that cannot be engaged directly. Since these insurgents attack unsuspecting citizens in public places, the need to enhance surveillance and entry checks to public places is paramount. In an effort to control state fragility, most police are overstretched and at times lack capacity to effectively handle security situation. PSCs in Kenya therefore, like other countries have come in handy to complement state security. This paper considered how the capacity of PSCs affects security management, how vulnerability of the PSC personnel affects security management and how their organizational structures affect security management. The core objective of this paper is to answer three research questions which were used to guide this research work, they include; first how capacity of PSCs affects security management in Nairobi City County? Second, what vulnerabilities of PSCs affect security management in Nairobi City County? Lastly how organizational structure of PSCs affects security management in Nairobi City County?

## **2.0 EMPIRICAL LITERATURE**

### **2.1 Security Management**

The end of the Cold War brought about a shift in the nature of conflict and in conjunction, the management of security. In this regard, Holmqvist (2005) argues that the role and use of private security has become more prevalent in many of today's humanitarian and post-conflict settings, to the extent of having a global private security industry. PSCs are preferred by international humanitarian organizations due to their prompt response when called upon unlike the world militaries whose response is marred by bureaucracy. Holmqvist (2005) continues to assert that the industry, arguably stemming from what were once known as mercenaries, are now more commonly referred to as private military or security companies that have complimented public security agents for long.

PSCs have been in operation for quite a long time, according to the Economist Journal (2003), it was estimated that about 20,000 private security contractors had been employed in Iraq, making this conflict ‘the first privatised war’ due to the number of private entities on ground. Owing to the peaceful environment created by the PSCs in Iraq, the number of contract personnel increased, this created an argument on the role of private companies. The companies are charged with providing security services to states, corporations and NGOs. Singer (2004) posits that the phenomenon is neither new nor a special case for Iraqi conflict since the past decade has witnessed a steady increase in the global demand for private security services where more over 100 companies are in operation worldwide. According to Singer (2004), history has it that the ancient armies from China to the Greeks and Roman Empire were solely dependent upon contracted private forces for the success of their missions. He also argues that similarly private actors have from time to time played a pivotal role in US military history where private contractors have been employed to support US forces in the field. It is therefore worth noting that the use of PSCs to manage security has been in place for quite some time now and is being favoured by many states in devolving security to ensure efficiency and effectiveness.

Holmqvist (2005) argues that the contemporary increase in international private military and security industry can be traced to the early 1990s, when there was the emergence of private security providers bearing corporate structures. She focusses majorly on the market forces that either favour or hinder growth of the PSCs, neglecting the performance and effectiveness of the established PSCs themselves. Spearin (2001) postulates that a variety of demand and supply factors have played a role in the prevailing corporate security sphere, three factors have been fronted largely: first the dominance of post-cold war free markets of the states by foreign forces leading to the outsourcing of traditional state functions. Second the global shrinking of national militaries, this provided an abundance of trained former military personnel for recruitment by private companies and third the gradual disengagement of the major powers from many countries of the developing world.



Spearin (2001) is of the view that it is the supply of surplus trained but retired military personnel that drove the growth of the PSCs in the world. However like the economists argue, supply without demand cannot grow any market, therefore, it is the demand for these PSCs that was the basis for their growth. More so, the post-cold war free market cannot have been the factor that led to use of PSCs for security otherwise the African continent which has remained adamant would have joined the bandwagon in use of PSCs long before. Spearin's argument of disengagement of major powers being a reason for emergence of PSCs on the international scene is indeed a factor but Spearin fails to underscore the fact that the disengagement created a vacuum after the control that these major powers exerted upon their regions was lacking on their departure. It is this vacuum that led to state fragility, exposing the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the public security agencies hence creating a niche for PSCs.

According to Sabelo (2008), the evolution of the PSC sector in South Africa can be traced to two factors that were essential at varying times in history. First, in the period shortly after the country's transition to democracy, there was need for a large-scale demobilisation and reintegration by the government in an effort to amalgamate the former homeland forces with South Africa National Defence Forces (SANDF). The goal was to establish a manageable-size defence force, commensurate with the country's needs. Consequently, SANDF soldiers willingly took voluntary retrenchment packages, which looked lucrative but proved insufficient as a source of income for the retrenched soldiers. These former soldiers, like the end of Cold War era, therefore created an upsurge of trained security personnel for the security market (Sabelo 2008). This factor played a lead role in the formation of the PSC industry in the country.

She posits that the second period coincided with the increase in crime, as a young economy, after independence, South Africa experienced an exponential growth economically that was not commensurate to the growth of the security sector. Most of the companies that sprung up increased the need for private security after realizing that there was inadequate protection by state organs. Sabello (2008) postulates that this trend has continued to fuel growth in the PSC sector. Though the dismal performance of the public security apparatus has been a key factor in the growth of the PSCs in South Africa and elsewhere, the abundance of retrenched military

personnel cannot be the cause of growth of PSCs because such an abundance without the demand is ineffectual to the growth.

In Congo, Gumedze (2008) argues that insecurity assumes various forms, in the eastern provinces the state fragility allows armed militias, and rogue national army forces, to exist unabated hence threatening the population. She continues to argue that there is a general lack of human security, occasioned by poverty due to deficiency of food security and access to medical care. From time to time politically instigated violent clashes between former belligerents have occurred in Kinshasa. She posits that impunity and lack of capacity of the public security forces has led to a general lack of human security in Congo. According to Global Report (2006), since the Congolese armed forces are very much underpaid if any, are poorly equipped and on poor ration from the government, the army and police have low morale and seek to survive by preying on the population. It is these atrocities ranging from traffic police demanding bribes from road users to extortion of quarry diggers by mining police and violent predation by the army that has created oppression by state agents. Bayart et al (1999) argues that there is a lack of division between the public and the private domain, predation and corruption are so systemic that the fragile state can be described as tending towards failure.

Gumedze (2008) asserts that the first PSCs in Congo can be traced to late 1980s, although the sector initially remained small, its expansion was occasioned by growing insecurity in the late President Mobutu's tenure. The late president's tenure was marked by insecurity due to demotivated soldiers and police who were not paid or paid peanuts if any. However, she argues that rural areas experience state fragility while private security sector is in most cases urban based in a predominantly rural based country. Goede (2008) argues that the development of the private security sector in Congo can be defined by a number of factors, first, state fragility that has continually created a security gap. He asserts that for long, public forces have been unable to provide the requisite security hence affluent citizens in response have sought security from the private sector. The organised and systemic corruption and predation at governance level trickled into the security sector leaving the armed police and military without sustenance who then

resorted to earning a livelihood from the very public that they are supposed to protect. The vacuum left by ineffective police and military therefore created a potential market for PSCs.

The second reason for the boom in the private security industry, Goede (2008) posits was the rapid growth of foreigner-led international non-governmental organisations (INGOs), multilateral organisations and companies that were engaged in the country's post-conflict transition and reconstruction programmes. The INGO and multilateral organizations are expected to grow a post-conflict state so that it can fend for itself in all aspects. In this case the INGOs and multilateral organizations created a market for the PSCs at the expense of the public security. Even though the Congolese police and military were inefficient and lacked capacity, these international organizations failed to address the vulnerability that the public security agents were undergoing while creating a market for the PSCs. This is the reason why the public security have continued to predate on the population in Congo to the extent that even with the growing PSCs, the state security has remained a challenge to date.

In Uganda, Gounev (2006) argues that when Uganda's economy was liberalised in the 1990s, most people and private organisations acquired private property leading to an upsurge of crime occasioned by theft. He posits that it was the fear of crime that drove the demand for private security services. Sakira (2004) postulates that the low numbers of the police coupled with meagre resources in the police force, continued complains of inefficiency and ineffectiveness were common, especially from the business class. She continues to argue that it was paramount to relinquish some of the police functions to PSCs in an effort to curb the problem while at the same time gaining the confidence of the public.

According to Sakira (2004), the transfer was influenced by the change of new managerialism, whose history can be traced in America in the 1980s. She argues that unlike traditional public administration, managerialism prescribes de-monopolisation of the delivery of goods and services by a single bureaucracy as a way of ensuring efficient provision of goods and services to the public, security services in this case. Though the ineffectiveness and inefficiency of the

police is indeed a factor for the growth of PSCs in Uganda and Africa for that matter, managerialism cannot be a key factor for PSCs growth because it was later never embraced by other African countries. However, the capacity and performance of the initial PSCs might have built the confidence of the other users who might have embraced the PSCs.

### **2.2.1 Capacity**

In both up and down economies, firms invest a lot in order to build capacity and stay afloat in the murky waters of competitive business environment. Kirkpatrick (2002), argues that businesses invest up to 37 percent of their capital budgets annually as they strive to improve business productivity and profitability. According to Argote *et al* (2003), Kluge and Schilling (2000), research in organizational learning successfully applied the learning curve analysis in the quest to investigate the nature of changing organizational performance with experience which posted good results.

By embedding the organization's accumulated knowledge in the evolving technology in response to new requirements; organizations increase the effect of cumulative knowledge the prevailing performance (Hayes & Wheelright, 1984, Joskow & Rose, 1985). In the contemporary era of terror, every new challenge requires unmerged response through embracing technology in order to build capacity to address the challenges. Cohen and Levinthal (1990), posit that automating complex processes using ICT as a means of capacity building, enables the employees to recognize factors that improve processes based on accrued experience and instantiate such improvements into the technology. The outcome of these improvements is a second-order effect that leads to enhanced ability to benefit from experience after the technology is introduced.

Koellinger (2006) argues that the current diffusion of ICT and e-business technologies among firms is an example of the changing technological and economic development. ICT is a critical enabler of change in social and organizational practices, thus enhancing investigation and response to situations of insecurity. He asserts that over the years, firms operating in the transport, communication and logistics sector have made significant strides in their adoption of new technologies, especially those linked to the internet and e-business to enhance monitoring

and response to their business operations. Porter and Millar (2005), argued that the likely contribution of innovation in creating competitive advantage ranges from the continuous assessment of the cost/performance ratio. This is applicable in the cases of incremental innovation, as opposed to establishment of completely new competitive rules. Information and communication technology is one of the most critical yet fast growing technological innovations that provide firms with a myriad of opportunities to improve efficiency, effectiveness and enjoy competitive advantage. In security management, ICT helps in digital investigations, digital surveillance and monitoring which makes security operations easy and more effective.

Effectiveness of any PSC can only be determined by the actual presence of the security guards, their ability to gather relevant intelligence and information and the character of the security guards. Porter & Millar (2005), argue that one of the primary disadvantages of hiring private security firms is the lack of commitment to the employer's business. They assert that contractual employees tend to be more disloyal to third-party businesses. Since they are underpaid by a great margin in comparison to career security employees, they are generally demotivated to comply with third-party business standards. The net effect of this is the high turnover which affects overall performance. The lower salaries offered to contractual employees lead to highly qualified security personnel leaving contractual employment for greener pastures. The minimal or lack of promotion opportunities within the contract security industry also leaves businesses without the qualified and competitive employees as they look for greener pastures elsewhere.

According to a study by Schneider et al (2003), employees need to get the requisite training in the required technical skills for high quality service, general knowledge and interactive skills. Interactive skills help employees to exercise courtesy, care, responsiveness and empathetic service, factors which build the character of the employees. Successful companies invest heavily in building the capacity of their employees in training that is commensurate to business goals and strategies. Security firms also conduct positive vetting of their employees in order to ensure integrity in their operations. Tornow and Wiley (2004), recorded a positive correlation between the employees capacity and quality of service. They found that customer satisfaction is directly

proportional to the attitude and perceptions of employees, which is a reflection of the organization and its management practices.

### **2.2.2 Vulnerabilities**

Lyons (2002), asserts that the protection of critical infrastructure within a country is usually in the hands of the public security agents but in certain circumstances with assistance from the private security providers. Therefore the level of protection of a country's critical infrastructure is dependent on the competence of the security officers. Di John (2010), argues that the 'monopoly of violence' is essential for state functioning where loss of this is tantamount to failure or state fragility. When basic security functions of a state citizens are missing in any part of that state, then the state is termed to be fragile and the public vulnerable. He further argues that the public security agents engage the private security in order to share critical information before they respond.

Even with such coordination the security agents are always prone to direct attacks from criminals since they are the first line of defence in any set up. Lyons further notes that after the September 11, 2001 terror attack on America, the private security have been actively involved in crime prevention through intelligence gathering that is utilised by the police. Murray (2005), identified three key components to community policing philosophy, a key concept of security management in the contemporary world that is bound to reduce vulnerabilities in the society. These include the creation and reliance on effective partnerships with the community and other stakeholders, the application of viable problem solving strategies and tactics that transform the public security agents including the culture to support this philosophical shift.

Put in another way, community policing is not in itself a tactic or strategy, but is a philosophical approach to how policing is generally conducted. Primarily, community-oriented policing is based on law enforcement to curb state fragility and the community uniting to identify and respond to crime and social disorder at both tactical and operational levels. In this regard, the private security majorly participate in problem identification and solving strategies in a particular area due to the vast knowledge of their areas of operation from their static deployment. Private

security is also involved in deciphering possible criminal threats and existent vulnerabilities within their areas which traverses strategic all the way to operational and tactical levels. Effective community policing is not only dependent on developing partnerships between law enforcers and the public, but also intergovernmental and interagency collaborations. These partnerships are critical for identification of threats and vulnerabilities, collection and exchange of intelligence and the necessary synergy in the event of an attack.

Murray (2005), also notes that in community policing, problem solving involves the process of identification of specific issues or concerns and the adoption of the most appropriate remedies to abate the identified challenges. Problem solving is based on the assumption that individuals make rational choices based on challenges and opportunities presented by the immediate physical and social environment. By manipulating these factors, people will be less inclined to act in an offensive manner. Generally, if the underlying conditions that create problems can be eliminated then the problem will also be eliminated at all levels from strategic to operational level.

Problem-oriented security management converges on three main themes: increased effectiveness which in most cases tackles the strategic vulnerabilities even as it touches tactical and operational vulnerabilities, reliance on the expertise and creativity of officers which deals with operational and tactical vulnerabilities, and closer involvement with other actors in the community which also cuts across tactical and operational levels. These themes can be effectively implemented by targeting underlying phenomena that deplete patrol officers' and detectives' time. Building capacity of officers so that they study problems and develop innovative solutions ensures that security agents are addressing the needs of citizens. As Lyons, (2002) argued therefore, the private security officers have a stake in conducting the problem solving process within their areas of jurisdiction.

### **2.2.3 Organizational Structure**

According to Heide, Gronhaug and Johannessen`s (2002), organization structure plays an important role in the strategy implementation because it is what gives life and direction to an existing organization. Drazin and Howard (1984), argue that a proper strategy that is aligned to the structure is critical to implementation of new business strategies by a company. A good structure allows information to easily cascade down and across the organization in a way that enhances efficiency and effectiveness. While studying the strategic implementation process at Hewlett-Packard (HP), Feurer and Chaharbaghi`s (1995) found out that support structures in the form of formal organizational structures are necessary for strategy implementation in a firm. The organizational structure therefore provides a visual explanation of decision-making process and resource allocation which drive the operations of an organization.

Zaribaf and Bayrami (2010), postulate that in any organization, strategy is formulated by top management exclusively which is subsequently implemented by the middle-level managers. Feedback is always given so that in situations where a raft of changes is required before implementation, the top management is looped back. To achieve this seamlessly, Miller, Wilson, and Hickson (2004), proposed embracing of teamwork by realigning roles, responsibilities and accountabilities with strategy. Teamwork between the different levels of management in an organization breaks the barriers that hinder efficiency. In contrast, Brache (1992), argued that while implementing the strategy, it is of paramount importance for an organization to apply cross functional processes that enhance strategy implementation instead of completely changing the organizational structure.

In an exploratory study on the effect of corporate communication on strategy implementation, Forman and Argenti (2005), argue that the internal communication is predominant not only in strategy formulation, but also in its successful implementation. Brenes, Mena and Molina (2008), argue that organizational structure and design are key since they entail critical decisions concerning resource allocation at various levels and activities within the business environment. A good structure ensures coordination hence equipment and human resource easily produce



results for the organization. Human resource is a key factor and when the capacity of the employees is built, the output will in most cases increase.

## **2.2 Theoretical Framework - Integrated Threat Theory**

### **2.2.1 Integrated Threat Theory**

The Integrated Threat Theory was originally introduced by Walter Stephan in 2000 and was structurally modelled after Thomas Pettigrew's Intergroup Contact Theory of 1998. This theory focused on the conditions that enhance intergroup contact and influence intergroup relations. As Wagner (2008), argues, Integrated Threat Theory centres on the conditions that lead to perceptions of threat, which subsequently affect attitudes and behaviour. Once a group senses a threat, they are bound to respond to this in a manner to ensure the group survives the threat. The key issues of Integrated Threat Theory is that people perceive certain changes in the environment they inhabit, focus in particular is on how other people or groups are utilizing the limited resources at hand. This observation may therefore motivate them to behave in a particular way in response to the initial perception they had.

When it is perceived by a group that other people or groups are using resources, material or psychological, that would have been beneficial to them, the group often perceives themselves vulnerable hence they respond in defence. Riek, Mania and Gaertner (2006), posits that such threats are bound to be present at any given time where a particular group's actions and culture challenge the goal attainment or survival of another group. Where there is limited supply of resources, the threatened group finds itself vulnerable hence is forced to compete for the limited resources. This is what brings conflicts in the society hence necessitating employment of security agents to safeguard members of society and their property. When the protracted competition is so immense, the government machinery may be overwhelmed thus creating a niche for the PSCs.

In Integrated Threat Theory, one may either belong to an in-group characterized by favouritism from fellow group members or out-group characterized by derogation from members of other groups. An in-group is that group of people who share certain characteristics and with whom an individual associates himself or herself. Genetically, it is inherent that human beings tend to

favour members from their own creed rather than those from others. Redmond (2012), posits that members of an in-group will always feel a sense of belonging to the group and are committed to the sense of belonging to the group. PSCs are an example of an in-group that works together and are willing to assist each other in times of challenges especially insecurity challenges.

Different PSCs have been seen working together in parts of Nairobi in most cases against gangs that would want to outdo them and steal from the premises they take care of. All insurgents on the other hand are an in-group that is brought together with the ultimate objective of reigning terror on unsuspecting innocent public in a region. When viewed from the PSCs perspective this group forms an out-group that all the time works against PSCs. Generally, members of the in-group will always socialize and offer each other preferential treatment in all aspects for social status. Redmond (2012), argues that an out-group can be described as any external group without an individual's in-group which is bound to be a potential rival or competitor for resources from other groups. Individuals in the out-group may competitively try and enter the in-groups of others to gain access to the scarce or seemingly unavailable resources.

The Al Shabaab insurgents from Somalia have on a number of occasions tried to outdo the Kenya Defence Forces (KDF) but have incurred extensive losses both in personnel and equipment. The group has vowed to transfer their resentment against the innocent Kenyan public whom they view as an in-group to the KDF with a view to convince Kenya to withdraw KDF from Somalia. Since this has been unsuccessful, the insurgents sneak into the country secretly to continually launch terror attacks against the Kenyan public, an act that has extensively stretched the security agents hence creating a niche for the PSCs. Members who are in the Al Shabaab in-group attempt to make members of the out-group (KDF) look bad in order to enhance their image and status which is the basis of the out-group derogation.

Integrated Threat Theory has a number of components including realistic threats, symbolic threats, intergroup anxiety and negative stereotyping. Stephans (2002), argues that the realistic and symbolic threats primarily deal with threats to the interests of the group and the degree to

which one may think their group's interests are being threatened. Due to competition, the members of the group will be prejudiced toward the other groups. Redmond (2012), argues that realistic and symbolic threats differ from intergroup anxiety and negative stereotypes, which in most cases enhance perceived threats by capitalising on the negative expectations and opinions of other groups. Realist threats result from the inherent perceptions held by the in-group, that any out-group is a potential risk to their safety, survival and well-being (Kendall, 1998).

Where the effectiveness and performance of PSCs exceed that of illegitimate gangs and insurgents, such gangs with minimal resources feel threatened because they feel there are material resource barriers that inhibit them to compete for operation. The PSCs supported by the security agents and their resources fight against lawlessness while the gangs with their minimal resources look for ways to evade the security agents to commit heinous crimes and perpetrate terror. The challenge in the resource equation makes the illegitimate gangs threatened hence are continually in conflict with the security agents. Intergroup threats fundamentally lead to conflict because they affect perceptions and behaviours which are bound to evoke strong negative emotions, which are a cause of conflict and generally insecurity. Intergroup threats can also influence an in-group's self-esteem in relation to the out-group which may affect their capacity or increase their vulnerabilities. While the Integrated Threat Theory clearly addresses the operations, capacities and vulnerabilities related to the PSCs as in-groups and illegitimate gangs as the out-groups, the theory fails to fully explain how adopting PSCs may be devolved in the different regions of a state hence lead to effective security management.

### **2.2.2 New Public Management Theory**

The New Public Management (NPM) theory was the brain child of Margaret Thatcher the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (UK) in the 1970s. The key issue then, was the development of new mechanisms for the public sector accountability that would ensure effectiveness and efficiency in service delivery. As Oliver and Drewry (1996), argue, since 1975 when Margaret Thatcher took over the realms of power in the United Kingdom as the Prime Minister, there were very radical programmes to reform public services. This was substantive towards improving the range of services provided by the state to the public. Even though the state seemed to dominate

and control public service, it was not unable to efficiently and effectively deliver quality services to its citizens due to its vastness, threatening state fragility.

Based on this, the scholars and academicians crafted a model that would build on the vision of Margaret Thatcher to assess the applicability of the radical shift from the traditional status to the new model of management which is used to challenge the state led economy in the globalised world. The Commonwealth Secretariat (1986), argued that with increasing global markets, national economic policies have to be tested against international yardsticks of competitiveness. In principle the NPM model is designed to decentralize state operations so that the state governance is felt in the entire state. This can be achieved through devolving security management activities to PSCs which are operationally at the grassroots and can be able to address localised security challenges within the community.

According to Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (1995), devolving authority and providing flexibility are cornerstones of the reforms aimed at improving operations. When the state operations are decentralised therefore, the performance of the state is tremendously improved because of improved economic efficiency and effectiveness in human development. This model with its features which serve as instruments of governance reforms has been the force behind the devolution debate which has swept most continents especially Africa. NPM model as an instrument for governance reform has been a clear success story in developing countries especially African countries where most public services have been felt in the rural areas after they were devolved. McLaughlin et al (2000), asserts that since early 1980s, significant strides have been made in sub-Saharan Africa towards transformation of the public sector from predator to resource generation. Towards this goal, a few countries have demonstrated modest progress while most have continually wallowed in mismanagement.

African countries have now and again been criticized for blindly embracing centralized governance which is claimed to have extremely affected the public sector and undermined human resource development. According to McLaughlin et al (2000, citing Hope and Chiko),

state bureaucracies in Africa are nonperforming and corrupt, too immense and lack a responsibility and accountability. However, the contemporary era has witnessed a wave of globalization coupled with strong citizen pressure for accountability of public service across the continent. In response to the evolving criticism, the irreversible citizen pressure and fluid global market orientation, most African governments have yielded and made application of the NPM model a means for the better of the continent because it has ensured efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery. The NPM model has significant guiding features of transforming traditional public management towards efficiency. While citing the World Bank, McCourt and Minogue (2001), argue that a key feature of the reforms was the belief that the state was too large and overcommitted hence the market offered better mechanisms for achieving efficient supply of goods and services. The expanse and over commitment have subsequently led to overstretching of the security agents that leaves gaps in security management hence a niche for PSCs.

Generally, the model culminates into five prime features of NPM which include first, 'deregulation of management structures, decentralization budgetary and financial management; second, remodelling of government departments into autonomous executive agencies and privatization units; third, evaluation of performance based on outputs rather than inputs and use of contracts; fourth, introduction of competition and internal markets; greater use of market resource allocation; and fifth, extending public-private partnership and privatization'. Based on all these features and the fifth feature in particular, extending public-private partnership and privatization, states can adopt use of PSCs in enhancing security in the devolved units. In this case the symbiotic relation can work well where the PSCs benefit from the government revenue while the government benefits from the services of these PSCs to ensure safety and effective security of its citizens.

### **3.0 METHODOLOGY**

To collect the relevant data for the research, the researcher used a semi-structured questionnaire that was administered purposively in the selected areas within the estate. Questionnaire was been preferred by the researcher because it gives standardized response for all respondents. The qualitative data collected from the questionnaire was analysed using the statistical tools of

research to arrive at the descriptive analysis of the data which include measures of central tendency like mean, median or mode and measures of central variability like range, variance and standard deviation.

#### **4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This section presents and discusses the interpretation of the findings obtained from the data collection exercise at Kamukunji in Eastleigh, the site of study. Descriptive and inferential statistics have both been used to discuss the findings of the study. ). The study targeted a sample size of 84 respondents, who all filled and returned the questionnaire making a response rate of 100%. Based on Mugenda and Mugenda (1999), assertion that a response rate of 70% and above is sufficient to draw conclusions from, this response rate is satisfactory for the study.

##### **4.1 Capacity**

The capacity of PSCs was one of the variables under study for this project. The study sought to assess how the capacity of PSCs affected security management in Nairobi City County. The capacity of PSCs can be determined using various parameters such as ability to conduct investigations, emergency response and innovation via ICT. The study utilized the questionnaire in a structured format that enquired from the respondents to what extent they either agreed or disagreed with a set of statements that reflected the parameters of assessing the capacity of PSCs.

The study sought to assess how the capacity of PSCs affects Security Management in Nairobi City County. From the table above, the respondents indicated the extent to which they agreed with the statements. The statement that enquired whether PSCs have enough trained personnel to offer security services recorded positive results though most respondents disagreed with the statement as denoted by a mean of 3.48. The second statement on whether PSCs have adequate security equipment for their tasks was also disagreed with as denoted by a mean of 3.43. The response of PSCs was deemed prompt and well-coordinated for response to emergencies as denoted by a mean of 3.60 recorded by respondents agreeing. Respondents disagreed with the statement that PSCs conduct thorough investigations and easily net culprits as denoted by a mean of 3.31.

Majority of the respondents agreed with the statement that incidences of insecurity had remarkably gone down since the PSCs came into operation in study area denoted by a mean of 4.10. Lastly, majority of the respondents agreed with the statement that PSCs are very innovative in their approach to security by their capability of using ICT through surveillance equipment installation and communication devices that perhaps the police have been slow in uptake which was denoted by a mean of 3.80. According to Yamoah and Maiyo (2013), capacity building broadly improves the abilities of all employees and develops the desirable skills and attitudes, which enable employees to accomplish suitable tasks efficiently. This argument is in line with the positive findings in the study which include training and innovativeness, however, Yamoah and Maiyo failed to point out that for PSCs to have an upper hand, this should be in tandem with the advancing technology. The findings also corroborate with Ahmad, Farrukh, and Nazir (2015), argument that capacity building has a positive impact on the employees' performance along with external factors and in general improves effectiveness at the organizational level. Though Ahmad, Farrukh, and Nazir failed to identify the external factors, it can be noted that as capacity building enhances performance, the other objectives of the study, vulnerability and organization structure fill the gap of other external factors that improve effectiveness.

#### **4.2 Vulnerability**

Vulnerability of the operators in the PSCs was one of the variables under study for this project. The study sought to assess the extent of the vulnerability of PSCs using the three different levels of their command and control structure that is the Strategic, Operational and Tactical level. The findings from the respondents were as follows:

The study inquired to what extent the respondents agreed with the above statements that relate to the vulnerability of PSCs at the different command levels. Majority of the respondents agreed with the statement that a career in the PSC is very risky as denoted by a mean of 3.83. The majority of the respondents also agreed with the statement that the top level management in PSCs are not exposed to imminent danger as indicated with a mean of 3.52. 63% also agreed that the coordination of PSCs was good denoted by a mean of 3.65. Further, 71.4% of the respondents agreed that the security guards were the most vulnerable members of the PSCs

which was denoted by a mean of 3.99 and lastly most respondents disagreed with the last statement where only 42% of the respondents agreed with the statement that PSCs work harmoniously with the police and the military.

Marshall (1920), highlighted vulnerability as the dependence of workers on continuous employment, due to the perishable nature of their labour power and the typical absence of a source of alternative income. This explains why PSC employees will continue working inspite of the fact that a career in the PSC is very risky as per the findings above. However once alternative sources of employment are sought, the turnover of PSC employees is bound to increase. Martin (1992), notes that, in practice, the pattern of dependencies is variable, being influenced by product, labour market conditions and a range of other economic, political, social and cultural factors. Though vulnerability of PSC employees can be covered under labour market conditions, Martin failed to point which labour market conditions were a cause of vulnerability. This study underscores how kitting and capacity building of the PSC employees enhances security management thus reducing vulnerability. While Marshal (1920) and Martin (1992), comprehensively discuss vulnerability from the employee security perspective, they fail to outline environmental vulnerability and the other economic, political, social and cultural factors. This study discusses both environmental vulnerability and other factors affecting performance of PSC like capacity and organization structure.

### **4.3 Organizational Structure**

This was the third variable that the study sought to assess, relationship of organizational structure with security management in Nairobi City County. Three parameters were considered for gauging the organizational structure which are organization, resources and training. The following statements were included in the questionnaire and the respondents indicated to what extent they agreed or disagreed with them:

The respondents indicated their responses as above, 58% of the respondents agreed with the statement that the PSCs were closer to the public than public security denoted by a mean of 3.89. 64.2% of the respondents agreed with the statement that the PSCs are well organized in security



management in the area denoted by a mean of 3.73. 54.3% of the respondents agreed with the statement that PSCs have adequate personnel manning the area denoted by a mean of 3.88. Majority of respondents disagreed with the statement that the PSCs have adequate equipment for security in the area while 49.4% of the respondents agreed with the statement which is a mean of 3.30. More so, 46.9% of the respondents agreed with the statement that PSCs are well trained to handle security issues with a mean of 3.38 and lastly 60.5% of the respondents agreed with the statement that PSCs have adequately sensitized the public on their activities represented by a 3.59 mean.

The findings of the study corroborate with Kampini (2018), argument that organization structure has an impact on the employee performance; a poor organized organization structure means that there will be low productivity, less delegation of work, no incentives provided and centralized decisions thus affecting employee job satisfaction and performance. However, Tamika fails to discuss how proximity of the PSC to the public enhances the confidence of the public in PSCs. This study found that PSCs are closer to the public than public security hence gain upper hand intelligence that enhances security through early detection and response. The findings of the study also corroborate with McQuerrey (2011), who argue that introduction of incentives and clearly defined roles in institutions satisfy their employees which improves performance. However, McQuerrey (2011), only centres her argument on incentives omitting other factors like equipment, training and organization structure itself. This study discusses equipment, training, organization structure, capacity and vulnerability of the employees as factors affecting performance.

## **5.0 CONCLUSIONS**

The study found a strong positive relationship between the independent variables of the study and the dependent variable as indicated by R square of 0.729 implying that capacity, vulnerability and the organizational structure of the PSCs explain 72.9% of security management, dependent variable. The study further established that there was a 37.4% change in security management that could be attributed to the capacity, vulnerability and organizational structure of PSCs. It is therefore right to conclude that a change in the parameters of capacity,

vulnerability or organizational structure will lead to a corresponding change of 37.4% in Security Management at any given time.

## **6.0 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The capacity of PSCs is an actual determining factor in the success of PSCs offering security services. Effective security management is heavily dependent on the capacity of the enforcing agency or entity both public and private. When the capacity of PSCs in this case is good, security management in any area will be effective and vice versa. As such from the findings of this study it is evident that out of all the parameters used to gauge the capacity of the PSCs, training has been rated the least. It is therefore recommended that one, the Private Security Regulator should set a datum for academic entry level for PSCs, set and enforce a standardized training curricula for all PSCs which is key to the aptitude of the employees. This is in line with Kehoe (1994), argument that a poorly trained workforce will eventually lead to poor performance and low customer satisfaction resulting in costly mistakes. Two, the regulator should identify the minimum equipment that is required for running a PSC and the required competency in handling the equipment. This will enhance adequate equipping of the PSCs to effectively and competently deal with the emerging threats in the contemporary world. Three, PSCs should embrace capacity building of their personnel in public relations in order to improve interaction skills with the society. The PSC personnel interact a lot with the public, even in the current fight against the COVID-19 pandemic they are among the first line operators hence need to learn how to relate well.

Provision of security services is a very risky venture especially in the wake of the contemporary threats. As such assessing the vulnerability of PSCs and their personnel is a salient factor that determines the success in security management. Out of all the parameters used to gauge the vulnerability of the PSCs including risk exposure, coordination and cooperation with public security agencies, cooperation with other public security agencies was rated least during the study. This could be attributed to their level of training, remuneration and the capacity to operate on their own where the other agencies feel they are only there as ‘alarm’ to always call for assistance. It is therefore recommended that, one, the PSCs should be properly equipped with the

necessary equipment including communication, protective and surveillance equipment to enhance their capability to respond to crime. Two, The PSC Regulator should standardize the remuneration packages for the PSC personnel to counter financial vulnerability that may entice them to compromise their duties.

Vineet Nayar (2010), in her book, *Employees first, customers second* shows how a company can focus on its value creators, the frontline employees, to achieve remarkable growth and profits. As Nayar (2010), argues it is paramount to get PSC employees well remunerated in order to enhance their effectiveness. A well remunerated employee is not likely to compromise thus enhancing effectiveness. Three, being the frontline security responders, PSC personnel should be trained on how to handle firearms. Training in handling fire arms will help them know how fire arms work so that once they are armed, they can effectively counter armed threats and support other public security agencies when need arises. It is argued by security analysts that if the PSCs manning the Dusit D2 hotel in Nairobi were armed, they would have minimized the effect of the terrorist attack in 2019. This is in line with the African Security Review (2004), which asserted that it's important for security officers to have bomb-threat training and emergency crisis training, especially for those located in soft target areas where the general public congregate.

Arming PSCs is also a deterrence in itself because it scares off would be criminals. This is in line with Abrahamsen and Williams (2005:7), views who states that the physical presence of security personnel particularly in combination with effective security procedures tends to reduce cases of theft, employee misconduct, safety rule violations, property damage or even sabotage. If physical presence alone can deter crime, arming the PSCs can reduce crime by a very large margin. However, strict control of these arms needs to be put in place to curb any abuse by compromised PSC employees.

The organizational structure of PSCs is what outlines the activities directed in order to achieve the goals and objectives. PSC structure is formulated in such a way that it is mostly intertwined within the environment in which PSCs personnel operate. This places PSCs in a unique position

to gather human intelligence (HUMINT) that is very critical in the fight against crime especially in the contemporary era of terrorism. Out of the parameters used to gauge organizational structure including public relations roles, effectiveness in area covered, adequate personnel and their equipment, adequate personnel and equipment was rated least. As such, in order to harness the unique capability on HUMINT and to ensure adequate personnel and equipment, it is recommended that; one, the National Intelligence Services (NIS) cultivate a structured engagement of PSCs to positively vet them and train them on basic intelligence gathering and reporting to enhance counter terrorism strategies and sieve bad elements.

Two, embedding the PSCs in the 'Nyumba Kumi' initiative in order to assist the local administration in the fight against crime through monitoring and reporting suspicious cases will be very effective in the fight against crime. Three, enhance training and equip PSC personnel so that they do not become the weakest link in the fight against crime especially terrorism. Since most PSCs do not have an elaborate training curricula for their employees, the PSC Regulator should draft a policy on training of PSCs to be embraced by the PSCs before they are licensed to operate. This will build the capacity of PSCs and standardize the quality of PSC employees in Kenya. This issue of employee training is supported by Mkutu (2007), who argues that training imparts appropriate knowledge and attitudes to individuals, which is paramount in the delivery of effective humane customer services leading to better work output and high levels of customer satisfaction.

Lastly, the PSC Regulator should draft a policy for all PSCs to come up with a clear strategy of addressing any complains for poor services. A complaint being an expression of dissatisfaction about the standard of service one receives can tell a company what is wrong with their process, product or personnel and how they are not living up to their customers' expectations (Ruyter & Rack 1993). According to Harkiranpal (2006), customer complaints help in the identification of services, processes and procedures that are not meeting the customer requirements and thus give the company an opportunity to make internal improvements so as to increase customer satisfaction. If this is put in place, it will assist the PSCs to improve their services hence satisfy their customers.

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