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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of strategic characteristics on business continuity management (BCM) among Kenyan private security services companies, since contemporary organizations face unprecedented risks which may interrupt their day to day operations and/or at worst, negatively impact their future existence. An integrative model of the relationship among organisational structure, resources, leadership style, systems and BCM was developed and tested using data from 142 security companies. The results suggest that the company structure (CS), support systems (CSS) and resources (CR) have a direct, positive and significant effect on BCM. It was also ascertained that leadership style (LS) has negative but significant effect on BCM, and CR exerted a greater influence on BCM, than other factors. It may be concluded that there are some generally applicable underlying drivers of BCM, which organisations need to embrace during planning. To increase generalizability, future studies should be extended to other service institutions.

Keywords: Business continuity, Business Risk, Planning, Security firms, Strategy.

1. Introduction and Background

Business continuity management (BCM) has morphed into a topical issue in organisational management in recent years and this could be attributed to the fact that business sustainability and successes may, to a large extent, be impacted upon by actors in the environment, such as natural disasters, business risks and extreme developments such as terrorist activities (Sawalha, Anchor & Meaton, 2015). To mitigate potential threats such as the aforementioned, organizations seek to develop BCM plans to help managers deal with activity demands, in case of a predicament. While the debate on the exact meaning of the term BCM and how it relates to crisis management is still ongoing (Fischbacher-Smith, 2017), the aforementioned concepts have sometimes been used interchangeably, albeit incorrectly. As a strategic practice of modern management, BCM proposes that organizations should identify and anticipate future
events that may affect the organization’s critical functions in order to ensure that the organization’s capability to respond effectively to such events in a preserved and planned manner, increase resilience to interruption and loss (Woodman & Hutchings, 2010), so that a business can continue without disruption and/or with minimum disruption and be able to control the risk level (Jedynak, 2013). Furthermore, some researchers (Elliott, Swartz & Herbale, 2010; Perano, Hysa & Calabrese, 2018) argue that BCM guarantees self-assurance and assist the organization to endure business discontinuities and interruptions. Crisis management, on the other hand, may be viewed as a wide-ranging process (including orgaeedc nization and coordination of activities) that looks at the pre-, at- and post stages crisis (Herbale, 2010). The process is conducted in preparation for, and response to, events that prevent or impede normal organizational operations.

Private Security Companies (PSCs) in Kenya have played a pivotal role in bridging the security service gap and/or supplementing services provided by the national government, which in real sense would not adequately address the needs of a fast growing population. A large section of the Kenyan population relies on private security providers (PSPs) for their everyday security (Ngugi, 2004; Mkutu, Marani & Ruteere, 2014). Different markets exist which are serviced by PSPs namely; commercial clients, cash-in-transit and cash management and the residential market.

Although the Kenyan private security sector has been largely unregulated for a long period of time, it is only recently that the government recognised the need to regulate the sector, and attempts are currently underway to introduce relevant legislation. The degree of competition in private security provision in Kenya is notably high and it is projected that investment from local and multinational firms is expected to increase amidst the new security threats (Abrahamsen & Williams, 2005; Mkutu & Sabala, 2007; Mulupi, 2014).

Just like any other service industry that has experienced rapid development and competition, there is need for security companies (Ghandour, 2014), to think strategically about what is going on. In response to the increasing complexity of business in general, changing customer demands, dynamic operating environment, intense competition among other factors, security companies have turned to formal strategic planning. More specifically, this study aimed to determine the driving factors influencing the BCM of private security companies operating in Kenya. To achieve the aim, the following objectives were formulated:

- To determine the relationship between the company structure (CS) and BCM.
- To establish the relationship between the company resources (CR) and BCM.
- To examine the relationship between the company leadership style (LS) and BCM.
- To investigate the relationship between the company support systems (CSS) and BCM.

Although previous BCM studies have not focused on private security service organisations, they have alluded to the importance of strategy and BCM. For example, Zhang and McMurray (2013) affirm that in the absence of good planning, a crisis or disaster could devastate an organization, its people and its assets. Ivanus and Repanovici (2016) argue that organizations that link innovation strategy and business continuity plans have increased turnover and market share. Wong (2014) contends that the inclusion of BCM into strategic plans enables an organization to have the sole responsibility for readying the organization for eventualities, by embracing BCM.

Furthermore, much of the research in this field has been driven by a number of factors for example, attempting to predict business continuity, isolating factors of continuity in the event of exposure to risk or explaining failure or linking strategic planning to BCM. In particular, strategic role of BCM in gaining a
competitive advantage (Alesi, 2008; Herbane, 2010; Selden & Perks, 2007), the significant effects of strategic planning and/or business continuity plans have been established (Ongas, 2013). Researchers such as Hoong and Marthandan (2014) and Ghandour (2014) have considered critical dimensions impacting the development and maintenance of (BCM) and the environments and organizations, there is a notable research gap with regard to private-security service related research in general, and the Kenyan context in particular (Adamou, 2014; Ongas, 2013; Sawalha et al., 2015). Moreover, regardless of the sector (public or private), and given the strategic nature of the private security sector in a developing economy such as Kenya, BCM remains an important general subject for consideration among leaders, practitioners, managers and researchers (Hoong & Marthandan, 2014; Zhang & McMurray, 2013).

In the light of the above, this paper examines the strategic antecedent factors and/or characteristics of BCM of private security companies, with the aim to improve the efficacy of strategic and BCM plans in service organizations. The direct effect of strategic planning on BCM has been suggested in the strategic planning literature (Ivanus & Repanovici, 2016; Shuja & Abbasi, 2015).

2. Literature Review

2.1 Strategic drivers of business continuity

Although numerous definitions of strategic planning have been provided, in this study, strategic planning is defined as a step by step process about appreciating the variances in the macro environment, assessing the strengths and weaknesses, intensifying organisational vision and applying a number of methods necessary to attain organisational mission (Perano et al., 2018). Strategic planning is multifaceted and is influenced by a collection of factors (Davison, 2014).

This section will discuss key concepts and characteristics falling within the domain of strategic planning literature, namely, organisational structure, leadership style, organisational support systems, organisational resources and BCM.

2.1.1 Company structure

Structure relates to the organization hierarchy and reporting arrangements. Earlier researchers (Pearce and Robinson, 1997) argue that there is no one optimal organisational structure for a given strategy because a change in the organisation’s strategy may render the existing organisational structure ineffective. Johnson and Scholes (2002) suggest that structure dictates how policies, and objectives are established and the resource allocation process and it impacts team learning both horizontally and vertically between the different levels of the organization and as such may encourages or discourages interaction among employees (Palos & Stancovic, 2016). However, Chandler (1962) contends that deviations in structure should not be expected to make a bad strategy good or to make a bad manager good, but should enable better formulation of a strategy to improve efficiency and give them a competitive edge by using internal coordination mechanisms (Pertusa-Ortega, Molina-Azorin & Claver-Cortes, 2010).

In recent years, strategic pacts have emerged as a common and structural vehicle for business development, especially in the private security business practices, which poses a greater potential for business interruption, as companies make effort to align structures into unified business entities (Wilson & Eilertsen, 2010). Therefore, the efficacy for a clear strategy and BCM is necessary, as this forms the basis for business performance, and thus, strategic to the long-term health of the firm. Common structures evident in many organizations are divisionalisation, where divisions within an organisation are created
based on their products or area, decentralization where authority is dispersed downward the hierarchy, while centralization is the opposite of decentralizations implying that decisions are made and controlled from the top of the hierarchy then disbursed to the other levels of the organization (Al-Turki, 2011).

Different roles exist within a structure, to successfully oversee the practice of BCM (Foster & Dye, 2005). For example, the executive who is vested with the responsibility of overseeing and supporting BCM is assigned to specific groups and committees created within the organization. The manager in charge of BCM assembles a team to execute the decisions made by the executive and leads the team during the recovery processes if a disruption has occurred. Therefore, the organization’s executive should drive BCM, while taking cognizance and involvement of employees at all levels of the organization (Doyle, 2013).

2.1.2  Leadership style

Leadership style is perceived as the ability to anticipate, envisage, maintain flexibility and empower others to create the needed (planned) changes within an organisation (Finkelstein, Hambrick & Cannella, 2008). Leadership practices or styles rest with the executive level of management – specifically, the Chief Executive Officer, board of directors and the senior management, who have substantial decision-making responsibilities that cannot be delegated (Kirimi and Minja, 2010), and particularly decisions concerning business continuity within an organisation (Wong & Shi, 2014). Kirimi and Minja (2010) argue that the success or failure of any organisation rests on its leadership and firms fail if the leaders are unable to respond or to identify risks, compromising their ability to control the company’s macro environment, and underestimating obstacles and relying primarily on what has worked in the past.

Leadership remains a requirement for an organization’s success and on the business continuity strategy. Some empirical studies (Järveläinen, 2013; Woodman and Hutchings, 2010) have suggested that organisations which practiced BCM, emphasized that it is the responsibilities of senior management because they are the custodians of business interests and responsibilities. Leadership and culture have also been identified as key in promoting preparedness strategies (Tracey, O’Sullivan, Lane, Guy & Courtemanche, 2017). Yukl and Mahsud (2010) argue that flexible and adaptive leadership is important in the event of a business disruption, implying that organisational leaders need relevant skills and behaviours to manage disruptions while overseeing business continuity strategies. Davison’s (2014) study among academic department continuity planners at two major research universities in the US established correlations between leadership demographic characteristics and business continuity, and disaster recovering planning. He also found that past experience with a discontinuity event was correlated with performing business continuity planning. From the foregoing discussing of leadership style and its overarching influence, it may be deduced that it is imperative for organisational managers to cultivate a style as a culture in managing their institutions, if positive business continuity outcomes are to be realized.

2.1.3  Company resources

Resource allocation is a central management activity that allows for strategy execution (Johnson and Scholes, 2002), and should therefore be allocated according to priorities established by annual goals. The resources of the organization may include operational infrastructure, physical resources, human resources and social capital, which have been recognized as critical to the continuity of a business (Tracey et al., 2017). Some researchers (Kraaijenbrink, Spender & Groen, 2010), have argued that companies must have rare, non-replaceable, valuable, unmatched resources that can be quickly assembled, mobilised and utilized for business continuity in the event of a disruption. It is also contended that BCM practices can be
derailed due to the lack of equitable mobilisation and sharing of organisational resources (Shuja & Abbasi, 2015).

Scott-Martinet (2006) state that at different levels within the organisation, human resources has a role in the strategic planning process, which role has to be very clear. On the one hand, they sustain the organisations competitive advantage and help develop a nexus with fruitful BCM (Shuja & Abbasi, 2015). On the other, if the organization fails to take care of its employees, then the organisation may not meet its objectives as desired. Almarri and Gardiner (2014) state that there is an association between business continuity and the resources of an organization which must be efficiently distributed and mobilized, when required. With all strategic planning and implementation processes, financial resources need to be available, in the event of an emergency and or disruption (Almarri & Gardiner, 2014).

Since BCM strives to maintain the worth of the business for continuing competitive advantage of the firm, organizational core competences and critical resources have been reported to have a positive influence on BCM, when properly organized, mobilized and used within the organisation (Herbane 2010; Shuja & Abbasi, 2015). By virtue of its impact on BCM, organisational resources are generally an important supporting element for long term business continuity and persistent growth (Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin & Frese, 2009).

2.1.4 Support systems

Perceived organization support systems are the routine activities in an organization which should be performed efficiently, to keep it functioning smoothly. Satisfactory crisis communication and management practices need to be in place (Slabbert & Barker, 2011) to support strategy execution and decisions desirable in crisis management. For instance, during crisis management status reporting to the executive a systematic and careful preparation of communication concepts and plans (both internal and external) for crisis situations must be taken into account (Wong, 2014). Inability to communicate effectively could hamper the rapid decision-making needed during recovery efforts (IBM Global services, 2009). This therefore has the implication that all communication strategies should in particular, ensure that certain individuals can be reached in the event of a crisis, since communication and information has been recognised as crucial in support of resilience and continuity planning (Tracey et al., 2017).

Another critical support system within the organization is culture, which develops over time and plays a critical role in achieving organizational objectives (Sawalha et al., 2015). It is a powerful set of forces impacting on organisations that can help pinpoint a healthy risk-prepared versus unhealthy, risk-prone organisation. Culture is shaped by internal and external values, attitudes and beliefs (Howe, 2011); a bad culture causes failure, since many organisations are unable to recognize risks which build up slowly (and sometimes unknowingly), while management concentrates on daily (and routine) operations. In such aforementioned scenarios, should there be an eventuality, management would struggle with the recovery or turnaround process (Kulatunga, 2010). Entrenching BCM into the corporate culture involves guiding employees to willingly engage and support the company’s business continuity efforts and making arrangements through to understanding the general culture (Howe, 2011), a key ingredient towards BCM interaction. The human resource function also remains as an important support system (Katunge, 2015), to be considered in terms of crisis preparedness. Without the necessary support of employees, in the event of a crisis in the organization, they may simply not be able to assist (Shuja & Abbasi, 2015; Tracey et al., 2017).

2.2 Business Continuity Management
According to Zhang and McMurray (2013), BCM is a continuous process which is focused at critical processes in the organisation with the aim of continuousness and limit loss from any possible threats in the environment. It has been argued (Garret, 2012) that external pressures drive BCM, and BCM is identified as playing a significant role in the survival and optimisation of organisational performance. Although the relationship between planning, performance and BCM has been recognised (Fischbacher-Smith, 2017), and despite the fact that companies are by and large aware of risks and vulnerabilities facing them amid competition and limited resources, BCM practices are neglected, since that may seem to be costly.

2.3 Contribution of private security companies to the economy

Earlier researchers for example, Adbrahamsen and Williams (2005) stated that in Africa, there is an explosion of private security companies and as such their services are widely spread thus contributing to a fraction of some countries gross domestic product. As well, Mkutu and Sabala (2007) comment that human and economic development, and wealth creation occurs when there is security. This clearly shows the significant growth of security companies in developing countries which has also attracted international companies into Africa’s security market. In the Kenyan sphere, it has been claimed that in early year 2000, private security companies contributed an estimated annual turnover of Kenya shillings two (2) billion (Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis, KIPPRA, 2004). Presently, it is estimated that the annual turnover is over shillings 300 billion ($2.8bn) and the sector directly employs over half a million individuals (Nkaari, 2018). The aforementioned points to the fact that this sector is inescapable and the boundary is immeasurable.

3. Theoretical framework and hypotheses formulation

3.1 Strategic characteristics – BCM relationships in organisations

There has been an exponential increase in scholarly concerns about the relationship between strategic characteristics and BCM, and the extant literature suggests the existence of either a direct positive or indirect association between the strategy and BCM. For instance, as suggested by researchers Sawalha and Anchor (2012), fusing BCM with strategic planning implies dealing with both wide-ranging strategic and continuity concerns. Perano et al. (2018) add that the organisation culture and strategy have many common characteristics and similarities. An investigation by Shuja and Abbasi (2015) which focused on examining the effect of resource deployment on BCM practices in banks from the perspectives of the managers, revealed a positive correlation with practices directed towards BCM.

A fairly recent study conducted by Sawalha (2013) and Sawalha et al. (2015) revealed the existence of differences in the practice of BCM in organisations, and thus concluded that there was a positive influence of combined strategic planning with BCM on the organization’s purpose. Moreover, Perano et al. (2018) revealed a positive linkage between strategic planning and BCM, with a positive and significant effect of strategic planning on BCM. Furthermore, although the study also illustrated a positive correlation between strategic planning and organisation culture, the lack of incorporating strategic elements into risk management activities, creates room for “pockets of risk” exposing companies which may be unable to conflict threats to fruitful strategy execution as they arise (Furstenberg, 2014).

Karim (2011) concluded that there was a significant effect of strategic management, business risk analysis, training and awareness, and information life cycle managements on BCM.
(2014) highlights the importance of forming a symbiotic relationship between risk management and strategic planning activities, since they increase capacity to effect company strategy and management of risk for business continuity. Ghandour (2014) concluded an interconnection between business continuity and business continuity planning as well as the specific aspects.

While exploring the critical dimensions impacting the development and maintenance of BCM process, and the dimensions that contribute to a successful BCM, Hoong and Marthandan (2014) showed that eight dimensions were critical for the implementation of BCM, in which staff competency, roles and responsibilities were critical. A number of studies (Almudallal, Ashary, and Muktar, 2016) attest to the existence of either an explicit or implicit association between certain strategic management issues and BCM. A more recent study conducted by Aljuhmani and Emeagwali (2017) showed that human resources have a significant role to play in all crisis management phases.

In regional and local realms, Dushie’s (2014) empirical study in Ghana exploring factors that hinder effective disaster preparedness of businesses indicated a highly significant relationship and effect between lack of staff, inadequate information communication and low priority with effective crises preparedness. Employee apathy was found to have less significant effect on disaster preparedness. Marisa’s (2018) study in Kenyan security sector established the existence of relationships between various strategic factors and BCM.

Based on the above, it may be assumed that with respect to the present study, a positive interplay may be proposed between strategic characteristics and BCM. In order to examine with proposed relationships with respect to private security companies in Kenyan, it hypothesized as follows:

- **H₁**: Company structure (CS) has a positive influence on BCM of private security services companies.
- **H₂**: Leadership style (LS) has a positive influence on BCM of private security services companies.
- **H₃**: Company resources (CR) have a positive influence on BCM of private security services companies.
- **H₄**: Company support systems (CSS) have a positive influence on BCM of private security services companies.

### 4. Research design and methodology

#### 4.1 Approach, design, sample and data collection

Being quantitative in nature, this study used a deductive approach where theoretical review resulted in the development of hypotheses proposing relationships (Pietersen & Maree, 2015). The deductive approach is usually used in positivist science, and this research was geared towards testing the influence of, or relationships that exist among predicted variables (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011). A survey was used to collect data from registered private security companies (Registrar of Companies, 2015) operating in Nairobi, the capital city in Kenya. One postgraduate student from a Kenyan public university was recruited and trained to distribute and collect the questionnaires after making appointments with targeted company managers.

Purposive sampling procedure was used to select the companies. The groups of interest both senior management (CEO/Owner/Director) and middle level managers were selected through stratified random sampling and then the simple random sampling procedure used within each stratum. According to Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, (2012), the aforesaid sampling procedures when employed in a study limit...
selection bias. Considering a 5% margin error and possible non-responses of some of the questionnaires, the sample size for this study was obtained using Krejcie and Morgan’s table of sample selection (Sekaran, 2006: 293). Of the 201 questionnaires that were initially fielded, a total of 142 responses were collected from the self-administered questionnaires, representing a response rate of approximately 71%. The response rate in this cross-sectional study is therefore deemed adequate and representative (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). The sample size used in this study is still regarded as sufficient and is similar to other similar studies (Aljuhmani & Emeagwali, 2017; Davison, 2014; Perano et al., 2018).

4.2 Development of measurement instrument

Although the measurement scales were developed primarily on the literature reviewed which enabled identification of key items describing the research constructs, adjustments and adaptations were necessary to ensure that the final questionnaire fitted the research context and aim. The data collection instrument was a semi-structured questionnaire with the research key variables having response options for strategic characteristics, which were configured on 5-point likert type scales that were anchored by (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. On the other hand, response options for BCM were configured on 1 = not important and 5 = extremely important.

4.3 Measure validation and data Analysis

After development, the instrument was pre-tested among 17 employees who did not form part of the final sample, and their comments were used to revise some items in order to improve clarity and understandability. The content and face validity of each item were assessed with two business experts who were familiar with the research topic. This SPSS (Version 21), as well as Smart PLS 3.0 computer software packages for Windows were used to analyse the data and test the hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2012). Partial Least Squares (PLS) as a Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) technique, was employed in analyzing the underlying antecedent and consequent relations (hypotheses). This provided the researchers the opportunity to measure the study constructs in an overall theoretical context. PLS is proposed as the best analytical technique for use in small data samples (Bontis, Keow & Richardson, 2000), which in this study was 142 respondents (Hair, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2014).

4.4 Ethical considerations

All information acquired from the respondents were treated with confidentiality without disclosure of the respondents’ identity or company information, following recommendations by Leedy and Omrod (2010). Moreover, no information was modified or changed, hence information obtained was presented and reported as collected.

5. Research Findings

5.1 Sample profile

The majority (63.4%) of the respondents held executive (director), managerial or supervisory roles; with 66 percent being male and 32 percent being female. In terms of experience in practicing strategic planning, the majority (66.2%) had between 1 and 5 years’ experience and 30 percent of the firms were established for between 5 – 10 years, 23 percent were established for 5 years or less and for 20 years or above respectively.
5.2 Model analysis and specification

This paper implemented smart PLS software to configure the conceptual framework that was developed for the study while minimizing compound errors (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). The simulation process (see Figure 2) of the model through PLS is important because it helps in calculating and assessing various parameters: item loading, reliability and validity tests. At first, the measurement model parameters are calculated separately, followed by the estimated path coefficients of the structural model (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009).

While the path coefficients and $R^2$ are jointly used to evaluate the conceptual, the error estimates and t-statistics values were used to check the statistical significance (Henseler et al., 2009). When assessing the degree of explanation of the variance in the target construct BCM, the $R^2$ corresponded to 0.265, which permits concluding that the four latent variables tested explained 26.5% of variance in BCM. However, despite the values found are relatively lower compared to the parameter established by the literature, the theoretical relation forecasted between all variables shows the standardized path coefficient being superior to 0.1, implying that the relationship is statistically significant.

According to Hair et al. (2014), the bootstrap analysis is the test for the confirmation of the loadings. These are actually the significance level t-tests which measure the strength of the listings. Hair et al. (2014) suggested that one should consider rejecting the null hypothesis if the observed t-value is 1.96 or greater. Rejecting the null hypothesis confirms the significant contribution of the independent construct to the dependent.

5.3 Path coefficients and predictive ability

The results of the path analysis represent the relationships that were hypothesized. The bootstrapping method used to assess the statistical significance of each of the path coefficients provide enough evidence to support the relationships between the independent and dependent variable – BCM. For example, with respect to H1, the results show a positive, substantive and significant beta coefficient of 0.733 ($p<0.001$). H2 which tested the relationship between LS and BCM, shows a negative beta coefficient of $-0.107$ ($p<0.001$). H3 which tested the relationship between CR and BCM, showed a positive and significant beta coefficient of 0.324 ($p<0.001$). Finally, H4 tested the relationship between CSS and BCM and the results show a positive, substantive and significant beta coefficient of 0.736 ($p<0.001$). In addition, the explanatory power for the study model was somewhat fit at 26.5 per cent. However, it is evident from the illustration that the outcome values are somewhat below the parameter established by the literature, this study therefore, fails to reject the hypotheses because they are statistically significant.

6. Discussion

Empirically, the results of the hypothesis tests delivered few encouraging outcomes, which will be explained. The results have underlined that company structure (CS) is significantly and positively related to BCM. Although there is no ideal structure for a contemporary organization, it is appreciated that a structure controls resource allocation and formulation of objectives and policies (Johnson & Scholes, 2002). Consistent with previous findings, BCM could be improved if management understands that the prevailing CS and/or its alteration should enhance strategies while improving overall efficiency enabling organizations to compete effectively (Pertusa-Ortega et al., 2010). This efficiency of the organization is
boosted through internal coordination mechanisms like allowing proper information flow and team learning (Palos & Stancovic, 2016), which should be both horizontal and vertical in the organization structure. Furthermore, the efficient use of resources and capacity will improve the company’s competitive advantage, considering that there are different roles within a company structure, which ultimately have repercussions for BCM success. Previous research work (Doyle, 2013; Wong & Shi, 2014) indicates that human resources and in particular, the organization’s executive can increase BCM success. Therefore, they should embrace teamwork among employees at all levels of the organization and lead from the front.

Contrary to expectations, the result of this research demonstrated that LS was negatively but significantly related to BCM. The findings seem to contradict previous researches which report a positive relationship between LS and BCM (Davison, 2014; Tracey, et al., 2017). The nature of the firms in the present study provides reasonable justifications for these findings. Although having good and adaptive leadership is essential for firms to be competitive, functional in the event of a business disruption and continuously perform business continuity planning, leadership deficiencies and complications seem to plague the majority of private security companies in Kenya. A continuous phenomenon at private security firms in Kenya is that they suffer from both structural and leadership problems, and many of them have split due to control internal wrangles, some have closed shop, others have had limited growth and thus remained stagnant and failed to meet market/customer demands.

Strategies that can be used for continuity planning are not having any person to fill positions of a company, but also by attending to factors related with a culture promoting preparedness strategies which need to be inculcated in the organization’s management, a need for relevant skills and behaviors and responsibility over business continuity strategies (Hoong & Marthandan, 2014; Tracey, 2017; Yukl & Mahsud, 2010). As for company resources (CR), the results have shown that CR and BCM have a positive and significant relationship, which implies that regardless of the industry, all companies must invest in and provide adequate resources which will ultimately create and support efficient BCM routine plans that would be valuable in the long run. This result is consistent with previous findings that reported that certain resources for instance human capital, has a significant role to play in all crisis management phases (Aljuhmani and Emeagwali, 2017) and their effective and efficient deployment was found to have a positive correlation with practices directed towards BCM (Shuja & Abbasi, 2015). However, the aforementioned researchers further caution that if organisational resources are not equitably mobilised and shared, business continuity would be negatively affected in the event of a disruption. Furthermore, the positive and significant beta coefficients for this relationship are further supported by previous findings of Almarri and Gardiner (2014) who stated that companies which are able to mobilise financial resources with all its planning and implementation processes sustain their competitive advantage which help develop a bond with fruitful BCM, and as such experience endurance and determined survival (Herbane, 2010).

Finally, the result revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between company support systems (CSS) and BCM. The beta coefficients for this relationship clearly indicate that this path is robust, and by far the strongest overall in the model. This is an encouraging result because it implies that organisations must realise the importance of support systems in order to have a sustainable continuity plan in the event of a business disorder. In other words, the stronger the support systems within an organisation, the better they will outwit competition with a guaranteed continuity. The aforementioned result is reinforced by previous findings for example, Tracey et al. (2017), who affirmed that communication strategies are critical in support of resilience and continuity planning. Culture is a vital support system and as such, an ingredient for BCM interaction. Sawalha et al. (2015) argue that although
it develops over time it plays an important role towards achieving organisational objectives. Another study conducted by Penno et al. (2018) revealed an interplay among cultural variables, strategic planning and BCM, with a positive and significant effect of culture and strategic planning on BCM.

These findings have shown that there exist numerous implicit and explicit strategic bases that impact on businesses’ continuity management. This has an implication for strategic managers in that, there must exist a constant interplay among structure, leadership styles, resources and support systems for an organisation to leverage on its BCM and business survivability.

7. Conclusion

The aim of this study was to develop a framework which allowed for investigating the relationship between various research constructs. It is evident from the results that the company structure has a greater influence on BCM, followed by the company’s support systems, company resources and leadership styles. This study therefore contributed to scholarship by focusing on Kenyan private security companies, which has largely been ignored despite the contribution of this sector to economic development. Strategic bases practiced by private security firms in Kenya can significantly increase business continuity management and related practices. For example, through equitable mobilization and deployment of resources to support continuity practices, coordination and support of business continuity practices with the executive management and throughout the organizations, laying down effective communication strategies that would help coordinate work in case of a disruption, using result of successive management of a disruption to enhance organisational learning.

Despite the fact that this study is the first major and comprehensive empirical study in the private security industry in a developing country context, it does have a few limitations, which allude to suggestions for future studies. While specific issues related to the research constructs were examined through the single study, there are potential limits to external generalizability. Expanding this investigation across industries using multiple approaches is a viable option for future related studies. Other strategic variables can be included in the model to enhance future results. A larger sample can also be used.
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