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Challenges Facing the Police and Private Security in the Provision of Security Services in Nairobi City County, Kenya

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Abstract

Over the course of the last 20 years, there has been an increase in the number of private security officers deployed to guard key installations and perform quasi-police functions in Kenya cities, more so in Nairobi. This has raised the curiosity of criminologists and criminal justice experts, who now want to learn more about the ways in which law enforcement and private security agencies work together to reduce crime. This study investigated the challenges that face the police and private security in the provision of security in Nairobi City County, Kenya. The study was underpinned in the systems theory and the differential association theory. The study used mixed methods approach in data collection and to this end, both quantitative and qualitative techniques were combined in data collection. The survey collected data from 241 respondents being 117 law enforcement personnel and 124 private security personnel in Nairobi County. The study collected both primary and secondary data and interview schedules and questionnaires were used to collect data from respondents. The city of Nairobi was chosen as the study area because of the substantial distribution of both public and private security service providers there. Quantitative data for the study was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics with the help of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 28.0 for windows. Study findings revealed that the challenges faced by police and private security in the provision of security services in Nairobi County included lack of manpower; a lack of resources; tribalism; lack of centralization of command; and a lack of adequate training with a combined coefficient of determination (\mathbb{R}^2) of 0.71). findings of this study stretched the fronters of knowledge and significantly contributed to existing body of knowledge on the policeprivate security partnership in the provision of security services not only in Nairobi County but in Kenya and beyond.

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1.1 Introduction

Many people have noticed that the last several decades have seen an unprecedented worldwide revolution in the way home security is provided. To many, this shift from a "monopolistic" framework in which government entities are purely tasked with providing safety to a "interconnected" or "pluralistic" model in which public and private stakeholders collaborate together to fulfill this critical social function represents nothing less than a worldwide change in the way domestic security is supplied (Shearing and Stenning 1983; Jones and Newburn 1998; Bayley and Shearing 2001; Johnston and Shearing 2003).

The American Society for Industrial Security (ASIS International) claims this to be the case. In contrast to official law enforcement agencies, private security refers to a wide range of non-government entities whose primary mission is to protect private citizens, businesses, and other entities against criminal acts and other forms of harm. ASIS claims that the private security industry can assist both public and private institutions in protecting their enterprises, assets, and essential infrastructure against natural disasters, accidents, or deliberate activities (ASIS, 2010). As a consequence, Wakefield A. (2003) states that there is a immense priority on private security as part of the overall policy plans as a consequence of increased demand and growth of private safety in many companies. He further emphasizes that providers of private security are acknowledged worldwide as key partners in crime prevention and detection. Private security firms have expanded to fill what they see as a gap caused by overburdened public safety and police forces. Due to the proliferation of megamalls and large-scale housing complexes with communal features in Australia, constant surveillance is required to ensure the safety of consumers and residents. Actually, proper security is now one of those desirable features that draws in both consumers and residents. New private owners of government-owned businesses and services including airlines, prisons, phone companies, and power plants must assess and manage their own security risks as a result of political decisions to privatization such sectors (Shearing and Stenning 1983). The presence of private security organizations has grown considerably over the continent of Africa. Shaw (2002) cites South Africa as an example of a country where the private security industry expanded rapidly in the 1970s and early 1980s as the South African Police Department retreated from its main crime control obligations in order to keep democratic authority as well as provide service to the state bureaucracy. So the government allowed the private security sector to step in and do what the police had stopped doing.

According to Shaw (2002), the South African Police Service (SAPS) is plagued by charges of corruption and incompetence, as well as being underfunded, underpaid, and overworked. If what Shaw (2002) says is true, then many individuals and businesses have hired private protection services. These organizations provide many different types of services, including security guarding, money transfer, and armed replies to private inquiries. Three times as many private security guards than police, according to his estimation; thus, South Africans are more likely to call on the guards (Shaw 2002). Private security evolved in Botswana to address the security vulnerabilities that existed and drew international security markets' investment. The only way of improving the services was through the protection of the private sector in Botswana with the addition of modern equipment.

Molomo et al. (2004) also point out that the country has set up security organisations to support selfmonitoring, discuss security companies' rights, respect industry rules and exchange ideas. Crime has increased substantially in recent years in Kenya, especially in Nairobi County. The foregoing circumstances have led to an increasing expansion and presence of PSCs, which helps both directly and indirectly to preserve the safety and security of the law enforcement process. Private security in Kenya means the various security measures supplied by people, companies, and other organizations to a customer at a cost, rather than the public safety that the state provides (Safer World, 2008).

The most promising strategy for reducing crime in Kenya would involve law enforcement authorities from both the public and private sectors working together to protect the public. In order to deal with crime and terror, the government has set up specific agencies. While effective, these measures are insufficient on their own to address widespread security concerns. The public security sector employs its own resources to combat crime, but crime remains a problem despite their efforts. In order to effectively manage crime, public and private security forces must work together in a number of crucial areas. This is due to the fact that the threats in the security environment are ever-evolving and ever more severe. It is in light of this realization that this study sought to explore the challenges facing the police and private security in the provision of security.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Enhancing security, stability, and the rule of law are key to supporting economic progress, as stated in the Kenya Economic Recovery Strategy for Employment (2003-2007). Enforcement of the law, keeping the peace, and ensuring the safety of all citizens all play critical roles in fostering economic development and improving people's standard of living. Kenya's worsening security situation has led to a rise in the number of people using private security firms to safeguard their homes, families, and valuables. As a result of the attacks on businesses and individuals, economic and social stability have suffered. Recently, kidnappings, carjackings, bank robberies, and burglaries have all increased in Kenya recently, further worsening the country's already precarious security situation. Law enforcement officials and other representatives of the government are tasked with keeping the populace safe from external threats. The incapacity of the states, through the police, to offer sufficient protection for their citizens and businesses is driving this need. Initial security shortages are filled by non-profit neighborhood groups, which evolve into vigilante and militia organizations over time. To ensure their safety, they began charging for protection. In order to fill these obvious voids, private security services have emerged. To effectively fight crime and aid in other operational areas, there must be more coordination between the police and private security firms in the provision of security services in Kakamega County, Kenya.

1.3 Objective of the study

To explore the challenges facing the police and private security in the provision of security.

1.4 Research question

The study was guided by the following research question: What are the challenges facing the police and private security in the provision of security?

1.5 Significance of the Study

Thanks to research like this, we have a better idea of how private security services contribute to lowering crime rates. The research looked into how well private security companies and government security agencies work together, how different levels of training affect crime prevention, and how easily private security companies can get their hands on resources. On May 18, 2016, President Uhuru Kenyatta signed the Private Security Regulatory Act No. 13 of 2016 into law in an effort to standardize the private security industry.

This area needs more research because it is not regulated (Diphoorn, 2016). Kikuyu Sub County (Anicent, 2014), Nairobi County (Githimi et al., 2017), and Bungoma County are just a handful of the Kenyan counties where private security firms have been studied (Sikulu, 2014). The findings could considerably add to the body of knowledge regarding private security organizations gained from previous research in Africa, Europe, and the United States. This study has the ability to offer insight into how well-established research findings have held up

over time and across geographic boundaries. The study's findings will be used by security policymakers. Results will also be used by security sector policymakers to guide their own judgments. It will fill in the gaps in the current literature and provide a foundation for future studies on Kenya's comprehensive security policy.

1.6 Literature Review

The study reviewed empirical and theoretical literature relating to police private security in the provision of security services.

1.6.1 Police and private security partnership

Anicent (2014) argues that improving coordination between state police and private security firms would lead to more effective crime prevention. Anicent (2014) further noted that attaining a consensus between the two subjects would significantly reduce the existing issues of mistrust, stereotyping, and even fragmentation that have existed for the longest period.

According to Gareis (2012), the UN Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime in 2010 state that government institutions, all sectors of civil society, and the business sector should collaborate to reduce crime. According to the Secretariat's notice on civilian private security services, these firms can play an important part in maintaining public order and safety. This recommendation provides the avenue and the basis for the UN member States to ensure there exist partnerships and collaborations between the private security sector and the state in crime prevention. This is due to the fact that the two entities provide similar services for the common good and the benefit of the civilian population. This cooperation may enable them to pool resources together and strengthen the joint efforts to prevent crime among the stakeholders.

United Nations texts on security and international order, says Conte (2017), are replete with references to the ideas of "collective security" and "collective self-defense." They are included in Section 7 of the Charter of the United Nations. Although the idea's stated goal is to establish rules for interstate conduct during war, it also creates a platform for cooperation between nations and between nations and the private security industries of the world in order to establish a uniform legal framework for policing the private security industry everywhere. The reduction in criminal activity and the resulting increase in safety will be substantial. Public-private partnerships have progressed far beyond the old idea of private security serving as a mere "supplementary" force to police on foot patrols. A cooperative effort between public and private security forces is necessary to properly deliver intelligence services, protect vital systems and networks, and address other criminal problems that impact individuals, communities, and businesses. When it comes to upholding law and order, the services of well-trained and disciplined corporate guards are an invaluable asset in any civilized community. The rise of private security firms is a global phenomenon (Mtuku, 2007). More research is needed because the number of partnerships is rising steadily all around the world.

In. Several government agencies are using studies from the last few years to inform policy decisions that will help spread this method. Despite the obvious benefits of police and private security working together, the police force itself is not universally enthusiastic about the proposal. According to the data gathered, a number of countries have seen a decrease in their overall crime rates when private security firms and police forces begin working together (Prenzler, 2009).

When it comes to providing security, it's crucial for public and private police forces to work together (Private Officer International, 21 April 2013). Even though Kenya has a high crime rate, there is a major lack of collaboration and communication between private security services and the authorities. An absence of both a clear legal regime for private security and a solid policy structure to strengthen the interaction between private security and public enforcement has led to its deterioration.

Many police jurisdictions make localized agreements with private security firms, contributing to both the absence of a legal framework and a lack of policy consistency (Abrahamsen and Williams, 2005). The ongoing process of police reform and the new police leadership have contributed to this shift (Abrahamsen and Williams, 2005). These two factors explain why the private sector and the public police do not now work together to provide security services to the country. While private security and public police work closely together on a regular basis, their most important interaction is in response to consumer alarms and events. Since private security guards in Kenya who are not armed must call on public police for help in the event of a serious incident involving weapons or other dangerous devices, the Kenyan government plays a crucial role in protecting companies and citizens.

The existing, ad hoc, and informal partnership between private security businesses and public police looks to be inefficient in lowering crime rates. Although it seems that some private security firms have informal agreements in place to have police officers ride shotgun in their patrol vehicles, the vast majority of private security companies undertake inspections without the help of armed officers or assistants (Abrahamsen and Williams, 2005). To wit: (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2005). Without any kind of formal partnership, private security and public police are only able to work together. Formalising the connection inside legal and policy frameworks might lessen the extent to which it is unpredictable and subject to whim. It will help ensure that

everyone is on the same page and adopting the very same guidelines.

Protecting the public and the people they are entrusted with is a top priority for both law enforcement and private security agencies. Shearing et al. (1983) claim that private security organizations prioritize their clients' needs over public safety, while police personnel see protecting the public as a moral obligation. Most people trust the police to keep the peace and keep the streets secure, but the public views private security as little more than a money-making venture. Also, the police answer to the state and the public at large, while private security does to its markets and clients.

1.6.2 Private security services in Kenya

Several large, international corporations provide private protection services at a level that is unmatched by smaller organizations. Wakefield (2005) notes that the government maintains comparatively little oversight over the private security sector. It's a serious mistake on the part of the government to let private corporations provide less secure services to the public. However, only 21 of Kenya's estimated 2,000 security firms are stakeholders of the Kenya Security Industry Association (KSIA), Wairagu notes. Consequently, the bulk of these establishments are not subject to the self-regulatory practices of the industry. In addition, multiple unlicensed, privately-owned security firms prey on the public. Neither does the government have an agency dedicated to overseeing the industry, nor does it have a policy framework within which to codify the norms and standards that should be followed. Due of this, many businesses disregard service standards, work ethics, and labor laws. Most private security guards are young and inexperienced, therefore they make mistakes frequently, are poorly prepared, and lack the will to provide excellent service.

As per Wairagu et al. (2010), the private security profession is dominated by recent college grads in their early thirties. Additionally, the poll shows that most workers have only completed high school. The authors suggests some guards lack insurance, putting their families at risk in the event of an accident or death. Employees become disillusioned and frequently work along with criminals to rob their employers and customers in this industry. In 2009, G4S (a private security firm) was looted three times while moving cash between locations. Members of the private security firm are suspected of colluding in all three incidents.

1.6.3 Need for private security in Kenya.

The lack of strong institutional frameworks to hold police to account to the public and the legal system should be given special focus. The prior legislation only allowed the Kenyan president to institute disciplinary measures for the police force. This legal structure has allowed powerful persons outside the normal hierarchy of command, such as legislators and rich business owners, to have excessive control over the authorities. They have been able to use police power for their own private and political gain, even when those interests run opposed to those of the common Kenyan. Even when instructions have been in contravention of the law or obviously in the benefit of some and unjust toward others, the police have acquiesced because they "rely for their own career growth and happiness on lawmakers." Researchers led by A. Nalla (2006).

It is critical to conduct investigations and hand down punishments for wrongdoing in a way that is fair, effective, and subject to public review. Both inside and outside the police department, these systems must be put in place. Today's dependence on powerful clients inevitably breeds pervasive impunity, which is the biggest threat to transparency. Because of this situation, police officers can freely commit wrongdoing, criminal acts, and violations of human rights without fear of repercussions. The main adversary of accountability is impunity, which allows police officers to violate human rights and conduct crimes without fear of punishment. Since there are no effective mechanisms in place to investigate and punish police misbehavior, there is a culture of impunity. Also, it happens when important people outside of the chain of command can shield favored officers from investigations and disciplinary action through their patronage. Cronyism has blossomed in all areas of the Kenya Police Reserve (KPR): recruitment, training, equipment, deployment, and promotion. As a result, it is essential that it streamline its operations in order to regain both its service and its reputation.

The police are just one tool available to communities who want to improve their safety. The shift away from arresting and prosecuting criminals and toward problem-solving and prevention exemplifies the shift in how police are viewed. Many citizens no longer have faith in their government due to factors such as pervasive police corruption and incompetence, rising crime rates, and the state's inability to effectively combat these issues.

1.6.4 Benefits of partnership in reducing crime

For Ekblom (2010), any strategy that lessens the likelihood of criminal activity is a crime prevention strategy. Everything of a proactive character is included here. This statement demonstrates that any proactive, rather than reactive, action taken with the intent to lessen the likelihood of criminal conduct occurring can be considered crime prevention. Wilson and Petersilia (2010) states that crime should be characterized not by the good intentions behind it but by the harm it causes to others. A well-coordinated effort whose ultimate result might prevent a crime from occurring can be called a crime prevention effort. Private security service firms are similarly responsible for this.

According to Hollis-Peel et al. (2011), the Routine Activity Theory was initially proposed by Cohen and Felson to explain the unusual conditions necessary for criminality to happen. A later version of this theory

proposed that for a criminal act to occur, three factors must be present at the same time and place. The absence of a possible guardian, an appropriate target or victim, and a motivated perpetrator are the three factors. In this context, a "motivated offender" could be anyone who has any motivation to commit a crime. To a motivated criminal, anyone or anything of value, any physical object at threat of vandalism, or any person at risk of victimization, could serve as a potential target. Anybody, such as a relative, police officer, neighbor, or private security service provider, who is in the area at the time of the crime has the ability to act as a guard.

Carmola (2010) argues that private security services have the authority of their clients to regulate behavior in a defined area, be it a business or public place. This view portrays private security service providers as prospective godfathers. According to the author's line of thinking, just having them there is enough to deter a criminal who is considering committing a crime against a certain individual or group. According to David (2011), a nonprofit organization is any legal entity that provides security services to individuals, organizations, or physical assets in exchange for a charge. Criminality and safety are the two main lenses through which the concept of protection is seen. Private security firms are prohibited from using lethal force or other disproportionate measures by the International Code of Conduct for Private Security Service Providers, David (2011) adds. Except under extreme pressure when life or significant bodily harm must be avoided. In crime prevention, the amount of force used to repel an assailant or dangerous situation should be appropriate to the level of danger posed. Any use of force that is disproportionately large to the situation would be a violation of standards of conduct, international human rights law, criminal law, or the terms and conditions of the regulatory framework.

1.6.5 Challenges in Police - Private Security Partnership

The practice of consolidating security is often met with three main types of criticism: first, the enterprises focus on providing their services for monetary benefit instead of a specific cause; second, the businesses threaten the representative democracy relationship between the state and its citizens by undermining the state's dominance on the use of force, which is particularly true when security officers resort to physical force in the method of offering security; and third, the organizations offer additional their assistance for monetary benefit instead of a particular cause.

When these concerns are factored in, including the private security sector in crime prevention collaborations becomes a considerably more complex matter. [Insert citation here] Truth be told, it's quite unlikely that we'll see a reversal of the trend toward privatizing security anytime soon. "the mixing of state and private players within the sphere of protection is going to stay, and therefore the global community must find a way, if not to welcome it, at least to manage with it," one writer writes. Because of this, "[t]he mixing of state and private players within the realm of security is here to stay," as one analyst put it. According to (Creutz, 2006:9) Individual nation-states are also affected by this issue; it's not only a global one. The private security industry remains to characterize domestic commercialization of security, especially in affluent neighborhoods and enterprises, therefore the involvement of this industry in crime prevention collaborations by nation states might be seen as an embracement of this sector. The meaning of the word "embracing" is open to several interpretations. Several issues have surfaced as a consequence of the private security industry's growing involvement in tasks and activities hitherto considered the province of the public sector. The state's exclusive right to use violence has been steadily eroded, for starters. (Weber, 1919). (A state is defined by Weber as "a human society that (successfully) claims the monopoly of lawful use of physical force within a certain region," with the legitimate use of force being the key quality that separates a state from other sorts of human groups.

The effectiveness with which states safeguard and protect public interest, such as the 18 privileges of their citizens, is put into doubt by this power shift from the government service to the corporate companies, which is often guided and monitored by private superiors who are not personally answerable to government scrutiny. Some governments may come to see hiring private security firms as their major option for dealing with domestic problems in the long term. Regardless of the fact that private security players may reduce crime and increase safety, this is nonetheless the case. It's worth stressing that human rights violators, like as members of rebel organizations or other militias, may sometimes be found among these private security operators. This is a factor that has to be considered. Second, the twin shortcomings of democracy and responsibility are exacerbated by the use of private security players. Utilizing private security operators is known to result in these flaws. Lack of transparency and reliable information on private security industry employees, procedures, and governing laws is a constant problem in this setting.

This makes it hard to ensure democratic oversight in the private security sector. Public supervision may not be among the sorts of scrutiny to which personal security organizations are directly responsible since they solely answer to management, corporate boards, and investors (Richards & Smith, 2007). This leads to a pervasive problem of unaccountability among private security sector players, both at the corporate and personal levels. The third problem is that private security firms are more likely to commit human rights abuses since they are not held to the same standards as governmental authorities. Criminal liability issues rank high on the list of things to think about when hiring a private security company (PSC), which are increasingly significant in the security business.

The topic of whether or not nations should hire private security (and military) groups on a global scale is similarly problematic. For instance, it has been argued that governments should not be able to utilize non-state entities as a bargaining chip to escape their international legal obligations (Dutly, 2007). Concerns about national security have been exacerbated by the growth of the private security industry, which brings us to our fourth point (Heinecken & Motzouris, 2011). The private security industry relies heavily on former law enforcement and military personnel who have left government service for higher compensation in the industry. Why? Because private security firms sometimes provide better compensation than government security units. Since a result, the surviving police and military troops are under a lot of stress as they are required to work more shifts. The private security business seems to be receiving instruction from national military and police agencies. That's causing a serious "brain drain" in the armed forces and other government agencies.

Fifth, there is a lack of unified or uniform standards in the private security industry. This is because the firms that make up the private security sector are very adaptable in their operations (both domestically and abroad), and the industry as a whole still lacks a common definition of what it is. Although there is some consensus on the set of duties associated with each term, "private security enterprises" and "private military corporations" are often used interchangeably in the media and academic literature. This difference is so important that "PMSCs" is never used to refer to just one of the two types. The process of creating legislative tools that might effectively regulate this business is hindered by this, though. Because of the aforesaid challenges, it is important to proceed with care when considering the prospect of developing anti-crime collaborations that incorporate the private security industry.

For instance, one would wonder why a non-state entity that ostensibly works to undermine the idea that the state has a monopoly on the use of force is given any weight at all in efforts to reduce crime. This might be asked in the context of the justification for crime prevention programs. The second question that must be answered is whether or not the private security industry, whose customers tend to be affluent, should be involved in crime prevention collaborations. Despite this, low-income neighborhoods are given priority in community policing programs. Therefore, it is important to conduct this research to provide policymakers with the knowledge they need to create or revamp national crime prevention initiatives.

1.6.6 Theoritical review

This study was underpinned in the differential association theory and the systems theory.

1.6.6.1 Differential Association Theory

A sociologist associated with the Chicago School, Edwin Sutherland initially proposed his idea in 1939. To shed light on how criminals acquire the know-how and resources to commit specific crimes, as well as how they come to accept and even love doing so, he devised a theory called differential association. He theorized that a person picks up the beliefs, attitudes, tactics, and motivations for criminal action in close-knit social groups, even if those groups aren't inherently anti-social. He found that the majority of criminal behavior is learnt in close-personal groups, and that it is acquired through conversation and engagement with others. Cottino (2004) explains that when criminal behavior is taught, the offender is able to guide his or her own motivations, impulses, rationalizations, and attitudes toward committing the crime, regardless of how complex or straightforward the crime itself may be.

Codes that are defined as either beneficial or harmful provide light on the specific nature and direction of motivations and urges. When a person's dictionary has more meanings that advocate violating the law than those that do not, that individual is more inclined to breach the law. The frequency, longevity, significance, and intensity of affiliation discrepancies may vary widely. The method of understanding illegal behavior by associating it with criminal and anti-criminal tendencies utilizes the same principles at action in any other kind of acquisition.

Criminal behavior, according to Cressey (1960), cannot be explained by the fact that it is a manifestation of universal wants and values, as the same needs and value systems may be represented in non-criminal ways. For this reason, offenders engage in illegal behavior since they have more thoroughly absorbed pro-criminal than anti-criminal ideas. His proposal divides the world's population into two camps: those who actively strive to break the rules and those who are content to just observe them. High-crime neighborhoods, thus, are not characterized by a general absence of social organization but rather by a distinctive social structure, or a set of actions and cultural concepts that are in conflict with the law.

Psychopathic boys who are reclusive, introverted, and apathetic are more likely to stay at household and not become acquainted with other boys in the neighborhood, whereas socially adept, outgoing, energetic, and athletic boys tend to socialize with other boys in the community, gain knowledge on deviant behaviors from them, and ultimately become gangsters (Glaser, 1956). Through the problem-solving element of police-private intelligence sharing, the police and the community may collaborate to address the fundamental reasons for crime and instability. Both public and private security personnel will work together to combat a criminal's tendency to give more weight to definitions that justify their actions than those that don't. This happens because public and private security agencies work together to eliminate either the victim's vulnerability or the criminal's incentive to

commit crime. By increasing police and private security patrols, for example, they can reduce the number of times criminals can get together, which in turn reduces the opportunity for illegal behavior to be learned.

1.6.6.2 Systems Theory

Senge (1990) argues that the reason the world is in such bad shape is that people refuse to look at it as a whole and instead prefer to examine it in isolated fragments. The beauty of a human being, a poem, or a flower, he writes in The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization, is in fully appreciating all of its parts (Senge, 1990).

Therefore, he suggests, we should train ourselves to be sensitive to the nuances of interdependence that characterize living systems. He argues for a cyclical systems approach since our incapacity to see the world as one is a result of our perspective. So he developed systems thinking, a way of looking at the big picture and the underlying patterns and dynamics of complex problems and processes of change. Systems thinking, as noted by Buckley (1967), is a paradigm for focusing on processes rather than outputs, on identifying trends rather than snapshots, because society is inherently dynamic. Indeed, he says, it is essential that we comprehend the structures, as it is the patterns themselves that reveal the behavior.

For instance, in the absence of a legislative framework, all Kenyan police officers prefer to deal with private security officers in the same manner. This is because a commander engages the private security agents at their discretion. This ad hoc arrangement is influenced by the absence of frameworks for the partnership between public and private security agencies. People, according to Buckley (1967), are "...actors who actively form their reality and not helpless reactors."

According to Ritzer (1992), a chain reaction occurs when one event triggers another, and so on. Therefore, he disagrees with the concept of cause-and-effect thinking and instead advocates for cyclical systems. To see the big picture, he says, society needs to shift to a systems perspective and abandon the outdated linear model. Senge (1990) notes that systems thinking, in general, considers the world's systems to be inseparable and that natural phenomena are composed of wholes within wholes. Similar to how humans are bound together by unseen forces of connected behavior. Thus, systems can be detailed or dynamically complicated. Due to the system's inherent flexibility, even the most intuitive of actions may not produce the expected results.

Partnership building, and especially with any actor within the community who can contribute to the general security of the area, is crucial to the success of police-private security collaboration. According to this idea, the police, who represent the primary interest group and are required by law to set up community policing structures and partnerships in accordance with Section 98 of the NPS Act, 2011, are stuck in a rut of linear thinking. They worry about what others will think of them, so they are careful to do exactly what the law specifies, leaving little space for original thought. Thus, despite private security's significant positive impact on public safety, police use them only infrequently due to a lack of regulation in this area.

To effectively use private security in crime prevention, police should adopt the cyclical thinking style advocated by Francis (1982). Despite the private security guards' vital role in crime prevention and community safety, police integration has reduced their opportunities for connection with the public. Senge (1990) argues that law enforcement and private security agencies should shift their focus from objects to interactions, from snapshots to patterns of change, because modern society is inherently unstable. When it comes to bolstering community safety, police should look at private security firms the same way they do other businesses and pay attention to what makes them stand out as a service. It is true, as he points out, that it is important to grasp the structures, as it is the patterns that reveal behavior.

1.7 Research Methodology

The study used a descriptive research design and was conducted in Nairobi County, Kenya. Non-probabilistic and probabilistic methods of sampling were used. For this research, we utilized a purposeful sampling strategy to locate our most important sources of data and commentary. Law enforcement and private security industry top brass provided the most useful insights as selected respondents. Cluster sampling was used in this study. This involved creating a list of all the police stations under the respective sub-counties. A list of all police officers within these stations was drawn. This was done to fairly distribute survey takers across police precincts. The same was applied to private security providers. Simple Random sampling was used in identifying junior officers from both the police and the private security providers

The researcher in this study used both questionnaires and key informant interviews to collect data from respondents. A pilot study was carried out three weeks before the actual study within Nakuru County to assess the validity and reliability of research instruments. Nakuru County has a high number of private security companies operating there, just like Nairobi. In the pilot study, all the research instruments were administered to 10% of the target respondents to assess whether the research instruments' suitability captured the required type of data as suggested by Creswell (2014). The research goals informed the data analysis. The questionnaire data was coded and sorted so that it could be processed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program. Both qualitative and quantitative data was analyzed. Mean scores, frequencies, and percentages were calculated

using descriptive statistics to assess quantitative data from closed-ended questions and displayed using tables, charts, and graphs.

Comparatively, the qualitative data was analyzed and presented thematically in narrative forms and tables, based on responses to open-ended questions.

1.8 Research Findings

Findings of the study are presented in this section.

1.8.1 Response rate

A total of 270 participants from Nairobi County were targeted for the study being 135 officers from the National Police Service and 135 from private security businesses. The survey realized succeeded in collecting data from 117 law enforcement personnel and 124 from private security personnel, adding up to 241 respondents. This gave the study a response rate of 89.26%. Findings from a sample can be generalized the population from which the sample was drawn as suggested by Mugenda and Gitau (2009) that a sample of 70% or more of the target sample is adequate fr generalization of findings.

1.8.2 Demographic characteristics of respondents

The primary purpose of this research was to learn foundational information from participants that could affect the study's independent variables. Participants' ages, sexes, employers, years of service, salaries, and job titles were all tracked. In what follows, we will present our findings.

Respondents were asked to indicate their age range and findings presented in table 1.

Table 1: Age range of respondents

Age Range	Frequency	Percentage (%)
20-30 years	47	19.50
31 - 40 years	102	42.32
41-50 years	56	23.24
Over 50 years	35	14.52
Total	241	100.0

Source: Field, data, 2016

Table 1 shows that the majority of respondents (42.32%) were between the ages of 31 and 40, while a little smaller percentage (23.24%) were in their forties and fifties. The study also found that 19.5% were in the 20-30 age range, while 14.52 % were in the 50+ age bracket. Participants in the study were adults with sound discretion regarding the constructs being tested. Prenzler (2009) argues that respondents' level of maturity is a crucial indicator of whether or not they would be able to grasp abstract ideas and integrate disparate life experiences in a way that enriches scientific inquiry.

Respondents were asked to state their current employer and findings presented in figure 1.

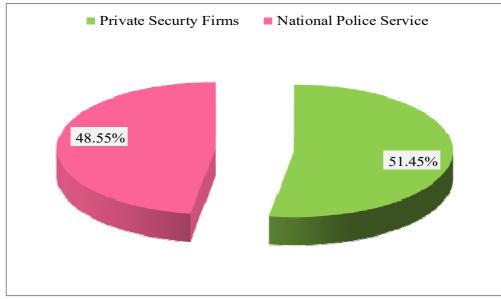


Figure 1: Respondents' Current Employer

Figure1 shows that 51.45% of respondents were recruited from private security services and 48.55 % were recruited from the national police service. In order to ensure that the study reflected the desired characteristics of both study populations, it aimed to sample respondents from across the targeted respondents.

The average length of time respondents have been with their current employer was also a research question;

the results of which are shown in table 2. Table 2: Length of Service of Respondents

Table 2: Length of Service of Respondents					
Length of Service	Frequency	Percentage (%)			
Less than 4 years	25	10.37			
4-10 years	51	21.16			
11-20 years	42	17.43			
21 – 30 years	87	36.10			
Over 30 years	36	14.94			
Total	241	100.0			

Source: Field data, 2016

Table 2 shows that of the people who filled out the survey, 36.1% had worked in the same place for 21-30 years and 21.16 % had worked for the same company for 4-10 years. Furthermore, the results showed that 14.94% of respondents had been in the workforce for more than 30 years, 17.43% had been working for 11-20 years, and 10.37% had been employed for fewer than 4 years. This strongly suggests that the vast majority of respondents have extensive experience working in the security industry, and hence would comprehend the study structures and provide comments that adequately satisfy the study objectives.

Respondents were asked to state their salary range in Kenyan shillings and findings presented in table 3.

Table 3: Salary range of the Respondents

Salary Range	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Less than 10 years	34	14.11
10,000 - 20,000	39	16.18
20,001 - 30,000	68	28.22
30,001 - 40,000	57	23.65
Over 40,000	43	17.84
Total	241	100.0

Source: Field, data, 2016

Study findings in table 3 reveal that 28.22% of the respondents earned a monthly salary between 20,001 and 30,000 while 23.65% earned a monthly salary of 30,001 to 40,000. It was also found that 17.84% of the respondents earned a monthly salary of over 40,000, 16.18% earned 16.18% earned a monthly salary of 10,000 to 20,000 while a further 14.11% earned salary of less than 10,000 per month. This shows that respondents were relatively well paid and motivated to discharge their security rolls in the respective security sectors where they are employed.

Respondents were also asked to state their designation in the organization where they worked and findings presented in figure 2.

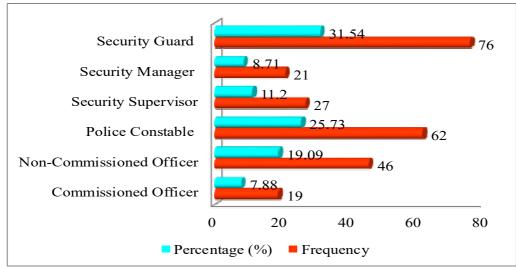


Figure 2: Position/Designation held by respondents

According to the data in Figure 2, 31.54 percent of participants worked for private security organizations as bodyguards, while 35.73 percent served as police coppers for the national police force. The results also indicated that 19.09% of the respondents were National Police Service non-commissioned personnel while 11.2% were security supervisors in private security firms. Further still, 8.71% of the respondents were security supervisors in private firms and 7.88% were commissioned officers from the national police service. This is a clear indication that the study sampled respondents from across all cadres of the security organizations considered for the study.

This inclusivity allowed the study to benefit tap into the much needed information from the respondents given that different cadres of security officers have different job assignments that were vital to be investigated by the study.

1.8.3 Challenges facing the police and private security in provision of security

The objective of the study was to explore the challenges about the difficulties of providing protection by law enforcement and private security firms. This research aimed to find out if there were any problems with police and private security agencies providing secure facing the police and private security in the provision of security in Nairobi County, Kenya. To determine the direction and magnitude of challenges by police and private security in provision of services in Nairobi County, research data was subjected to regression analysis and findings presented in table 4.

Variable	Coefficients	t-value	p-value
Constant	0.263	2.890	0.005
Inadequate personnel	0.513	3.684	0.000*
Inadequate resources	0.935	11.024	0.000*
Centralization of Command	0.183	5.936	0.000*
Tribalism	0.133	3.207	0.002*
Training	0.381	7.560	0.000*
Goodness of Fit:			
R ² 0.713			

	0.715
Adjusted R ²	0.689
F-value	3.867

Source: Field data, 2016

Table 4 displays the results of a regression analysis conducted on the difficulties encountered by police personnel and private security services in Nairobi County in providing security. Insufficient manpower, finances, command centralization, tribalism, and education were among the concepts examined. Results showed that at the 0.05 level of significance, calculated t-statistics (t = 3.684, 11.024, 5.936, 3.207, and 7.560) for the parameters of insufficient personnel, insufficient resources, centralization of command, and tribalism and training were higher than tabulated t-statistics, indicating that the key problems to security measures were statistically meaningful. Challenges in providing security by police and private security organizations in Nairobi County may be broken down as follows: a lack of manpower, a lack of resources, a lack of centralization of command, a lack of ethnicity, and a lack of training (R2 = 0.713). Most of the remaining unexplained variance (28.7%) may be attributed to stochastic error and variation in non-regression factors. To summarize, the general goodness of fit of the linear regression was statistically significant (f = 3.867, P 0.05). This research contrasted the results of empirical studies on the difficulties of inter-agency security partnerships with those of the study establishing the difficulties of cooperation between police officers and private security in security providing. As an example, many police officials worry that if the private sector is allowed to get more involved in police work, it would create a two-tiered system in which the wealthy get better protection than the poor. Law enforcement officers generally agree that private security firms should not be entrusted with certain responsibilities, including the monitoring of potentially violent public spaces. Several factors contribute to this, and they are all interconnected in some way. Some of these drawbacks include the fact that the private sector is not held accountable to the public, that it is profit-driven, that service disparities are possible, and that the public may lose faith in private security as a result. Establishing which police responsibilities are most critical, whether they should be carried out by uniformed officers or by other members of the police force, and how the force's work should be structured for maximum efficiency remains a contentious issue. There has been a lot of progress in this area, although it might need some further elaboration.

A key barrier to the effectiveness of such collaborations is the lack of confidence between the police and the

private security. Cooperation between law enforcement and private security agencies is hampered by a lack of confidence. For instance, Caxton Munyoki, head of the Kenya Security Industry Association, has remarked that a lack of confidence between private guards and Kenya's police has prevented much cooperation in the past (Voice of America, 2010). According to Munyoki, there is a great deal of mistrust between the private security and the police since the police see the private security as competing with them rather than helping them. According to Munyoki, many private security guards are hesitant to help the police because they fear being treated as a suspect if they report a crime.

After identifying the challenges faced in providing security in Nairobi County, the research set out to determine the nature and extent of the identified challenges they pertain to police and private security agencies. A multinomial logistic regression analysis was done and results presented in table 5.

Mode	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized		
			Coefficients		
	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	2.911	.445		2.441	.012
Inadequate Personnel	1.397	.65	.121	1.503	.029
Inadequate Resources	1.372	.61	.104	1.425	.017
Centralization of Command	1.299	.59	.142	1.672	.019
Tribalism	1.284	.54	.203	1.729	.037
Training	1.249	.51	.243	1.394	.027

Table 5: Multinomial Logistic Regr	ression for Challenges	Faced in Security pr	ovision

a. Predictors (Constant): Inadequate Personnel, Inadequate resources, Centralization of Command, Tribalism, Training.

b. Dependent Variable: Provision of Security Services.

Source: Field data, 2016

A bivariate correlation and regression analysis was conducted using challenges to security provision as predictors of the direction and magnitude of extent of security provision in Nairobi County. Findings in table 5 revealed that inadequate personnel accounted for 65% of the variance in the challenges facing provision of security services in Nairobi County (Beta 1.397, T 1.503, P<0.05). It was also established based on the study findings that inadequate resources accounted for 61% of the variance in the challenges facing provision of security services (Beta 1.372, T 1.425, P<0.05) while command centralization accounted for 59% of the variance in the challenges facing provision of security services in Nairobi County (Beta 1.299, T 1.672, P<0.05). Study findings further revealed that tribalism accounted for 54% of the variance in the challenges facing provision of security services (Beta 1.284, T 1.729, P<0.05) while training contributed to 51% of the variance in the challenges facing provision of security services in Nairobi County (Beta 1.249, T 1.394, P<0.05). The study's findings are explored in light of earlier empirical research on the obstacles inherent in security supply. Fischer and Green (2004) argue that due to budget constraints, most governments cannot guarantee complete safety for their citizens. Because of this, private security firms (PSF) have emerged as an essential addition to traditional law enforcement. The concept of PSC was originally conceived in the industrialized world (Dempsey, 2008). Residents' worries about safety rank high on the list, as does the realization that the public police cannot handle crime on their own. As a result, it became necessary for individuals, groups, and businesses to communicate more frequently with the private security sector and its resources in order to form a partnership aimed at reducing crime (Fischer and Green, 2004). The collapse of state capacity and services in Kenya that began in the late 1980s and persisted into the 1990s is directly linked to the rise in crime and the expansion of the private security sector (Abrahamsen and Williams, 2005). It was a time of diminishing economic prosperity in Kenya, as it was throughout most of Africa. Government spending and investment were slashed during this time period to comply with international donor demands for economic liberalization and structural adjustment. Due to this, the country's infrastructure, as well as its ability to maintain law and order, have been in a steady state of decline. Even with the recent pay increases, the police remain underfunded and underpaid, forcing many to resort to illegal practices like extortion and corruption to make ends meet. The police have often been blamed for political violence and intimidation (Human Rights Watch, 2003). People have a significant amount of mistrust for law enforcement and often see them as contributing to the problem rather than helping to solve it. Further, as the state's resources were cut, it became less able to provide jobs for its citizens. This exacerbated the already serious issue of urban unemployment and fueled the development of shantytowns and other forms of squatter camps in and around major cities.

1.8.4 Conclusions

The objective of the study was to explore the challenges faced by the police and private security in provision of security services in Nairobi County, Kenya. The purpose of the research was to identify any barriers to police and private security service delivery. Findings of the study revealed that calculated t-statistics (t = 3.684, 11.024, 11.024)

5.936, 3.207, and 7.560) for parameters of inadequate personnel, inadequate resources, centralization of command, tribalism, and training, respectively, were greater than tabulated t-statistics at 0.05 level of significance, implying that the identified challenges to the provision of security were statistically significant.

Both the national police and private security organizations in Nairobi County had difficulties in providing security due to a lack of manpower, finances, centralized leadership, tribalism, and training. All of the foregoing data led to this assumption.

1.8.5 Recommendations

In light of the study findings, the following recommendations are made:

Establishing a partnership between law enforcement security agencies and the private security business is one of the goals of the national police service's collaboration with the private security corporations. This cooperation aims to enhance mutual accountability, enhance police performance, and eventually lead to a decrease in both crime and fear of crime. The connection between the state and private security corporations is becoming increasingly complicated over time.

The government needs to create regulations for the private security sector as the absence of such regulations has a significant impact on the industry's effectiveness. The authors of this paper argue that a national regulatory framework or system is necessary to provide public monitoring and control over the private security sector. For maximum benefit and clarity, the connection between the private and public security sectors must be regulated properly. Policies established by the government to ensure that all PSC employees are licensed to work in the private security sector and are trained to high standards for effective and efficient operations in security provision will improve the quality of service provided by PSCs and their overall performance. Members of the national police force will have more faith in PSC personnel as a source of security as a result of this. Mechanical command structures need to be addressed in the national police service since they have been found to delay response to emergency situations. Junior police officers should be given autonomy to make decisions that sometimes remain only a preserve of senior officers. The national police service needs to recruit more officers to cater for the massive shortage in the number of officers. Acceptable admission criteria, a joint training program, and an adequate performance-based and incentive-oriented optimized feature should all be outlined in a comprehensive strategy that guides staff recruitment, training, placement, and long-term planning. The fundamental idea here should be holding service providers accountable for their work. There must be a reevaluation of police training's adequacy to guarantee that all training and development programs have an active commitment to diversity and inclusion.

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