LABOUR TURNOVER AND ORGANIZATIONAL PRODUCTIVITY IN SELECTED PRIVATE SECURITY FIRMS IN KAMPALA, UGANDA

By

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A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE COLLEGE OF HIGHER DEGREES AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MASTERS OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT AT KAMPALA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY, KAMPALA UGANDA

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DECLARATION

This research is my original work and it has not been presented for a degree or any other academic award in any University or institution of learning

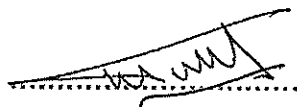..

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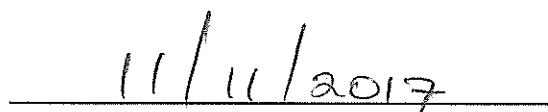Names and signature of the candidate

10/11/2017

Date

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APPROVAL

I confirm that the work reported in this research is carried out by the candidate under my/our supervision"

DR. AUGUSTINE WANDIBA

Names and signature of the Supervisor

11 / 11 / 2017

Date

DEDICATION

I would like to avail my sincere heartfelt gratitude to the Almighty God for His grace upon me throughout my years of study while at Kampala International University.

I wish to dedicate this piece of work to my family members more especially my beloved in-law Mr. Moses Matsiko and his dear wife (my sister) Mrs. Priscilla Matsiko for their tireless effort and support to see into it that my education is a success

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between labor turnover and organization productivity of Kampala private security firms. The private security industry of Uganda has faced organizational productivity issues since their inception (Kajubu, 2013). The study was guided by specific objectives which included; to establish the effect of employee resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms, to determine the effect of employee death on organizational productivity in private security firms and to assess the effect of employee Dismissals on organizational productivity in private security firms. The study adopted a descriptive case study research design where data is collected from one entity alone. The data was collected from respondents were chosen from the selected security companies in Kampala. The data was collected from 207 employees who were the employees of the security companies and data was collected using the research questionnaires. The study findings reveal that resignation affect organizational productivity. In this case, resignation accounts for 32.3 percent of the changes in organizational productivity, employee dismissal accounts for 1.9 percent of the changes in organizational productivity. The employee death affect organizational productivity in security firms of Kampala Uganda, the regression coefficient expresses that only 5.2 % of change in the dependent variable (i.e organizational productivity) is caused by death. Dismissals of employees affected the organizational productivity. In this case, employee death and dismissal accounts for 5.5% percent of the changes in organizational productivity. The study concludes that employee resignation affected the productivity of the security firms in Kampala therefore conclude that retirement issues need to be addressed to enable the productivity of the organization, The retirement of employees did not affect the productivity of security firms in Kampala meaning productivity is not affected much the death of the employees. This implies that a more focus is needed to evaluate the productivity factors other than death, the researcher concludes that dismissal of employees did much affect the productivity of security firms implying that focuses on improving productivity requires critical focus on other factors other than of employees

and dismissal. The researcher recommend for the need to reduce the resignation by providing a viable environment to the employees in order to hold the talent necessary for improving the state of employee productivity for the organizations. The employees need to be trained by those about to retire in order to improve and leave a legacy for the new employees. Dismissals did not account for organizational productivity so there is need to provide mechanisms of improving the state of the employees to attain the development. There is need to comprehend and provide a strong and attractive force for the employees. There is need for critical focus on the employees who leave the organization by providing mechanisms that hinder dismissals.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, hypothesis, scope, and the significance of the study. It provides the basic framework behind the intent and pertinent historical issues associated with labor turnover and organizational productivity.

1.2 Background to the Study

For the purposes of organization, this section is subdivided into four perspectives, namely historical, theoretical, conceptual and contextual perspectives as outlined hereunder.

1.2.1Historical perspective

The aggregate decline in labor turnover in the 1920s appears to be the beginning of a long run trend. Numerous studies, seeking to identify why workers began quitting their jobs less frequently, have pointed to the role of altered employment relationships. Owen 1995).The new practices of employers, categorized initially as welfare work and later as the development of internal labor markets, included a variety of policies aimed at strengthening the attachment between workers and firms. The most important of these policies were the establishment of personnel or employment departments, the offering of seniority-based compensation, and the provision of on-the-job training and internal promotion ladders. In the U.S., these changes in employment practices began at a few firms around the turn of the twentieth century, intensified during WWI and became more widespread in the 1920s. However, others have suggested that the changes in quit behavior in the 1920s were the result of immigration declines (due to newly implemented quotas) and slack labor markets (Goldin 2000, Jacoby 1985).

In the 1930s and 1940s the volatility in labor turnover increased and the relationships between the components of total separations shifted. The depressed labor markets of

the 1930s meant that procyclical quit rates declined, but increased layoffs kept total separation rates relatively high, (on average 57 per 100 employees between 1930 and 1939). During the tight labor markets of the World War II years, turnover again reached rates exceeding 100%, with increases in quits acting as the primary determinant. Quits and total separations declined after the war, producing much lower and less volatile turnover rates between 1950 and 1970.

Though the decline in labor turnover in the early part of the twentieth century was seen by many as a sign of improved labor-management relations, the low turnover rates of the post-WWII era led macroeconomists to begin to question the benefits of strong attachments between workers and firms. Specifically, there was concern that long-term employment contracts (either implicit or explicit) might generate wage rigidities which could result in increased unemployment and other labor market adjustment problems (Ross 1958). More recently, labor economists have wondered whether the movement toward long-term attachments between workers and firms is reversing itself. "Changes in Job Stability and Job Security" a special issue of the Journal of Labor Economics (October 1999) includes numerous analyses suggesting that job instability increased among some groups of workers (particularly those with longer tenure) amidst the restructuring activities of the 1990s.

The practice of human resource management (HRM) is concerned with all aspects of how people are employed and managed in an organisation (Armstrong, 2009). The strategic business function organ of the organisation sees to the inflow and outflow of employees in the organisaiton. The HRM function of directing the organisation system to ensure that human talents are used effectively to accomplish desired goals is very crucial, thereby not left ignored. Organisations zealous about growth would always intend to develop their respective current human capital and other potentials. But in this world of frequent upgrade and innovations in the business environment and the technological ways of doing things, organisations would commit themselves towards

bringing their workforce to the task requiring intellectual and manual growth and development. The idea behind this would be to intensify the additional productivity generated by extra employee hired. All these put together would amount to organisations being cost conscious in making sure that employees with high human capital do not leave their organisations. But in order to be realistic, organizations cannot be everything to all people. No matter how great your company is, it is likely that some of your employees will eventually move on to other opportunities. That may be costing you a lot and affecting your well enjoyed stabilized organization productivity. Labour or worker or employee or staff turnover has it is often referred to, is the number of permanent employees leaving the company within the reported period versus the number of actual Active Permanent employees on the last day of the previous reported period (physical headcount).

The ratio of the number of employees that leave a company through attrition, dismissal, or resignation during a period to the number of employees on payroll during the same period makes up what is referred to as Labour Turnover. An employee leaving the organization either voluntarily or involuntarily is certain to have positive or negative effects on the organization. This as well would reflect on the productivity of the organization concerned. In other words, high turnover can be harmful to a company's productivity if skilled workers are often leaving and the worker population contains a high percentage of novice workers (Open Forum, 2011). This is especially the case if those leaving are either key to its success and continuity or do so because they think you have treated them unfairly, which could result in tribunal claims (Business Link, 2011). This means maintaining the satisfactory level of productivity might be threatened. Therefore curbing turnover to its optimal level for the organization is a major challenge. However, the research on the consequences of labour turnover is inconclusive, and provides little guidance on how much turnover, if any, is optimal (Siebert, 2006). It hereby leaves us wondering what optimal number is needed for the organization's best productivity. As turnover even poses to be a major and widely

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studied organizational behavior phenomenon, it fosters why researchers are becoming interested in it more. It is a phenomenon that not just affects a company, occupation or industry, but an issue tackled by organizations all around the world. This is because at one employee's voluntary or involuntary time they would have to leave the organization. (Abelson 1987; Campion 1991).

Since the beginning of the industrial revolution, practitioners, researchers, and policymakers have tried to define and evaluate particular workplace practices and systems of practices that can spur productivity growth and competitiveness (Parks, 1995). The recent emphasis is on initiatives labeled "high-performance practices," "employee involvement," "employee participation," or "flexible work organizations." Generally, these labels refer to situations where firms sharpen the organizational productivity and competitive edge by using the creativity and problem-solving contributions of their employees (Parks, 1995). Empirical evidence supporting the claim by proponents of these practices for increased organizational productivity is mixed. Examples of similar approaches in the past can be useful in evaluating these practices today.

Globally, a high-performance work system is seen as a progressive strategy to improve organizational productivity, but opinions vary regarding the source and distribution of organizational productivity gains that may accrue from this approach. One view of employee involvement claims that employee involvement is part of a transformation of the workplace from traditional hierarchical roles to an idealized "industrial democracy" in which employees, management, and owners benefit from the new work structure (Fukunishi, 2007). This "win-win" situation is seen as ethically superior because it results in stable, more satisfying jobs for employees and higher organizational productivity for the firm. Some would promote the high-performance work practice solely on the basis of ethical considerations.

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African private security firms have also been struggling to register high organizational productivity in their operations. In her work, Chauke (2007) decries the decrease in the organizational productivity of security firms in Gauteng, South Africa. She however, mentions that it is not only in the region but the entire South African private security industry is characterized by lack of organizational productivity. Several other areas such as in Nigeria have also had issues with organizational productivity in this industry. Apparently, most of the firms are struggling to survive in an otherwise competitive industry. Issues that have been raised regarding organizational productivity are lack of proper regulation and operational obstacles that make it hard for the industry to remain productive.

In East Africa, private security firms have also had issues with their organizational productivity which has also negatively impacted their financial performance. Githinji (2014) reports that the Kenyan private security companies in the country are in a poor state financially due to turnover issues. Since early 2000's, there has been no significant improvement in the performance of the firms because workers keep switching from one company to another. The reasons cited for this development are that workers are underpaid and their work conditions are not conducive at the least.

Uganda`s history has been tainted by insecurity, high crime rates and corruption. This has created a security-conscious citizenry. Private security providers have emerged to meet their needs (IPF, 2013). The regimes of Milton Obote and Idi Amin were characterized by gross human rights violations that were perpetrated through government agencies. During these regimes, security of neither person nor property was guaranteed, but was threatened by the state and its agencies. The most notorious proponent of violations was the army.

Since then, Ugandans have lived in a security-conscious setting for fear of the security situation relapsing into what they experienced during the regimes of Obote and Amin.

However, since the National Resistance Movement (NRM) government took power on 26th January 1986 – with the exception of northern and southern Uganda – the country has been relatively peaceful (Kasekende, Byarugaba, & Nakate, 2013). Security is a sensitive area in this post-conflict country, and several institutions participate in its maintenance. These include the Uganda People's Defence Force (UPDF), the Uganda Police, intelligence organizations such as the Chieftaincy of Military Intelligence, and internal and external security organizations. These agencies and organizations are governed by laws and regulations and they determine how productive the industry has been throughout all times.

At the time, PSOs complement the police, but it is not clear whether they have the same powers and rights, such as search, investigations, interviewing witnesses, seizing property as exhibits, detention of suspect and use of force when necessary. This uncertainty cripples the work of the PSOs (Daily Monitor, 2015). Citizens may treat operatives who are trying to carry out these activities with ridicule.

In terms of ensuring organizational productivity, security firms have been under the temptation to employ ex-military personnel but this was categorically denounced by the government in early 2000's. It appears that the government cannot allow employees of PSCs to receive military training before or during their employment. In fact, PSCs in Uganda have been warned against employing former military or police officers without the approval of the police (Kirunda, 2008).

1.2.2 Theoretical perspective

The study was guided by two theories namely the Firm Specific Human Capital theory by Becker (1975) and the Job Matching Theory by Burdett (1978). These two models seem to argue contrary to each other. FSHC theory argues against labor turnover by claiming that it leads to lower organizational productivity. On the other hand the Job Matching Theory argues for labor turnover by claiming that it results in higher

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organizational productivity. The study seeks to an understanding which of the two models is applicable to the Kampala context.

The Firm specific Human Capital Theory asserts that if firms need to bear the cost of training, their incentives to provide staff training will be lowered by high turnover rates (Becker, 1975). The incentive will be even weaker when firm specific and general training are less separable, as employees have lower opportunity costs of quitting. Consequently, organizational productivity falls as labor turnover increases.

The "theory of the firm" in modern economics has advanced dramatically from the simple black-box production function model that is still presented in most undergraduate level microeconomics textbooks. Likewise, economic theories of the employment relationship have advanced far beyond simple supply and demand curves for labor. But, while the nature of the relationship between a firm and its employees would seem to be a central, perhaps defining, feature of the firm itself, economists have generally studied questions about the nature of the firm, as well as the ownership rights and governance structure of firms, separately from questions about the structure and terms of employment relationships, and they have not yet produced a unified theory of the firm that adequately explains and accounts for the role of "human capital."

Gary Becker (1964) coined the phrase "human capital" to refer to the fact that much of the skills and knowledge required to do a job could only be acquired if some "investment" was made in time and resources. In his pathbreaking work on human capital, Becker considered the implications of the fact that some of the knowledge and skills acquired by employees have a much higher value in a given employment relationship than they do in other potential relationships. This fact, he speculated, would influence choices about wages, investments in training, and other terms of the employment relationship, Becker argued that such specialized knowledge and skills may often be productivity enhancing, and are therefore likely to be an important part of the

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employment relationship in practice. But, he noted, they introduce a complication into simple models of wage determination and equilibrium employment levels. In particular, the labor services of employees with specialized skills can no longer be modeled as undifferentiated, generic inputs, for which equilibrium price (wages) and quantity (number of employees or number of hours of work) are determined by the intersection of supply and demand curves. Once employees are understood to have specialized skills, it matters which employee does what job for what firm.

"If a firm had paid for the specific training of a worker who quit to take another job, its capital expenditure would be partly wasted, for no further return could be collected. Likewise, a worker fired after he had paid for specific training would be unable to collect any further return and would also suffer a capital loss," Becker noted. Where investments in specific skills are important, Becker reasoned, it is no longer a matter of indifference "whether a firm's labor force always contained the same persons or a rapidly changing group."

Regarding the Job Matching Theory, its key insight is that firms will search for employees and job seekers will search for firms until there is a good match for both parties. However, the conditions for an optimal matching may change over time, leading to continuous reallocation of labor (Burdett, 1978). Regular labor turnover helps both employers and employees avoid being locked in suboptimal matches permanently.

Job matching theory established by Burdett (1978) and Jovanovic (1979) is being used as a theoretical framework. The theory says that firms will search for employees and job seekers will search for firms until there is a good match for both parties. However, the conditions for an optimal matching may change over time which leads to continuous reallocation of labor.

1.2.3 Conceptual Perspective

Labour turnover refers to the rate at which an employer gains and losses labour, how long the staff tend to leave and join the organization (Armstrong, 2006). In his book, Horton (2007state that it is becoming a major issue for the organizations especially for the low cadre jobs. There are many contributors to this scenario that are significant to the employee turnover. Such aspects can stem from both the company as well as the employees (Izzack,2010).The employers are more concerned with the turnover as it impacts negatively and a very expensive aspect of the business world (Thomas,2003).

According to Martin (2005) when labour leaves the organization, the employer has to incur a considerable amount of direct and indirect expense. The costs of employee turnover can be staggering ranging from consuming quite a substantial amount of annual wage that an employer would otherwise pay to its workforce (Linda, 2002). The costs of employees turnover normally includes; advertising expenses, headhunting fees, resource management expenses, loss of time and efficiency, work imbalance, and employee training and development expenses for new joiners (Harrie,2002). The organization may quarterly calculate labour turnover rates to meliorate the factors causing the turnover (Miller, 2006). If the organization determines the most common causes of labour turnover, it would certainly be able to take the necessary steps for recruiting and retaining well-qualified personnel (Armstrong, 2006).

Hall &Lilien (2000) had a simplistic view and conceptualization of labor turnover. They defined labor turnover as the rate at which that employees leave the organization. In measuring it, they considered comparing the number of workers entering and exiting an organization (Lilien & Hall, 2000). Hancock èt al., (2013) defined labor turnover as the ratio of the number of employees that leave a company through attrition, dismissal, or resignation during a period to the number of employees on payroll during the same period. Shah (2013) defined labor turnover as the rate of replacement of workers in an organization. He also had a different way of measuring the concept of labor turnover.

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He measured it in terms of separate method, replacement rate method and the equivalent annual rate of labor turnover. Baruch et al., (2014) defined labor turnover as a metric that measures the ability of a firm to attract and retain workers in their organization.

Another study by Park and Shaw (2013) defined the labor turnover as the proportion of a firm's workforce that leaves during the course of a year. Kesekende et al., (2013) considered labor turnover to be the measure of an organization to retain workers which is determined by assessing the number of outages against the population of a company in a given year. Grinza (2014) defined labor turnover as the rate at which employees of a given organization leave that particular entity to join another or go about their personal endeavors. In this study labor turnover will be measured in terms of dismissal, transfer, resignations, deaths and retirement rates. Dismissals and transfers are under involuntary turnover while resignation and retirement rates are under voluntary turnover.

Fukunishi (2007) defined organizational productivity as the rate at which an organization was efficient and effective in producing quality products. He measured organizational productivity in terms of the quantity, quality and consistency of production. Parks (1995) defined organizational productivity as the degree to which an organization serves the interests of customers by giving them what they want in a cost effective and timely manner. AchNaku et al., (2014) defined organizational productivity as the measure of performance of an entity in terms of its efficiency, effectiveness and timeliness of production.

According to Githinji (2014), organizational productivity means boosting organizational performance by becoming more efficient in specific areas such as finance, project management, and supply-chain. This is done by applying specific methods, tools, metrics, etc. and the end result is organizational excellence. Another study by Chauke

(2007) describes organizational productivity as the ability of a firm to use its resources financial and otherwise – in an efficient manner to promote overall success in the core areas of the business. Chand and Tung (2014) defined organizational productivity as anything that makes an organization function better. Davis et al., (2015) added another simplistic definition of organizational productivity by stating that it is doing the right things better in organization. In this study, organizational productivity will be measured in terms of increased profits, reduced costs, increased customers, etc.

(Harkins, 2012) narrates labor job turnover as the access to enter new employees into the organizations and the departure of current employees of the organizations. Departure term of existing employees used by the researchers interchangeably with controlled exit or separation. (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 2011) explained the turnover rate as to replace resigned employees with hiring new recruitments. By explaining these, employees, turnover occurs when a substitute is hired successfully. Another definition provided by (Mondy, 2010) who explain that employee turnover means controlled ending of a partnership with the organization by the employees of that organization. In business circles, employee turnover is widely used term (Henry, May 2007). Even though several research studies have been organized on turnover topic, most researchers focus on the roots of employee turnover, but few studies have been conducted in the examination of sources of employee turnover, guiding various strategies and effects which are helpful for managers in different organizations to make sure that there is continuity of employees in the organizations to improve organizational effectiveness. (Abdul & Kaleem, 2014) initiates what he calls it as a simple solution to the employee's job turnover dilemma that is to pay employees more benefits than the compensation. Only money is not the solution for it, unluckily employee's job turnover has many sole and combined reasons depending on a number of problems compact with work and non work related issues dealing. Employees who are working in the organization blame work and therefore become frustrated with their jobs, as it was part of inter task divergence which was caused by collective responsibilities of family, work,

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personal and community (Hom & Kinicki, 2001).Turnover objective is an employee psychological eagerness to resign from the job and leave the organization. The turnover rate is that at which an organization loses or gain their employees. Simply stated employee's job turnover is "how long an employee stays connected to one organization". Readiness of employee's leave the job and quit the organization is described as turnover intention. The theme behind intentional turnover is habitually described with a relation among employee's economic, social and psychological procedure (Udechukwu & B, 2007). Lynn Coleman (1989) as cited in (Abdul & Kaleem, 2014) suggested ideas of correcting and preventing employee's job turnover. On the basis of his research, he gave some recommendations to conduct exit interviews in the institutions and derive other solutions for employees leaving the organization. Interviews and surveys are the best sources to find people information. The effect of employee turnover results extra work load on the remaining employees, on their work performance and an organization's effectiveness. (Mathis & Jackson, 2007) said that those employees who are in the organization have to put extra efforts and have to work extra hours to balance the work of those who left the organization. Increased workload of employees leads to decrease employee morale and increases stress level, which in turn increases employee absenteeism.

Furthermore, Nugent (2009) concluded that labour turnover can be defined as a percentage figure which shows the rate at which employees move in and out of the organization. However, this figure most likely represents both controllable turnover (controllable by the organization) and uncontrollable turnover. Controllable turnover is "voluntary" by the employee, while uncontrollable turnover is "involuntary" (For example, retirement, death, or spouse transfer). Turnover may be functional, where the employee's departures produce a benefit for the organization, or dysfunctional, where the departing employee is someone the organization would like to retain.

High performers who are difficult to replace represent dysfunctional turnovers; low performers who are easy to replace represent functional turnovers. The crucial issue in

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analyzing turnover, therefore, is not how many employees are leaving but the performance and replaceability of those who are leaving versus those who are staying. Kreitner and Kinicki (2007) also concluded that as a business manager, staff turnover is one area to keep an eye on throughout the year.

According to Blahna (2005) high turnover can be a serious obstacle to organizational productivity, quality, and profitability of firms of all sizes. For the smallest of rganization, a high turnover rate can mean that simply having enough staff to fulfill daily functions is a challenge, even beyond the issue of how well the work is done when staff is available (Richard, 2008).Turnover is no less a problem for major organizations, which often spend millions of dollars a year on turnover-related costs (Miller, 2006). For service-oriented professions, such as management consulting or account management, high labour turnover can also lead to customer dissatisfaction and turnover, as clients feel little attachment to a revolving contact (Brian,2009).Customers are also likely to experience dips in the quality of service each time their representative changes (Miller,2006).

1.2.4 Contextual Perspective

The selected private security industry is considered one of the fastest growing industries, with an expected growth rate of 17 percent by the end of the year 2016, according to the Department of Labor (Gamiz, 2016). The growth is related to concerns about crime, vandalism and terrorism. Security guards and patrol service employment spiked in 2002 after the 9/11 terrorist attacks, dropped in 2003 and have continued to rise steadily since, according to the department. Labor turnover is documented to have a negative impact on the organizational productivity of private security firms in the Uganda. A company such as G4S experienced a surge in its organizational productivity in the years between 2008 and 2010, a time when it had the highest labor turnover (G4S, 2010). After improving on their retention rates, their organizational productivity improved significantly. A similar observation was made in the United States of the ABM

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security services whose organizational productivity increased alongside a decrease in labor turnover in the year 2014 (ABM, 2015).

The selected private security industry, which is broadly divided into private security companies (PSCs) and private military companies (PMCs), operates in both stable and unstable environments in Africa (Gumedze, 2007). African private security firms have also been affected by labor turnover. Kings Guards Nigeria Limited is one such company whose organizational productivity significantly decreased in the year 2013 due to labor turnover issues. Apparently, their pay structure was the most prominent reason that led workers – mostly guards – to consider leaving them. The organizational productivity is said to have reduced by almost 25% (Kings Guards, 2013).

The rising number of terror attacks and other incidents of insecurity in Uganda have resulted in an increased demand for private security. Steady economic growth and the discovery of natural resources have further attracted more private security companies (PSCs) (ISS, 2015). Contextually, Ugandan private security firms are also facing organizational productivity issues which have also been linked to labor turnover. For instance, GS4 Security Guards in Uganda faced a productivity crisis in 2014 when it could not effectively allocate their manpower to all their clients. This resulted from employees leaving the company most of whom were employed by a rival firm G4S which promised higher remuneration.

Uganda has 58 registered PSCs. Employees of these PSCs, as registered with the Uganda Private Security Organizations Association (UPSA). UPSA was formed in 2001 to create a unified voice and set standards for private security providers. These standards were supposed to be met before a PSC was accorded membership status. They include a minimum payment scale for employees at not less than UGX 85,000, and an annual monthly subscription. UPSA and its affiliates are members of the Federation of Uganda Employers (Kirunda, 2008). Regarding labor turnover, most private security companies

in Uganda understand consider labor turnover as a negative factor in their organizational productivity. A local company such as Saracen employs over 200 workers as security guards so that they can reduce the effect of labor turnover in case it happens. As their report claims, they maintain their productivity by creating loyalty programs for all categories of employees (Saracen Uganda, 2014).

Labor turnover has been high not only in this industry but others as well in Kampala. There is no doubt that the trend might persist into the future if adequate measures are not taken. At Pinnacle Security Ltd, just like other private security firms in Uganda, workers are constantly leaving the firm. This has had an effect on the number of clients the company can handle and thus its organizational productivity is always a subject of concern. Whenever there are enough employees, especially security guards, the firm has been making higher profits (Pinnacle Security, 2015). It seems that at company level, Pinnacle security's performance is hinged on labor turnover and the higher it is the worse it becomes for their organizational productivity. Protectorate SPC Ltd, which is a sister company to Pinnacle Security Ltd, both being members of Pinnacle Group carries out massive recruitment of security officers at least three times a year so as to cover up the gap brought about by labor turnover. Today, the company employs over 1000 security officers. (Protectorate SPC Ltd, 2015).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The private security industry of Uganda has faced organizational productivity issues since their inception (Kajubu, 2013). The lack of a good level of productivity the firms are continually struggling to survive amidst tough economic times (ILO, 2014). One productivity issue of concern regards the profits from the contracts. Firms find it hard to get enough profits from new contracts and they have shifted their focus to retention of current clients (New Vision, 2015). Secondly, quality of services is slowly becoming a problem due to the presence of several competing service providers (Kajubu, 2013). The most competitive service package is providing guards to corporate organizations.

Thirdly, cost and work efficiency is below average for most of security companies in the country (Daily Monitor, 2015). While some of them complain of lateness of response, others are not comfortable with the general quality of services offered (UPDF, 2013). Labor turnover in these organizations is similar to other firms in most industries operating in the country. It is possible that the organizational productivity issues that private security firms face in Kampala are a result of labor turnover associated with their workers. This study, therefore, intends to establish the effect that labor turnover has to the organizational productivity of private security firms in Uganda.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between labor turnover and organization productivity of Kampala private security firms.

1.5 Specific Objectives

i. To establish the effect of employee resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms.

ii. To determine the effect of employee death on organizational productivity in private security firms.

iii. To assess the effect of employee Dismissals on organizational productivity in private security firms.

1.6 Research Questions

i. What is the effect of employee resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms?

ii. What is the effect of employee death on organizational productivity in private security firms?

iii. What is the effect of employee Dismissals on organizational productivity in private security firms?

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1.7 Research Hypothesis

i. H_01 There is no significant effect of employee resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms.

ii. H_02 There is no significant effect of employee death on organizational productivity in private security firms.

iii. H_03 There is no significant effect of employee dismissals on organizational productivity in private security firms.

1.8 Scope of the Study

1.8.1 Geographical Scope

This study was conducted in Kampala, Uganda (0.3476° N, 32.5825° E). Kampala is the capital and largest city of Uganda. The city is divided into five boroughs that oversee local planning: Kampala Central Division, Kawempe Division, Makindye Division, Nakawa Division, and Lubaga Division. The city is coterminous with Kampala District. The study will consider three private security entities in Kampala namely, Pinnacle Security Ltd, Protectorate SPC Ltd and Saracen Security. The three firms are selected as they are some of the biggest private security providers around Kampala.

1.8.2 Content Scope

The study investigates the impact that labor turnover has on the organizational productivity of private security organizations. Regarding labor turnover, the study will cover voluntary and involuntary aspects. As for organizational productivity, it will examine the contract win-rate, contract renewal and customer satisfaction.

1.8.3 Time Scope

The study was interested in information with the validity of five years ranging between 2011 and 2015.

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1.8.4 Theoretical Scope

This study is based on two theories namely specific human capital theory by Becker (1975) and job matching theory by Burdett (1978). These two theories were selected because they both try to explain the effect of labor turnover on general organizational productivity of entities. Becker (1975) advocates for a negative relationship while Burdett (1978) advocates for a positive relationship.

1.9 Significance of the Study

Human resources management in the private security sector: These organizations will benefit from this study through adherence better human resource policies with regards to employee turnover and how to effectively manage the work force.

To the employees of the private security sector: The employees will benefit from the optimized human resource policies that should favor their welfare at the workplaces. They stand to have a better work environment that will limit their urge to look for employment elsewhere.

Future Researchers: These are likely to benefit from the volumes of information collated within this study. Citations and references to this work is expected of future scholars who will be researching about labor turnover and organizational productivity.

Researcher: This project will aid the researcher to obtain a master's degree in Human Resources Management from Kampala International University. It is University policy that a prospective graduand completes an original thesis as a prerequisite for being awarded the degree.

1.10 Operational Definition of Key Terms

Productivity: The amount of output per unit input (labor, equipment, capital)

Voluntary Turnover: Act of employees willingly choosing to leave their offices or positions for various reasons.

Involuntary Turnover: Act of employees being let to go by their employers for unsatisfactory performance or any other reason around the same.

Resignation: A formal statement, document stating that one gives up an office or position

Labor turnover: The measure of a company's or industry's employment stability expressed as a percentage that compares the number of employees that leave an employer, voluntarily or involuntarily, to the number of existing employees during a 12 month period.

Turnover rate: A gauge of the length of employee tenure at a particular company
Layoff: The elimination of jobs, often without regard to employee performance, usually when a company is experiencing financial difficulties

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This section reviews the related literature pertinent to the study in focus. Literature is reviewed in accordance with the study objectives. It also encompasses a thorough review of theories pertaining to the topic under investigation. The researcher also attempts to present his conceptual framework to envisage the relationships that are thought to exist between the study variables.

2.2 Theoretical Review

The study was guided by two theories namely the Firm Specific Human Capital theory by Becker (1975). The Firm Specific Capital theory argues against labor turnover by claiming that it leads to lower organizational productivity. On the other hand the Job Matching Theory argues for labor turnover by claiming that it results in higher organizational productivity. The study seeks to an understanding which of the two models is applicable to the Kampala context.

Grinza (2014) subscribes to the Firm-specific human capital theory which predicts that excess employee turnover negatively affects organizational productivity because, on the one hand, it entails the loss of productive firm-specific human capital acquired by those who are leaving and, on the other hand, the `waste of time' to acquire it for the new entrants. The main finding is that excess labor turnover has no significant effect on organizational productivity. This result is atypical in the literature, which finds both positive and negative, but not null, effects (Grinza, 2014). Moreover, we deeply explore the impact of excess labor turnover on organizational productivity by allowing for non-linearity and for different effects across several dimensions which we see as potentially relevant, such as degree of capital intensity, degree of volatility of demand, belonging to the high-tech industry or not and age of the firm.

Matching theory has been especially influential in labor economics, where it has been used to describe the formation of new jobs, as well as to describe other human relationships like marriage (Chauke, 2007). Matching theory evolved from an earlier framework called 'search theory'. Where search theory studies the microeconomic decision of an individual searcher, matching theory studies the macroeconomic outcome when one or more types of searchers interact. Chauke (2007) finds that the theory offers a way of modeling markets in which frictions prevent instantaneous adjustment of the level of economic activity. Among other applications, it has been used as a framework for studying frictional unemployment. Matching theory has been widely accepted as one of the best available descriptions of the frictions in the labor market, but some economists have recently questioned its quantitative accuracy (Henrekson, 2014).

The major merit/strength of job matching theory is that it explains the logical flow of labor into and out of firms. Workers will never rest until they find their most comfortable position. This is seen in Pinnacle Security Ltd, Saracen and Protectorate SPC Ltd where employees resign, due to various reasons like in search for better paying jobs, better working conditions, better employer-employee relationships among others. Likewise, employers keep on dismissing/terminating workers until they find their most desired workers with the best working skills, good time management, flexibility at work and other desirable qualities. The main demerit/criticism of the theory is that its quantitative accuracy is highly questionable.

Firm-specific human capital theory explains that excess employee turnover negatively affects organizational productivity. This is criticized because excess employee turnover can also affect organizational productively positively. In Pinnacle Security Ltd, Saracen and Protectorate SPC Ltd, excess employee turnover motivates employees to work harder to avoid being dismissed and these increases on the level of organizational productivity as the output is more.

Building on Becker's (1964) pioneering work, Castanias and Helfat (C&H) (1991; 2001) advance three main types of managerial human capital that underlie firm capabilities – firm-specific, industry-specific and general. The three types are conceptually nested, with firm-specific human capital being the most narrowly applicable and general human capital being the broadest. In this paper, we employ and extend the C&H typology by shifting its focus from top managers to skilled employees at the functional level within the organization who are responsible for knowledge-based activities. Within the broad C&H category of general human capital, we focus on occupational HC, a type of general HC that is highly relevant for knowledge workers who are members of relatively well-defined occupations or professions (e.g., law, accounting, engineering) (Kambourov & Manovskii, 2009; Shaw, 1984). Occupational expertise can be a significant driver of performance in knowledge work (e.g., an expert IT engineer or lawyer will likely deliver a far superior work product), and by highlighting this category we hope to direct more research attention to the importance of this type of general HC. As a practical matter, many dimensions of general HC are manifested in occupational HC – e.g. more intelligent attorneys are also likely "better lawyers" – and to that extent they are included in our approach. We do not mean to imply that other non-occupational aspects of general HC are not relevant, and indeed we cannot empirically rule out their impact on capability development and sourcing decisions. Our theorizing about capability development in general HC, however, relies in part on suppliers who are specialized along occupational lines, and that logic does not translate easily to other types of general HC (outside occupational HC).

In summary, we focus on three types of human capital – firm-specific HC, industry-specific HC, and occupational HC. To further clarify our framework, we define these HC types and explain how they apply in the empirical context of our study, namely patent legal work. Firm-specific HC refers to knowledge and skills that are unique to a firm, such as knowledge about specific strategies, processes, and technologies of the firm (C&H, 1991). For example, effective patent legal work may require firm-specific

knowledge about the relationship of the focal patent to the relevant product line or technological trajectory of the firm. Industry-specific HC refers to knowledge about the industry setting or domain in which a project is situated, and thus it is re-deployable across the (limited) set of firms with projects in the same industry domain (C&H, 1991). Since patents are filed on inventions located in different technological areas, knowledge about the technological domain of a patent is an important type of industry-specific HC needed to file and prosecute patents. Finally, occupational HC consists of the knowledge and skills required to perform work within a professional or functional area, and as a type of general HC it is most easily transferred across industry and firm settings (Kambourov & Manovskii, 2009; Shaw, 1984). Since industries often develop around an occupation, we should be careful to distinguish between occupational and industry-specific HC, whereby the former refers to knowledge and skills in the "task domain" of the focal project but the latter refers to the "application domain" of the project. For example, legal work on a biotechnology patent requires knowledge about both patent law and biotechnology, and in this context occupational HC refers to knowledge about patent law and industry-specific HC refers to knowledge about biotechnology.

Before moving forward with our theorizing, we note one final wrinkle in applying human capital typologies to understand capabilities and outsourcing in knowledge work. While all firm-specific and industry-specific HC may matter to performance at the top management level (C&H, 1991; 2001), the human capital relevant to project-level performance may be a much narrower subset of these broad groupings. Top managers need to know a great deal about the entire firm and the whole industry in order to make the best decisions. When looking at functional-level knowledge work, however, a narrower range of human capital about a specific firm context (e.g., a specific product line) or a specific industry domain (e.g., a specific application area such as digital signal processing) may be more relevant. Recent labor economics research has also begun to highlight the value of focusing on such narrow "task-specific" categories of human

capital (Gibbons & Waldman, 2004; Gathmann & Schonberg, 2010). To ensure clarity and precision, we refer henceforth to the narrower subsets of human capital that matter specifically to a focal project by labeling them "relevant" (firm or industry-specific) HC. Drawing on the three types of human capital – firm-specific, industry-specific, and occupational – we now turn to developing our theoretical arguments about how transactional governance affects the firm's capability development, and in turn drives outsourcing decisions on the focal project.

Firms may attempt to learn by working closely with external suppliers and thus seek to develop their industry-specific HC (Rothaermel, Hitt & Jobe 2006; Parmigiani & Mitchell, 2009). However, several factors may limit the effectiveness of this strategy. First, suppliers may not want to share their knowledge with the client—they will provide the good or service, but not necessarily help their clients learn it so well that they could do it themselves. Second, industry-specific HC may be difficult to learn due to issues of tacitness, causal ambiguity, proprietary technology, or other appropriability barriers. Therefore it is likely to be more difficult to transfer industry-specific HC across firms than within organizational boundaries (Darr, Argote & Epple 1995; Argote & Ingram 2000). Finally, to the extent that industry-specific HC is built up through learning by doing in a given domain (Hatch & Dyer, 2004) and requires constant improvement and updating, reliance on suppliers creates and repeatedly replenishes supplier capabilities, leaving client firms to continually play catch-up. As suppliers develop greater familiarity with the firm and its technologies (and the two learn to work together), the firm's lack of capabilities in industry-specific HC can become an entrenched driver of further outsourcing.

In noting the advantages of the partnership form of organization, Milgrom and Roberts point out that "human capital is not easily tradable, and if the residual returns on that capital belong to the humans who embody it, then the usual arguments about ownership rights suggests that the residual control should be assigned to them too."

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Vanek (1977) and Meade (1972) argued that labor-managed firms would maximize net revenues per worker rather than maximizing profits, for example. Jensen and Meckling (1979), Furobotn and Pejovich (1974), and Vanek (1977) argued that employee-controlled firms would not have the right incentives to adequately maintain their physical capital. Williamson (1975, 1985) argued that democratically-run firms would be inefficient because hierarchies are needed for efficient processing of large amounts of information therefore the Firm Specific Human Capital theory by Becker (1975) underpins that study.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

The figure below presents the conceptual framework for the study. It is a diagrammatic representation of how the researcher viewed the study variables.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

Labor Turnover (IV)   **Organizational Productivity (DV)**

- Resignation

- Death

- Dismissals

- Profits

- Quality Products

- Costs and work efficiency
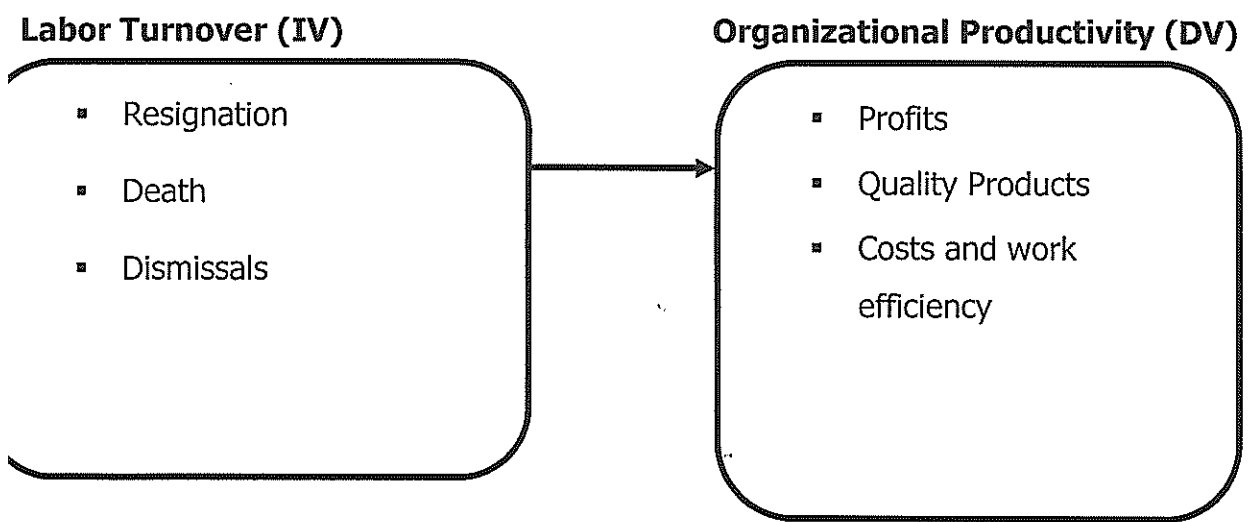
Source: Researcher Adapted from Becker (1975)

The conceptual framework provides a conceptualization of the variables. The variables are compatible with the conceptualization. The independent variable includes resignation, death and Dismissals. The dependent variable provides the mechanisms for the determination of productivity that include Profits, Quality Products and Costs and work Efficiency.

This indicates that whenever employees resign, the cost of replacing them is high as it incurs wasting time and difficulty in attaining skilled staff hence, negatively affecting organizational productivity. Death of an employee while they are still in an active employee contract usually costs the organization a lot. Replacing the worker has the effect of loss of organizational productivity for the time that a new worker is being trained. Dismissing employees that have been dear to the rest of the organizational members has a negative effect on organizational productivity since they would feel offended and less inclined to work.

2.4 Related Literature

Literature in this section reviewed with the respect to the objectives indicated in section 1.4 of this research.

2.4.1 Effect of resignation on organizational productivity

A resignation occurs when an employee takes the initiative to terminate the employment relationship. Employees resign for a wide range of reasons. Employees may leave their employers due to the type of continual confrontation mentioned, or for purely financial reasons (Carnahan, Agarwal, & Campbell, 2012). Employees may resign while maintaining a good relationship with their employer, to pursue other career opportunities, to move their home to a different area or a host of other possibilities. In rare cases, employees may voluntarily resign after committing an act that would require the company to discharge them.

Employees leave organizations for many reasons and these reasons are unknown to employers; mainly because at this point relationships have broken down, or because of apathy (Baruch, Sayce, & Gregoriou, 2014). Re-hiring employees who have resigned is a highly subjective matter. Employees who quit for negative reasons may present the same type of problems that previously discharged employees do if they are brought

back on board. On the other hand, re-hiring these employees can instill in them a stronger sense of loyalty than ever before.

While there is plenty supply at entry level there are huge gaps in the middle Management and Senior Management levels. This has resulted in increased level of poaching and attrition cases Shukla and Sharma, 2012). Some employee resignations have been beneficial for workplaces and were also socially desirable because has attracted new skills and ideas to the company (or mine) and created new employment opportunities. However, there was broad agreement amongst practitioners and researchers that continuing high resignation rate has a number of negative impacts.

Resignations have been direct financial cost to employers. Specific costs vary between industries and occupations, and depend on the nature of the job and the difficulty in recruiting suitable replacement, but in broad terms include: Separation costs such as administration costs associated with processing resignations and replacement/locum, time taken up in conducting exit interviews, productivity losses associated with impending departure, vacancy costs caused by lost productivity and/or additional costs such as overtime or contractor payments to cover for vacancies created by immediate departures.

By contrast, the problem of employees leaving due to resignations has direct impact on HR planning and recruitment processes. Replacing an employee is time-consuming and expensive (Sherman, Bohlander and Snell, 1998). For the past years, the experience of ABG Mines in Tanzania shows that labor resignations has proven to be problematic. It is costly in terms of administration of the resignation, recruitment costs, selection costs, and cost of covering during the period in which there is a vacancy.

Professional employees are likely to leave a workplace when they are dissatisfied, regardless of whether the employment market is strong or weak. Production

employees, on the other hand, will leave when they are dissatisfied and there is another job opportunity (Trevor, 2001). The research literature suggests that strategies to improve employee retention should focus on issues within the organisation's control; that is, issues which affect job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work-home balance and so forth (Weil and Kimball, 1995).

Studies of employee turnover in other industries have concluded that, for skilled employees in particular, the decision to quit is driven more by organisational and career-fit factors in their present job than by availability of more attractive employment opportunities elsewhere (Trevor, 2001; Vandenberg and Nelson, 1999).

Job satisfaction has a much stronger influence on employee turnover than the condition of the external labour market. That is, highly skilled employees quit primarily because they are dissatisfied with their current job, not because of job opportunities elsewhere. In an environment of fewer job opportunities the less skilled workers will take longer to leave (Trevor, 2001).

2.4.2 Death of Employees on organizational productivity

The death of an employee can be a traumatic experience for those who are left to deal with the loss of a team member. This article illustrates some key points to remember from an organizational standpoint in dealing sensitively with a deeply personal experience. A key organizational response should include treating the death of any staff member equally. In the workplace, the death of an employee or colleague can be especially traumatic (Baruch, Sayce, & Gregoriou, 2014). On a personal level, there are feelings of grief and loss, perhaps even guilt. On a practical level there are issues to deal with such as redistribution of work, payout of insurance benefits, etc.

For human resource professionals and managers, the death of an employee in the work group often comes as a sudden shock, creating stress, uncertainty and personal

feelings of loss. How to share the news with employees is an immediate concern that must be handled sensitively. The first responsibility of human resource staff is to inform, or assist management in informing members of the organization about the death of a coworker (AchanNaku, Mutambara, & Indermun, 2014). Staff should be informed as promptly as possible to avoid speculation and rumors. How this is done depends on the company, its size and its culture. A small company may call all employees together. Larger companies may rely on management to speak with their individual departments and will probably spend more time with those employees who worked most closely with the deceased.

Mossink and De Greef (2002) reported that the cost of accidents is not just a burden to businesses but also to the injured workers, their families and society in general. They reported that consequences for employees included loss of quality of life and human suffering identified significant psychological effects in terms of health, grief and suffering and quality of life as a result of workplace accidents.

This troubling type of situation is supported by the previously-described disenfranchising or stifling of grief in the workplace. Subjects in this study reported what past research has shown—employees perceive that workplace norms oblige them to suppress emotions and, despite what are happening in their personal lives, to continue their usual level of work performance. But Wortman and Silver (2014) explain that this is not likely to be effective in the long term because, "Those who show the most evidence of working through the loss are those who ultimately have the most difficulty in resolving what has happened.

Results from the study conducted by Chand and Tung (2014) indicate that whenever an employee dies while they are still in an active employee contract, it usually costs the organization a lot. Replacing the worker has the effect of loss of organizational productivity for the time that a new worker is being trained.

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2.4.3 Dismissals and organizational productivity

Dismissals (layoffs or discharge) have etiological dynamics, consequences, and costs that are completely different from those of voluntary turnover (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013). A termination reflects a bad hiring decision that must be corrected; a quit reflects the lower attractiveness of a current job relative to alternatives. Unfortunately, discharges have been discussed only briefly in the literatures on micro HRM, strategic HRM, and economics.

This happens despite the fact that in utility research, the costs of incorrect hiring decisions have been estimated to be high. The antecedents of discharges reside in the hiring and firing systems of an organization. An organization that selects employees carefully need not discharge as many employees; when selection errors do occur, an organization with effective systems for identifying and correcting errors should have higher discharge rates than one that does not (Carnahan, Agarwal, & Campbell, 2012). According to Frost (2003) the frequency with which hardworking, valuable employees have negative experiences in the workplace or hear bad news that leaves their hopes dashed, their goals derailed, or their confidence undermined. The sources of the pain vary, but much of it comes from abusive managers, unreasonable company policies, disruptive coworkers or clients, or from poorly managed change.

Dismissing employees that have been dear to the rest of the organizational members has a negative effect on organizational productivity since they would feel offended and less inclined to work (Carnahan, Agarwal, & Campbell, 2012). At times, there may be sit-down strikes. On the other hand, if the employee was an obstacle to organizational productivity, it is likely that organizational productivity would increase.

Fukunishi (2007) contends that dismissal of employees of work most of the time has positive benefits to the organization. He states that when long-term employees leave, the company is no longer in debt for high wages tenured employees earn. Employers

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can reconfigure their compensation practices and set new starting salaries for less experienced workers. The cost to maintain long-term employees is also expensive where benefits are concerned. Companies that raise their retirement savings contributions for tenured employees start over fresh at lower employer contribution rates. In his study, Fukunishi (2007) reviewed documentary evidence to come up with the findings. Amin (2005) contends that documentary review should only be used when other research instruments are not applicable or should be used as an additional instrument in social science research.

A study on the relationship between age and productivity requires data at the level of the firm because productivity is a firm-level phenomenon. Productivity of individual workers is hardly ever observed. Nevertheless, if individuals are aggregated to the firm level, the relationship between productivity and age should still hold. To establish the relationship between age and productivity preferably matched worker-firm panel data are needed. Understanding age-productivity profiles is of vital importance in several areas of economic research. Given that older individuals are less productive, an aging working population can lower economic growth and decrease fiscal sustainability. The causes of productivity variations over the life cycle are addressed with an emphasis on how cognitive abilities affect labor market performance. Individual job performance is found to decrease from around 50 years of age, which contrasts almost life-long increases in wages. Productivity reductions at older ages are particularly strong for work tasks where problem solving, learning and speed are needed, while in jobs where experience and verbal abilities are important, older individuals' maintain a relatively high productivity level (Skirbekk, 2003)

Employee resignations are a reality for any business. However, if the situation isn't handled properly, key staff members' departures can lead to a downturn in organizational productivity (Henrekson, 2014). Co-workers may question sticking with a current employer who risks losing them to competitors. Managers often attribute

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resignations to promise of better compensation. In reality, employees point out two factors that readily fall within managerial control including poor rapport with supervisors, and lack of advancement opportunities.

According to the Dual Labour Market model (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004), organizations are composed of two main groups of workers: the core (or primary) group and the peripheral (or secondary) group. Core workers are mostly "standard" or permanent employees. These employees work under the so called standard employment relationship (SER), which, according to certain authors (De Cuyper et al., 2008), has some typical characteristics: it offers continuity of employment, which gives the workers a certain level of security regarding their working situation; the employees work in the employer"s workplace and receive employers supervision.

The peripheral group is mostly "nonstandard" or short term workers, and includes short term agency workers, short-term, and independent contractors (Connelly & Gallagher, 2004). All these types of employment are different from the standard employment in aspects such as working hours, terms of the contract, access to fringe benefits and supervision received. Most of the companies have a certain number of short term workers as a way to deal with periods of decreased productivity or lower demand. This characteristic is considered by many authors as a quantitative (or numerical) external flexibility, concerning employees who belong to the"external" part of the company and not to the "core" (Valverde, Tregaskis, & Brewster, 2000).
There are three main reasons for employers to use short term workers, flexibility of staffing, reduction of costs and ease of dismissal.

Another advantage of using short term workers was the ease of their dismissal (Allan, 2002). In the United States of America, Gunderson (2001) suggested that due to the lack of costs linked with laying off short term workers, they were an attractive option. It was noted within organizations that operated in the unpredictable market of workload

(Allan, 2002). Indeed, in the UK, a strategic use of short term workers was to adjust the workforce to match demands. This gave organizations an advantage in terms of numerical flexibility employing "just in time" workers to cope with increased or decreased demand without resorting to making permanent employees redundant. Although the ability to bring people to work at short notice and let them go again gives organizations tighter control on their payroll costs, this may be to the long-term disadvantage of the organization. Short term workers may be less productive due to their time spent in learning new tasks (Allan, 2002). Increased pressure may be placed upon human resource managers or supervisors to induct and train the new short term workers (Allan, 2002). Further pressure may also arise as managers try to control the numbers of staff in accordance with workload (Henricks, 1997).

In addition, permanent employees may not like the extensive use of short term workers, especially if they feel their employer would like to substitute them with more precarious working arrangements. This was certainly found in the USA by Pearce (1993) who stated that the employment of contractors resulted in negative attitudes towards the organization by permanent workers. These negative attitudes have also been extended to US-based nurses employed with casual and agency nurses and with UK permanent call centre workers working with agency workers (Biggs, 2003). Moreover, the influence of short term workers on permanent workers may be much more complicated than anticipated. Indeed, this area of research has so far been hampered by the lack of, and difficulty in obtaining, control groups that may offset the influence of short term workers on permanent staff (Biggs, 2003).

2.5 Relationship between Labor Turnover and Organizational Productivity

Githinji (2014) is of the idea that involuntary turnover has a way of improving employees' morale. Disengaged workers sap the workplace of enthusiasm, energy and productivity. When employees who are performing at marginal levels leave the organization, it inspires remaining workers and returns the workplace to a team-

oriented work environment where everyone is focused, driven and interested in doing a good job (Githinji, 2014). The strain placed on an organization by managing employees whose presence affects the entire workforce is lifted when those employees are separated from the company. As much as the researcher use only 30 employees for his sample size, his work provided evidence of the effect of involuntary turnover on performance of entities.

Chand and Tung (2014) contend that while voluntary turnover (the exiting of people from an organization on their own accord) is a normal activity, all employee turnovers are expensive to an organization. As they note in Training & Development articles, Warning Signs of Turnover Waiting to Happen, turnover costs can range from 93 to 200 percent of an existing employee's salary. Advertising, relocation, on boarding, training, and the staff time recruiting and selecting new employees are just a few of the costs associated with replacing employees who leave the organization. This does not include the substantial costs of lost productivity and other indirect administration (Chand & Tung, 2014). Given these metrics, it makes sense for organizational leaders to reduce all labor turnover costs (voluntary or otherwise)–particularly when this turnover means the organization is losing its superstar employees to other firms.

Shah (2013) agrees that voluntary turnover can be bad. If a lot of people are leaving your company, you have to take a look at your overall environment. Usually, a seemingly unprovoked mass exodus is a symptom of something having gone wrong in communication or the treatment of employees. Still, he adds, on the pro side of turnover, businesses that are growing often find that the skills and energy required for the jobs aren't being met simply because as the demands of the jobs grow, frequently the people in those jobs don't (Shah, 2013). In this case, seeing people leave their positions because they choose not to grow or take on any greater responsibility is a positive thing. But most of the time voluntary turnover happens due to uncomfortable environment within the organization. He further argues that the employees mostly

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affected by this are the high profile ones who find it easy to obtain another job elsewhere. For this reason, Shah (2013) concludes that voluntary turnover has detrimental effect on the entity's service delivery.

Baruch et al., (2014) found a significant correlation between labor turnover and the productivity in organizations. Their findings also suggested that ineffective employees should be allowed to leave organizations and those that are effective to remain. The relationship established by this study is proof that indeed turnover is related to productivity.

Kihiu (2014) also suggests that there is a significant relationship between labor turnover and organizational productivity. When these employees leave the organization, employer benefits costs may drop significantly and higher organizational productivity results (Baruch, Sayce, & Gregoriou, 2014). The study was not clear about the effect of retirement of longer serving employees' retirement on performance but casually implied that if insurance costs are minimized, performance is boosted. This assumption is not always true.

Carnahan et al., (2012) considered turnover that came as a result of retirement. They write that losing experienced staff to retirement can hurt an organization. In addition to the costs of recruiting and training new staff, there is also the lost knowledge of a business and clients. Mature-age workers have built up knowledge and skills during their time in the workforce, and using these skills in workplace mentoring programs can reduce staff turnover, train other employees and increase staff morale (Carnahan, Agarwal, & Campbell, 2012). Mature-age workers can save a business's money on absenteeism, training and recruitment.

2.6 Related Studies

Labor turnover refers to the number or percentage of workers who leave an organization and are replaced by new employees. Measuring labor turnover can be helpful to employers that want to examine reasons for turnover or estimate the cost-to-hire for budget purposes. Blanket references to turnover can be confusing; therefore, specific definitions and calculations for employee turnover may be useful to human resources practitioners.

Basic labor turnover calculations are relatively simple. If an entity employs 100 employees and 15 employees are fired or quit, the turnover is 15 percent. Most organizations use more detailed calculations to determine what underlies labor turnover. Assume five employees leave in January, one employee leaves in May and four employees leave in November. The annual labor turnover rate is 10 percent, and your average monthly labor turnover is 8.3 percent. Labor turnover calculations may also factor in different types of turnover, such as involuntary and voluntary, or even more specific reasons why employees leave, such as poor performance, absenteeism or employees accepting new jobs elsewhere. Labor turnover calculations are helpful to determine hiring costs, training requirements or estimating staff time devoted to recruitment activities.

Voluntary turnover describes the amount of labor turnover that occurs due to the decision of employees to resign from their positions and voluntarily leave their employers (Davis, Trevor, & Feng, 2015). This is in contrast to involuntary turnover, which is labor turnover that occurs without the consent of the employee. Typically, voluntary turnover focuses mainly on situations in which employees choose to tender resignations for various causes, rather than being terminated at the discretion of an employer (Davis, Trevor, & Feng, 2015).

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There are several different reasons why voluntary turnover may occur. One of the more common reasons is that employees find positions with different employers who offer more in the way of salaries, wages, or benefits (Park & Shaw, 2013). In this scenario, the employee tenders a resignation to the current employer, often providing whatever advance notice is customary in the culture where the company is located. The employer then has the option of releasing the employee immediately, or allowing the employee to work out the terms of that notice.

Another common reason for voluntary turnover involves changes in the life circumstances of employees (Chand & Tung, 2014). For example, an employee may choose to start a family and prefer to devote more time to child rearing. When this is the case, the employee may choose to resign from full-time employment for the first years after children are born, leaving open the options to launch a home business or secure a part-time position with another firm at a later date.

In employment, labor turnover refers to any time a current employee leaves the company and is replaced by a new employee. Involuntary turnover is one type of turnover that occurs when an employee is terminated from a position. Employees may be let go for a wide range of reasons, including unsatisfactory job performance or inappropriate behavior, often called counterproductive work behavior (CWB).

Many of the issues that cause involuntary turnover can be minimized by administering pre-employment tests in the hiring process. For example, one of the main causes of involuntary turnover is that new employees do not digest and apply the training they are given in a satisfactory manner; aptitude and skills tests can predict learning ability and the likelihood that an applicant will successfully complete training.

Similarly, certain personality tests can be used to assess how likely an employee is to engage in counterproductive work behaviors that can negatively affect an organization. Some examples of counterproductive work behaviors include theft, tardiness, fraud, and time-wasting. Integrity tests can be administered to assess if an applicant is likely to be

a productive, reliable, and conscientious employee who is less likely to engage in inappropriate behavior in the workplace.

Organizational productivity is the rate at which organizations improve the efficiency and effectiveness of in their operations to guarantee present and future performance. The input-output measure of productivity may not be quite applicable in the case of security firms. All that firms concern themselves with is how many contracts they win, how many of their current clients renew contracts with them, and how much the clients are satisfied with the services offered to them.

Organizational productivity issues are quite common and as Chauke (2007) states, most of the issues come as a result of low customer satisfaction. In her study which examined the impact of absenteeism on organizational productivity, she finds that most private security firms are facing it hard with the management of organizational productivity. Similar findings were also made in Githinji (2014). He alluded to the fact that private security firms are doing less to improve their organizational productivity and they instead focus on other issues that he considers secondary.

Labour turnover can be very problematic for large, medium and small organizations. All organizations can expect some degree of employee's turnover. Indeed a certain degree of employees turnover may be desirable since it creates opportunities to the introduce competence, new ideas and experience to the organization, as well providing career development opportunities for existing workers. Though Labour turnover is however, is costly both to individual organizations and the economy as a whole. It also affects moral, profitability, efficiency and productivity as well. Durbin (2000)

Meyer (2001) also said that Labour turnover may be due to a particular cause but they can also be an indication of more fundamental organizational problems. Establishing the cause and working out for a solution may, therefore, calls for re – examination of the

organization policies and procedures. It may be difficult for those within the organizations to conduct this with the degree of rigour and objectives required, and therefore it is advisable to involve someone or a group of people outside the organizations to undertake this task.

Armstrong (2011), argues that the prospect of getting higher pay elsewhere is one of the most obvious contributions to turnover. This practice can be regularly observed at all levels of the economic ladder, from executives and generously paid professionals in high-stress positions to entry-level workers in relatively undemanding jobs.

Labour turnover tends to be higher in environments where employees feel they are taken advantage of, where the feel undervalued or ignored, and where they feel helpless or unimportant. Clearly, if managers are impersonal, arbitrary and demanding, there is a greater risk of turnover (Hom and Griffeth, 2001).

Allen (2000) pointed out that Labour turnover can be expensive, although the actual costs are difficult to estimate. To get indication, organisations can start adding up the most obvious expenses: those of advertising, recruitment and supervisory time.

2.7 Research Gaps

Meyer (2001) also said that employee's turnover may be due to a particular cause but they can also be an indication of more fundamental organizational problems. Establishing the cause and working out for a solution may, therefore, calls for re – examination of the organization policies and procedures. It may be difficult for those within the organizations to conduct this with the degree of rigour and objectives required, and therefore it is advisable to involve someone or a group of people outside the organizations to undertake this task.

The review of literature shows several significant gaps. The most notable gap is the fact that Meyer reviewed organizational productivity relating to other organizations other

than those in the private security industry. This is not true for the case at hand which seeks to link productivity with labor turnover at private security firms. Some of the researchers such as used ineffective research instruments while others used obsolete instruments hence compromising their findings. Furthermore some authors were not clear about the link between the two variables under investigation but only faintly implied the existence of the relationship.

Armstrong (2011), argues that the prospect of getting higher pay elsewhere is one of the most obvious contributions to turnover. This practice can be regularly observed at all levels of the economic ladder, from executives and generously paid professionals in high-stress positions to entry-level workers in relatively undemanding jobs. Armstrong left a gap that not all labour leave the organization in search of higher pay but there other circumstances that lead to labour leaving the organization such as bad working conditions, unfavourable environment e.t.c.

Employees' turnover tends to be higher in environments where employees feel they are taken advantage of, where the feel undervalued or ignored, and where they feel helpless or unimportant. Clearly, if managers are impersonal, arbitrary and demanding, there is a greater risk of turnover (Hom and Griffeth, 2001).

Allen (2000) pointed out that employees turnover can be expensive, although the actual costs are difficult to estimate. To get indication, organisations can start adding up the most obvious expenses: those of advertising, recruitment and supervisory time.

Fukunishi (2007) and Muyingo's (2001) studies are slowly becoming obsolete because they were conducted long ago. Other studies analyzed the impact of only some or one of the constructs encompassed by this study; it is prudent to have all these dimensions to be reviewed under a single study. From the summary of literature gaps identified

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here, the researcher resolved to undertake a fresh primary study to establish the link between labor turnover and organizational productivity.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses how data regarding to the study was collected. It describes the research design, the variables under study, and their measures, the area of study, the sources of information, sampling design, procedure and a sample size. Data collection and processing are then discussed later, and lastly the researcher comments on the expected limitations of the study.

3.2 Research Design

The research used a descriptive case study research design where data is collected from one entity alone. This design is cheap, less time consuming and easy data collection and analysis (Amin, 2005). The design was preferred since the only source of information from the private security companies of Kampala Uganda. Quantitative data collected will be used during the study. Quantitative approaches were used to analyze the data collected via questionnaires. This is the main information that were in form of the basis of discussion in the final report. These will help in further analysis of data and confirming the information collected and analyzed using quantitative means.

3.3 Study Population

The study's population was chosen from Pinnacle Security Ltd, Saracen Security, and Protectorate SPC Ltd. These firms according to the Pinnacle (144), Saracen(U)Limited (176) and Protectorate SPC Ltd (108) annual report of 2015 points to the overall Population of supervisors, human resource and administrators plus CEO's, shareholders and directors to be 428.These individuals will be human resources officers, administration personnel and supervisors at security firms. This information was obtained from the security firm's Annual Report for the year 2015.

3.4 Sample Size

The sample size was 207 as computed using the Slovene's formula, which states that for any given population the required sample size given by;

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Equation 3.1: Slovene's Formula

Where; n the required sample size;

N = the known population size; and

e= the level of significance, which is = 0.05

Therefore given a total population of 428 respondents (in the given categories) in the four universities, the sample size was;

$$n = \frac{390}{1+390(0.05)^2} = \frac{428}{1+428(0.0025)} = 206.76 \cong 207 \; respondents$$

Table 3. 1: Categories of Respondents

Category of Respondents	Population	Sample size	Sampling Technique
PINNACLE SECURITY			
Human Resources Officers	10	5	Purposive
Administration Personnel	40	19	Simple Random
Supervisors	82	40	Simple Random
Share holder, Directors	12	05	Purposive
Sub Total	**144**	**69**	
SARACEN (U) LTD			
Human Resources Officers	20	10	Purposive
Administration Personnel	53	26	Simple Random
Supervisors	90	44	Simple Random
Share holder, Directors	13	6	Purposive
Sub Total	**176**	**86**	
PROTECTORATE SPC LTD			
Human Resources Officers	6	3	Purposive
Administration Personnel	34	17	Simple Random
Supervisors	55	26	Simple Random
Share holder, Directors	13	6	Purposive
Sub Total	**108**	**52**	
Grand Total	**428**	**207**	

3.5 Sampling Techniques

The research employed two sampling techniques, simple random and purposive sampling. In using simple random sampling, the researcher first gathered the names of intended subjects from the firms and after that the respondents were picked at random. This method was used to establish which respondents took part in the study from the categories of supervisors and administration personnel. The second technique to be used is purposive/Judgmental sampling. This method was used to identify the members to take part in the study from the human resources officers.

3.6 Sources of data

The researcher collected data from secondary and primary data sources.

3.6.1 Primary Data

Primary data revealed concrete information about the target population investigated on which basic conclusions were drawn. Both secondary and primary data supplemented each other to enable the researcher analyze information (Sekaran, 2003).

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

The researcher used only one data collection technique during the gathering of information in the field. The questionnaires were intensively used because they were easy to administer, the give room for anonymity and they were convenient for the respondents.

3.7.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires were developed and designed in the most understandable way for the respondents with simple language, simple questions that can easily be answered

without consuming the time of the respondents. These were used mainly to gather primary data where respondents were expected to react usually in writing and return them filled with answers for analysis by the researcher. The answering options on a Likert's scale, ranging from 1= strongly agree to 5 strongly disagree were used to make the questionnaire easy to fill. The respondents to be considered for questionnaire assignment were made (Kothari, 2004).

3.8 Data Gathering Procedures

Before Data Collection

Before setting out to the field of research, the researcher sought authorization from the university department and obtain an introduction from the relevant authorities. The researcher then advanced to the security companies where her study were conducted. After that she presented the introduction letter to the management of the firm to seek their cooperation. After approval the research assistants to assist her in data collection. The research assistants were immediately be trained on how to do data collection.

During Data Collection

During the process of data collection, the respondents were required to sign the informed consent form before they are allowed to participate in the study. They were informed of their rights before signing the form. Respondents who provided responses through the questionnaire were given only 7 days to turn in their duly filled questionnaire.

After Data Collection

After data has been collected, it was confirmed by the researcher to ensure that every data is intact. The researcher then proceeded to fill enter the data into statistical and data management software like SPSS and Excel. These were used to analyze the data before compiling the ultimate report.

3.9 Reliability and Validity of Instruments

3.9.1 Validity of instruments

To test the content validity, the researcher used a panel of six experts to evaluate whether each question in the questionnaire is fundamental and valuable. These people will be given the questionnaire that was distributed together with the objectives of the study, and research questions. These experts were asked to assess the validity of questions in the questionnaire by ranking them from one to four against objectives of the study, and research questions. 1 stands for not relevant, 2 stands for somewhat relevant, 3 stands for quite relevant and 4 for very relevant.

According to Amin (2005) validity of instrument is determined by the formula:

$$CVI = \frac{RQ}{TQ}$$

Legends: CVI = Content Validity Index

RQ = Relevant Questions

TQ = Total number of Questions

The attainment of the figure of 0.7 indicated that the instrument is valid.

Table 3. 2: Determination of the validity of the instrument

	Relevant items	Not relevant	Total
Rater 1	29	6	35
Rater 2	32	4	35
Rater 3	30	5	35
Total	**91**	**15**	**105**

$$CVI = \frac{91}{105} = 0.86$$

The above demonstrate that the CVI is 0.86 and this is greater than the minimum value of valid instrument which is 0.7 implying that the instrument is valid.

3.9.2 Reliability of instruments

To test the reliability of the questionnaire; internal consistency or Cronbach's Alpha coefficient were used. This was calculated using SPPS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). It is argued by Muganda & Mugenda (2003) that for the instrument to be reliable, the coefficient has to be at least 0.7 and more. Ten questionnaires were distributed for pilot test and there are 36 items in the questionnaire. Data were entered into SPSS a reliability test were run. As shown in Table 3.3, the mean Alpha was obtained to be at 0.84. Since this figure is above 0.70, it implies that the instrument has internal consistencies which make it sufficiently reliable.

Table 3. 3: Reliability Test Results

Variable	Alpha	No. of Questions
Resignation	0.86	5
Death	0.78	6
Dismissal	0.94	6
Increased Profits	0.88	3
Increased Resource Utilization	0.90	3
Increased Quality	0.79	3
Increased Customers	0.77	3
Reduced Costs	0.73	3
Increased Work Efficiency	0.82	3
Mean Alpha and Total No. of Questions	**0.84**	**35**

3.10 Data Analysis

The study used both quantitative and qualitative style of data analysis. Quantitative analysis was through use of results gathered from questionnaires for completeness and accuracy. After collection of the data, various methods and computer programs such as SPSS, Excel, were used to process and analyze it. Data on Demographic characteristics of respondents was edited, categorized and entered into a computer for the statistical

package for social scientists (SPSS) which summarized them using frequency and percentage to analyze data on respondent's profile. Means and standard deviation were used to analyze data on the effect of employee resignation, effect of employee death, effect of employee dismissal on organizational productivity. The 0.05 level of significance was used to determine the effect of the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Hypothesis was measured and tested using regression analysis. Multiple regression model was;

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + e$$

Where:

Y = Organizational Productivity in Private Security firms

X1 = Employee Resignation

X2 = Employee Death

X3 = Employee Dismissal

e = error term

The priori expectation of the study was that there exists a positive relationship between $H_0 1$ There is no significant effect of employee resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms, $H_0 2$ There is no significant effect of employee death on organizational productivity in private security firms, $H_0 3$ There is no significant effect of employee dismissals on organizational productivity in private security firms.

The value of r is always between +1 and −1. To interpret its value, the researcher based on the following correlation coefficients (r):

r range	interpretation
• Exactly −1.	A perfect negative linear relationship
• −0.60 to − 0.90	A strong negative linear relationship
• −0.50 to -0.59	A moderate negative relationship
• −0.30 to -0.49	A weak negative linear relationship
• 0.	No linear relationship

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- +0.30 to +0.49   A weak positive linear relationship
- +0.50 to +0.59   A moderate positive relationship
- +0.60 to + 0.90   A strong positive linear relationship
- Exactly +1.   A perfect positive linear relationship

All data was analyzed at 5% level of significance. The hypotheses formulated in section 1.6 were tested at the 5% (0.05) significance level. Thus if the p-value is less than 0.05 the null hypotheses are rejected. If, on the other hand, the p-value is greater than 0.05, the null hypotheses are not rejected.

The following mean range will be used to arrive at the mean of the individual indicators and interpretation

Mean range	Respondent	Interpretation
4.2 - 5.00	Strongly agree	Very High
3.6 - 4.19	Agree	High
2.6 - 3.59	Not Sure	Moderately High
1.6 - 2.59	Disagree	Low
1.00 - 1.59	Strongly disagree	Very Low

The study adopted a simple regression that was based on the level of significance of 0.05. The test for hypothesis was based on the 0.05 level of significance given that that the significant values below 0.05 led to rejection of the null hypothesis.

Qualitative data and interpretation were done through the use of interview guide. Its analysis was performed through thematic review of the response given. This involved analysis of descriptive information as the respondents responded from the questions.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

It is important to ensure that the researcher shows concern for all stakeholders in this research undertaking. To ensure this, the following will be done:

1. Coding of all questionnaires to ensure anonymity

2. The respondents were requested to sign the informed consent form
3. Authors mentioned in this study were acknowledged within the body of text
4. Findings were presented in a generalized manner

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION
4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the presentation of data, analysis, and interpretation. The data analysis and interpretation was based on the research questions as well as research objectives. The analysis of data is based on the data collected using the questionnaire and documentary reviews. The analysis is based on the three instruments used in data collection the presentation is divided into three parts. The first part presents the respondents demographic information, while the second part deals with presentation, interpretation, and analysis of the research objectives. The third part will present and interpret data based on the stories collected from the questionnaires and documentary reviews. The entire study was to investigate the relationship between labor turnover and organization productivity of Kampala private security firms.

4.2 Demographic Information

This part presents the background information of the respondents who participated in the study. The purpose of this background information was to find out the characteristics of the respondents and show the distribution of respondents in the study in terms of gender, age, academic qualifications and time of service.

Table 4. 1: Showing gender of respondents

Response	Frequency	Percent
Male	148	71.5
Female	59	28.5
Total	**207**	**100.0**

Table 4.1 presents the findings on gender of the respondents 148 (71.5%) for male, while 59 (28.5%). The males were the biggest percentage compared to the females.

This is an implication that data was collected from across the gender grid. It is also logically well known that men involve more in provision of security than female.

Table 4. 2: Showing the education of respondents

Response	Frequency	Percent
O-level	65	31.4
A-level	50	24.2
Diploma	26	12.6
Degree	40	19.3
Masters	26	12.6
Total	**207**	**100.0**

Table 4.2 presents the education level of the respondents. O-level 65 (31.4%), A-level 50 (24.2%), degree 40 (19.3%), diploma 26 (12.6%), and masters 26 (12.6%).The findings imply that most of the results were taken from people with some qualification i.e. O-level and hence it is precisely right to base on these finding for resolution making.

Table 4. 3: Shows the age of the respondents

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent
20-29	55	26.6
30-39	30	14.5
40-49	52	25.0
50-59	53	25.6
60 and above	17	08.2
Total	**207**	**100.0**

Table 4.3 presents the age of the respondents. Age 20-29 was presented with 55 (26.6%), age 50-59 was presented with 53 (25.6%), age 40-49 was presented with 52 (25.0%), age 30-39 was presented with 30 (14.5%) and those above 60 years was presented with 17 (08.2%). The findings reveal that many respondents are mature and information attained is fundamental for effective decision making.

Table 4. 4: Time of respondents in the security companies

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent
<1	46	22.2
1-3	43	20.8
4-6	31	15.0
7-9	51	24.6
10 and above	36	17.4
Total	**207**	**100.0**

Table 4.4 presents time of respondents in the security companies. The results on the time of respondents in the security companies reveal that majority of the respondents had been in the company for 7-9 Years with 51(24.6%) of the respondents, 46(22.2%) of the respondents in the age of less than 1 year, 1-3 years 43(20.8%) of the respondents, 10 and above 36(17.4%) of the respondents and 4-6 years were with 31(15%) of the respondents. The responses reveal that most the respondents were in the security companies for long hence data collected is reasonable for decision making.

Scale of rating	Interpretation
1.0 - 1.75	Very Low
1.76 -2.55	Low
2.6 - 3.39	Moderately High
3.4 - 4.19	High
4.2 – 5.0	Very High

4.3 Effect of employee resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms in Kampala

The first objective of the study was study was to determine the effect of employee resignation on organizational productivity in security firms in Kampala. The data collected is presented and interpreted as presented below.

4.3.1 Effect of employee resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms in Kampala Uganda

Table 4. 5: Shows the employee resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms in Kampala

Descriptive Statistics			
Response	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Several factors exist that compel employees to resign from this organization	2.88	1.536	Moderately High
There are no adequate measures to control the self-initiated exits of employees	2.72	1.371	Moderately High
Most of the labor turnover results from resignation	2.75	1.393	Moderately High
The resignations are as a result of better opportunities else where	2.97	1.523	Moderately High
The employee resign because of poor conditions in the organization	2.43	1.405	Moderately High
The resignation among the employees is because of grievances	2.66	1.458	Moderately High
Average mean	**2.74**	**1.447**	**Moderately High**

The results from table 4.5 indicated that several factors exist that compel employees to resign from this organization with the mean 2.88, SD=1.536 interpreted as moderately high. There are no adequate measures to control the self-initiated exits of employees with the mean of 2.72 interpreted as 1.371 moderately high results were provided.

Most of the labor turnover results from employee resignation with the mean of 2.75 standard deviation of 1.393 interpreted as moderately high while the employee resignations are as a result of better opportunities elsewhere with the mean of 2.97, SD=1.523 interpreted as moderately high.

The employee resign because of poor conditions in the organization with the mean of 2.43, SD= 1.405 interpreted as moderately high, the resignation among the employees is because of grievances with the mean of 2.66, SD=1.458 which was moderately high responses.

The findings on the employee resignation on organizational productivity in security firms in Kampala was with the mean of 2.735, SD=1.447 which is moderately high which imply that aspects of employee resignation is moderately prevalent.

4.3.2 Organizational Productivity of private security firms in Kampala Uganda Table

Table 4. 6: Shows the organizational Productivity of private security firms in Kampala Uganda

Descriptive Statistics			
Productivity of security firms	Mean	Std. Dev	Interpretation
Each and every resource is committed to a particular job of task	2.51	1.415	Low
Our profitability trend has been positive at most times	2.78	1.447	Moderately high
Our projected profitability is quite promising	2.78	1.450	Moderately high
We are one of the highest profitable firms in the industry	2.63	1.498	Moderately high
We adequately allocate our physical resources	2.79	1.400	Moderately high
We have reliable personnel in checking resource allocation issues in the company	2.79	1.951	Moderately high
Our services are of a higher quality than those offered by rival firms	2.69	1.435	Moderately high
The quality of our services has been increasing over time	2.92	1.482	Moderately high
Projections indicate that our quality is bound to go higher with time	2.79	1.407	Moderately high

The number of customers has always been higher than that of rival firms	2.66	1.370	Moderately high
The number of customers has been increasing fast over time	2.77	1.435	Moderately high
We expect significant increases in the number of customers we serve in future	2.76	1.406	Moderately high
Our cost structure is well-optimized	2.80	1.439	Moderately high
We have the best cost managers in the industry	2.73	1.394	Moderately high
Our overall cost amounts have been decreasing significantly with time	2.80	1.356	Moderately high
Our workers deliver much with limited resources	2.80	1.422	Moderately high
The cost-benefit ratio for most of our services is favorable	2.86	1.559	Moderately high
We adequately allocate our human resources	3.25	1.409	High
Average Mean	**2.78**	**1.459**	**Moderately high**

Results from table 4.6 indicated that the productivity through increased profits provided was established that the profitability trend has been positive at most times with the mean of 2.78, SD=1.447 interpreted as moderate. The projected profitability is quite promising with the mean of 2.78, SD=1.450 moderate and we are one of the highest profitable firms in the industry with the mean of 2.628, SD=1.498

Regarding the increased resource utilization, the security firms adequately allocate our human resources 3.25, SD=1.409 interpreted as high. There is adequate allocate our physical resources with 2.792, SD=1.400 interpreted as moderate while we have reliable personnel in checking resource allocation·issues in the company with the mean 2.79, SD=1.951 moderately high. The results reveal that security firms allocation of the resources and utilization was moderately high.

The results on increased Quality Products was provided by the responses undersigned as the services are of a higher quality than those offered by rival firms with 2.69,

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SD=1.435 interpreted as moderate while the quality of our services has been increasing over time with the mean of 2.92, SD=1.482 which was moderate and the projections indicate that the quality is bound to go higher with time with the mean of 2.79, SD=1.407 interpreted as moderately.

The findings on the increased customers with the number of customers has always been higher than that of rival firms, Mean =2.66, SD=1.370 interpreted as moderate. The number of customers has been increasing fast over time with the mean 2.77, SD=1.435 moderately highly and we expect significant increases in the number of customers we serve in future the mean was 2.76, SD=1.406 interpreted as moderately high responses.

The results on the reduced Costs of the operations reveal that the cost structure is well-optimized with the mean of 2.80, SD=1.439 moderately High. We have the best cost managers in the industry with the mean of 2.73, SD=1.394 interpreted as moderate while our overall cost amounts have been decreasing significantly with time with the mean 2.80, SD=1.356, moderately high implying that operations of cost management is significantly moderate.

The findings also reveal increased work efficiency. The research findings reveal that our workers deliver much with limited resources with the mean of 2.80, SD=1.422, moderate while the cost-benefit ratio for most of our services is favorable with the mean of 2.86, SD=1.559 moderate while each and every resource is committed to a particular job of task with the mean of 2.51, SD= 1.415 interpreted as low. The findings reveal that moderate with the mechanisms to implore the operations as relevant.

The study findings on the productivity of the security firms in Kampala reveal that they were moderately performing productively. The mean responses were 2.78, SD=1.459

interpreted as moderately high implying that the security firm's level of productivity was sound and appropriate for the organization.

4.3.4 Regression. Effect of resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms in Kampala Uganda.

Table 4. 7: Regression. Effect of resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms in Kampala Uganda.

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.625ᵃ	.391	.323	2.81160
a. Predictors: (Constant) Resignation				

ANOVAᵇ						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	136.822	3	45.607	5.769	.003ᵃ
	Residual	213.438	27	7.905		
	Total	350.260	30			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Employee Resignation						
b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Productivity						

Coefficientsᵃ						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.616	1.705		.361	.001
	Employee Resignation	.534	.150	.563	-3.562	.001
a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Productivity						

Table 4.7 shows that the coefficient of determination also called the R square is 39.1%. This means that the combined effect of the predictor variables (resignation, death and dismissal) explains 39.1% of the variations in organizational productivity. This means

that 60.9% of the changes in the dependent variable are explained by other factors outside the independent variable.

The table further shows the analysis of variance (ANOVA) explains further the relationship between the independent variable shows that the combined effect of labour turnover resignation, death and dismissal was statistically significant in explaining changes in organizational productivity. This is demonstrated by F value of 2.747 which larger than the value of significance, 0.005. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected this means that resignation negatively affect the organizational productivity.

The levels of significances for the independent and dependent variables are respectively. Since the level of significance is less than 0.05, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis and argues that there is a significant effect of resignation on organizational productivity. It means that resignation of reduces the organizational turnover.

4.4 Effect of employee death on organizational productivity in private security firms of Kampala Uganda

The second objective of the study was study was to determine the effect of employee death on organizational productivity in security firms in Kampala. The data collected is presented and interpreted as presented below.

Table 4. 8: Employee death in private security firms in Kampala Uganda

Level of employee Death	Mean	Standard deviation	Interpretation
Death is a big factor that leads to our company losing employees	2.56	1.518	Moderately high
The measures put in place in case an employee dies are unsatisfactory	2.54	1.483	Moderately High
Most of the labor turnover results from death	2.55	1.399	Moderately High
Death has lead to loss of company skills and expertise	2.67	.981	High
Total Mean	**2.58**	**1.345**	**Moderately High**

The results in table 4.8 shows the employee death in the security in Kampala Uganda was with the mean of 2.56, SD=1.345 moderately high implying that there is mechanisms for death of the employees.

The results from table 4.3.1reveal that the employee death is a big factor that leads to our company losing employees which is with the mean of 2.56, SD=1.518, moderately high with the respondents.

The measures put in place in case an employee dies are unsatisfactory with 2.54, SD=1.483 Interpreted as moderately high with the responses directed to the above direction.

The results reveal that Most of the labor turnover results from employee death with the mean of 2.55, SD=1.399 interpreted as moderately high in the responses rates for the organization.

4.4.2 Effect of employee death on organizational productivity in private security firms of Kampala Uganda

Table 4. 9: Regression on employee death on organizational productivity in private security firms of Kampala Uganda

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.227[a]	.052	.019	3.38449
a. Predictors: (Constant), Death				

ANOVA[b]						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	18.072	1	18.072	1.578	.219[a]
	Residual	332.188	29	11.455		
	Total	350.260	30			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Death						
b. Dependent Variable: Organizational Productivity						

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.454	.667		8.170	.000
	Employee Death	.043	.034	.227	1.256	.219
a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Productivity						

From table 4.9 the value .227 of the regression coefficient between employee death on organizational productivity in security firms of Kampala Uganda, the regression coefficient expresses that only 22.7 % of change in the dependent variable (i.e organizational productivity) is caused by employee death. The R^2 .052, on the other hand expresses that for this change; only 5.2% of the data are accounted. The adjusted R^2 .019, shows the effect of employee death on organizational productivity in

security firms. In this case employee death accounts for 1.9 percent of the changes in organizational productivity. The standard error estimate of 3.38449 shows close scatter of the data.

Table further shows the analysis of variance (ANOVA) explains further the effect between the independent variable (employee death) and the dependent variable (organizational productivity. From the ANOVA table, the value of 1.578 is large than the value of significance, .219[a]. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted. This means that employee death does not have a significant effect on organizational productivity.

The table further illustrates the regression analysis between employee death and organization productivity. The regression analysis shows that the rate of organizational productivity that does not depend on employee death is 5.454. The rate of change of organizational productivity to employee death in Uganda is (β= .043). This means that a unit change in employee death reduces productivity to a lower rate.

The table values for the constant and β are (.8.170) and 1.256) respectively with their respective levels of significances as (.000 and .219) respectively. Since the level of significance is less than 0.05, the researcher accepted the null hypothesis and argues that there is no significant effect of employee death on productivity of security firms in Kampala Uganda.

4.5 Effect of Employee Dismissals on organizational productivity in private security firms Kampala Uganda

The third objective of the study was study was to determine the effect of employee dismissals on organizational productivity in security firms Kampala Uganda. The data collected is presented and interpreted as presented below.

4.5.1 Employee Dismissals in private security firms Kampala Uganda

Table 4. 10: Employee Dismissals in private security firms Kampala Uganda

Descriptive Statistics			
Response	Mean	Std. Deviation	interpretation
Our company does not tolerate incompetent employees	2.92	1.423	Moderately High
Employees are given few opportunities to prove themselves before they are dismissed	2.50	1.314	Moderately High
Most of the turnover results from dismissals	2.79	1.448	Moderately High
Average mean	**2.74**	**1.395**	**Moderately high**

Results in table 4.10: Employee Dismissals in private security firms Kampala Uganda reveal that the average mean of 2.74, SD=1.395 interpreted as moderately high meaning that that dismissal of employees occurs and the prevalence in the security companies of Private nature.

The results reveal that our company does not tolerate incompetent employees with the mean of mean of 2.92, SD= 1.423 interpreted as moderately high meaning that the incompetent employees are dismissed.

Employees are given few opportunities to prove themselves before they are dismissed with the mean of 250, SD=1.314 interpreted as moderately high and most of the turnover results from dismissals with the mean of 2.79, SD=1.448 the results are interpreted as moderately high values in the response rate.

The findings reveal that employee dismissals affect organizational productivity in security firms Kampala Uganda. The findings were that of the mean 2.60, SD=1.430 interpreted as moderately high.

4.5.2 Regression on effect of Employee Dismissals on organizational productivity in private security firms Kampala Uganda.

Table 4. 11: Regression on effect of employee Dismissals on organizational productivity in private security firms Kampala Uganda

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.294[a]	.087	.055	3.32156
a. Predictors: (Constant), Death and Dismissal				

ANOVA[b]					
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	30.310	1	30.310	2.747	.108[a]
Residual	319.950	29	11.033		
Total	350.260	30			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Dismissal					
b. Dependent Variable: Organizational productivity					

Coefficients[a]					
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	5.157	.712		7.247	.000
Employee Dismissal	.060	.036	.294	1.657	.108
a. Dependent Variable: Organizational productivity					

From table 4.11 above; the value .294 of the regression coefficient employee Dismissals on organizational productivity in security firms Kampala, the regression coefficient expresses that only 29.4 % of change in the dependent variable (i.e organizational productivity) is caused by employee Dismissals. The R^2 .087, on the other hand expresses that for this change; only 8.7% of the data are accounted. The adjusted R^2.055, shows the effect of employee Dismissals and organizational productivity. In this

case, death and dismissal accounts for 5.5% percent of the changes in organizational productivity. The standard error estimate of 3.32156 shows close scatter of the data. Table further shows the analysis of variance (ANOVA) explains further the relationship between the independent variable (employee dismissal) and the dependent variable (organizational productivity). From the ANOVA table, the value of 2.747 is large than the value of significance, .108[a]. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. This means that employee dismissal does not reduce the productivity of the security firms in Kampala.

The table further illustrates the regression analysis between employee dismissal. The regression analysis shows that the organizational productivity that does not depend on employee dismissal is 5.157. The rate of change of productivity is (β= .060).The t values for the constant and β are (7.247) and 1.657 respectively with their respective levels of significances as (.000 and .108) respectively. Since the level of significance is above 0.05, the researcher accepted the null hypothesis and concludes that employee dismissal did not have much effect on productivity of the security firms in questions.

4.5 Regression analysis
Table 4.12: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.897(a)	.805	.787	.18758

Table 15 shows that the coefficient of determination also called the R square is 80.5%. This means that the combined effect of the predictor variables (Employee Resignation, Death and Dismissal) explains 80.5% of the variations in organizational productivity. This means that 19.5% of the changes in the dependent variable are explained by other factors outside the independent variable.

The correlation coefficient of 89.7% indicates that the combined effect of the predictor variables has a strong and positive correlation with organizational productivity.

Table 4.14: ANOVA (b)

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	60.131	4	15.283	34.878	.006(a)
	Residual	26.462	55	.438		
	Total	85.593	59			

a Predictors: (Constant), Employee Resignation , Death , Dismissal .

b Dependent Variable: (organizational productivity)

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) on table 4.14 shows that the combined effect of Resignation , Death and Dismissal was statistically significant in explaining changes in organizational productivity. This is demonstrated by a p value of 0.006 which is less than the acceptance critical value of 0.05.

Table 4.15: Regression Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
1	(Constant)	3.747	1.057		.245
	Resignation	.664	.044	.189	.039
	Death	.868	.138	.097	.029
	Dismissal	.598	.089	.138	.042

Dependent Variable: (organizational productivity)..

The research conducted a multiple regression model so as to determine the relationship between organizational productivity and the three variables. As per the SPSS generated table above, the equation $Y = \beta 0 + \beta 1 X1 + \beta 2 X2 + \beta 3 X3 + e$

$$Y = 3.747 + 0.664\ X1 + 0.868\ X2 + 0.598\ X3$$
$$(0.245)\ (0.039)\quad (0.029)\ (0.042)\quad (0.032)$$

Where:

Y = organizational productivity of selected private security firms in Kampala Uganda (profits, Quality products, cost and work efficiency)

X1 = Employee Resignation

X2 = Employee Death

X3 = Employee Dismissal

e = error term

According to the regression equation established, taking all factors into account (Employee Resignation, Death and Dismissal) constant at zero, organizational productivity of private security firms was 3.747. The data findings analyzed also show that taking all other independent variables at zero, a unit increase in Employee Resignation will lead to a 0.664 increase in organizational productivity; a unit increase in Death will lead to a 0.868 increase in organizational productivity, a unit increase in Employee Dismissal will lead to 0.598 increase in organizational productivity of private security firms in Kampala, Uganda. This infers that Employee Death contribute more to the organizational productivity in selected private security firms in Kampala, Uganda performance followed by Employee Resignation .

At 5% level of significance and 95% level of confidence, Employee Resignation had a 0.039 level of significance, Employee Death showed a 0.029 level of significance Employee Dismissal showed a 0.042 level of significance, and hence the most significant factor is Employee Death.

CHAPTER FIVE:

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This final section of the report deals with the discussion of the findings presented in the preceding chapter. The discussion is made with reference to other similar works done in previous studies. The section then draws conclusions from these discussions after which it offers its recommendations. Finally, it suggests areas that are potential grounds for research that could not be completed in the body of this report.

5.2 Discussion of Findings

This section was further organized into three subsections with respect to the research objectives that guided the study.

5.2.1 Effect of employee resignation on organizational productivity in private security firms

The findings on the employee resignation on organizational productivity in security firms in Kampala was with the mean of 2.735, SD=1.447 which is moderately high which imply that aspects of employee resignation is moderately prevalent. The levels of significances for the independent and dependent variables are respectively. Since the level of significance is less than 0.05, the researcher rejected the null hypothesis and argues that there is a significant effect of resignation on organizational productivity. It means that resignation of reduces the organizational turnover.

The results reveal that resignation affect organizational productivity. In this case, employee resignation accounts a reasonable percentage of the changes in organizational productivity. It implies that employee resignation affect the productivity of the firms in the study.

These findings were in line with those of (Carnahan, Agarwal, & Campbell, 2012) contends that employees resign for a wide range of reasons. Employees may leave their employers due to the type of continual confrontation mentioned, or for purely financial reasons.

Baruch, Sayce, & Gregoriou, (2014) provide that employees leave organizations for many reasons and these reasons are unknown to employers; mainly because at this point relationships have broken down, or because of apathy.

The findings were not in line with those of Sherman, Bohlander and Snell, (1998) who argued that by contrast, the problem of employees leaving due to resignations has direct impact on HR planning and recruitment processes. Replacing an employee is time-consuming and expensive.

While studies from (Shukla and Sharma, 2012) on contrary argued that some employee resignations have been beneficial for workplaces and were also socially desirable because has attracted new skills and ideas to the company (or mine) and created new employment opportunities. However, there was broad agreement amongst practitioners and researchers that continuing high resignation rate has a number of negative impacts

Even (Baruch, Sayce, & Gregoriou, 2014) contend that Re-hiring employees who have resigned is a highly subjective matter. Employees who quit for negative reasons may present the same type of problems that previously discharged employees do if they are brought back on board.

5.2.2 Effect of Employee Death on organizational productivity in private security firms

The results reveal that Most of the labor turnover results from employee death with the mean of 2.55, SD=1.399 interpreted as moderately high in the responses rates for the organization. The values for the constant and β are (.8.170) and 1.256) respectively

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with their respective levels of significances as (.000 and .219) respectively. Since the level of significance was less than 0.05, the researcher accepted the null hypothesis and argues that there is no significant effect of employee death on productivity of security firms in Kampala Uganda.

The study findings on the employee death on organizational productivity in security firms. In this case employee death accounts for a very low percentage of the changes in organizational productivity. It means that employee death does not reduce the productivity of the security firms in Kampala Uganda.

The study findings are in line with those of (Mossink & De Greef, 2002) reported that the cost of accidents is not just a burden to businesses but also to the injured workers, their families and society in general. They reported that consequences for employees included loss of quality of life and human suffering identified significant psychological effects.

Even the results from the study conducted by (Chand & Tung, 2014) indicate that whenever an employee dies while they are still in an active employee contract, it usually costs the organization a lot.

According to (Frost, 2003) the frequency with which hardworking, valuable employees have negative experiences in the workplace or hear bad news that leaves their hopes dashed, their goals derailed, or their confidence undermined.

5.2.3 Effect of employee dismissal on organizational productivity in private security firms

The findings reveal that employee dismissals affect organizational productivity in security firms Kampala Uganda. The findings were that of the mean 2.60, SD=1.430 interpreted as moderately high.

The regression analysis shows that the organizational productivity that does not depend on employee dismissal is 5.157. The rate of change of productivity is (β= .060).The t values for the constant and β are (7.247) and 1.657 respectively with their respective levels of significances as (.000 and .108) respectively. Since the level of significance is above 0.05, the researcher accepted the null hypothesis and concludes that employee dismissal did not have much effect on productivity of the security firms in questions.

The findings reveal that employee dismissals does not affect the organizational productivity. In this case, employee dismissal accounts for low percentage of the changes in organizational productivity. The findings reveal that employee dismissal did not explain the productivity of the security firms.

The results are in line with those of (Hancock, Allen, Bosco, McDaniel, & Pierce, 2013) are contrary to the field findings which provide that a termination reflects a bad hiring decision that must be corrected; a quit reflects the lower attractiveness of a current job relative to alternatives. Unfortunately, discharges have been discussed only briefly in the literatures on micro HRM, strategic HRM, and economics

Fukunishi, (2007) contends that dismissal of employees of work most of the time has positive benefits to the organization. He states that when long-term employees leave, the company is no longer in debt for high wages tenured employees earn.

5.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, it concluded that there is a significant relationship between labor turnover and organization productivity since an increase in one variable leads to an increase in the other variable and vise versa.

The specific conclusions are as follows;

a) Employee resignation affected the productivity of the security firms in Kampala therefore conclude that employee resignation issues need to be addressed to enable the productivity of the organization.

b) Death of employees affected much the productivity of security firms in Kampala meaning that productivity is much affected by the death of the employees. This implies that when an employee who has been very effective and efficient dies it will affect the productivity of the firm because this employee cannot be replaced.

c) Dismissal of employees did much affect the productivity of security firms implying that focuses on improving productivity requires critical focus on other factors other than death of employees and dismissal.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the study findings, it recommends that there should be a balance between labor turnover in private security organizations in order to increase their productivity in Kampala, Uganda.

The specific recommendations are as follows;

There is need to reduce the employee resignation by providing a viable environment to the employees in order to hold the talent necessary for improving the state of employee productivity for the organizations like increasing salaries, provision of health services.

There is need to improve the mechanisms for the management of employees to stimulate productivity.

There is need to focus on employing capable and skilled workforce to improve the provision of employees example skills in computer, technical work so as to provide a proper replacement for the dead employees in the organization. There is need for a focus on organization performance factors that can streamline the performance of the security companies issues of sales, production and other operational factors need to be investigated to determine their contribution to productivity of the security firms.

There is need to provide mechanisms of improving the state of the employees to attain the development for example training, modern techniques of security. There is need to comprehend and provide a strong and attractive force for the employees through creation of employees unions that can keep employees united. There is need for critical focus on the employees who leave the organization by providing mechanisms that hinder dismissals such as employee's benefits, motivation packages and increase of salaries.

5.5 Contribution to the existing knowledge

i. To policy maker, the study will help the Selected private security firms to enforce polices; laws and legal frameworks on employee turnover and organizational productivity as a top priority. This will help them conduct adequate research and dissemination. This will help the Selected private security firms to ensure strict supervision, monitoring and evaluation for quality service provision among them.

ii. To the academia, the study has given an overview on the major aspects of labour turn over and organizational productivity and stimulated many other debates on issues like; Dismissal, death, and resignation of labour turnover as away means to organizational productivity for purposes of creating human security, and environmental protection.

iii. The study conducted from the security companies in Kampala Uganda is not different from other studies save that this studies explored greater focus on the areas around the death, resignation and dismissal focusing on the employees of the security companies whom many of the researchers in the world view as casual workers. So this study provides a ream of knowledge to the existing environment clear aspects on the labor turnover among the employees majorly considered as casual.

5.6 Areas of further research

The researcher suggests the following as possible areas for further research on labor turnover and organizational productivity.

- An assessment of role of government in legalizing rewarding in companies
- The effect of remunerations on employee performance
- The effect of reward on organizational development

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Questionnaire on Face sheet of Respondents

I am **Kyomuhendo Patricia,** a postgraduate student of Kampala International University conducting a research titled "Labor Turnover and Organizational Productivity in private Security Firms of Kampala, Uganda". You have been chosen to participate in this research by providing your views. Information provided will be treated confidentially and so you do not need to write any of your identity on the questionnaire. The information will be used only for academic purposes. Follow the instructions while filling in this questionnaire.

Profile of Respondents

1. Gender

   Male ☐   Female ☐

2. Highest academic education attained

   O-Level ☐   A-Level ☐   Diploma ☐ Degree ☐   Masters ☐

3. Age in Years

   <20 ☐   21-30 ☐   31-40 ☐
   41-50 ☐   >50 ☐

4. For how long have you worked with in your position?

   <1yrs ☐   1-3 yrs ☐   4-6 yrs ☐
   7-9 yrs ☐   10 & above yrs ☐

Respond to the following statements by selecting the option which best describes how best you assess the statement

KEY

1: Strongly Disagree 2: Disagree 3: Neutral 4: Agree 5: Strongly agree

Table App. 1: Questionnaire on Labor Turnover

Construct	Question	1	2	3	4	5
	Death					
R1 R2	Death is a big factor that leads to our company losing employees					
R3 R4	The measures put in place in case an employee dies are unsatisfactory					
R5	Most of the labor turnover results from death					
	Death has lead to loss of company skills and expertise					
	Resignation					
Rn1	Several factors exist that compel employees to resign					
Rn2	There are no adequate measures to control the self-initiated exits of employees					
Rn3	Most of the labor turnover results from resignation					
Rn4	The resignations are as a result of better opportunities else where					
Rn5	The employee resign because of poor conditions in the organization					
Rn6	The resignation among the employees is because of grievances					
	Dismissal					
Di1	Our company does not tolerate incompetent employees					
Di2	Employees are given few opportunities to prove themselves before they are dismissed					
Di3	Most of the turnover results from dismissals					

Appendix III: Questionnaire on Organizational Productivity

Respond to the following statements by selecting the option which best describes how best you assess the statement

KEY

1: Strongly Disagree 2: Disagree 3: Neutral 4: Agree 5: Strongly Disagree

Table App. 2: Questionnaire on Organizational Productivity

Construct	Question	1	2	3	4	5
	Increased Profits					
Ip1	Our profitability trend has been positive at most times					
Ip2	Our projected profitability is quite promising					
Ip3	We are one of the highest profitable firms in the industry					
	Increased Resource Utilization					
IR1	We adequately allocate our human resources					
IR2	We adequately allocate our physical resources					
IR3	We have reliable personnel in checking resource allocation issues in the company					
	Increased Quality Products					
Iq1	Our services are of a higher quality than those offered by rival firms					
Iq2	The quality of our services has been increasing over time					
Iq3	Projections indicate that our quality is bound to go higher with time					
	Increased Customers					
Ic1	The number of customers has always been higher than that of rival firms					
Ic2	The number of customers has been increasing fast over time					
Ic3	We expect significant increases in the number of customers we serve in future					
	Reduced Costs					
Rc1	Our cost structure is well-optimized					
Rc2	We have the best cost managers in the industry					
Rc3	Our overall cost amounts have been decreasing significantly with time					
	Increased Work Efficiency					
Iw1	Our workers deliver much with limited resources					
Iw2	The cost-benefit ratio for most of our services is favorable					
IW3	Each and every resource is committed to a particular job of task					

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