The management of security officers' performance within a private security company in Gauteng

by

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ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to investigate whether there is a performance management system within the security industry, applicable specifically to Security Officers. To investigate which performance factors, apply to security officers and how security officers perceived performance management.

The management of Security Officers' performance is an aspect of management which has not garnered much interest compared to other operational and management areas – hence the paucity of research on the performance management of security officers. They make a major contribution to the labour market with 7 949 security companies listed on the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA) website, and 2 973 companies (37%) based in Gauteng alone. However, despite the high number of companies, the industry has attracted the least attention in terms of performance.

The overall research purpose of this study was to explore the management of security officers' performance in a private security company operating in South Africa, focussing specifically on a company based in the Gauteng Province.

The scope of the study was aimed at investigating security officers' perception of performance management and to link performance to actual job performance and security officers' perceived work performance. The researcher also investigated whether biographical factors had an influence on security officers' performance.

A quantitative research methodology was utilised to conduct the study. The main research instruments were primary data, comprising a self-developed questionnaire and secondary data, comprising company records. The respondents consisted of security officers whom had been subjected to the Dependability and Safety Instrument (DSI) during the period 2013 to 2015, in the region, who were still employed at the company at the time of the study.

The findings of the study identified 11 performance management factors and indicated links between self-reported and actual work performance. Biographical characteristics did not seem to influence the work performance of the security officers. However, the results did indicate that employees with less tenure were more prone to disciplinary action by the company and those with higher levels of education were prone to fewer disciplinary actions and dismissals based on AWOL.

The study identified the areas that play a significant role in the management of security officers' performance. The identification of performance management factors in the security industry and security officers' perceptions about performance management should enable HR officers to develop and implement a performance management system that will contribute to better service delivery to both internal and external clients in this industry.

KEY WORDS

Performance management; performance factors; security officers; Dependability and Safety Instrument (DSI); Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA).

BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

1.1   INTRODUCTION

Some individuals do not view the security industry as a company of choice and attracting top-notch employees can be challenging. The same can be said of security officers, who often seek employment as a security officer because they are unable to obtain employment of choice or they lack formal education. This poses a challenge to the management of security officers' performance in terms of keeping them motivated and committed.

The focus of this study was thus on the management of security officers' performance from an effectiveness point of view. This chapter outlines the background to and motivation for the research topic; formulates the problem statement and research questions; states the general and specific theoretical and empirical objectives; discusses the paradigm perspective, which guides the boundaries for the study; describes the research design and methodology; and concludes with an outline of the planned study. The primary purpose of this study was to determine how security officers at the company perceive the management of their performance. Security officers were asked to report on their own work performance, while further information on actual work performance was collected from the company's staff records. This enabled the researcher to make a comparison between self-reported and company-reported work performance.

Historically, in the security industry, it has always been easy to obtain employment as a security officer because the minimum requirements prescribed by many security companies are a Grade 10 school qualification and registration at the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA) with a Grade C Security Officer certificate.

However, the requirements to register as a security officer, as cited by PSIRA (2013) on its website stipulates numerous criteria, of which none of the required criteria indicates any scholastic qualification.

Despite the fact that scholastic qualifications do not play a significant role when applying for a position as a security officer, many security companies and PSIRA have to deal with the falsification of certificates. These false certificates can easily be purchased from fraudulent sources, which further challenges the sourcing of appropriate candidates. In a radio interview, on Radio702, the problem of bogus PSIRA qualifications was highlighted. It was indicated that bogus qualifications were being manufactured by sophisticated crime syndicates. These forged certificates were reportedly undistinguishable from the actual authentic certificate and could be bought from training institutions.

PSIRA issued an Industry Circular (2015) to address the renewal of PSIRA certificates. It states that the purpose of the renewal project was to address non-compliance by unscrupulous security providers and to reduce the increasing identity theft within the industry. The renewed certificates will further prevent forgery and address challenges. The new certificate has improved security features, a higher quality of paper and is used in line with the Home Affairs database to authenticate the identity of applicants, to verify citizenship through the use of electronic fingerprint scanning, to indicate the expiry dates of certificates and to add a new stipulation that a valid tax certificate has to be produced.

1.2   THE SOUTH AFRICAN SECURITY INDUSTRY

The South African Security Industry is regulated by the Private Security Industry Regulatory Act and Regulations Act 56 of 2001. The quality assurance function of security training falls under the auspices of the Sector Education and Training Authorities, specifically the Safety and Security Seta (SESSETA). The formalisation of training and education for security officers resulted in 53-unit standards for training in security practices (SASSETA, 2010). Despite having identified 53-unit standards, it appears that a lack of appropriate skills and competencies remains problematic. According to Campion,et al.

(2011) a maximum of 12 competencies in a competency model are required for selection purposes as best practice in competency-based assessments. A study by Lubbe and Barnard (2013) identified the following nine competencies for security officers:

(1)   *Personal hygiene and general appearance.* This refers to presentability in terms of general appearance in attire and personal hygiene.

(2)   *Vigilance.* Security officers need to be inquisitive, mentally alert and observant of their surroundings by being proactive in noting and investigating irregularities and suspicious behaviour.

(3)   *Integrity.* This relates to the ability to distinguish between right and wrong, displaying honesty and trustworthiness, as well as being reliable in terms of work behaviour.

(4)   *Language proficiency.* Security officers should be able to communicate clearly in English, convey messages and facts which are understood by the target audience and to read and write basic English.

(5)   *Teamwork.* This involves cooperating with others in pursuit of team goals through helpful and supportive behaviour, resolving conflict constructively and sharing information with team members.

(6)   *Specialist knowledge.* Security officers require a PSIRA qualification, which indicates that they have job-relevant skills and knowledge of security officer duties. They need to learn and keep abreast of new knowledge.

(7)   *Personal motivation.* Security officers need to display an energetic, enthusiastic and committed attitude towards work and have a personal interest in the work of a security officer.

(8)   *Conscientiousness.* Security officers must adhere to company policy, superior instructions and rules and regulations and demonstrate responsibility for their own actions.

(9)   *Interpersonal relationship.* Security officers must interact with managers and clients in a respectful, professional and helpful manner, without being too friendly or intimidating.

During 2003, the Security Industry Alliance (SIA) was formed to act as one voice to and from the Industry. SIA represents security associations and individual companies in South Africa. According to SIA, after government, the private security industry is the largest employer of entry-level jobs in South Africa. The sector is said to employ 455 510 employees between the ages of 18 and 25. One of the challenges facing the Regulator is the increased tendency to make use of non-complaint service providers that undercut the market and operate under the statutory minimum levels of remunerations. Compliant security companies cited the following reasons for undercutting the market: to achieve an unfair advantage over compliant companies in a highly competitive market; to satisfy consumer pressure for "more for less"; and to utilise non-complaint, untrained, unscreened and un-registered persons as security officers, more often than not, undocumented foreigners in order to achieve their goal. (Parliamentary Monitoring Group (2017).

During a radio interview with Radio 702, the former director of Securex, stated that South Africans spent R55 billion in 2013 on private security measures. He further stated that there are around 490 000 active private security employees in South Africa. (Radio 702 (n.d.). This is an indication of the continuous growth of the security industry and the fact that it is currently one of the most competitive markets. The increased crime statistics and reported violent crime in South Africa have of necessity driven consumers to invest in various security solutions, ranging from the use of electric fencing, personal guard services, armed response units to home intruder systems, to name a few.

A study by Sefalafala and Webster (2013) highlighted the fact that most companies pay security officers according to Sectoral Determination 6 (SD6), but there were non-compliant companies who paid wages lower than those of the SD6. Despite the general feeling on the ground of inadequate remuneration, security officers felt that their wages were better than nothing. Security officers indicated that the contrast between the expectations of work and actual reality was a disappointing experience. Some were of the view that being unemployed was better because they expect to live in poverty, even though the reality suggested otherwise. The study further revealed that shift work resulted in a

work-life imbalance. They felt that the long hours worked by security officers has a negative impact on their health, job quality and family life.

Bazana, Campbell and Kabungaidze (2016) investigated the health and well-being of security officers. The study revealed that shift work compromised the health and well-being of security officers. The combination of shift and security work was shown to have several underlying factors: disrupted family lives and religious gatherings; limited control leading to stress; working conditions impacting on health; and disturbed sleeping patterns. All of these play a role in decreasing employees' job performance and ultimately affecting on organisational effectiveness.

Some of the common issues that may contribute to high labour turnover are few advancement opportunities and being employed in a dead-end job without any opportunities for promotion. Poor work/life balance because of shift work and shift patterns make it difficult for guards to visit their families, mostly because they need to travel to their place of residence, often a few hours travel time from their place of work. Another factor is security officers' negative view of management because they feel that they have little recourse if their supervisor or manager is not informing or communicating with them or providing proper performance management.

One way to ensure that security guards feel that they are working towards a common goal is to instil in them a sense of loyalty and belonging. This may require rewarding loyal security officers with monetary bonuses, increased responsibility, training opportunities (such as company bursaries or study assistance programmes) and development opportunities. The relationship between supervisors and security officers needs to be open, with security officers feeling they can trust their supervisors.

1.2.1 What consumers expect from a security company

Violent crime remains a constant threat in South Africa, and of particular concern are home invasion robberies, often accompanied by violence, which takes place at any time of the

day or night. Homes are being attacked even when the owners are at home, leaving or arriving. Car hijacking is equally high on the list of crimes. South Africa also has one of the highest rape statistics in the world. According to a Wikipedia article, South Africa has some of the highest incidences of rape of children and babies in the world. According to the article an estimated 500-000 rapes are committed annually in South Africa (Wikipedia, n.d.). This has led South African consumers to increasingly invest in security systems, often viewed as a necessary "grudge" purchase. Because of the nature of the crimes committed, consumers are constantly wary and protective of the well-being of their families/businesses and their personal and or company assets. They would therefore expect nothing less than the best security services.

According to an article by National Monitoring Centre (n.d.), the most important requirements of a home security system includes monitoring services (which includes residential and commercial security), commercial fire detection, environmental monitoring, medical monitoring and video services. In the South African security arena, which is viewed as the fourth largest private security industry in the world, this has become an extremely competitive market. Thus, increasingly more security companies strive to stand out as a company of choice with a reputation of serving and protecting homes and commercial properties alike. To be considered one of the top security companies, a company would depend on not only its product offering, technological advancement, financial stability, community and SAPS involvement, but also a competent workforce.

According to the Private Security Sub-sector Report (2016), the nature of crime in South Africa is changing, and of importance to this is the shift toward crimes targeting the retail sector and businesses based in shopping malls. The report states that the roles of private security and the SAPS are distinct and should be regarded as complementary in the sense that individuals and businesses look towards private security services to protect themselves and their assets.

The report further highlights that the growth in the private security services has been associated with high levels of competition and increased non-compliance by security

service providers in an effort to reduce operating costs and increase competitiveness. The requirements for a private security service provider to be compliant are as follows:

(1)   All security service providers must be registered with PSIRA

(2)   All employees deployed to render a security service must be registered as security officers with PSIRA

(3)   All security officers should be in possession of the necessary training certificates acquired from accredited training establishments

(4)   All security officers must be paid at the least minimum statutory wage level applicable in terms of Sectoral Determination 6: Private Security Sector and must adhere to the other conditions of employment laid down in this document.

(5)   Security service providers must guarantee that all the security officers adhere to the statutory code of conduct for security service providers.

(6)   Security service providers must ensure that the security officers are specifically trained for the tasks they have been assigned to perform.

(7)   Security service providers must have their security officers registered with the Private Security Sector Provident Fund (PSSPF) and make the applicable monthly contribution.

(8)   Security service providers must be registered with SARS for income tax, VAT, PAYE, SDL and UIF.

(9)   Security service providers must be registered for workman's compensation.

(10)   Security service providers must comply with the Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) requirements.

1.2.2 Problems within the Security Industry

The Security Officers Act 92 was promulgated in 1987. The purpose of the Act was to establish a regulatory mechanism in the form of the Security Officers' Board to control the industry by requiring security companies, owners and guards to register with the Board. The Board also placed restrictions on who would qualify for registration. Since the Security Officers' Board was not that successful, the Private Security Industry Regulation Act 56 of

2001 then repealed the Security Officers Act 92 of 1987. The new Act saw the creation of the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA). The all-encompassing objective of PSIRA is to regulate the industry and exercise control over it in order to look after the interests of the public, the national and the private security industry. One of the functions of PSIRA is the registration and renewal of registrations. With the new legislation, Private Security Industry Regulation Act, 2001 (Act 56 of 2001), came the requirement that security managers must be trained as Grade B security officers (PSIRA). The training requirements for Grade B security officers include as its main function access control in a high-risk area where the completion of documentation and basic computer skills may be required. The position may be a site or shift supervisor, the management of lower grade security officers and possible visits. This caused additional problems because of past conditions in South Africa, namely that many black-owned private security company owners did not have secondary school education. Requiring them to be Grade B registered within the required time was impractical. The aim of the legislation was to promote uniformly educated and high-quality security industry operators and to rid the industry of illegitimate operators. This undermined the objective of promoting black empowerment. After further adjustments and regulations, PSIRA developed into an organisation that encourages black empowerment.

Over the past few decades the security industry has experienced many national strike actions. These strikes significantly affect the ability of security companies to provide the levels of service that clients have become accustomed to, inter alias reliable security officers who are present and actively on duty to provide access control to premises, monitor and guard properties, render armed response services to client alarm activations and panic activations from security officers. Most of the strike action has been led by union activism for the betterment of their membership (Mail & Guardian, 2006). Their demands have mostly been related to improved salaries and benefits such as maternity leave, additional paternity leave days, increased allowances, such a cleaning allowances and firearm allowances should a security officer be required to carry a firearm.

A report issued by the Safety and Security Sector (2016) highlighted that low barriers to enter the security subsectors resulted in gaps in basic literacy and numeracy, communication, customer car, report writing and basic IT skills. Also, at the higher levels, there is a critical need to improve management and supervisory skills.

An article by iFacts (2013) states that a major challenge facing the private security industry has been the ongoing unstable relationship with the security regulatory authority. Private Security Industry Regulation Act Amendment Bill was promulgated in 2012, aimed at regulating control of the rapidly expanding private security industry. However, the Bill has been widely criticised by the security industry for not addressing some of the real challenges associated with operating in the private security context. The new Bill accordingly did not address the unprecedented growth of illegal or "fly-by-night" security firms. Without the enforcement of regulations by PSIRA to address this issue, unethical security firms will continue to operate. Non-compliant security companies will not conduct proper vetting processes during pre-screening, which places the clients of such companies at risk. Unethical operators do not pay fees and are therefore not regulated by PSIRA, which results in these unethical operators not being affected by new laws or fee increases. Increases are passed on to the consumer who find the increases from ethical private security operators unaffordable, and they therefore tend to turn to illegal operators.

1.2.3 The role of supervisors and security officers

Based on the above discussion, it is important to look at the role of a supervisor and that of a security officer. These duties should be investigated to determine whether they match the requirements for measuring security officers' performance.

The aim of a supervisor, according to the company ADT (2008), is to ensure that the department is managed efficiently and professionally. The following criteria are important:

- client liaison;
- staff turnover;
- administration;
- budgets;

- -[standard operating procedures; and
- people management

The role of a security officer, according to the company ADT (2008), is to ensure that the security function is adhered to and followed in line with the company's standard operating procedures, which comprise the following:

- access control;
- patrolling;
- client liaison; and
- administration

The above job descriptions are generic duties provided in the form of a job description to security officers at the time of employment or when they are promoted to supervisory roles with the company. The reason for including these duties is to provide information on the various roles. The job descriptions should also indicate the level of involvement a supervisor has with his or her subordinates. These job descriptions may be useful when investigating recommendations and limitations.

According to an article by Payscale.com (2018), the role of a security supervisor is to oversee the security practices of a company by managing the security staff. This includes ensuring that security officers comply with company standards and fulfil their duties and examine the practices of the team as a whole in order to maximise effectiveness. This may include examining the work site or area for potential security weaknesses or problems, to report these risks and organises a plan of action to manage any identified risks. In addition, security supervisors have to communicate with property managers on any new developments or changes and distribute status reports. According to Payscale.com (2018), security supervisors should typically have a high school diploma, although most companies prefer some college education, and experience in managing a security team of ten or more individuals. In South Africa, the only requirement for a security supervisor is a Grade A PSIRA certificate. No know qualifications are listed.

In summary, the South African security industry is regulated by legislation, which has been revised and improved over the past few years and, includes quality assurance under the auspices of SESSETA. This however, does not preclude the industry from experiencing its own challenges. These challenges include non-registered companies paying lower salaries compared to registered companies paying regulated salaries. The rates registered companies demand for services rendered are therefore higher than non-registered companies creating unhealthy competition. National strike action related to salary and benefits further put a strain on the industry and costs passed on to the consumer.

1.3   THE ROLE OF PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

The management of security officers' performance poses various challenges. The work of security officers does not require high-level thinking and provides little scope for variety. Hence keeping security officers motivated and committed requires a performance management system that focuses on motivational factors.

1.3.1 The importance of performance management

In a turbulent economic climate, characterised by pressures to improve productivity and reduce costs, performance management plays a central role in providing the organisation with a competitive advantage (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2009). Many globally competitive organisations depend on the uniqueness of their human resources systems for managing human resources effectively. Organisations manage their performance successfully by applying a vision and encourage their employees to live the values of the company. Employees need clear objectives to enable them to work together as a team to improve organisational performance and achieve organisational goals. Effective performance evaluation systems relate directly to employee motivation and productivity and are aligned with the company's vision and mission. (Ahmed, Sultana, Paul & Azeem, 2013).

According to Franco-Santos, Lucianetti, and Bourne (2012), performance measurement systems have a significant impact on people's behaviour, organisational capabilities and performance outcomes. They argue that the measurement of performance and the management and communication of processes, will generate the necessary capabilities which, in turn, will enable organisations to succeed and create a competitive advantage.

Performance ratings remain the most commonly used job performance criteria. According to Graham, et al. (2015), key performance indicators (KPIs) are a fundamental performance measurement tool and they highlight the common KPIs used in general business scenarios. KPIs should be used as a management aid to analyse an organisation's present performance and develop strategies for improvement. Graham, et al (2015) highlighted the following five characteristics of KPIs as follows:

(1)   *Accountability.* KPIs should be associated with the manager or team responsible for the measure's outcome.
(2)   *Easily assimilation.* KPIs should be quantifiable and accurate and their meaning understood by all employees in the organisation. The measure should be calculated from data readily collected without undue cost.
(3)   *Timeliness.* KPIs should be measured frequently, reflecting current priorities.
(4)   *Relevance.* Measures should support strategic organisational objectives.
(5)   *Consistency.* KPIs should not conflict with other performance measures.

Owing to the crucial role played by performance ratings in organisations, researchers have been concentrating on increasing the quality thereof. A frequent complaint is the fact that performance ratings are inflated. According to Roch and McNall (2007), rating inflation impacts on human resource practices that rely on performance ratings such as 360-degree feedback. Accountability needs to be taken into consideration during performance appraisals as there are consequences that depend on some aspect of the ratings or judgements given (Palmer and Feldman, 2005). Knowledge of an employee's previous performance influences the accuracy of rater accountability. In Roch and McNall's (2007)

study more accurate ratings were provided by accountable raters when they were not given information on the employee's previous performance feedback.

Performance management is linked to consequence management, which may result in increased pay and other rewards such as promotion and career opportunities or actions to remedy disciplinary or capability issues, possibly resulting in dismissal. Chandler (2015) reported that organisations should look at alternatives to outdated approaches to performance management. Rewarding in an equitable manner proves to be the main stumbling block. The most basic level is to start with the base pay - talent like any consumer product has a market value, which is the value of what an organisation should be paying. Organisations should pay the market value for employees' capabilities, experiences and competencies, and they should only receive a pay raise when they register, acquire new experiences, build new skills and extend their capabilities, – because they have increased their market value. By embracing this principle, organisations can motivate employees to continue to learn and develop throughout their careers and in this manner increase their base salary (Chandler, 2015).

The growth in the importance of performance management has resulted in increased awareness of employees' perception of the construct of justice. Processes perceived as unfair by employees will result in a workforce whose contribution through enthusiasm and "going the extra mile" is not fully achieved (Rowland, 2013). A lack of engagement results when employees perceive performance management as being unfair.

As mentioned earlier, one of the main criteria for an effective performance management system is employee motivation. A performance management system that succeeds in motivating employees will result in them being prepared to engage in extra-role behaviour. This means that employees will go beyond the call of duty and perform additional tasks without expecting a reward. This kind of behaviour is also known an organisational citizenship behaviour.

Organ (1990) as cited in Zheng, Zhang and Li (2012, p. 3) defines organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) as "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place". OCB includes behaviour that is important to the overall performance of an organisation - it is a function of the employees' ability, motivation and opportunity.

In their study, Zheng et al. (2012) examined the relationship between performance management and OCB, in terms of social exchange theory and impression management theory. According to them (2012), OCB shapes the social and psychological context in which core job responsibilities are accomplished and make a unique contribution to a company's overall performance. Social exchange theory relates employees' decisions about the amount of effort they are willing to expend for their organisations to how much the organisations contribute to their well-being. Employees thus demonstrate OCB based on their perception of organisational fairness. Impression management theory refers to employees influencing the perceptions others have of them. Employees who realise that taking the initiative would help them receive promotions demonstrate high levels of OCB. Such employees thus have the opportunity to manipulate their supervisors' impression of them (Zheng et al., 2012).

According to Inkeles as cited in Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994), the OCB construct consists of the following three categories: *Obedience* entails respect for orderly structures and processes. It reflects employees' acceptance of the necessity for and desirability of rational rules and regulations governing organisational structure, job descriptions and personnel policies. (2) *Loyalty* involves serving the interests of the community as a whole and the values it embodies. In an organisation, loyalty means identification with and allegiance to the organisation's leaders and the organisation as a whole, transcending the interests of individuals, work groups and departments. It also includes defending the organisation against threats, contributing to its sound reputation and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole. (3) *Participation* relates to active and responsible involvement in community self-governance and keeping oneself well informed about issues affecting the community, as well as exchanging information and

ideas with other people. In an organisational context, it refers to interest in organisational affairs and taking responsibility for organisational governance. It also includes attending non-obligatory meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others and being willing to combat so-called "groupthink".

When employees engage in obedience, loyalty and participation activities, as outlined above, they display commitment to the organisation. Not only do they do more than what is expected of them, but they do not expect to be rewarded for it. Extra-role behaviours are vital for performance because organisations cannot forecast through stated job descriptions the entire spectrum of subordinate behaviours needed for achieving goals. In order to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage, an organisation is dependent on employees' willingness to do more than what their official job descriptions cover (Javadi & Yavaran, 2011).

1.3.2 Requirements of performance management systems

The value of a performance management systems largely depends on employee perceptions of any performance management system. A performance management system needs to have credibility to be valued by employees. Most performance management systems make provision for factors discussed in the subsections below:

1.3.2.1 Task clarity

Task clarity aids employees and organisations to achieve their goals in the most efficient way possible. It also helps employees to perform their tasks to the best of their ability and ensures that employees spend their time effectively. Furthermore, understanding tasks reduces work-related stress and is necessary for job satisfaction. If employees are unclear or unsure about their tasks entail, they will be confused and make slow progress in completing tasks. According to Rao (2016), it is important that an individual is able to plan his/her work and as a result of that, should have great clarity on the activities in which he needs to put in for effort. Bussin (2017), states that accurate job profiles are important

when appraising employees. The job profile should be used in pinpointing out to each employee how he or she faired in relation to stated duties and objectives. There should be accord between manager and employee in respect of what is expected in the job, what standards have to be met, and what objectives are to be set.

Task clarity can only exist when an individual who is expected to perform a task correctly understands the task itself, is made accountable for completing the task and the limits of authority and initiative are exercised in performing the task (Nickols, 2012). Nickols (2012) adds that the one basic reason individuals fail to do what is expected of them is because they do not know they are accountable for doing it. Another reason is when a task is unclear and the individual experiences confusion about it. Also, when individuals are unsure of the limits of authority and initiative they can exercise they fail to perform as expected.

A poorly written job description and unclear role definitions cause a lack of clarity in workers' objectives and accountability and a lack of what is expected of them by their co-workers. Hence without a detailed, non-conflicting job description an employee may end up feeling stressed. A lack of task clarity will affect individuals and have a negative impact on any team's performance.

The role of a security officer is defined by a job description, the primary role of which is to protect people and property from potential threats. The security officers in the company that was used in this study received a job description at the time of their appointment (see Chapter 3). Part of their training includes site-specific procedures, which further define the specific tasks required. Job descriptions cannot be used as an all-inclusive set of tasks. A potential limitation of a job description is that employees are not trained to deal with unforeseen, unusual situations outside of their normal scope of duties. This may lead to employees feeling stressed or unsure of expected actions to be taken by them.

1.3.2.2 Realistic job expectations

It would seem that most service organisations focus more on satisfying external rather than internal customers. However, the performance and contribution of internal customers such as employees merit more attention (Camps, Luna-Arocas, 2009; Malhotra & Mukherjee, 2004; Mc Lean, 2006; Netemeyer & Maxham III, 2007; Tsaur & Lin, 2004). Realistic job previews are defined as a technique that presents candidates with realistic views of what they should expect in an organisation. It has been theorized that unrealistic high expectations lead to employees having difficulty integrating into an organisation and inflated expectations may lead to employees feeling misled and the perception that the organisation has failed to meet their expectations. Realistic job reviews therefore accomplish two organisational goals simultaneously. Firstly, employees are provided with accurate information on the task expectations and organisational expectations, resulting in clear, accurate expectations. Secondly, there are fewer disillusioned employees (Bauer, Buckley, Badgasarov & Dharmasisi, 2014).

Management should therefore clearly communicate the organisational performance targets and goals to employees. Employees who are aware of their role and how they fit into the organisation will contribute constructively towards achieving the goals and are more likely to set personal performance goals which are aligned with the organisation's goals.

Security officers may not be given clear task expectations, which should be part of a more intensive induction programme. Not only should security officers receive training in the tasks they have to perform, but they should have insight into where they fit into the organisation. Security officers should be made aware of and be clear on the impact their performance has on the organisation (i.e. service delivery), which could result in the maintenance or cancellation of a site contract.

1.3.2.3 Ownership

The ownership of performance management should be aimed at showing employees how to approach and to take ownership of their individual work, self-development, and ultimately, their careers. It should focus on realistic, measurable and clear goals and behaviours aimed at achieving the organisation's objectives. It should be a continuous assessment rather than a single event with employee achievements being recognised. An area of possible development with security officers is taking ownership – that is having an obligation towards the organisation with regards to their own performance results. Ownership is about being responsible for individual results, taking the initiative and being accountable. Security officers need to trust and rely on each other when taking over at shift change. Leaving a site with unattended concerns or important information is problematic for business. In the event of a concern or information being communication to his or her team, a security officer should be able to rely on his or her team member to complete and resolve concerns and to act on the information transferred at the shift change.

1.3.2.4 Recognition

According to Nelson (2005), several surveys have confirmed what almost every employee already knows: that recognition for a job well done is the top motivator of employee performance. An effective performance management system should include a reward and recognition programme. One factor that was highlighted in Nelson's research clearly indicates a lack of recognition by security officers. The company has a recognition programme in place, but it does not cater sufficiently for security officers because of the large number of staff compliment. Employees should be rewarded when clients compliment them when they assist in making arrests and perform any other action that resulted in a positive contribution to the community.

1.3.2.5 Empowerment

According to Ibrahem, Elhoseeny & Mahmoud (2013), empowerment is a multidimensional social process that helps people gain control over their own lives. It is a process that nurtures power in people to focus on improving their own lives, of those of groups and society, by acting on issues that people define as important. They furthermore state that empowerment has been defined as the ability of an individual to independently make decisions and utilise available resources to achieve necessary goals. This is an area in which security officers have limited ability to demonstrate empowerment. Their roles are confined and does not allow them to use resources to attain goals. Their only task is when they call on the armed response units to assist in crime prevention. Where security officers can make a difference is by taking control of their direct environment, making decisions on how they should serve their clients and exceeding the contributions of average or non-performing security officers.

1.3.2.6 Fairness

Various forms of justice are related to the management of performance, but interactional justice in particular plays a significant role because it is also linked to the motivation and commitment of employees. When employees experience interactional justice, they are treated with dignity and respect and provided with explanations of decisions in a timely, open, and truthful manner (Bies 2001). Bies and Moag (1986) identified the following four attributes of interpersonally fair procedures: truthfulness, respect, propriety of questions and justification. Interactional justice thus covers the entire field of social interactions between leaders and employees (Mikula, Petri & Tanzer, 1990). If employees believe the organisation makes fair decisions, follows procedures and treats them with fairness, respect and trust, then they will deliver better results and display positive attitudes and behaviours. Justice or fairness refers to the belief that an action or decision is ethical, which may be judged according to the principles of ethics, religion, fairness, equity, or law. People are naturally attentive to the justice of events and situations in their everyday lives, across a variety of contexts (Tabibnia, Satpute & Lieberman, 2008).

Various studies have established that workplace treatment has far-reaching consequences for employees and organisations. Hence quality treatment such as the following is of great value in building sound relations: civility, (Pearson, Andersson & Porath, 2005); job satisfaction (Hasan, 2010); organisational citizenship behaviours (Rego & Cunha, 2010); quality of work life (Moghimi, Kazemi & Samiie, 2012); turnover, (Muzumdar, 2011); work behaviours (Le Roy, Bastounis & Minibas-Poussard, 2012); interpersonal and organisational deviance, (Berry, Ones & Sackett, 2007); and workplace behaviour (Hershcovis et al., 2007). As noted by Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman & Stoffey, (1993), the reactions of individuals may influence behaviours far beyond employment relationships, whether or not they are employed by the organisation or not.

In terms of fairness, the focus would be to investigate whether employees regard the management of their performance as being fair from an organisational justice perspective. According to (Bell, Ryan & Wiechmann, 2004; Chaing & Hsieh, 2012) organisational justice is increasingly attracting attention.

According to the literature, when forming a judgement, often of greater significance is what is perceived fair as opposed to what is actually fair. This would mean that employees' opinions, knowledge and experience should be utilised and acknowledged, thus leaving them feeling important and appreciated (Muzumdar, 2011).

To summarise, for security officers to perform optimally their tasks need to be communicated clearly, not only at the start of their employment, but continuously throughout their careers. Ambiguous tasks will result in security officers showing a lack of initiative and accountability which will lead to failures in executing their tasks. It is imperative for security guards to have realistic job expectations because this will positively impact on the outcome of goal achievement. Unrealistic job expectations, such as job boredom, could result in demotivated employees. Hence, in the role as a security officer, it is necessary to have clear and unambiguous job clarity to avoid disillusioned officers.

Without an understanding of performance management as a security officer, there will be no ownership in terms of individual or team performance or self-development. What a security officer may perceive as performance management is significant in terms of his/her own productivity and achieving organisational goals.

1.4   RESEARCH PROBLEM

The security company investigated in this study has a large security officer base with approximately 2 302 officers in its employ making up a total employee headcount of approximately 9 986. These officers are largely seen as the "face" of the company and it is therefore imperative that the officers portray a professional image to the public. The company therefore relies on adherence to strict standard operating procedures, principles and training, which govern the behaviour and attitudes of officers. The rationale for the implementation of the Dependability and Safety Instrument (DSI) in the company was to ensure that the most suitable candidate is appointed, with the view to significantly reducing the absenteeism rate and ensuring adherence to standard operating procedures, which would result in satisfactory employee performance which impacts on the overall customer satisfaction.

Over the years the security company attempted to recruit reliable employees. It does so by introducing various assessment tools, which includes vetting applicants' criminal status and checking their identity by means of a fingerprint verification system through a reputable vetting company (ADT, 2012).

The security industry continuously faces a high number of accidents, absenteeism and general disregard for company standard operating procedures (disciplinary issues). On average, the absenteeism rate over a 3-year period was 2,69% of the total headcount for security officers. The absenteeism rate was based on data in the company's national HR reports and takes into account sick leave and absence without leave (unauthorised).

According to Orrick (2004), unauthorised absenteeism reflects poorly on employees' integrity, honesty and work ethos. Absenteeism reduces the overall confidence co-workers, supervisors and management might have in employees' ability and commitment to perform their duties fairly and justly.

In the company investigated in this study, approximately 820 security officers had been dismissed nationally from the organisation for misconduct-related cases. In light of the problems outlined, the aim of the study was to investigate the performance management of security officers. A secondary objective was to determine the effectiveness of the performance management by investigating the relationship between performance management, company-reported and self-reported work behaviours of security officers. This would enable the researcher to make recommendations on how the management of security officers' performance might be improved.

The company launched an investigation into various psychometric assessments not only for security officers, but for all levels of employees. The company introduced as one of its assessment tools the DSI. This instrument endeavours to predict candidates who would have good attendance as employees, who would be effective and positive team members and who would be reliable. Lastly, the instrument focuses on quality customer service. The tool also pinpoints candidates who are less accident prone in safety environments. The DSI is a validated pre-employment on-line test able to quickly and accurately identify highly reliable and dependable candidates.

The DSI test (SHL Group, 2010) was designed to measure the likelihood that a candidate will:

- arrive on time;
- return from breaks on time;
- take safety seriously;
- check their work thoroughly;
- handle stressful situations well;

- deal with conflict effectively;

- keep an even temper;

- be confident in his/her own abilities; and

- be motivated to do well on the job (Ellis Locke and Associates, n.d.).

1.4.1 Research questions relating to the literature review

In terms of the literature study, the following specific research questions were formulated:

- How is the performance management of security officers conceptualised in the literature?

- What is the theoretical relationship between performance management, actual work performance and company-reported work performance?

1.4.2 Research questions relating to the empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the following specific research questions were formulated:

- How do security officers at the company perceive the management of their performance?

- How are security officers' perceptions about performance management related to actual job performance?

- How are security officers' perceptions about their own performance related to actual work performance?

- How do biographical factors such as age, educational level, marital status and number of dependants influence perceptions about performance management at the company?

- What recommendations can be formulated to enhance the performance management of security officers?

1.5   RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.5.1   General objective

The aim of this study was to investigate whether (1) security officers perceive performance management as effective; (2) there is a link between security officers' self-reported work performance and actual work performance according to company records and; (3) biographical factors such as age, educational level, marital status and number of dependents influence perceptions about performance management at the company?

1.5.2   Specific objectives

This section deals with the specific objectives of both the literature review and empirical study.

1.5.2.1   Literature review

- To conceptualise the performance management of security officers
- To conceptualise the implications of the theoretical relationship between the perception of security officers' actual work performance and company-reported work performance.

1.5.2.2   Empirical study

- To determine how security officers, perceive the management of their performance
- To determine to what extent security officers' perceptions about performance management are related to actual job performance
- To determine to what extent security officers' perceptions about their own performance are related to actual work performance

- To determine to what extent biographical factors such as age, educational level, age, marital status and number of dependants are linked to perceptions about the performance management at the company
- To formulate recommendations on the management of security officers' performance

1.6   META-THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THIS RESEARCH

The meta-theoretical framework forms the definitive periphery of a research study and explains the approach to be followed in the interpretation of the research results. In this study the literature review was presented from the perspective of human resource performance management, in an organisational justice context, and security officers perception of performance management.

Human resources recruitment and selection have several deliberate actions to establish, by means of various assessments and interviewing and vetting processes, the most appropriate candidate for a specific position. From the organisation's perspective selections decisions should be based on careful weighing up of the evidence (Leopold & Harris, 2009). Failure to appoint the best candidate may result in problems in the workplace at a later stage. "Research has shown that if you appoint someone whose values, belief and behaviours are compatible with those of the organisation, the harmony that the successful match can create contributes to increased productivity and, ultimately, corporate success" (Weyland, 2011, p. 31).

The empirical study was conducted within the ambit of the positivist research paradigm. Positivism indicates that the observer is independent and human interest is irrelevant. Positivist research should demonstrate causality and focus of facts. In positivist studies, the role of the researcher is to collect data and interpret it objectively. Positivism depends on quantifiable observations which lead to statistical analysis. Crowther and Lancaster (2008) argue that as a general rule, positivist studies adopt a deductive approach. Furthermore, positivism relates to the viewpoint that researcher needs to concentrate on

facts, whereas phenomenology focuses on meaning and makes provision for human interest.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), a research design is a plan of how research should be conducted. It is the strategic framework for the study and determines the kind of study that is being planned and what type of results should be obtained.

A quantitative survey design was chosen for the purpose of this study to measure the possible association between the variables, these being, the performance management of security officers, and their own perceptions of performance management against company data. The research was approached from an empirical perspective and was cross-sectional in nature. Survey questionnaires, as a quantitative method, were used to collect data from a random sample of security officers employed by a security company. For each of the officers in the sample, performance records were obtained in terms of absenteeism, disciplinary actions, leave, misconduct and injuries on duty. The research encompassed descriptive, correlation and inferential statistical analysis.

A survey research design examines the potential relationships between two or more variables at a specific time (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Surveys are administered to a sample of a population and the information obtained can be generalised to the whole population if a representative sample is involved. The data is self-reported by the respondents and this design is ideal in a study of a large population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The purpose of quantitative research is explanatory in the sense that it describes or explains a phenomenon (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010).

Correlational research studies the degree to which discrepancies in one variable relate to discrepancies in one or more other variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The nature of this study, and the descriptive and predictive functions associated with correlational and inferential research, required a quantitative survey design (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). No control group was used, and all the variables were measured simultaneously.

1.7.1 Type of research

As previously stated, the research was descriptive and explanatory. Descriptive and explanatory research focus on describing, summarising and explaining an existing situation, without attempting to change it (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). This study adopted a quantitative research method in order to explore the possible relationships between one or more than one phenomena. The data were processed by means of descriptive, correlational and frequency statistics. According to Welman and Kruger (2001), descriptive statistics describe and summarise the information received from the sample. Correlational statistics are used to determine the association between two variables as well as the strength of an association. In this study, frequency statistics were used to analyse and explain the occurrence of events.

1.7.2 Methods used to ensure reliability and validity

1.7.2.1   Validity

The validity of a measuring instrument indicates how well the instrument measures the constructs it purports to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Both internal and external validity are important and desirable for a research design. Internal validity is strongest in situations where control can be exercised over study conditions whereas external validity requires participant populations to be carefully defined and sampling strategies carefully used. Both internal and external are important to show results which are coherent and sustained completely by the research procedures (Terre Blance, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). Ensuring validity requires making a series of informed decisions about the purpose of the research, theoretical paradigms that will be used in the research, the context within which the research will be conducted and the research techniques that will be used to collect and analyse data (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). In this research the internal validity was ensured through the choice of:

- models and theories that were relevant to the research topic, problem statement and aims; and

- measuring instruments that could be used in a responsible and representative way and presented in a standardised manner.

In this study, external validity was ensured by selecting a sample that was representative of the total population.

Content validity was ensured by having experts oversee the development of the questionnaire. This kind of validity assurance is supported by Gregory (2011) and Abell, Springer, and Kamata (2009, p. 104), who stated the following: "Moving beyond a glancing or superficial assessment, it requires a logical process of judging, intuitively or subjectively, how well item content reflects the definition of the target construct. As such, it resides "not in the test, but in the judgment of experts about domain relevance and representativeness".

According to Messick (1989), content validity evidence depends heavily on two components - the care with which items were originally constructed, and the expertise and suitability of those selected as judges.

In this study, the validity of the data gathering instrument was ensured as follows:
- Factors were identified by reviewing the literature and obtaining the input of experts on performance management.
- In order to ensure content validity, an effort was made to ensure that data was collected meticulously, accurately coded and analysed correctly, and that the findings were based on the analysed data.
- Statistics were processed by a statistician, using SPSS.
- The reporting and interpreting of results were accomplished using standardised procedures.
- The researcher ensured that the final conclusions, implications and recommendations were based on the findings of the research.

1.7.2.2   Reliability

Reliability indicates how consistently a measuring instrument, when repeatedly used on the same group, yields the same result when the constructs being measured remain the same (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The results of a study should be both generalisable and reliable – hence the need to use more than one comparable measurement for a sample (Welman & Kruger, 2001). Generalisable results are consistent regardless of the timeframe involved in the use of an instrument, by which it was administered or the form in which it was used (Welman & Kruger, 2001). According to Kerlinger and Lee (2000), to ensure the reliability of the measuring instruments, Spearman's rho correlation coefficients should be used. Correlation constants measure the extent to which there is an association between two variables (Welman & Kruger, 2001). In the current study, Spearman's rho and frequency analysis were utilised to assess the construct validity and measurement reliability of the newly constructed questionnaire.

1.7.3 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis distinguishes between the characteristics, conditions, orientations and actions of individuals, groups, organisations and social artefacts (Mouton & Marais, 1994). In terms of individual measurement, the unit of analysis is the individual and, the analysis of data is represented by the group.

The company (including all its branches in South Africa) investigated in this study, had approximately 2 302 security officers when the research was conducted. The researcher decided to base the proposed research on approximately 119 security officers based in Pretoria in the province of Gauteng. Owing to the nature of the industry and shift work, the candidates were all male. Security officers were mostly from disadvantaged backgrounds, with a variety of languages as their respective home language. These individuals were mostly educated, with English as their second language, with only a few security officers having formal tertiary education.

The researcher focused on performance management in terms of work performance, self-reported work behaviours and company-reported work behaviours. The aim was to determine whether there was a relationship between these variables by investigating the differences between the various socio-demographic groups.

1.7.4 Methods to ensure ethical research principles

Ethical guidelines and standards provided the basis for conducting the research. The research was thus performed within the ambit of the ethical requirements and procedures of the University of South Africa (Unisa), and these research ethics procedures were adhered to at all times. These considerations were part of every step of the research process to guide the researcher and the study. Informed and voluntary consent was obtained from all the relevant participants. All information, data and results were handled with confidentiality.

Lefkovitz (2008) posits that research should be designed in such a way that individuals, organisations and the community benefit from it, and in the research process, the participants should not be harmed in any way. The researcher should strive to remain objective and conduct the research with integrity. The principles of ethics in research, as indicated in the University's institutional Research Ethics Policy, Unisa (2007) are as follows:

- the fundamental right to academic freedom and freedom of scientific research;
- integrity in research that encompasses the competence and accountability of the researcher;
- acting responsibly and striving for excellence in research;
- not contravening the institutional Policy on Research Ethics;
- obtaining approval for research involving human participants;
- undertaking research that will benefit society;
- making the research findings available in the public domain;
- guiding against harmful or undesirable consequences of the research;

- displaying honesty towards individual actions and responses to the actions of others;

- not committing plagiarism, piracy or the falsification or fabrication of results;

- accurately and truthfully reporting the results of the research; and

- reporting to the relevant Ethics Review Committee when requested to do so.

1.8 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method in this study comprised two phases, namely a literature review and an empirical study.

Phase 1: Literature review

Step 1: Conceptualise performance management.

Step 2: Conceptualise the implications of the theoretical relationship between the perception of security officers' actual work performance and company-reported work performance.

Phase 2: Empirical study

The empirical study involved a population consisting of security officers in the security company's Pretoria region. The population comprised approximately 785 security officers and a stratified proportional random sample of 119 different home languages, educational qualifications and age groups. A questionnaire was developed to determine the perceptions of respondents based on the management of their performance. The respondents also provided information relating to absenteeism and disciplinary factors. Company-reported work behaviour was obtained on respondents from the company records to determine the relationship between security officers' actual work performance and company-reported work performance

According to Terre Blanche et al. (2006), there are two main types of sampling methods, namely probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling provides every element in the target population a known chance of being included in the sample. Non-

probability sampling does not allow for elements to be selected according to the principle of systematic randomness (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). This research study used the non-probability sampling. In this type of sampling, the emphasis is on the method and the theory behind it.

A purposive sample was drawn based on respondents from the company who had completed the DSI assessment over the period researched. Purposive sampling is a relatively arbitrary nonprobability sampling strategy that relies on the researcher's knowledge about the characteristics of the population that is relevant for the research (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

A questionnaire containing the following sections was distributed to the respondents:
(A)   Biographical information
(B)   Performance management
(C)   Absenteeism in the workplace.
(D)   Self-reported work behaviour

The responses of participants to each of the items of the questionnaire were captured on an electronic spreadsheet format. All the data was analysed by means of statistical analysis, using the SPSS statistical package. The statistical procedures were conducted in the following four stages:

Stage 1:   Factor analysis of security officers' perceptions of the management of their performance;

Stage 2:   Descriptive statistics, including Spearman's rho and Cronbach alpha. Means and standard deviations were utilised to analyse the data to assess the internal consistency reliability of the measuring instruments.

Stage 3:   Spearman's rho correlation analysis was calculated to indicate the direction and strength of the relationship between the constructs.

Stage 4:   Kruskal-Wallis test was used to explore significant differences in the mean scores of the various socio-demographic graphs in terms of their attributes. The statistical

significance level of p ≤ 0.05 was used which provides 95% confidence in the results being accepted as the standard when applied in other research contexts (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

The results were presented in tables, diagrams and/or graphs, and the discussion of the findings in a systematic framework, ensuring that the interpretation of the findings was conveyed in a clear and articulate manner. The results of the empirical research were integrated with the findings of the literature review.

The final step involved drawing conclusions based on the results and their integration with the theory. The limitations of the research were discussed, and recommendations made in terms of the security officers' perception of the management of their performance.

Figure 1. 1: Literature review

PHASE 1: LITERATURE REVIEW

Step 1:
Performance management

Step 2:
Theoretical integration of literature review with work performance of security officers

Step 1: Formulation of research aims	Step 2: Determination and description of the sample and population	Step 3: Designing the measuring instrument
Step 4: Administration of the measuring instrument	Step 5: Scoring and capturing of the data	Step 6: Statistical analysis of the data
Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results	Step 8: Integration of the research findings	Step 9: Formulation of research conclusions and recommendations

1.9   CHAPTER LAYOUT

The chapter layout of the study is as follows:

CHAPTER 1: Background to and motivation for the study

This chapter outlines the background to and motivation for the research topic; formulates the problem statement and research questions; states the general and specific theoretical and empirical objectives; discusses the paradigm perspective, which guides the boundaries for the study; describes the research design, methodology, and concludes with an outline of the planned study.

CHAPTER 2: Performance management

Chapter 2 addresses performance management and conceptualises the perceptions of security officers of their performance management. The chapter focuses on the issues relating to the components and criteria for effective performance management systems and review performance systems.

CHAPTER 3: Research methodology

This chapter focuses on the empirical study of the research methodology used in this study. Firstly, an overview is provided of the study's population and sample. The measuring instruments are discussed and the choice of each justified, followed by a description of the data gathering and processing.

CHAPTER 4: Results

This chapter discusses the statistical results of this study and integrates the empirical research findings with the literature review. The statistical results are reported in terms of descriptive, explanatory and inferential statistics.

CHAPTER 5: Findings and recommendations

This is the final chapter in which the results are integrated, and conclusions drawn. The limitations of the study are explained, and recommendations made for the field of human resources management, and suggestions made for possible further research. The chapter ends with concluding remarks to integrate the research.

1.10   SUMMARY

The background to and motivation for the research, the problem statement, the objectives of the study, meta-theoretical framework, research design and research methodology of the study were discussed in this chapter. The rationale for this study was to explore the relationship between the perceived performance management of security officers and their actual work performance. This could aid recruiters in administering and delivering fair and effective methods of performance management of security officers that will not only utilise, but also enhance the participants' experience and perception of performance management, thereby contributing to their overall satisfaction and performance in the company.

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

2.1   INTRODUCTION

One factor that an organisation needs to consider for the success of its business is its strategic goals. Attainment of these strategic goals depend on the performance of its employees, which is why performance management remains a key human resource and management function. Performance management systems entail various elements and functions. The main elements of a performance management function include the following: implementing organisational strategies and goals; setting team/departmental and individual goals; communicating organisation strategies and goals to teams/departments and individuals; measuring team/departmental and individual goals; and creating reward and recognition programmes for performance and developmental actions arising from performance results. These elements are discussed in more detail in this chapter.

This chapter will provide an overview of a performance management system. It addresses the importance of performance management, including typical criteria for a performance management system and the various components thereof. This chapter also introduces and provides an overview of the Dependability and Safety Instrument (DSI) as an assessment tool for managing the performance of security officers.

2.2   DEFINING PERFORMANCE MANAGMENT

Performance management is currently viewed as a process used by organisations to link organisational strategies and goals to business units/departments, teams and individual employee goals with the purpose of achieving organisational results. Performance management is linked to employee feedback and recognition and rewards. However, with

the re-engineering of many larger organisations, there is new thinking on what performance management should be. This was highlighted by Deloitte's Human Capital Trends 2015 report, which stated that performance management has been reinvented for forward-looking purposes to focus on business processes that not only improves employee engagement but also drives business results.   The definitions of performance management, as it developed over time, show how the focus of performance management shifted from the individual to the organisation.

Individual performance management is a guiding and supportive function for employees to work both effectively and efficiently in line with organisational needs (Walters, 1995). As positied by Chella, Devarajan and Rao (2018), the contemporary purpose of performance management is to serve as a platform for managers to engage with their team members in continuous deliberations around performance. The reason for these deliberations are to clarify expectations, calibrate priorities, discuss impediments, plan supportive efforts, provide ongoing feedback and offer encouragement and support.

According to Guest (2007), performance management is seen as a key issue in many organisations and may be viewed as "hard HRM". It can be categorised as HR practices that influence organisational performance, and it thus justifies HRM's claim that it has a strategic impact.

As posited by Armstrong and Baron (2007), performance management is a process of sharing a common understanding of the company strategies. It determines how the strategy is developed into goals for departments and/or individual employees; how management proposes each of these goals could be achieved by developing the capacity of people; and it provides support and guidance to the employees to achieve their full potential to the benefit of themselves and the organisation.

Armstrong and Baron (2007) assert that a performance management system
- communicates the organisation's vision and objectives to all employees;

- sets departmental and individual performance targets, linked to organisational objectives;

- uses formal review procedures to communicate performance requirements;

- conducts formal reviews of progress;

- uses the review process to identify training, development and reward outcomes; and

- evaluates the whole process.

According to Lepak and Gowan (2010) performance management is used for both administrative and developmental purposes. It is administrative when decisions are made about employee salary adjustments, merit raises and incentive awards, and developmental when performance evaluation information is used to improve the performance of employees to add value to the organisation.

According to Fasset (2011) a well-planned and integrated performance management system has as its objective the creation of a working environment in which the employee (and manager) can achieve incremental self-actualisation by developing his or her expertise while delivering maximum results for the organisation in line with its objectives.

Mondy (2012) defines performance management as a goal-oriented process directed toward ensuring that organisational processes are in place to maximise the productivity of employees, teams, and ultimately, the organisation. It is a major player in accomplishing organisational strategy in that it involves measuring and improving the value of the workforce. Performance management is a dynamic, on-going process of which every employee in the organisation is a part of. Each part of the system, such as training, appraisal and rewards, is integrated and linked for continuous organisational effectiveness. Every employee should be directed towards achieving strategic goals.

Murphy and Deckert (2013) hypothesises that most organisations use a performance management system that starts with the process of setting goals and objectives, which might be negotiated between supervisors and subordinates or might be imposed by

supervisors. The first step in performance management is to determine what the organisation expects its employees to accomplish. This is normally followed by a process of evaluation in which certain information is gathered and disseminated using the goals set by managers. Feedback is normally provided to employees and may include setting actions plans for improving or maintaining employee performance.

Fryer, Antony, and Ogden (2009) and Swanepoel (2014) both indicated that performance management is a process based on employee performance measures, recording results in employee behaviour, motivation and work processes and promotion innovation.

Beardwell and Thompson (2014) postulate that performance management is an overarching term that embraces all the ways in which an organisation and those who control the activities within it coordinate and direct action to achieve the organisation's goals.

Armstrong and Baron (2007) see performance management as a continuous process that focuses on the future rather than the past. They further see performance management as a strategic and integrated approach, which is aimed at increasing the effectiveness of organisations by improving the performance of employee and by developing the capabilities of teams and individual contributors. In our turbulent economic climate, which is characterised by pressures to improve productivity and reduce costs, performance management plays a central role in providing the organisation with a competitive advantage (CIPD 2009). Many globally competitive organisations depend on the uniqueness of their human resources systems for managing human resources effectively.

To achieve its business objectives, the organisation needs its employees to perform well. For organisations to ensure that employees are performing well, they need to ensure that employees are aware of what is required of them, how they should achieve the organisation's objectives and how they are performing. Employees also need to be aware of any consequences if they fail to perform well. In traditional jobs, performance management may be easier to be measured and monitored, and to address areas of

improvement. Employees meet with their manager to determine the goals that need to be achieved. By setting goals and discussing them, employees know exactly what is expected of them. Performance management should focus on achieving the organisation's overall objectives and contribute to its effectiveness and efficiency.

In non-traditional jobs, such as those of a security officer, performance management becomes difficult to manage because security officers are not based at a central point but are posted at various sites. Some of these sites could have one or several security officers on duty at one time.

Since the requirements of different sites could differ, it might be necessary to determine the overall key performance areas against which a security officer could be measured. There is currently no known performance management system applicable to the security industry. The performance management of security officers should assist them to improve their performance with actionable steps to master specific skills in their current role or to prepare them to progress into a different or more senior role.

The performance of a security officer could be measured against the following performance areas:
- information sharing (the ability to transfer with accuracy important site information to managers, clients and employees when changing shifts);
- client services (acting as public relations representatives, officers should have the ability to represent the organisation in a desirable manner;
- timekeeping (reporting for duty on time, and not leaving a site unattended; and
- following procedures (officers must be conversant in the organisation's procedures and carry out these in various situations).

All performance review methods have advantages and disadvantages. Organisations need to choose a method that meets their needs. Rudman (2003) distinguishes between the following different performance review methods: (1) comparison or ranking methods, (2)

standards-based reviews, (3) results-oriented reviews; and (4) competency-based methods.

From the above discussion, it is evident that performance management systems have varying definitions, the main theme for a performance management system being the setting of goals and objectives, gathering information to evaluate performance, providing feedback for appraisal, and setting action plans for improving or maintaining performance.

2.3   THE IMPORTANCE OF PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

It is important for organisations to have employees who work towards achieving their business objectives. To this end, employees need to know the following: (1) what the organisation requires of them, (2) how well they should perform, (3) how well they are performing (their perception of performance), and (4) what the consequences are for good or bad performance. These four questions and answers should provide an organisation with the foundation on which an effective performance management system could be implemented.

Performance management is a key strategic process in any organisation and should be forward-looking with their focus on learning and development. Performance management should encourage employees to be motivated to perform at their best and improve in their jobs.

Bohlander and Snell (2013) opine that performance management as the process in which a work environment is created for employees to perform to the best of their ability in order to meet the company's goals.

According to Jones, Palmer, Whitehead and Needham (1995), performance management can provide the climate and systems which support reward, communicate how people and the organisation can improve their performance and define individual requirements and

expectations for all employees in terms of the inputs and outputs expected of them, thus reducing confusion and ambiguity.

Bussin (2017), states that performance management is a process that measures individual employee performance against set performance standards and identifies the following objectives of performance management:

- to align organisational and individual goals;
- to foster organisation-wide commitment to a performance-oriented culture;
- to develop and manage the human resources needed to achieve organisational results;
- to identify and address performance inefficiencies;
- to create a culture of accountability and a focus on customer service; and
- to link rewards to performance.

As postulated by DeNisi and Pritchard (2006), performance management is a formal organisational process with clear performance criteria that are used to evaluate performance. Furthermore, performance management is an evaluation process, in which measurable outputs are assigned, based on the level of achievement of the employee's performance against the organisation's criteria. These outputs are shared with the employee being evaluated. The goal of the performance management system is improved individual and organisational performance.

According to Gupta and Upadhyay (2012), the maximum benefit to be accomplished from any performance management system lies in its ability to motivate employees and to link employees' motivation to business objectives.

In summary, performance management can be viewed by management as a "tick-the-box" exercise and serves no purpose other than to reward or punish individuals. Although organisations might have structured performance management systems in place, there is still a lack of proper implementation and carry-through of performance management. For an effective performance management to be implemented, the organisation needs to start

with organisational goals and individual and team goals. Without clear organisational goals, performance management will fail. Employees and/or teams need to understand how their performance impacts on the overall achievement of the organisation's goals. Doran (1981) defined SMART goals which have since been adjusted by different authors. More recently, goals are structured using the following SMART principles:

- **Specific** – Is the detail in the information sufficient to pinpoint problems or opportunities? Is the objective sufficiently detailed to measure real-world problems and opportunities?
- **Measurable** – Can a quantitative or qualitative attribute be applied to create a metric?
- **Actionable** – Can the information be used to improve performance? If the objective does not change the behaviour of staff to help them improve performance, there is little point in it.
- **Relevant** – Can the information be applied to the specific problem faced by the employee?
- **Time-bound** – Can objectives be set for different time periods as targets to review against?

Collaborative meetings should be held with the employee to discuss their goals, the progress being made and areas in which the employee needs guidance or coaching to meet these objectives. Employees need to know what the consequences will be, be they rewards or development initiatives.

2.4 COMPONENTS OF A PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

Rao (2016) defines performance management as actions directed at continuously improving the performance of all employees in relation to their roles, dyad, team and entire organisation, bearing in mind the short and long-term goals of the organisation. The following are the main components in his (2016) definition:

Continuously improve performance – understanding what should be done. This means delineating the dimensions of performance in relation to a role, the expectations of both senior and juniors, teams and organization. Rao (2016, p. 3) states the following:

> "The starting point of performance management therefore, is defining or delineating performance in actionable terms, or activities that are visible and observable to be carried out by the role-holder during a given period of time (normally a quarter or a year) in details, is exhaustive and includes all his/her actions and activities, or at least the significant ones".

Dyadic performance relates to activities that may include responsibilities as a boss. A team leader as an organisational citizen, may not always be covered in a job description or role definition. Examples include listening to junior and solving problems, giving clear instructions of work to be done and providing feedback daily, weekly and monthly to improve overall performance.

Team performance relates to activities required to attain team goals and may include helping other members of a team as required and understanding the needs of dependent team members, providing input or contributing to teamwork by understanding each team member's needs.

Organisational performance as a whole refers to every individual as an organisational citizen is expected to display certain behaviours or activities. These may include timekeeping, completing routine tasks and following the organisation's discipline and values.

Varma and Budhwar, cited in Harzing and Pinnington (2015) state that key components of performance management system are designed to encourage individual employees to perform at optimal levels. The critical component of any performance management system would thus be to motivate employees.

Jackson, Schuler, and Werner (2009) argued that the principle purpose of performance management is to motivate employees to improve their productivity by equipping them through training and development, with the relevant capabilities to do their job. However, even if an employee is capable of doing his or her job, there is no motivation, then these capabilities will not be applied optimally. According to Jackson et al.'s (2009) model on understanding employee motivation and performance, motivation consist of the following two elements: (1) decisions about which behaviours to engage in; and (2) decisions about how much effort to expend. The foundation of the model is the expectancy theory, in terms of which employees tend to choose behaviours they believe will help them to achieve outcomes that will benefit them personally (i.e. a promotion or job security). Employees who are confident about their own skills and capabilities are more likely to expend effort in order to improve performance (Jackson et al., 2009).

Organisations are continuously faced with the prospect of having to achieve more with less and still maintain or increase organisational performance. A common understanding by organisations is that robust performance management is necessary to realise the vison and mission of the organisation and in the process achieve outstanding levels of performance (Colville & Millner, 2011).

According to Colville and Millner (2011), a number of factors have to be considered in performance management. Firstly, the organisation needs to understand its current state before implementing performance management. This entails the following: (1) the performance management capability of managers (goal setting and objective rating) and behavioural skills (conduct performance reviews and provide constructive feedback on a regular basis); (2) leadership styles (confidence and skills to effectively be performance managers); (3) the generational make-up of the organisation as different generations react differently to management (Dychtwald, Morison, & Erickson, as cited in Colville & Millner, 2011); and (4) the current engagement levels of employees.

Secondly, an understanding of what is possible should also be considered. Performance management criteria needs to be clearly determined and clearly define how performance

management behaviours will be weighted in terms of their contribution towards implementing strategy and achieving said organisational goals.

Thirdly, an understanding of the practical steps is necessary to support the organisation in its transition from its current to its desired state. Where employees are in the change process and what support they would need during this transition process are significant factors in managing performance successfully (Colville & Millner, 2011).

Figure 2.1 below depicts the various components of a performance management system as indicated by the researchers listed below the figure. These include defining goals, standards and measurements, providing on-going coaching and feedback, conducting performance dialogues, determining performance, recognition, rewards and consequences and conducting annual development and career opportunity discussions.

Figure 2.1: Components of a performance management system:
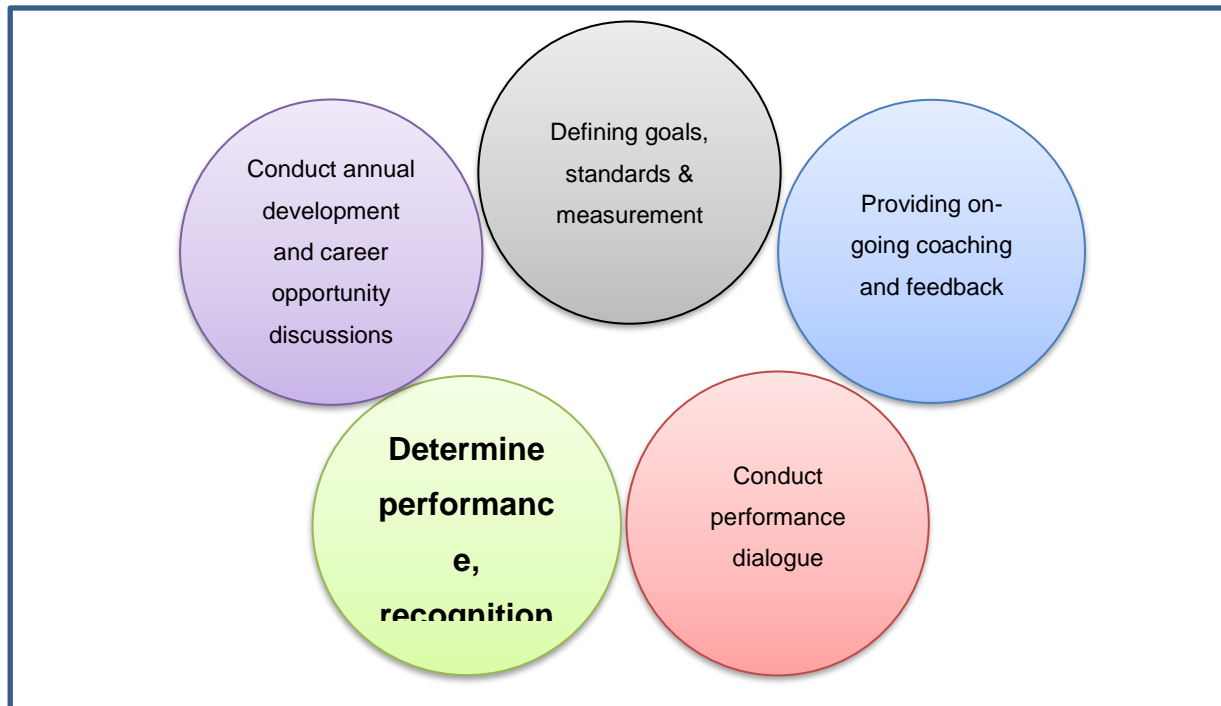
Source: Adapted from Brewster, Sparrow, Vernon, and Houldsworth (2011); Dessler (2013); Jackson et al. (2009); Lepak and Gowan (2010); Mone & London (2009); Varma and Budhwa, cited in Harzing and Pinnington (2015).

2.4.1 Defining goals, standards and measurement

According to Jackson et al. (2009), one of the first steps in developing an effective performance evaluation system is to determine an organisation's goals. These goals are then transformed into departmental and individual goals, with employees agreeing to the personal performance targets set for them. By consenting to personal performance targets, employees are fully aware of the standards by which performance will be measured. Jackson et al. (2009), assert that clearly defined goals that are accepted by employees, have a positive effect on productivity and performance. When employees' goals have a direct link to the organisation's strategic goals, employees tend to better understand the strategic focus of the organisation. As a result, employee behaviour will be directed towards activities that support the overall organisational strategy (Jackson et al., 2009).

Jackson et al. (2009) go on to say that job roles, job descriptions and responsibilities need to be clarified during the goal-setting phase. It is essential for individuals to be aware of the impact/contribution that their individual or team performance has on the organisational objectives. These may be shared objectives within departments or teams, or of standardised objectives across employees fulfilling similar roles. They further state that employees should be kept motivated and committed to perform at their best by customising some objectives to allow for growth. The understanding of a direct linkage between personal job performance and their contribution to organisation objectives helps to create team work and shared responsibilities.

According to Mone and London (2002), the goal setting process consists of the following ten steps:

(1) Employees must be made aware that the organisation is starting the goal-setting process and outline it for them.

(2) To prepare employees, managers should advise them to create an environment for goal setting by making them aware of the organisation's mission and vision,

reviewing their job profiles and current goals and helping them to identify the new all-encompassing goals.

(3)   Organisational and departmental goals and any other strategic messages must be communicated to employees.

(4)   By providing employees with the necessary information, managers should task them with drafting individual performance and development goals.

(5)   Managers should review and discuss individual goals with employees and ensure that they are aligned with the overall goals of the organisation, and that these goals are measurable, realistic and achievable.

(6)   Managers and employees should discuss and define success measures.

(7)   Managers should meet with employees to review, discuss and finalise success measures.

(8)   The subordinates' goals, strategies and success measures should be discussed with the manager's own manager.

(9)   Any changes must be communicated and discussed with employees and be revised where necessary.

(10)   Managers and employees must 'sign off' on the approved goals and the employees should receive a copy.

Varma and Budhwar, cited in Harzing and Pinnington (2015) state that it is critical for supervisors to set individual employee goals for the evaluation period through discussions with subordinates, keeping in mind the organisation's business strategy and ensuring the alignment of goals with department or business objectives.

2.4.2   Providing on-going coaching and feedback

Companies have different approaches how often feedback should be given to an employee. Some companies may only have a single feedback meeting with employees normally towards the end of the performance cycle, or on a more frequent basis (i.e. twice a year or once a quarter). It is more effective to provide employees with regular feedback and coaching to aid their performance or correct underperformance.

According to Varma and Budhwar, cited in Harzing and Pinnington (2015), it is imperative for employees to know how they are performing. It is recommended that managers provide regular feedback to employees. Having regular feedback meetings with employees affords them an opportunity to correct performance and prevent possible future errors.

2.4.3 Conducting performance dialogues

Several factors need to be taken into consideration when conducting a performance dialogue with an employee. Lepak and Gowan (2010) explain these as following:

2.4.3.1   *Separating evaluation from development*

From an administrative perspective, pay increases or other incentive rewards are decided on by managers. However, performance evaluation information also needs to be considered to help employees' development and improve their performance. Some organisations have two separate discussions at different periods during the cycle. The first is to help employees understand where they are under-performing and affording them the opportunity to improve their performance. The second is to make administrative decisions on their performance and resultant pay adjustments.

2.4.3.2   *Targeting behaviours or outcomes rather than the individual*

Managers need to focus on the individual's behaviours or outcomes of performance rather than focusing on the individual himself or herself. This will help the manager to better identify areas in which improvement is required. Employees will also be more likely to accept suggestions on improvement areas if they do not view themselves as being labelled as good or bad.

2.4.3.3   Balanced appraisal

Because jobs having different performance areas, employees tend to do well in some areas and under perform in others. Managers should focus their discussions on all areas, without understanding the importance of areas in which they have performed positively. Managers should encourage performance relating to their achievements and improve on areas of under-performance.

2.4.3.4   Encouraging employee participation

Managers should engage in positive collaborative discussions with employees so that they feel that the process is fair. This encourages employees to be involved in the process when they have an opportunity to reflect on their performance in the various aspects of their job.

According to Dessler (2013), coaching consists of four steps, namely preparation, planning, active coaching and follow-up. *Preparation* means understanding the problem, the employee and his or her skills. It also includes observation of the employee's workflow and his or her interaction with other workers. *Planning* involves drawing up a development plan and following discussion and consensus seeking with the employee on the problem and what needs to be changed. *Active coaching* means agreeing on an action plan, actual education, instruction and on-the-job training. Effective coaching includes offering ideas and advice so that the employee can value and appreciate its value. *Follow-up* means re-observing the employees progress periodically and continuing with active coaching.

2.4.4 Determining performance, recognition and reward/consequences

According to Brewster et al., (2011), traditionally, individual performance was rewarded by promotion to a new job role or grade. Current discussions of pay for performance centres around reward, which is separate from base pay, forming a distinct component of a pay package immediately related to the assessed performance.

2.4.5 Conducting annual development and career opportunities discussion

Dessler (2013) posits that career management is the process of enabling employees to better understand and develop their career skills and interests and to use these skills and interests both within the company and even after they leave the firm. Career development is the on-going series of activities that contribute to a person's career exploration, establishment, success and fulfilment.

Figure 2.2 below represents an all-inclusive process flow for performance management. The process includes the various pillars that support each process within the performance management process. The pillars described below includes the job analysis process which includes designing the job description and KPI's against which the employee should be measured. It looks at the recruitment and onboarding process. During this process the appointed employees must be made aware of the expectations and expected standards for the role. Rewards and recognition includes identifying excellent performance, rewarding performers and reinforcing values and behaviours. It is the actual performance appraisal process of determining expectations and accountability.

As part of any performance management system, a disciplinary process is required to set performance standards, coach poor performance and provide feedback. Learning and development and succession planning closes the process by identifying skill gaps, coaching and mentoring identified employees, and training and development initiatives. Succession planning helps to identify high performance and create career planning for identified high performers in the business.

Figure 2.2: Performance management process:
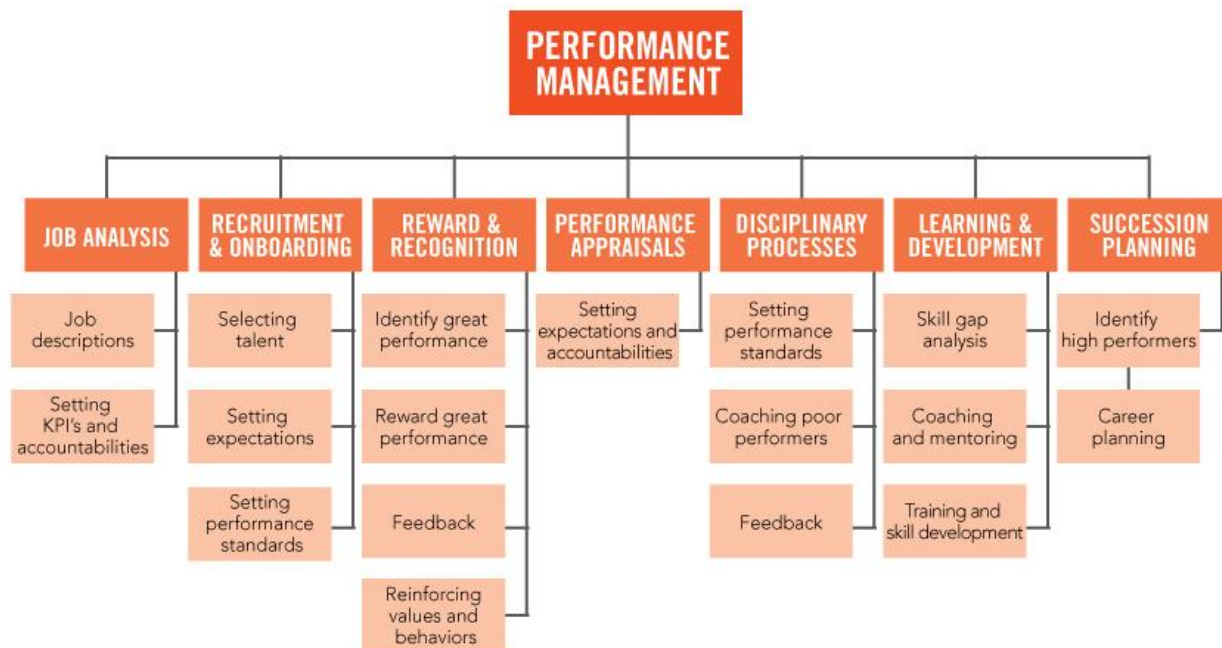
Source: My Virtual Institute (n.d.)

2.5   CRITERIA FOR AN EFFECTIVE PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

Various authors define the key features of an effective performance management system as follows (De Waal, 2003; Franco & Bourne, 2003; Fryer et al., 2009; Swanepoel, 2014; Wang & Berman, 2001):

- alignment of the performance management system and the existing systems and strategies of an organisation;
- leadership commitment;
- an organisational culture in which performance management is seen as a way of improving and identifying effective performance and not a burden used to chastise poor performers;
- stakeholder involvement; and
- continuous monitoring, feedback, dissemination and learning from results.

According to Wärnich, Carrell, Elbert, and Hatfield (2018) in the past, for various reasons – such as the constant struggle for recognition as a legitimate organisational function - too little attention was paid to the effective management of human resources in South Africa. Grobler, Wärnich, Carrell, Elbert, and Hatfield (2015) stated that organisations have a negative view of performance management. They also asserted that line managers were not supportive of performance management.

Lawler, Benson, and McDermott (2013) stated that to improve and ensure that a performance management system fully supports an organisation's key objectives and performance, it is necessary to concentrate on the performance leadership approach, which was based on the traditional approach for a successful performance management system.

Figure 2.3: Comparison of the two approaches:

TRADITIONAL APPROACH		PERFORMANCE LEADERSHIP APPROACH
Single annual event	→	On-going business dialogue
Stand-alone programme/administrative process	→	Integral part of business planning
Manager led	→	Shared responsibility and involvement
Anniversary date	→	Focal point review aligned with business cycle
Minimal differentiation in pay	→	Pay for performance
Manual and time-consuming process	→	User-friendly tools/automation to drive business results

Source: Adapted from Rothwell (2013)

Equally important, Fasset (2011) identified the following as key factors that characterise an effective performance management system:

- Performance management is seen as a combined management and business process. It entails the action and behaviours displayed by the organisation and employees to achieve the organisation's goals in order to satisfy customer needs.

- Performance management is an understanding of the organisation's goals and what the organisation needs to do to achieve these. Both employees and teams need to understand these goals and how their roles translate into the goals to achieve success. Performance management is a set of tasks, goals, behaviours or results which should be formalised into a common performance understanding.

- Performance management should focus on linking employees to one another and to the vision of the organisation and its values. Through coaching and mentoring, the manager should support and direct employees or teams to achieve shared goals with those they are accountable for.

- Performance management helps to increase the organisation's health and resilience. It is all about delivering success for employees, teams and the organisation by having a clear and concise set of goals and purpose.

- Performance management is largely driven by personal skills and knowledge that enables employees to perform their work

Dessler (2013) summarises the six key elements of performance management as follows:

(1) *Direction sharing.* It is essential for the goals of the organisation to be communicated across the organisation, and to be translated into achievable departmental and individual goals.

(2) *Goal alignment.* Goals should be aligned with both managers and employees so that they can understand the link between employee or departmental goals and those of the organisation.

(3) *On-going performance monitoring.* This includes having a system-based performance management system which is used to measure individual progress

and provides the ability to track progress and extract exception reports based on an individual's goal achievement.

(4) *On-going feedback*. This includes both individual face-to-face feedback and computerised feedback on employees' progress towards goals achievement.

(5) *Coaching and development support*. This is an essential part of providing feedback.

(6) *Recognition and rewards*. These involve explaining the consequences of keeping the employee's goal-directed performance on track.

2.5.1 Design of the performance management system

According to Agere and Jorm (2000), the approach for designing the instrument and the training of the human resources who utilise it, is based on the following assumptions:

(1) It is tailor-made to suit the needs and unique situations of the supervisors, the nature and type of the organisation and more importantly, the socio-political and economic development of the country which reflects the level of literacy, skills, technology and culture of the people.

(2) It is based on the principle of participation of stakeholders. The involvement process of stakeholders begins with problem identification, conceptualisation of issues, design, implementation and evaluation of the system. The commitment to design and the capacity to transform the system, when it is desirable, depends a great deal on the extent to which stakeholders have been involved in the process of change.

(3) Once designed through the above processes, the instrument secures ownership by the people who use it. Ownership helps the stakeholders to adjust the instrument to suit the changing circumstances of the organisation.

(4) The design of the performance management system should be regarded as a process and not an event. As a process it can be adapted to suit the organisation's

requirements. As an event, it is linked to time, place and individual persons and is therefore not adjustable.

(5)   The nature and type of management problem to be resolved are generally understood by the stakeholders before action is taken. The basis for solutions to the problem is therefore understood by all, even if some may not agree on the timing and target.

(6)   It is gender- sensitive in that it has a capacity to depict some of the cultural habits, prejudices and attitudes that may prevail in a male-dominated society.

It is therefore evident that for a performance management system to be effective and successful, the starting point in creating a performance management system needs to be with an organisation's vision statement and more importantly the understanding and detail of a vision statement. This vision does not necessarily only comprise the organisation's vision but can be drilled down to a departmental vision. Once the vision has been defined, the values need to be defined. The values should be aligned with the vision. Both the vision and values should be deeply ingrained, and staff should be fully engaged in the organisation's and/or team's vision and values.

A crucial criterion for a performance management system to be effective relates to the setting of goals which are aligned to the organisations', departments' and individuals' vision and values. Goals must be measurable, clearly defined, measurable, and attainable and time specific. During the performance management process, there should be a process of continuous self- assessment and management assessment, with a follow-up improvement process to help the staff member to attain the goals that have been formulated. A clearly defined reward system should be clearly explained and understood by staff. Whether it is an incentive structure, used to identify and development high potential/performers or a reward system of a different kind, it should not only be used as a reward system, but should also serve as motivation and encouragement for staff to perform at their best.

According to Julnes (2008), performance-based management is an ideal approach to meet the multiple demands, the meaning of using performance measurement information and strategies to improve performance measurements, it has two related components namely performance measurement and strategic planning. A quality performance measurement system produces timely, reliable and relevant information on indicators that are linked to specific programmes, goals and objectives. Strategic planning, which is a systematic management process that includes identifying an agreed-upon mission, development goals and objectives, provides the direction and the basis for measuring.

Atkinson's (2012) study analysed the development and use of a performance management framework for the Regulation and Quality Improvement Authority (RQIA), an independent health and social care regulators and quality improvement body in Northern Ireland. Atkinson (2012) makes two distinctions between performance measurement and performance management. Performance measurement is viewed as the collection of data to track the status of work being done and the results achieved while performance management involves data gathered through performance measurement to manage an organisation more effectively and to ensure continuous learning and development.

The performance management framework of the RQIA follows a plan-to-do-review-revise cycle as depicted in Figure 2.4 below.

Figure 2.4: The RQIA performance management framework
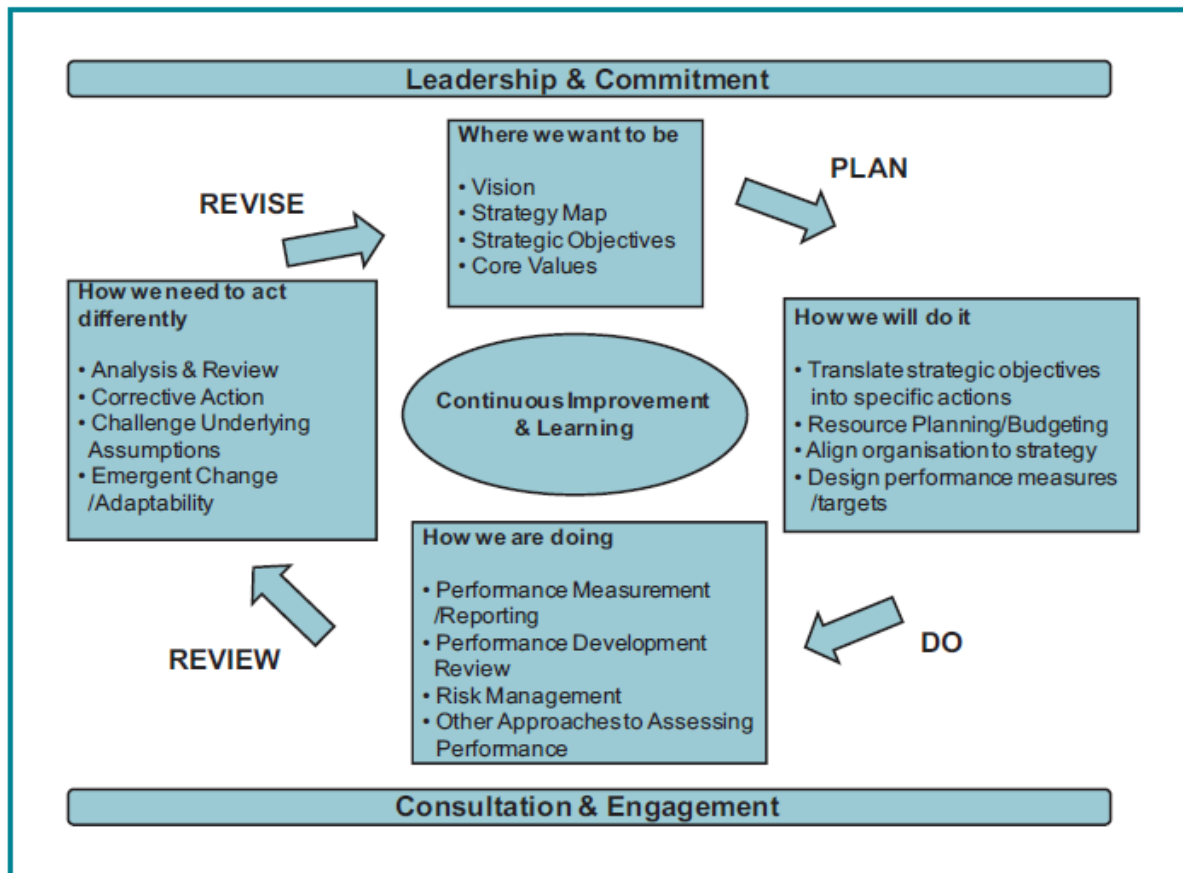
Source: Adapted from Atkinson (2012:49).

The above integrated framework is a continuous improvement and learning model. The framework consists of planning, specific actions, measurements, monitoring and adaptations of performance. The integrated model consists of the following four elements Atkinson (2012): (1) *Where we want to be* refers to the long-term vision, values and strategic objectives. A shared understanding of the strategic objectives of the organisation is a major part of good performance management in any organisation. (2) *How we will do it* involves the translation of strategic objectives into specific actions and alignment of these strategies into performance measures/target. The performance goals of teams and individual employees are set by both the manager and the employee. (3) *How we are doing* refers to the measuring of team/individual performance, managing any risks and assessment of performance. (4) *How we need to act differently* relates to the review and analysis of performance, taking appropriate corrective action, addressing underlying

assumptions and revising strategy where necessary. This all occurs within a continuous employee engagement and discussions.

Armstrong (2017) provides the following effective guidelines for performance management:

Table 2.1: Performance management guidelines

1	Guarantee the commitment, encouragement and support of senior management.
2	Involve line managers and employees in developing the scheme.
3	Provide managers with high quality communications, training, guidance and advice.
4	Set clear aims and measurable success criteria for the performance management system.
5	Streamline the performance management process: it should be simple to understand and operate.
6	Emphasize development leading to improved performance.
7	Ensure that the process involves the alignment of individual and organizational goals.
8	Ensure that throughout the year managers hold performance conversations with their team members involving feedback and coaching (abolish the once/twice-a-year performance review.
9	Focus employee performance discussions on the performance itself instead of numerical ratings.
10	Evaluate the effectiveness of performance management

Source: Armstrong (2017)

According to Armstrong (2017), there is no "best practice" performance management system, because what works in one organisation may not work in elsewhere.

Cascio (2010, p336) comments as follows "It is an exercise in observation and judgement, it is a feedback process, it is an organisational intervention. It is a measurement process as well as an intensely emotional process. Above all, it is an inexact, human process".

2.5.2 Building a high-performance culture

According to Armstrong (2017), performance management flourishes in high-performance cultures. He (2015) describes a high-performance culture as one in which the pursuit and attainment of demanding performance goals permeates everything the organisation does. In a performance management survey, by the Corporate Leadership Council (2002) on "building the high-performance workforce" led to the following conclusions:

- The drivers of the on-the-job performance differ from the drivers of recruiting and retention.

- Organisations must redefine performance management to include all organisational, managerial and employee related levers as most of the effective drives are often underemphasised.

- No category of performance management is more important than the next. It should be a set of carefully selected organisational, managerial and employee-related levers.

- Employees perform best when they feel personally connected to their work and the organisation.

- To drive employee performance more effectively, managers can provide day-to-day solutions to challenges. It is critical to provide employees with informed, positive, fair, accurate and detailed feedback.

- Organisational factors, systems and culture, play a large part in employee performance.

- Communication between employers, employees and managers is key to an effective performance management strategy.

- Organisations should re-examine any low-scoring levers as these may be crucial in attracting and retaining top talent. Low-scoring levers should be redesigned to increase their positive impact on performance or enable their support of other higher-impact levers.

- The impact of performance management levers should be consistent across different sections of the workplace, including geographical, company level, function, performance level and demographic characteristics.

- Levers should be chosen and prioritised as the effectiveness of performance management levers varies, improving or destroying performance.

According to Pulakos, Mueller-Hanson, O'Leary, and Meyrowitz (2012), there are several factors that may influence the likelihood that managers and employees will practise effective performance management behaviour. These factors are as follows:

- the extent to which they believe performance management is essential to finishing the work;
- the quality and trust of the manager-employee relationship; and
- how well the company reinforces successful performance management behaviour as a key business strategy.

Pulakos et el. (2012), state that changing perceptions and integrating new behaviours in the culture are critical. Organisations should make a compelling business case for the value of performance management or to set effectual behaviour on the job. Organisations should focus their thinking on building trust between managers and employees, creating a culture that fosters high performance. Research has indicated that effective performance management behaviours positively affect employee engagement and bottom-line results.

2.6   PERFORMANCE SYSTEMS

Further developments have emerged on the performance management systems front, some of which are described below:

2.6.1 The balanced scorecard

According to Bussin (2013), the balanced scorecard was developed by Robert Kaplan and David Norton, and based on a 1990 research study in the USA on balanced measures of financial and non-financial performance in manufacturing, service, heavy industry and technology companies. The balanced scorecard helps organisations to link their strategic objectives to performance measures, and to focus attention on both internal and external matters. The balanced scorecard allows organisations to view organisational performance

results, - that is, business results, operations and organisational capacity. It is based on the following framework of four perspectives:

(1) *The learning and growth perspective.* This perspective is about the organisational culture, tools, technology, infrastructure, skills and capabilities required to achieve the organisational objectives. It is essentially the foundation upon which organisational success is built. The measure in the learning and growth perspective is the enablers of all the other perspectives, as it will ultimately lead the organisation to achieve its results.

(2) *The internal business process perspective.* This perspective is about key business processes in which organisations must excel to create and deliver their value proposition to their customers. Measures based on this perspective allow the organisation to identify processes that are critical to meeting customer requirements.

(3) *The customer perspective.* Organisations exist because of their ability to satisfy their customers' needs. Customers can be outside or within the organisation. Therefore, if internal or external customers are happy and satisfied, they will return to more services or products, and they will also tell other people where and from whom they buy the service or product. This cycle results in the organisation realising its mission and creating a sustainable platform for existence.

(4) *The financial perspective.* This perspective is fairly critical for a profit-making organisation as financial performance provides the ultimate definition of an organisation's success. The measures in this perspective would typically describe how the organisation intends to create economic and sustainable growth, profitability, and a rise in shareholder value.

According to Bussin (2017) the balanced scorecard can be used as a performance management system for the following reasons:

- It helps organisations to understand their customer needs and value.
- It assists the organisation to focus on strategic results and strategy and ensure that strategic objectives are linked to clear targets and the annual budget.
- It aligns the vision, strategy, processes, projects and people. As such, strategy is clarified, communicated and cascaded down via business unit plans.
- It builds employee accountability and buy-in for change. The organisational initiatives are reprioritised and accountabilities, for everyone, is clarified.
- It assists in identifying critical performance measures and strategic initiatives. These are developed and linked at every level, thus ensuring that they are integrated.
- It assists in evaluating strategy performance.
- Stakeholder involvement is very high, thereby increasing commitment to making strategy happen.
- The balanced scorecard is adaptable for any kind of organisation, irrespective of its size.

The balance scorecard process is depicted below in Figure 2.5 below.

Figure 2.5: The balanced scorecard process:
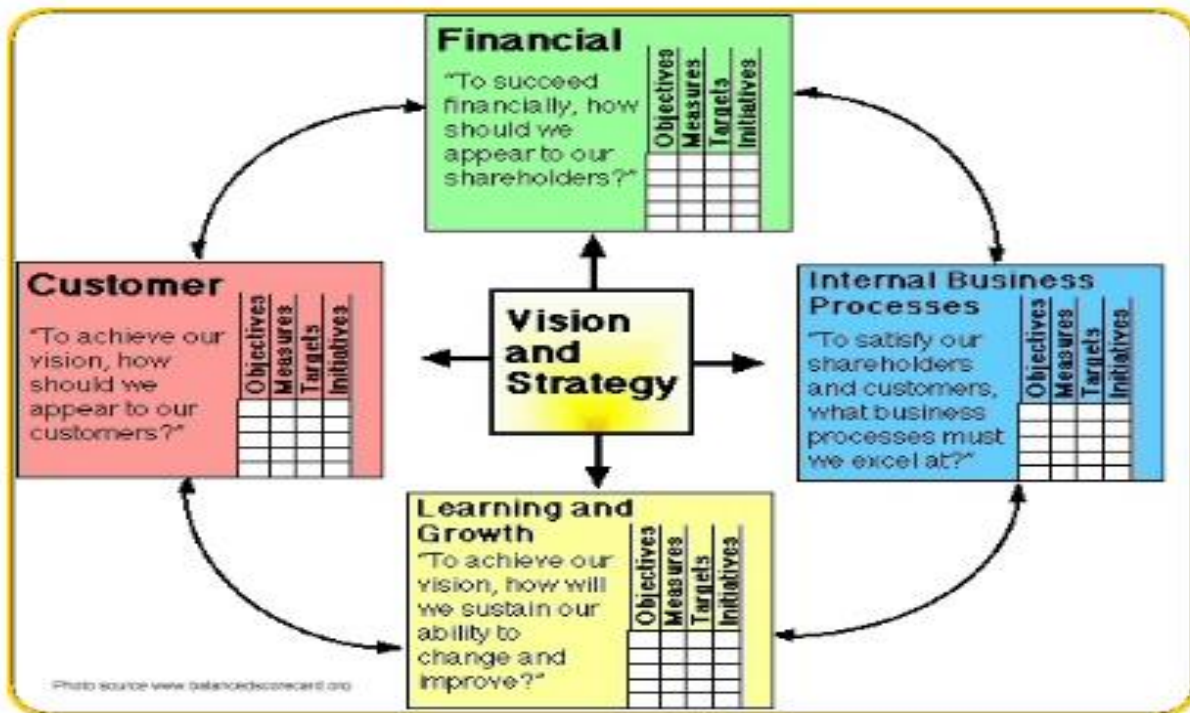
Source: Quality Assurance Solution. (n.d.)

McMahon (2013) contends that before starting the design of a performance management system, it is necessary to decide on the purpose of the system and other matters such as pay and promotion or employee development. The purpose of a specific system depends on the organisation's needs, culture and integration with other human resource management systems.

It is necessary to consider the performance climate that management is trying to create within the organisation. It might vary from a climate of customer service to one of innovation. When designing a performance management system, organisations adopt certain practices relating to a particular context in order to create a specific climate. Furthermore, for a system to be sustainable, the interests of all parties should be served. When this occurs in the specific context of all the parties, it is referred to as mutual high performance (Paauw, Guest, & Wright, 2013).

2.6.2 Benchmark performance

According to Bussin (2013), in all cases, whether corporate or individual, organisations need a comparative framework against which the required performance can be measured. This is essentially the benchmark, or the competence standard against which performance is rated. This also involves some strategic view of where the organisation wishes to be as a performer, first or second in an industry, upper-quartile pay practice, or most efficient service provider. Bussin (2013) refers to the following dimensions with respect to which benchmark data is collected:

- operational effectiveness – effectiveness per employee and return on human capital;
- human resources structure – the efficiency of the structure;
- benefits – this relates to revenue and costs;
- remuneration – efficiency and spread;
- separations – rate of turnover;
- staffing – organisational attractiveness and recruitment efficiency; and
- training and development – investment in training and development.

High-performing organisations have a sound grasp of their people's balance sheet. The scorecard shows corporate level, function level and HR measures, but many more appropriate and applicable ones could be developed. Obviously, the process of improving performance against the various benchmarks must be phased in, owing to various constraints and operational realities.

Barber (2004) cites the following nine steps, which are not intended to be fully comprehensive or applicable in every circumstance, but they should give one some idea of where and how to start benchmarking:

(1) *Re-examine the business objectives.* Organisations need to revisit their strategic business objectives with the prevailing priority being the satisfaction of internal or external customers. As customer satisfaction is "process-oriented" the metrics set

will span across departmental boundaries. As overall business objectives take precedence over functional "silos", processes tend to become more effective and focused, and the beginning of a real team culture is fostered.

(2) *Examine contribution, utilisation and productivity of your information.* If the organisation's data is not useful, contributing to the overall organisational business objectives and/or if it does not provide insight into whether organisational resources are being optimally utilised, it would be deemed as a waste of time collecting it.

(3) *Keep it simple.* The issue with data collection is to decide which data to retain rather than what to collect. Organisations need to be selective and only measure the critical issues. With around three to five metrics, effectiveness and sustainability are maintained.

(4) *Decide what types of metrics to capture.* Metrics really cover three areas, namely what has happened, what is happening and what is about to happen. Metrics fall into three principal groups: historical – an overview of the health of the organisation; real time – a "snapshot" of warning signs of a process that may go wrong; and forward- looking – metrics that extend to current and historical trends into the future to enable the organisation to do contingency planning.

(5) *Establish a benchmark.* A standard against which the current matters can be measured must be established so that any future impact of any change can be measured. An organisation needs to have an idea of its starting point. To this end, benchmarks need to be established for the areas to be measured.

(6) *Integrate data collection into existing workflows.* Employees are asked to collect data which is both current and readily available within their own process flows. Data should be collected without the need for manual interventions. The people closest to the process flow often know exactly what data is available and can provide it instantly, whereas people in higher positions tend to try to make their own jobs easier. The reality is that these individuals usually have the technical knowledge and support systems to convert the raw data into appropriate intelligence, whereas it becomes a burden lower down in the organisation.

(7)   *Allocate resource for analysis.* It is important to have people available to assess and process the data. Resources need to be provided to ensure a rigorous analysis that converts the data into meaningful and valuable strategic information.

(8)   *Have the power to act.* The gathering of metrics is a futile exercise if the receivers are unable to take appropriate action. Sooner or later, the data-collection process will fall into disuse because "nothing is done about it".

(9)   *Close the loop.* Good business practice stipulates that all business processes and procedures should be subject to intermittent reviews. When initially defining the metrics suite, it is important to include a review date. For seasonal cycles, it is advisable to build up statistics over several years.

Figure 2.6: Benchmark performance process:
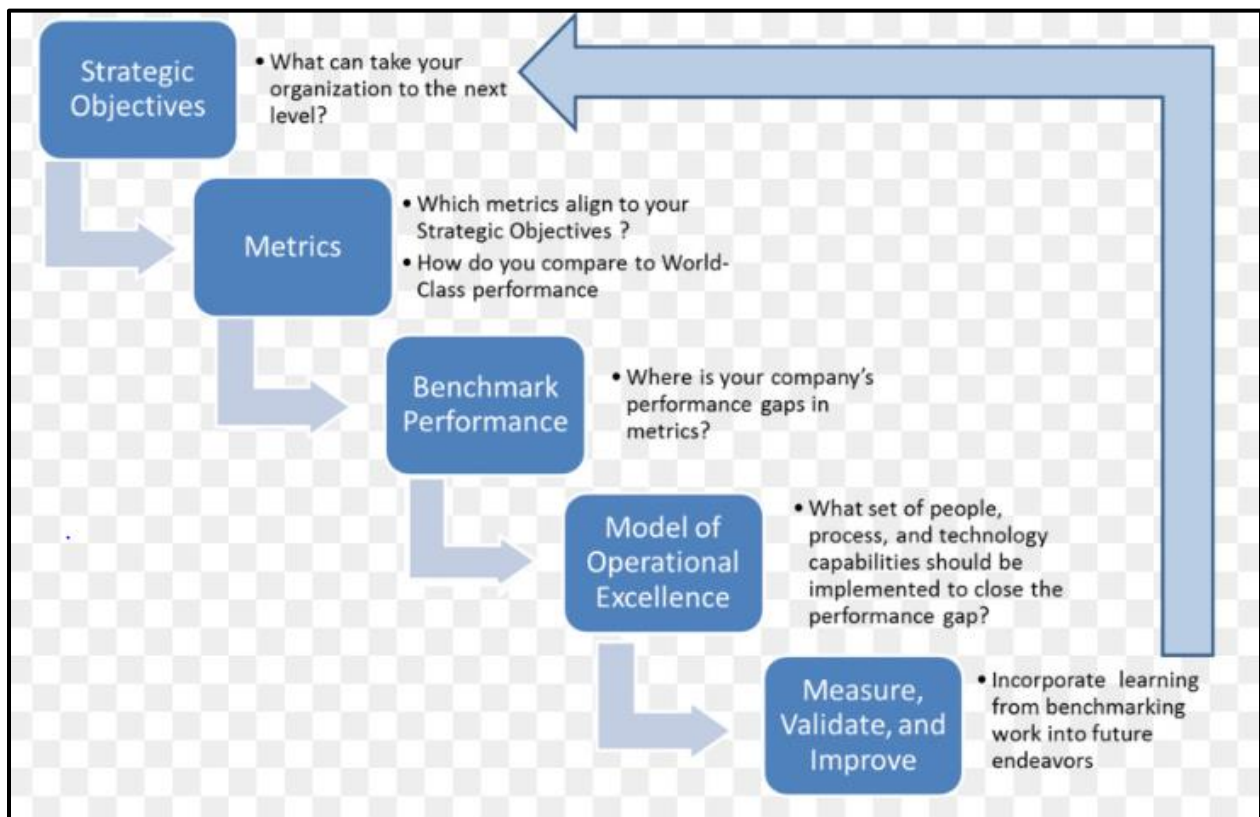
Source: Kisspng (n.d.)

2.7   INTEGRATED PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

According to London and Mone (2009), integrated performance management focuses on those factors that are linked to the organisation's strategies and should focus on those factors that will lead to a competitive advantage and long-term growth. Strategy is therefore the central element in integrated performance management. Performance management is a strategic and integrated approach to deliver sustained success to organisations by improving the performance of the people who work in organisations (Mustafa, 2013). Performance management is a ubiquitous term in today's business environment, being embedded in the body of knowledge of various disciplines and being used it at all organizational levels (Brudan, 2010).

Integrated performance management entails the alignment of the different components of performance management. In the fast-changing markets and complex environments of today, the previous performance systems are proving less valuable for guiding strategic options. Effective risk management is becoming a key factor in a successful business. Management are increasingly being held responsible for more than bottom-line results. An integrated performance system should focus on critical activities that will lead to a competitive advantage and the long-term growth of the organisation (Verweire and Van Den Berghe, 2004).

Table 2.2: Components of an integrated performance management framework

COMPONENTS OF AN INTEGRATED PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORK				
Direction and goal setting objectives	Operational processes	Support processes	Evaluation and control	Organisational behaviours • Organisational design • HRM systems • Leadership skills • Reward systems

Source: Verweire and Van Den Berghe (2004, p. 10)

The five elements indicated by Verweire and Van Den Berghe (2004) are as follows:

(1)   *Direction and goal setting objectives.* This involves processes and actions that lead to formulation and communication of the organisation's mission and vision, and their translation into concrete strategies and performance goals.

(2)   *Operational processes.* These entail processes and activities that focus on the creation and delivery of the organisation's product or services.

(3)   *Support processes.* These are important for the running of the business and improves the effectiveness and efficiencies of the operational processes.

(4)   *Evaluation and control.* This involves monitoring the organisation's performance and identifying perturbations, initiating corrective actions and restoring the organisation to its previous stability.

(5)   *Organisational behaviours.* These relate to the commitment and motivation of all employees in the organisation.

2.8   CHALLENGES AFFECTING PERFORMANCE

Performance management comes with its own challenges. Leopold and Harris (2009) identified the following challenges:

(1)   Organisations need to ensure that performance management systems measure the right things. Part of this challenge is to make sure that managers are sufficiently trained to implement the process.

(2)   After a period of approximately three years, the initial response rate and commitment towards performance management may start declining.

(3)   Personal development plans could be perceived by some as only a development ritual instead of a way to assist and support the growth of an employee. One of the principle challenges to performance management is to continuously ensure that employees remain positive. Where employees have to achieve targets, which can only be achieved through a combined team effort, this may result in employees becoming disengaged when some members of the team fail to perform. According to Rock, Davis, and Jones (2014), managers also tend to rate employees as average to avoid "extra work". Managers realise

that if a top-performing employee is rated as "excellent" or "outstanding", the manager must justify why the specific rating has been awarded. However, should an under-performing employee be rated as "inconsistent" or "insufficient", the manager must put the employee on a performance improvement plan (Rock et al., 2014).

Employees may dislike the performance process simply because some managers rate employees only to comply with formal processes without taking into consideration the developmental purposes that performance management is supposed to fulfil. The need for training and development and career options is then never discussed with employees. Managers sometimes tend to focus on most recent performance without taking into consideration the contributions of the employee throughout the year (Sahoo & Mishra, 2012).

According to the Corporate Executive Board Corporate Leadership Council, cited in Rock et al., 2014), surveys found that 90% of HR heads viewed their performance management systems as not reflecting accurate information. A further 95% of managers were unhappy with the performance system their companies were using.

Rock et al. (2014), view performance management practices as damaging the performance they are intended to improve. They identify at least two basic problems with performance management: (1) When managers label employees by allocating a numerical rating to them, it leads to employees experiencing a "flight or fight" neural response. The judgement of an employee will be impaired and may cause him or her to react aggressively. Although employees sometimes say nothing, they often feel that they have been undermined, and thus become disengaged. (2) Performance management cultivates a fixed mind-set where employees believe things are the way it is and there is nothing you can do to change it (in other words there is no room for improvement). The development mind-set is in contrast to the fixed mind-set and encourages growth, learning and improvement. According to Rock et al, (2014), the effects of conventional performance management on organisations are devastating, resulting in high levels of attrition, low productivity and significant problems with collaboration.

Organisations need to reverse the destructive effects caused by conventional performance management and focus instead on recognising employees for their contributions towards organisational performance. The focus should be on a development perspective (Rock et al., 2014).

Factors that negatively affect performance in any organisation include absenteeism, leaving early or arriving late for work, and disciplinary issues such as disregard for organisational procedures, work stoppages, sabotage, and suchlike. Since the focus of this study was on the performance of security officers, a brief discussion of absenteeism and the disregard for procedures is provided below.

2.8.1 Absenteeism

Most contracts of employment make provision for specific reasons for absence. These may include injuries on duty, sick leave, family responsibility leave (death of a family member, birth of child or child illness), union representative leave (attending union conventions, national meetings, etc). Should employees take leave of absence not addressed in contracts of employment, this is deemed absence without leave (AWOL). Absenteeism is more than not being at work. It is also arriving late or leaving early, taking extended tea/lunch breaks, attending to private business during working hours, not attending to duties in terms of the contract of employment, feigning illness and any other unexplained absence from the workplace.

The contract of employment implies that the employee has a duty to present himself or herself for work and be on time to perform the duties for which he or she has been employed to do. Employees are also expected to perform a full day's work as per the contracted number of hours per day. Employees have several obligations under common law which they must meet even if they are specifically stipulated in the contract of employment. These include the following:

- providing the employer with their labour;

- obeying reasonable and lawful instructions;

- acting in good faith;

- not misconducting themselves; and

- performing their duties.

Some causes of absenteeism could be related to illness or injury, family problems or personal business, religious observances, alcoholism and imprisonment. (South African Labour Guide, n.d.)

According to Aylott (2014), absence may suggest more than the mere health of individual employees but may also be indicative that absence is because of disengaged or demotivated employees. It may suggest that demotivated employees may invent ways to stay at home such as feigning illness, disliking their job or merely recovering from a hangover.

Huczynski and Fitzpatrick, as cited in Taylor (2008) listed some causes of absence such as the following:

- general boredom with the job;

- lack of responsibility and challenge;

- forms of work-related stress;

- poor working conditions;

- work overload;

- lack of a defined workplace role;

- poor relationships with colleagues;

- poor supervision; and

- frequent internal job moves.

Absenteeism can be calculated in the following manner:

A.	$\dfrac{\text{Total paid and unpaid sick days (all employees)}}{\text{\# of employees in the 12 month period}} =$	**Average number of sick days taken per employee**
B.	$\dfrac{\begin{array}{c}\text{Total paid/unpaid days for leave}\\ \text{for other reasons (all employees)}\end{array}}{\text{\# of employees in the 12 month period}} =$	**Average number of days taken for leave reasons per employee other than sick leave**

Note: Include bereavement, maternity, paternity, medical, emergency, etc. Exclude paid vacation.

C.	$\dfrac{\begin{array}{c}\text{Total \# of employees that took}\\ \text{(5-20 days) sick leave}\end{array}}{\text{\# of employees in the 12 month period}} \quad X \quad 100 \quad =$	**Percentage of sick leave usage (Ex. 5-20 days)**

Source: Government of New Brunswick (n.d.)

2.8.2 Employee relations

Conflict occurs when the different parties perceive a threat to their needs or interests. However, there are times when conflict occurs between individuals, an individual and the organisation or collectively between a group of employees and the organisation. (Aylott, 2014).

Even though there are many types of transgressions arising from employee conflict, in this section only absenteeism and the disregard for proper procedures are referred to because these concepts were dealt with in this study.

2.8.2.1 Absence from work

According to Sproat (2012), absence from work without a valid reason constitutes a serious breach of the contract of employment. Absenteeism means occasional absence from work, which may not necessarily arise from a specific serious illness. Absenteeism is a difficult issue as some employee may have better health than others, which may result in infrequent or frequent absences from the workplace. From the employer's point of view, it may be difficult to obtain reliable information on an illness suffered by an employee.

Employers cannot compel an employee to consult a doctor for each minor ailment. Without any medical evidence therefore, an employer will not be able to prove in a court of law that the employee did not suffer from the illness. The only latitude that an employer may have is the employment contract, which may stipulate that medical information is required from an employee, and he or she consents to providing such information to the employer. While it would be unreasonable to request medical information relating to any absences, it would seem a reasonable condition to require medical evidence dealing with absences for certain durations, and perhaps even a short absence, if there is a specific and unusually high incidence of absence by the employee.

Liu and Berry (2013) opine that workplace deviance has become an increasing concern on account of its detrimental effects. One example of deviant behaviour is time theft. This refers to behaviours in which employees waste or do not spend time working during their scheduled work hours, and includes leaving the workplace early, taking unauthorised breaks, loitering on the job and abusing sick leave. Time theft is a type of workplace deviance, defined as a "voluntary behaviour" that violates significant organisational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organisation, its members, or both.

According to Grogan (2007), employees have a duty to render their services as per their contractual agreement with the company. The duty to render services can also be breached if an employee has reported for duty but is mentally "absent". Sleeping on duty is a case in point.

2.8.2.2 Disregard for proper procedures

Sproat (2012) contends that failure to follow established organisational procedures can be viewed as a form of insubordination. Grogan (2007) indicates that insubordination relates to an assumed calculated breach by the employee of the duty to obey the employer's instructions.

According to Mohamed, Ali, Baig, and Baig (2016), offences relating to work and work performance such as poor timekeeping, absenteeism, misuse of workplace facilities, personal appearance and negligence or sub-standard work, inter alia, are usually considered minor misconduct. Such offences do not warrant dismissal for a first offence, but may lead to a verbal or written warning, followed by a disciplinary hearing if the behaviour continues. Repeated minor misconduct such as tardiness can cumulatively result in dismissal.

2.8.2.3   Poor performance

The management of an employee's poor performance is challenging for managers. Managing poor performance involves difficult and uncomfortable discussions. When dealing with poor performance, a manager has options to either immediately provide verbal feedback each time poor performance is observed, provide training and development, implement an employee assistance programme (if poor performance is related to personal issues) or counselling or mentoring. Should the performance continue to fail despite the efforts of the employer, the employer may consider taking disciplinary action for failing to perform. (Worklogic.com, n.d.).

Poor performance concerns both the manager and employee, and both are accountable for the problem. The cause and extent of non-performance should be identified, and an action plan should be compiled outlining relevant interventions to address the performance issues. A key factor in the management of poor performance is that it is dealt with quickly, appropriately and fairly. Managers should ensure that they communicate performance expectations clearly to employees. A lack of guidance or coaching by managers (especially with new employees) can also result in an employee not performing. Managers may also be guilty of poor supervisory/managerial practices (Risher, 2003).

According to Bohlander and Snell (2013), ineffective performance may be caused by three factors, namely ability, motivation and environment. *Ability* refers to technical, interpersonal, analytical, communication and problem-solving skills. *Motivation* relates to

relations with co-workers, career ambition, goals and expectations, fairness perceptions and job satisfaction and frustration. *Environment* comprises equipment, job design, economic conditions, managerial support, rules and policies. Managers should identify the root cause of poor performance and decide on corrective action to address the performance deviation. An employee demonstrating the expected competency but lacking appropriate behaviour may have a motivation problem as the root cause of his or her poor performance. When an employee performs the correct actions but fails to achieve the expected results, external constraints might be the cause of his or her poor performance (Bohlander & Snell, 2013).

Poor performers should be given the assistance to perform adequately by making use of a performance improvement plan (PIP). This is especially important during the mid-year review process to ensure that the poor performer is provided with an opportunity to improve on his or her performance before the final year-end performance review.

When managing poor performance, the following factors should be considered:

- *Identify the cause.* It is important to determine the possible cause or the poor performance before it can be improved. The manager needs to use the information to address the situation.

- *Confront the employee.* Once the poor performance has been identified with the employee, it is necessary to create a line of communication to discuss difficulties. A meeting should be held between the manager and the employee to discuss the poor performance in a structured manner. The poor performance should be clearly explained, and the employee should have a full understanding of the expected performance levels required.

- *Providing improvement.* The employee may need assistance in identifying and clarifying issues. The manager should assist the employee to find possible solutions to addressing his or her performance. The manager should collaborate with the

employee to find the best possible way to improve performance. Once solutions have been agreed upon, the employee should be given reasonable opportunity to make the changes. It is imperative to follow up with the employee to evaluate his or her performance.

2.9   COMPONENTS OF PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Various mechanisms form part of an effective performance management system. These components or mechanisms are often determined by an organisation based on its specific goals. As part of this study, the following components were identified:

2.9.1   Realistic work expectations

It has been reported that most service organisations have focused more on satisfying external rather than internal customers. However, the performance and contribution of employees merit more attention (Camps, Luna-Arocas, 2009; Malhotra & Mukherjee, 2004; Mc Lean, 2006; Netemeyer & Maxham III, 2007; Tsaur & Lin, 2004). Becker and Huselid (1998), found that employees who are entrusted with more responsibility and authority and are held accountable for their job outcomes, are likely to be more involved and committed to their jobs. Management should therefore clearly communicate the organisational performance targets and goals, not only during orientation, but also throughout their socialisation process. Employees who are able to see how they fit in and contribute constructively towards achieving the goals, are more likely to set their personal performance targets and attempt to achieve them.

2.9.2   Supervision

Supervisory support offers employees encouragement, and the degree of supervisory support may influence their performance. However, the effect may be mediated by role stress. An example of the way in which supervisors facilitate employee performance is by providing resources such as the equipment required to perform their work. Where the

opposite is true, even if workers know what to do, they may not be able to execute tasks because their supervisors have not provided material support. Non-supportive supervisors may also fail to communicate well with their subordinates (Burke, Borucki, & Hurley, 1992). Perceptions of a supportive management team, like perceptions of involved co-workers, also are likely to directly influence job satisfaction (Kirmeyer & Lin, 1987).

2.9.3 Training/mentoring

According to Gregory and Levy (2011), employee coaching is deemed a critical part of the performance management process, and an environment that is conducive to effective coaching is also necessary. Their study focused on four supervisor individual difference and contextual variables, namely transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, implicit person theory and organisational feedback environment. Transformational leadership in this context refers to individualised considerations by paying attention to and developing subordinates. Emotional intelligence includes the ability to attend to and monitor one's own emotions, while at the same time being able to deter and interpret the emotions of others. Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts (2004, p. 10) adopts Mayer and Salovey's concept and define emotional intelligence as follows: "Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth".

The implicit person theory refers to the belief whether a person can change and whether such a person is adaptable. Hence, in order to be an effective coach, the supervisor must be of the view that his or her subordinate is able to perform better, improve and change. An organisational feedback environment refers to a positive feedback environment in which employees' managers includes the quality and frequency of coaching and informal feedback to such an extent that the employees rely on feedback to improve performance. In such an environment, it creates effective coaching and feedback exchanges (Heslin, Latham, VandeWalle, 2005).

2.9.4 Policy/procedure

Performance is related not only to results, but also relates to the activities, behaviours and attitudes of employees to achieve their given goals. However, the emphasis is on creating a set of objectives, feasible, sustainable and credible measures, as well as procedures and practices, leading to an integrated system of performance management in the organisation. Clear policies enable managers to communicate the expected results and guides employees toward the fulfilment of organisational goals (Zhang, 2004). Policies and procedures also provide structure and lead to employee satisfaction improvement, and an increase in employees' work motivation, creativity and development of their knowledge and competency levels.

2.9.5 Rewards/recognition

Rewarding employees is a key component of organisations' human resource management (Dulebohn & Werling, 2007). Drawing on seminal motivation theories such as Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), Adams' equity theory (1965), and Lawler's discrepancy theory (1971), it has often been demonstrated that rewards – and in particular satisfaction with these rewards – stimulate desirable employee behaviours and attitudes (e.g**.** performance and commitment) and discourage unfavourable ones (e.g**.** turnover and absenteeism) (Williams, McDaniel, & Nguyen, 2006). Haines and St-Onge (2012), reported that organisations adopt employee recognition programmes to reinforce the behaviour the employer wishes to encourage. Interestingly, this is also the aim of most performance management systems. As such, although little empirical evidence is available to support this claim, it would seem that the practice of employee recognition is likely to improve the effectiveness of performance management systems.

According to Rao (2016), over time, the literature on motivation has made clear that different factors motivate people differently at different times, and extrinsic motivators such as financial or non-financial incentives play a limited role. He adds that organisations should focus on intrinsic motivators and make work enjoyable by giving people the right

kind of work that utilises and develops their talent, but also cautions that intrinsic factors may act in the reverse direction if not managed properly. This can be achieved by focusing on KPAs or KRAs, the task at hand, competency-building listening, understanding, and empathy on the part of the reporting managers.

2.9.6 Support

Team flexibility has a positive relationship with team performance because, compared to less resilient teams, teams with a high level of resilience are likely to come up with more flexible and adaptive responses to adversity, and additionally, they tend to use setbacks as challenges or opportunities for growth (Carmeli, Gelbard & Palmon, 2013). In the literature, performance is usually divided into in-role performance (similar to task performance), defined as fulfilment of tasks that employees are expected to perform as part of the formal job requirements, and extra-role performance (similar to contextual performance), defined as behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation and goes beyond formal job requirements (e.g. helping colleagues at work or making suggestions for improvement) (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999). Support provided by managers or co-workers is thus crucial to employee performance.

2.9.7 Information

Knowledge sharing in teams has been found to lead to superior team performance (Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). Knowledge sharing in a team is not automatic, and the team leader has the potential to strongly influence the extent of knowledge sharing (Srivastava et al., 2006). Trust between a team leader and employees is reported to play a major role in a significantly positive relationship, which suggests a direct effect on team knowledge information with a leader. Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) meta-analysis found that trust in the leader is positively associated with information exchange.

2.9.8 Interpersonal relationships

Interpersonal relationships have been identified as a vital factor in the psychosocial work environment that could affect well-being, job satisfaction, performance and productivity (Stoetzer, 2010). Wheatley (2001) further suggests that managers should pay attention to how a workplace organises its relationships, not only its tasks, roles and hierarchies, but also the form of relationships and capacities built to maintain and transform them. Further to the interpersonal relationship dimension, the leader-member exchange theory contends that leaders develop different relationships with their subordinates via different exchanges that can be termed high or low quality (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). High-quality relationships relate to interactional justice and contributes to employees' perceptions of being treated fairly by their leaders/managers and hence their willingness to perform well at work.

2.9.9 Satisfaction

According to Naeem, Qureshi, and Azam (2015), job satisfaction is one of the most critical aspects that influence the performance of individuals, which is reflected through disparity between corporate level and branch level employees. They further state that job satisfaction is not only linked to better performance, but also intangibles such as positive influence on other employees. Factors that tend to lean towards job dissatisfaction are known as hygiene factors, which include supervision, inter-personal relations, administrative polices, working environment and salary. Factors that lean towards job satisfaction are mixed and may include employees' environment, relationships with colleagues, recognition, advancement, responsibility and achievement. Locke (1976) suggested that satisfying the needs of an employee does not mean fulfilling his or her desires, but it is linked more to finding a match between the organisational and individual values system and fulfilling his or her needs. This implies that increased salary alone may not satisfy an employee unless the work environment, opportunities to develop oneself and opportunities of professional growth are also provided (Wang, 2005). Ivancevich, Matteson, and Olekkalns (1997) proved empirically that happy employees translate into happy customers. The likelihood of employees who are satisfied with their job and work

environment to be welcoming and ready to address customers concerns is much higher compared to employees who are unhappy with their job (Zhen & Yang, 2009). As a corollary, unhappy employees eventually cause unhappy customers, causing un-competitiveness for the organisation (Hanif & Kamal, 2009).

2.9.10 Commitment

In organisational commitment, an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals and wishes to remain a member. Employees who are committed will be less likely to engage in work withdrawal even if they are dissatisfied, because they have a sense of organisational loyalty. By contrast, employees who are not committed and who feel less loyal to the organisation, tend to show lower levels of attendance at work across the board (Isiaka, Ismaila, & Aliyu, 2016).

2.9.11 Quality of work life

Time pressures, such as longer working hours may influence an employee's management strategies to balance the demands of family and work life. This will create stress among employees, and stress has a direct and indirect cost for both the employee and organisation (Ram, Khoso, Shah, Chandio, & Shaikih, 2011).

2.10   FAIRNESS OF PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Whenever reference is made to the fairness of a decision, procedure or action, organisational justice becomes an issue. Organisational justice is a term that has been widely research by academics in past decades and relates to employees' perceptions of fairness in the organisation. It is an individual's perception of an action or decision taken by an organisation that is deemed fair or unfair. This perception by an employee could have a negative or positive impact on the behaviour or attitude of employees in the workplace and beyond, based on their individual perceptions. There are four main categories of organisational justice, namely distributive justice, which focuses on the fair

distribution of benefits and payments, whereas procedural justice is the fair and consistent manner in which an outcome or process is based. Interpersonal justice relates to the manner in which employees are treated, and informational justice is based on the information communicated to employees about why procedures were used, and outcomes distributed.

2.10.1 Definition of organisational justice

Organisational justice is conceptualised as a multidimensional construct. The three proposed components are distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Interactional justice includes interpersonal, and informational justice. Research also suggests the importance of affect and emotion in the appraisal of the fairness of a situation, as well as one's behavioural and attitudinal reactions to the situation (Barsky, Kaplan, & Beal, 2011). Perceptions of justice influence many key organisational outcomes such as motivation (Latham & Pinder, 2005) and job satisfaction (Al-Zu'bi, 2010).

Gilliland and Anderson (2011) defines distributive justice as the fairness of a result, and procedural justice as the fairness of a decision and allocation of processes in the workplace whether a result is viewed as fair, while procedural justice refers to the fairness of decisions and allocation of processes in the workplace.

Research indicates that employees' perception of distributive and procedural justice has shown that the degree of these justice elements can impact on their thinking, affect and behaviour towards work, supervisors, co-workers, teams and the organisation.

Figure 2.7: Organisational justice

Source: Adapted from Greenberg (1990)

2.10.1.1   Distributive justice

Distributive justice is regarded as fairness relating to decision outcomes and the distribution of resources. Outcomes or resources may be either tangible (pay) or intangible (praise). Should individuals view or perceive outcomes to be equally applied, distributive justice will be adopted (Adams, 1965).

Colquit et al. (2005) states that distributive justice is a basic part of the very nature of employee relations and, it is a fact that workers are not all treated alike. At the start, some individuals are hired for jobs whereas others are not. And, among those who are hired,

some are promoted quickly and are paid higher salaries and enjoy the status that comes with it, whereas others simply advance more slowly. Differentiations in the workplace leads to concerns about fairness. The distribution of rewards was one of the earliest matters of justice in the workplace.

2.10.1.2   Procedural justice

Leventhal (1980) defines procedural justice as the fairness of the processes that lead to outcomes. When individuals feel that they are being heard in the process or that the process involves certain characteristics such as consistency, accuracy, ethicality, and lack of bias, then procedural justice is improved.

Vermeulen (2005) postulates that several principles of procedural justice that constitute fair procedures are cited in the literature. According to Leventhal (1980), procedures are fair if they are made consistently, without self-interest, based on accurate information, with opportunities to correct the decision, representing the interests of all the parties concerned, and follow moral and ethical standards (Brockner et al.,1994).

Armstrong (2009) refers to the ways in which managerial decisions are made and personnel procedures are managed. The five factors that affect perceptions of procedural justice as identified by Tyler and Bies (1990) are as follows:

(1)   suitable consideration of employees' viewpoint;
(2)   overturning personal bias towards employees;
(3)   consistently applying criteria across employees;
(4)   providing timeous feedback to employees about the outcome of decisions; and
(5)   providing employees with adequate explanations of decisions made.

Brockner and Wiesenfeld (2005) further researched the moderating role of procedural fairness on outcome favourability. They found that procedural fairness reduced the influence of outcome favourability when people evaluated others, while it increased its

influence when people evaluated themselves. Figure 2.89 depicts the requirements of procedures for procedures to be regarded as fair.

Figure 2.8: Conditions to be met for employees to perceive formal procedures as fair

The information used to make the decision is appropriate and accurate.

The basis for making the decision is clearly explained.

All legitimate interested parties are given the opportunity to have input into the decision process.

Attention is paid to ensuring that the less powerful parties are protected from abuse by the more powerful parties.

All interested parties have equal and open access to the system

The system is relatively stable and consistent over time.

The system is flexible enough to be responsive to changing conditions and unique circumstances.

Source: Adapted from Jackson, Randall, and Werner (2009)

2.10.1.3   *Interactional justice*

Interactional justice refers to the way an individual is treated as decisions are made and can be promoted by providing explanations on how a decision was made and ensuring that the way in which the news is delivered is both respectful and sensitive (Bies & Moag, 1986). A construct validation study by Colquitt (2001) suggested that interactional justice can be divided into two components, namely being interpersonal and informational justice. Interpersonal justice refers to perceptions of respect and propriety in one's treatment, while

informational justice refers to the credibility of the explanations provided in terms of timeliness, specificity and truthfulness.

Interpersonal justice mirrors the way in which individuals are treated with dignity and respect by people in authority and external parties involved in carrying out procedures or determining outcome.

According to Donald, Thatcher, & Milner (2014, p. 336) interactional justice refers to the "importance of the quality of the interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented".

Colquit, et al. (2001) postulate that the current understanding of interactional justice subdivides the construct into two types, namely interpersonal justice (being treated with dignity and respect), and informational justice (the provision of explanations on how and why decisions were made). This includes interpersonal treatment and information received in procedural justice. However, to maintain consistency with the types of justice, as established by Colquitt et al. (2001), these are categorised as interactional justice. Interactional justice includes the interpersonal effectiveness of the test administrator and the respectability of questions. Informational justice includes communication and openness about the assessment process and feedback.

2.10.2   Organisational justice and performance management

Performance management systems and organisational justice are interrelated because the latter is almost always included in some way or other in the former. Based on their experience, employees perceive an organisation's systems or processes, the implementation thereof, the way systems/processed are communicated, equal treatment, rewards and recognition as either fair or unfair. A performance management system should measure specific objectives and demonstrate organisational behaviours and values and identify areas of improvement for employees. However, one of the major questions asked by employees is the fairness of a performance management system, because this is often

regarded as a system to measure performance and the use of this tool for determining salary increases and not for advancement in the business. Employees often question whether the rating of performance is based on fair criteria or whether the relationship between a manager and employee, good or bad, has a direct impact on the outcome of performance management. Figure 2.9 depicts the various correlations between a performance management cycle and how organisational justice can be influenced by each of the levels.

Armstrong and Baron (2005, p. 17) suggest that the main link between organisational justice and performance management is based on the value of latter to:

- communicate a shared vision of the purpose and values of the organisation;
- define expectations of what should be delivered and how this should be done;
- ensure that people are aware of what constitutes high performance and how they need to achieve it;
- enhance motivation, engagement and commitment by providing a means of recognising endeavours and achievement through feedback; and
- enable people to monitor their own performance and encourage dialogue about what needs to be done to improve performance.

Figure 2.9: Relationship between performance management and organisational justice

Performance management	Organisational justice
Role definition • Purpose of the role • Key result areas • Key competencies	**Procedural justice** – perception of fairness in the process used to make a decision on purpose of role, key result areas/ competencies.
Performance agreement or contract • Objectives and standards of performance • Performance measures and indicators • Competency assessment • Core values or operational requirements • Objectives	**Interactional justice** – the manner in which managers discuss performance with employees/employee feelings **Informational justice** - the manner in which employees are communicated with.
Personal development plan • Actions taken by people to develop themselves/extend knowledge • Improve performance	**Interactional justice** – the employees' feelings how managers view their situation/treatment of them. **Informational justice** - the manner in which employees are communicated with.
Performance throughout year • Action is taken to implement performance agreement and personal development plans	**Distributive justice** – when employees feel the outcome is fair in comparison to the outcome of others. **Procedural justice**- perception of fairness used to implement performance and personal development
Performance review • Formal evaluation stage • Personal development plan	**Distributive justice -** when employees feel the outcome is fair in comparison to the outcome of others. **Informational justice** - the way in which employees are communicated with.

Source: Adapted from Armstrong (2001)

2.11   ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

Organ (1988) defines OCB as the individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and when combined promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. It includes three critical elements:

(1)   OCBs are regarded as discretionary behaviours, which do not form part of the job description, and are displayed by employees as a result of personal choice.

(2)   OCBs go above and beyond that which is an enforceable requirement of the job description.

(3)   OCBs contribute positively to overall organisational effectiveness.

According to Zhen et al. (2012, p. 3), OCB is defined as "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place". OCB is behaviour displayed by an employee that is discretionary and not recognised by the formal reward system although it promotes the effective functioning of the organisation and is essential to its overall performance (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006).

Sukhada (2014) explains OCB as certain behaviours expected from employees during their employment, whereby they must abide by the rules and regulations of the organisation. When employees display behaviours that go beyond the call of duty, this is referred to as organisational citizenship behaviour, also known as extra-role behaviour. Organisations cannot survive or prosper without employees who display OCB. Several studies have shown that OCB can have a positive impact on organisational success through improvements in productivity, better utilisation of resources, group activity coordination, performance enhancement and stability, recruitment and ability to adapt to environmental changes. Behaviours that indicate OCB are punctuality, helping others, innovation volunteering (Organ, 1988), as well as the tendency to refrain from undesirable actions such as complaining, arguing and finding fault with others. OCB is not linked to any reward system but helps in the effective functioning of the organisation.

Based on literature review, OCB can be categorised into the following seven types (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990):

(1)   Helping behaviour means voluntarily helping others. Altruism is the predecessor of helping behaviour.

(2)   Sportsmanship refers to maintaining positive attitudes and willingness displayed by the employees to sacrifice own interests for the sake of the organisation or for the greater interest of the organization.

(3)   Organisational loyalty not only means being loyal to the organisation, but also making an earnest effort to promote a positive image of the organization to outsiders.

(4)   Organisational compliance implies obeying company rules, regulations and procedures, being a good employee and steward.

(5)   Individual initiative means being proactive. It refers to making sincere efforts to improve work outcomes and encouraging others to do so.

(6)   Civic virtue refers to taking part in the political membership of the organisation, engaging in policy issues and monitoring on behalf of the community.

(7)   Self-development means efforts made by employees to voluntarily improve themselves in terms of knowledge, skills and abilities in order to increase their contribution to the organisation.

There are five personality factors which affect most of the variance in personality. These dimensions are known as "Big Five", and are classified as altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

(1)   Altruism means helping other employees in the organisation with their work. Podsakoff et al. (2000) demonstrated that altruism is significantly related to performance evaluations.

(2)   Conscientiousness is an optional behaviour that goes beyond the minimum requirement for the role, such as obeying rules and regulations, not taking extra

breaks or working longer days (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Hui 1993). Conscientiousness is an example of going well beyond the minimum requirement levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping and a desire to conserve resources, and overall give an impression of being a responsible citizen of the organisation. Altruism and conscientiousness are the two major or overarching dimensions of OCB (Borman et al. 2001). Conscientiousness is used to indicate that an individual is organised, self-disciplined, accountable and hardworking. It is interesting to note that Kidder and McLean Parks (1993) theorised that males are more likely to engage in conscientious behaviour than females because of their preference for equity over equality.

(3)   Sportsmanship is defined as "a willingness to tolerate the inevitable Inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining." (Organ, 1990b, p. 96). It refers to a person's desire not to complain when experiencing the inevitable inconveniences and abuse generated in performing a professional activity. Sportsmanship refers to avoid complaining unnecessarily about the difficulties faced in the workplace, being positive and tolerant towards problems experienced in the workplace. Sportsmanship is the exhibition of willingness to tolerate minor and temporary personnel inconveniences and impositions of work without grievances, complaints, appeals, accusations, or protest. This helps to conserve organisational energies for accomplishment of task and to a large extent relieves managers of unnecessary load/stress (Organ, 1990, Organ & Ryan, 1995). Organ (1988) defines sportsmanship as the behaviour of tolerating the irritations that are an unavoidable part of nearly every organisational setting. Podsakoff, Ahaerne, and MacKenzie (1997) reported that good sportsmanship enhances the morale of the employees in the workplace and thus reduces employee turnover.

(4)   Courtesy refers to the gestures that help others to prevent interpersonal problems from occurring, such as giving prior notice of the work schedule to someone who requires this information or consulting others before taking any actions that would affect them (Organ, 1990). Courtesy or gestures are demonstrated in the interest of

preventing problems for co-workers (Organ, 1997). A courteous employee prevents managers from falling into the pattern of crisis management by making a sincere effort to avoid creating problems for co-workers (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). The main idea of courtesy is to avoid actions that unnecessarily make colleagues' work harder. It also includes giving them enough notice to prepare when the existing work load is increased.

(5)   Civic virtue refers to the constructive involvement in the political process of the organisation and contribution to this process by freely and frankly expressing opinions, attending meetings, discussing with colleagues certain issues concerning the organisation, and reading organisational communications (e.g. e-mail) for the well-being of the organization. Civic virtue is behaviour on the part of an individual that indicates that employee dutifully participates in, is actively involved in, and is concerned about the life of the company (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Civic virtue represents a macro-level interest in or commitment to the organization. It shows willingness to participate actively in organisational events, monitor the organisation's environment for threats and opportunities and to determine the best alternative for the organisation. These behaviours occur when employees equate themselves with the organisation and consider themselves to be part of it. (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Civic virtue is defined as subordinate participation in organisation's political life and supporting the administrative function thereof (Deluga, 1998). It also involves the responsibility of the employees to actively and willingly participate in the life of the organisation such as attending meetings which are not required by the organisation and keeping abreast of any changes in the organisation (Organ, 1988). This dimension of OCB is derived from Graham's (1991) findings, which stated that employees should have the responsibility to be a good citizen of the organisation. These behaviours reflect an employees' recognition of being part of organisation and accepting the responsibilities involved in being a citizen of the organisation (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Other researchers such as Walz and Niehoff (1996) found that civic virtue enhances the quantity of performance and helps to reduce customer complaints.

2.12   BACKGROUND OF THE COMPANY

The company investigated in this study is a large security company, situated in various parts of the country. It has a highly labour-intensive workforce who renders services for its clients, including an armed response and guarding service. This service is dependent on its human capital. Human capital is built up through the company's internal and on-the-job training, with most of its security officers having completed Grade 10 to Grade 12. The security industry is also regulated by the Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority (PSIRA).

Owing to the fact that the company's business is client oriented, it has developed and bases its service delivery on certain principles, namely the "Big 5" - professional, reliable, honourable, competent and pro-active (ADT, 2002). The company's adherence to these principles ensures that it provides the best possible service in security. These principles are built into its performance management system against which employees are measured.

Even though the company conducts structured interviews, vetting and referencing of job applicants, it remains a challenge to determine whether employees have in fact adhered to its principles. Some of the challenges are absenteeism, non-compliance with its operating procedures and adherence to health and safety. This has resulted in high volumes of absenteeism, general accident/incidents, client complaints and high disciplinary issues, to name a few (ADT, 2010, 2011). The company recognised that to improve on its service delivery to its clients, it needed to improve the performance of its security personnel. It therefore investigated various assessment tools and opted for the Dependability and Safety Instrument (DSI) as the assessment tool to measure the likelihood that employees would:

- arrive on time;
- return from breaks on time;
- take safety seriously;

- check their work thoroughly;

- handle stressful situations well;

- handle conflict effectively;

- remain even tempered;

- be confident in their own abilities; and

- be motivated to do well on the job.

All security officers who are currently employed, as well as all new applicants applying for the position of security officer, are assessed by means of DSI.

2.12.1 Background on the DSI

The DSI was introduced to the company in August 2011 because it was deemed that the assessment would predict, in conjunction with various job-related tests, vetting and structured interviews, the most appropriate candidates to be appointed.

Using the DSI as part of the selection process, its main purpose was to select the best candidate and using the prediction scores, it would ultimately decrease absenteeism, increase adherence to standard operating procedures, resulting in a decrease in misconduct relating to breaching standard operating procedures and reducing the rate of absenteeism.

The DSI as a scientific programme has shown the following:

- Behaviours that define dependability in the workplace are essential for good attendance, customer service and safety at work, and play a key role in the judgements made by supervisors and managers about which behaviours represents or does not represent an effective employee.

- The SHL Group's (2010) view of dependability generalises across different organisations and industry sectors, public or private sector organisations, as well

as different countries, and consistently relates to outcomes in the workplace whether this involves customer-facing roles or safety roles.

- These behaviours are consistently predicted by the score from the DSI questionnaire, which originally comprised 22 statement pairs (Version 1.0) but has been made more efficient with 18 statement pairs (Version 1.1) after an extensive review programme.

- The original classification of scores falls into three bands of risk (red, amber and green) and can be refined to five levels of risk to allow clients greater flexibility in the setting of cut- scores when used in the recruitment and selection of personnel.

- DSI scores are stable over time (as measured using a test-retest or stability coefficient) and the tool meets most definitions of fair assessments such as the 80% or 4/5th's rule in the USA in showing no adverse impact against women, older candidates or candidates from ethnic minorities. Furthermore, analysis has shown that the questionnaire is suitable for use with individuals with lower levels of educational achievement and with a reasonable fluency with English.

- The DSI can be deployed via paper-and-pencil, telephone and online administration with no reduction in the quality of the assessment.

(Source: SHL Group, 2010)

2.13   IMPLEMENTATION OF THE DSI AT THE COMPANY

The DSI is used during the recruitment process, with only those candidates who have successfully met the company's recruitment requirements in terms of qualifications, skills and PSIRA certification completing the DSI assessment. The assessment is conducted and assessed by the company's appointed psychometrist. The outcome of assessments is used and taken into consideration with interview guides and the requirements listed

above. As a rule, assessments highlighted as moderate risk to high risk are disqualified, unless the psychometrist as reviewed the risk in the context of the outcome.

The company's decision to implement the DSI as part of its recruitment process was to minimise the risk of high absenteeism, which often results in terminations and overtime as a result of absenteeism.

The absenteeism statistics collected by the organisation's HR Department prior to the introduction of the DSI and after its introduction are indicated below. It is clear from the absenteeism percentages, that on average the overall percentage of absenteeism has decreased. The reason for the decrease in absenteeism could be a direct result of recruiters having the tools to make better selections and appointments.

Average percentage of absenteeism hours prior to the introduction of the DSI:

Period	Guarding % of headcount
Jan 10 – Dec 10	2.36
Jan 11 - Sept 11	2.37

Average percentages of absenteeism hours after the introduction of the DSI:

Period	Guarding % of headcount
Sept 11 – Dec 11	1.95
Jan 12 – Dec 12	2.11
Jan 13 – Dec 13	1.56
Jan 14 – Dec 14	1.41
Jan 14 – Jun 15	1.32

2.14 SUMMARY

There are numerous theories on performance management systems which are evolving as business needs dictate. However, despite changing business environments, the main elements of a performance management system are not that dissimilar. The main elements of performance management remain as the identification of business needs, the formulation of goals to substantiate meeting the expected outcomes, measurement of these outcomes, providing continuous feedback to recipients, realignment of future goals and linking development and reward systems to performance management. These elements contribute to a company being the overarching employer of choice and the future growth thereof. One of the more recent approaches to performance is an integrated performance management system. This approach focuses on processes and actions that direct goal setting and, on the creation, and delivery of products or services, supporting processes to improve the effectiveness and efficiencies of the operational processes and the monitoring of performance and organisational behaviours.

One of the primary factors that has a negative impact on performance management is absenteeism, and the resultant costs. Absenteeism not only impacts on the costs of the business, but also influences its service delivery expectations with clients, which prevents achieving the overall business goals. With this in mind, and because of the very nature of a security officer's job, the company used in this study attempted to find an intervention that would eliminate the propensity towards absenteeism, reduce the breaches of operating procedures and encourage employees to adhere to safety and health issues. To this end, the company introduced a psychometric assessment tool, namely the DSI, for use during recruitment. The aim of the study was to test whether the performance of security officers, based on the DSI, showed the desired results.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an outline of the empirical investigation conducted in this study. The purpose of this chapter is specifically to describe the different statistical strategies used to investigate the empirical research aims of the study. The primary research objective was to determine whether there was a link between the perceived performance management of security officers, company-reported behaviours, self-reported behaviours and biographical factors. These objectives formed the nucleus of this study, from which all the other aims and objectives were derived.

This chapter starts with an explanation of the sampling strategy, followed by a discussion of the measuring instrument with specific focus on the design and development of the questionnaire. Thereafter the data collection methods are described. The research questions formulated for the study are repeated and the statistical processing approaches that were used explained. Finally, the ethical considerations relating to the research methodology are described, and the chapter concludes with a brief summary.

The main purpose of research is to generate knowledge and express theories through empirical evidence that can be used to inform a specific subject field. This chapter highlights the foundation upon which this research study was based.

3.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the study were as follows:

- To determine how security officers, perceive the management of their performance.

- To determine to what extent security officers' perceptions of performance management were related to actual job performance.

- To determine to what extent security officers' perceptions of their own performance were related to actual work performance.

- To determine to what extent biographical factors such as age, educational level, age, marital status and number of dependants were linked to perceptions about performance management at the company.

- To make recommendations about the management of security officers' performance.

The empirical research phase explained in this chapter comprised a number of steps, as outlined in figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Steps in the research process

Step 1: Formulation of the research questions
↓
Step 2: Detemination of the sample
↓
Step 3: Choice and motivation of the measuring instrument
↓
Step 4: Administration of the measuring instrument
↓
Step 5: Scoring and capturing of the data
↓
Step 6: Statistical processing of the data
↓
Step 7: Reporting and interpretation of the results
↓
Step 8: Integration of the research findings
↓
Step 9: Formulation of research conclusions, limitations and recomendations

3.3   DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

There are three kinds off sampling, namely probability, non-probability and mixed method sampling. Probability sampling means that any element or member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. Non-probability sampling means that the number of elements is indefinite or cannot be identified individually (Kumar, 2014). According to Affleck (2010), sampling is necessary because it is not possible to study every unit of the total population. Amedeo, Golledge, and Stimson (2009) state that in probability sampling, every unit of the target population has an equal and specified possibility of being selected in the sample. This type of sampling also accommodates sampling error (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Salkind, 2012).

If the goal of the research is to use statistics to make deductions about the population parameters and conclusions based on the sample, then non-probability sampling should be used (Amedeo et al., 2009). For this reason, non-probability sampling was selected for this research study. Non-probability sampling is a sampling technique in which the odds of any member being selected for a sample cannot be calculated. The major advantage of non-probability sampling is that it is cost and time effective. It is also useful when a smaller population is used. One disadvantage of non-probability sampling is that it is impossible to determine whether the study actually represents the population.

In this study, the researched opted for non-probability purposive sampling in the sense that the total population of men working at the security company were selected on the basis of their having completed a DSI assessment as part of the recruitment process. The participants were therefore selected in terms of the purpose of the study. All security officers who had completed the DSI over a period of 12 months were included in the study.

A non-probability purposive sample of n = 183 male security officers was drawn from company records obtained from the HR headcount list. The population comprised only of men of different ages, marital status and educational levels. The members of the sample were sent a letter of consent inviting them to participate in the research study with a self-designed questionnaire. A response rate of 54% resulted in N=119 security officers completed questionnaires.

3.3.1 Representation of the sample

The biographical information of the sample was obtained from the questionnaire developed for the purposes of this study. The purpose of obtaining the biographical information was to determine whether any of these factors would have a negative or positive effect on the performance management of security officers. The representability of the sample when compared to the total population was analysed in terms of race, age, marital status, PSIRA grades and education. The frequency distributions of the sample are provided below.

3.3.1.1   Race

The race distribution of the sample of the population as shown in Table 3.1, indicates that all the security officers were African. This is because no other ethnic group is present among the security officers in the company.

Table 3.1:   Race distribution of sample

Race

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Black	119	100.0	100.0	100.0

3.3.1.2   Age group

The distribution of the sample by age group consisted of individuals aged between of 22 and 29, 30 and 39 and 40 and 54.

Table 3.2:   Distribution of the sample by age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	22 to 29 years	32	26.9	26.9	26.9
	30 to 39 years	63	52.9	52.9	79.8
	40 to 54 years	24	20.2	20.2	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

Figure 3.2: Age groups
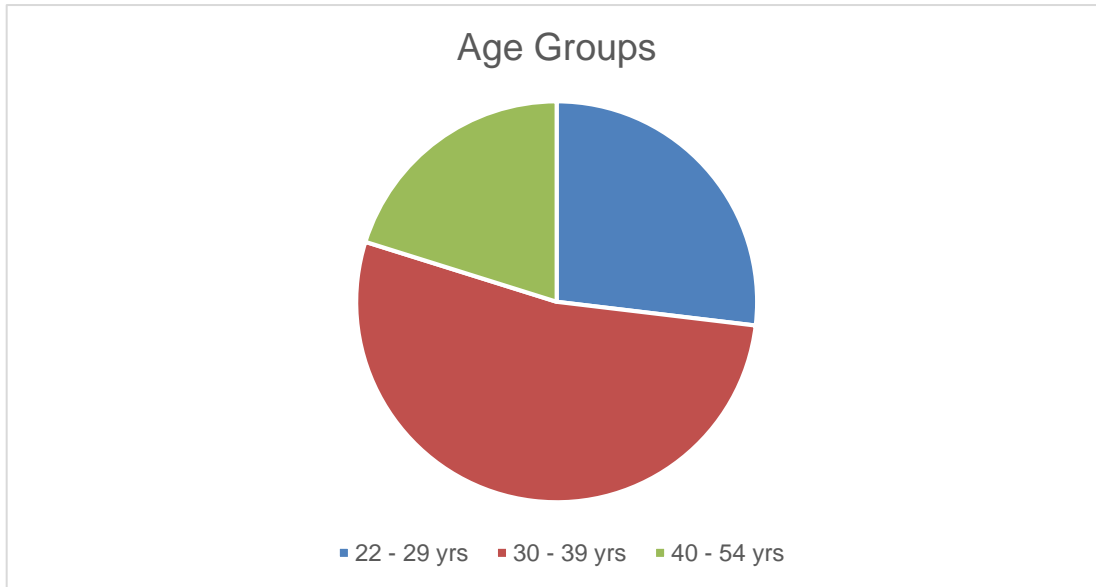
Figure 3.1 clearly shows that the largest age group included employees between the ages of 30 and 39, followed by the second largest group comprising employees between the ages 22 and 29. The older age group of 40 to 54 years was the smallest.

3.3.1.3   Marital status

This question was asked to determine the number of respondents with family responsibilities. The results showed that 61.3% of the respondents were single, while a smaller portion of 36.1% were married. The results are indicated in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3:   Distribution of the sample by marital status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Single	73	61.3	62.9	62.9
	Married	43	36.1	37.1	100.0
	Total	116	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.5		
Total		119	100.0		

3.3.1.4   PSIRA grade

Table 3.4 indicates that most of the security officers, namely 47.1% were performing at Grade C level, followed by Grade D/E at 33.6%. There was a small representation of 11.8% at Grade B, and only 3.4% at Grade A, which is the highest grade. This shows that only a small number of security officers performed at the higher grades (Grades B and A) positions. This indicates that there is a greater need for employees at the Grade D/E and Grade C levels. PSIRA grades are governed by the Private Security Regulation Act which stipulates that all security officers must be registered before being employed. Security officers are graded according to their qualification, experience and training. Each grade is linked to specific functions which in turn linked to a specific rate of pay.

Table 3.4:   Distribution of the sample by PSIRA grade

Grade

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Grade A	4	3.4	3.5	3.5
	Grade B	14	11.8	12.3	15.8
	Grade C	56	47.1	49.1	64.9
	Grade D/E	40	33.6	35.1	100.0
	Total	114	95.8	100.0	
Missing	System	5	4.2		
Total		119	100.0		

3.3.1.5   Education

Table 3.5 shows that most of the respondents had completed Matric, with only a small number having completed higher education.

Table 3.5:   Distribution of the sample by educational level

Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Grade 10-11	24	20.2	20.5	20.5
	Matric	72	60.5	61.5	82.1
	Certificate	17	14.3	14.5	96.6
	Diploma	1	0.8	0.9	97.4
	Diploma (3yrs)	2	1.7	1.7	99.1
	Degree	1	0.8	0.9	100.0
	Total	117	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.7		
Total		119	100.0		

3.3.1.6   Statistical information of distribution of sample

Table 3.6 depicts a statistical analysis of respondents' biographical information extracted from the questionnaire. This information was asked to determine the respondents' responsibilities and the impact these might have on their individual performance. The information is provided in Table 3.6 below.

Mean representation:	
Age	33.90
Tenure in post	2.392
Tenure in company	2.000
Salary	R3555.20
Number of children	1.689
Number of elderly/family taken care of	2.353
Number of children at pre-school	0.438
Number of children at primary school	0.818
Number of children at secondary school	0.427
Number of children at home or student	0.586

Table 3.6   Statistical analysis of sample

		Age	Tenure (post)	Tenure (company)	Salary	Number of children	Number of elderly/ family members you take care of	Number of children: Pre-school	Number of children: Primary school	Number of children: Secondar (high) school	Number of children: Student or at home
N	Valid	115	116	116	114	119	119	112	110	110	111
	Missing	4	3	3	5	0	0	7	9	9	8
Mean		33.90	2.392	2.491	3555.20	1.689	2.353	0.438	0.818	0.427	0.586
Median		34.00	2.000	2.000	3482.00	2.000	2.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000
Std. Deviation		5.969	1.5894	1.5645	239.662	1.2805	1.2662	0.6119	0.8901	0.6699	1.2171
Minimum		22	0.9	0.0	3482	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Maximum		54	13.0	13.0	4571	4.0	4.0	3.0	4.0	3.0	8.0

The above data indicates that the average age of the sample is 33.90, which indicates a fairly middle aged workforce. The data further indicates that on average the tenure of security officers in their current post and in the company has been two years. The data indicated that each security officer has children and or elderly family members they support. The average salary was R3555.20 which is representative of a Grade C salary at the time of the study.

3.4   CHOICE OF AND MOTIVATION FOR THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

A quantitative research design was chosen for this study. The statistical processes used to investigate the research objectives focused on making use of descriptive factors and correlational analysis. The type of data required largely determined the research method to be used. The study comprised both primary and secondary data. Using the quantitative research design for this study, a questionnaire was used as the primary data collection method. A questionnaire is a form of a structured interview process where all respondents are asked the same set of questions with the same options in answering questions. Salkind (2012) explains that one of the advantages of using a questionnaire is the fact that it is self-administered and therefore much less time-consuming. However he also cautions that one of the major disadvantages of using questionnaires is that the response- rate is much lower than other methods because people have to make an effort to complete and return the questionnaire (Salkind, 2012). Questionnaires were used in this study because they are cost- effective and easy to administer to a large sample.

A Likert -scale is used for multidimensional attitudes and was used to elicit answers. It consists of a selection of statements about the attitudinal object wherein each participant in the study indicates their degree to which he or she agrees or disagrees with a statement. When developing a rating scale, a verbal label should be attached to each response option so that the meaning of the rating for the respondents is clear (Salkind, 2012). To reduce the effect of central tendency, the researcher specifically selected a four-point Likert scale with verbal labels assigned to each score, as indicated below:

Never true	Occasionally true	Often true	Always true
1	**2**	**3**	**4**

3.5   DEVELOPMENT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

After a careful review of the literature on the topic, the researcher was unable to find a suitable questionnaire to address the aims of this research. The researcher therefore developed a questionnaire with input from the head of the department, supervisors and HR colleagues in the security company. The instrument was used to measure the components of an effective performance management system, and the behaviours and attitudes of security officers. The content of the questionnaire was based on the literature review in chapter 2. To compile the questionnaire items, the researcher conducted an exhaustive study of the literature, which included research articles and subject-specific books on the topics of performance management behaviours and attitudes in the workplace.

Once the researcher fully understood the content, the questionnaire was compiled according to a structured format. A structured questionnaire provides alternatives in each question, with the respondent having to select and mark the applicable answer. However, before the actual items could be developed, the researcher had to first decide on the type of rating scale to use. Various types of tests are utilised in research. One of the most common is known as attitude tests or scales, which attempt to measure people's feelings about a person, event or object (Salkind, 2012). Attitude tests or scales are different from

achievement tests, which are generally used in society to assess individuals' competence in a specific subject. According to Salkind (2012), two methods are used to create two different types of scales, namely the Likert and the Thurstone. The Likert (1932) scale was chosen for this study because of its extensive application and ease of development. The Thurstone scale is a unidimensional scale that is used to track respondent's behaviour, attitude or feeling towards a subject. This scale consists of statemenst about a particular issue or topic where each statement has a numerical value that indicates the respondents' attitude toward the topic as favourable or unfavourable. This scale was not chosen due to the nature of it being a two stepped approach measuring only agree or disagree options.

3.5.1 Rationale for the questionnaire

The purpose of the questionnaire was to assess the performance management of security officers and to determine whether the DSI assessment had any impact on the performance of security officers. The researcher believed that the results would help to determine performance management strategies aimed specifically at improved performance and service delivery to the company's client base.

3.5.2 Description of the questionnaire

This study made use of primary and secondary data.

3.5.2.1   *Primary data*

The primary data was collected by means of a questionnaire based on the respondents' perceptions. The questionnaire consisted of the following three sections:

SECTION	INFORMATION
Biographical details	The biographical details of the respondents included the following elements: age, marital status, number of dependants, and number of years of service with the

SECTION	INFORMATION
Work performance, behaviour and treatment in the workplace	This section covered the performance behaviours of the respondents, and the behaviour and treatment of security officers in the workplace based on the respondents perceptions.
Self-reported behaviours	This section covered the respondents' self-reported behaviours.

3.5.2.2   Secondary data

The secondary data information was retrieved by using company records recorded on the company's HRIS data base. The information is based on the performance of security officers, however, not formally structured in a performance management system. The data that was obtained included the following:

o   DSI company records;
o   company absenteeism records;
o   company sick leave records; and
o   company disciplinary records.

3.5.3 Administration and interpretation of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was based on a self-reported paper-based questionnaire that was self-administered individually. The aim was not to exceed 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire, but a time limit was not enforced. The respondents received a consent letter explaining the purpose of the study and the need for the research, along with a copy of the questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed by means of the supervisors when doing their daily rounds, in a sealed envelope. The reason for distribution by the

supervisors was due to the geographical spread of the various sites where participants were rostered. Each respondent completed the questionnaire whilst on shift at his own time and pace. No time limit was given for the completion of the questionnaire. Completed questionnaires were placed in an envelope, sealed by the employee in order to provide the necessary privacy and to protect the employee. Envelopes where returned by the supervisors once completed and confirmed by the student as being received untampered. The respondents indicated their willingness to participate by accepting and signing the consent letter attached to the questionnaire. The instructions for each section were explained at the commencement of the questionnaire. The respondents were requested to rate each item as honestly as possible on the four-point Likert scale provided. The higher the number the respondents selected on the scale, the higher their agreement was with the specific item. All of the items required only one answer. The questionnaire was administered to individuals. Since the questionnaire was self-explanatory, no supervision was required.

The respondents' responses were captured by the researcher on a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet designed to represent each item. The interpretation of the questionnaire was conducted by means of statistical processes, as contained in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

3.5.4 Reliability and validity of the questionnaire

When data is submitted for factor analysis, factual validity can be established by validating if the theorised dimensions materialise (Gebotys, 2010; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Salkind (2012) distinguishes between content and construct validity by stating that the former is an evaluation of the degree to which an item represents the entire universe of items, and the latter is the measure of the degree to which a test gauges an underlying construct. A questionnaire was developed by the researcher with input from the relevant head of department, supervisors and HR colleagues of the security company to ensure that the questions would enable the researcher to identify the underlying constructs of performance management. Corrections and or amendments were made to the questionnaire based on

the feedback received. In addition to this step, the questionnaire was submitted to a University of South Africa (UNISA) statistician to validate. Amendments were made on the basis of the statistician's recommendations.

Reliability refers to the probability that a particular measurement procedure will generate the same results if applied repeatedly to the same object (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). It is essential to determine a test score's reliability before establishing its validity (Struwig & Stead, 2001), since reliability is a necessary but not sufficient condition of validity (Salkind, 2006). In other words, the scores on a measure can be reliable but invalid, but the scores on a measure cannot be valid without being reliable first.

The reliability of the questionnaire was ascertained by the Cronbach alpha coefficients (developed by Cronbach in 1951) which are reported on in chapter 4. The Cronbach alpha is a means of measuring how consistently each item assesses the same underlying construct (Girden & Kabacoff, 2011; Salkind, 2012). According to Pallant (2005), a reliability coefficient of 0.70 or more is generally considered sufficient. Cronbach alpha values are sensitive to the numbers of items in the scale and with items less that ten, it is common to find low Cronbach values. If this is the case, it is deemed necessary to report the mean inter-item correlations for the items. Owing to the factor analysis identifying too many constructs consisting of too few items, a decision was made to make use of formative analysis. Formative analysis requires the researcher to categorise items according to constructs identified by previous research and published in scholarly articles. Spearman's correlations were used to explore the strength of the relationship between the variables in terms of positive or negative strengths.

In light of the purpose of this study, in which the aim was not to make individual predictions based on the questionnaire, but rather to investigate broad trends and certain relations between variable, the instrument was deemed psychometrically acceptable for the purpose of the study.

3.5.5 Motivation for the choice of the measuring Instrument

As previously stated, a suitable pretested and established questionnaire or measuring instrument which evaluated the performance, behaviour and treatment in the workplace of security guards was the chosen instrument for this study. Hence the questionnaire was used for this research study because it had been specifically developed to test the research objectives of this study.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION: ADMINISTRATION AND SCORING OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

In line with the research design chosen for this study, a questionnaire was used to collect the data. The precise data collection procedure that was followed is shown in table 3.7. The data was gathered over a period of one month. Once a satisfactory number of completed surveys were received, the survey was closed so that the data analysis could commence. None of the participants involved in the research process was harmed in any way during the research process.

Table 3.7: Data collection

Steps	Details
Step 1: Ethical Considerations	Permission for the research was obtained from the research ethics committee of the institution. A certificate awarding ethical clearance was received and recorded. The researcher undertook to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of all research participants at all times.
Step 2: Cover letter and welcome message	A cover letter (in the form of a letter of consent) was drafted with all the necessary information the participants required such as the aim of the study, potential benefits, voluntary participation and withdrawal. The researcher's contact details were provided for further enquiries. The participants were informed that they

	were consenting voluntarily to participate in the study by completing the questionnaire and that no payment would be provided in return for completing the questionnaire.
Step 3: Questionnaire development	The questionnaire was developed and sent for confirmation to the institution. Once confirmed for use, the questionnaire was finalised. The final questionnaire included three sections dealing with biographical information, performance management and questions based on performance, behaviours and treatment in the workplace. Instructions for the completion of the questionnaire were provided at the beginning of the questionnaire.
Step 4: Pretesting of the questionnaire	The questionnaire was sent to a small group of experts in the field of performance management as a means of pre-testing the questionnaire. Minor changes were made, and the questionnaire was finalised.
Step 5: Invitation to participate sent out to sample	The letter of consent form, which had been previously drafted in step 2, as well as the questionnaire, was sent out to the sample of the study as an invitation to participate in a research study.
Step 6: Waiting period	The researcher waited for a sufficient response rate before closing the survey.
Step 7: Scoring of data	All completed responses were received and captured on the researcher's Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The responses were arranged according to the codes that had been previously set.
Step 8: Downloading data set	The data was captured on a Mircosoft Excel spreadsheet, followed by a data cleaning process, after which SPSS was used for the statistical processing of the data.

3.7   STATISTICAL ANALYSIS LINKED TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research is the means through which the research questions are tested (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). A set of questions is basically an idea, assumption, prediction or speculative explanation for a relationship, situation, observation or phenomenon (Kumar, 2014). Once the theory behind a specific subject has been examined in detail, the questions are usually posed as the basis for conducting the empirical research. Null and alternative hypothesis are formulated. According to Salkind (2012), a null hypothesis declares equality, which implies that a relationship does not exist between two variables in a research study. Conversely, an alternative hypothesis (research hypothesis) is a statement of inequality and therefore the existence of a relationship between two variables (Salkind, 2012). This clarifies the need for the formulation of an alternative hypothesis for each null hypothesis that is found.

Once the literature review had been concluded, the research objectives were formulated according to the knowledge gained from the part of the study. Table 3.8 indicates the research objectives that were formulated for the research study, along with the statistical procedures that were used to address the research objectives.

Table 3.8: Research questions and statistical procedures used

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH OBJECTIVE	STATISTICAL PROCEDURE
Research objective 1: To determine how security officers at the company perceive the management of their performance.	Factor analysis
Research objective 2: To determine to what extent security officers' perceptions about performance management are related to actual job performance.	Correlations

Research objective 3: To determine to what extent security officers' perceptions about their own performance are related to actual work performance.	Correlations
Research objective 4: To determine to what extent biographical factors such as age, educational level, marital status and number of dependants, influence perceptions about performance management at the company.	Correlations
Research aim 5: To make recommendations about the performance management of security officers.	

3.8   DATA ANALYSIS: STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA

SPSS version 22.0 was used for the statistical analysis of the data for this study. The research data obtained from the study was entered into the program to generate the necessary tests required for further analysis. The essence of a quantitative study is that the data is analysed by means of statistics (Punch, 2014), and expressed numerically (Bordens & Abbot, 2014). To produce the best research results, the researcher must have a sound grasp of statistical tools and processes. A brief description of each of the statistical processes used in this study is therefore provided in this section.

During the process of data analysis, data is usually organised, described and tested against the pre-established hypotheses. Organising the data includes examining it, checking for accuracy, entering it into the processor, transforming it, and developing and documenting a database structure that integrates the different measures. For the purpose of this research, a statistician performed this step in the research process. By describing the data, the essential characteristics of the data are shown. Descriptions generally include summaries and graphical illustrations of the data, which are extremely helpful since the data is easily available and clear. The final and most important step of data analysis is the

testing of questions. This step allows the researcher to either confirm or refute the different theories stemming from the literature review. Conclusions can then be drawn which can be used to make recommendations as a basis for possible further research.

In the present study, data was analysed by means of factor analysis and correlations. Figure 3.3 indicates the different steps followed in the empirical research process and the statistical processes performed.

Figure 3.3: Statistical processes
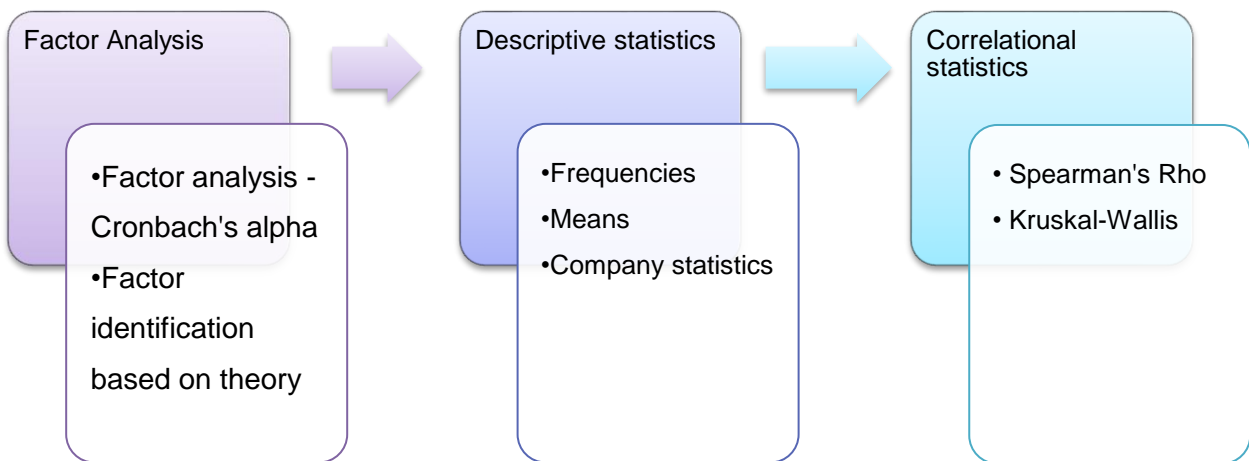
3.8.1   Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to portray the data or to provide summaries to assist with further examination and to help justify the researcher's choices of different statistical techniques (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Welman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2005). A comprehensive overview of the data is provided by descriptive statistics (Nisber, Elder, & Milner, 2009). In this study, the descriptive statistics included factor analysis, frequencies, means and correlations.

3.8.1.1 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a conventional multivariate analysis technique used to classify underlying variables or constructs from a set of observed variables (Lamb, Wolfinbarger, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2015). It is normally used to rationalise patterns that occur between variables (Nisber et al., 2009). This type of analysis permits the number of variables representing a certain construct to be reduced (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Salkind, 2012). During factor analysis correlations between variables are studied and strong relationships indicate similar factors within the data (Salkind, 2012).

Factor analysis is not designed to test hypotheses or to tell whether one group is significantly different from another. This factor analytic technique has a number of different uses. It can be used to reduce a large number of related variables to a more manageable number prior to using it in other analyses such as multiple regression or multivariate analysis of variance (Pallant, 2011).

The section was sub-divided to elicit various information on factors relating to work performance, behaviours and treatment. The researcher did not make use of factor analysis as it is commonly known but decided to identify factors on an -priori basis. The main factors of the questionnaire items were related to the components of an effective performance management system, which are listed below:

- realistic work expectations;
- supervision;
- training/mentoring;
- policy/procedures;
- rewards/recognition;
- support;
- information;
- interpersonal relationships;
- satisfaction;

- commitment; and
- quality of work life.

3.8.1.2 Frequencies and means

In certain cases, the frequency data was analysed to describe how respondents reacted to certain items and as a support for theories held by the researcher when interpreting results. Firstly, one of the most common research statistics is an analysis of the central tendency. There are three measures of central tendency, namely mean, mode and median (Punch, 2014). However, the one most commonly used and most reliable in research is the mean (M) (Salkind, 2012). The mean is a statistical model used to indicate the midpoint or centre of the distribution of the scores (Field, 2013). In simple terms, the mean basically specifies the average of the respondents' scores. The mean is calculated by adding all the scores and dividing by the number of scores. By contrast, the standard deviation (SD) indicates how the raw data is spread around the mean (Nisber et al., 2009). In other words, the standard deviation is an approximation of the average variability of a data set (Punch, 2014). Smaller values in terms of standard deviations indicate that the scores gather close to the mean, while larger values indicate that the scores stray further from the mean. The mean and standard deviation provide beneficial information on the distribution of a set of scores.

3.8.1.3 Correlations

Spearman's correlation was used to identify the direction and strength of the relationships between the performance management of security officers related to the perceived and actual performance and biographical factors. The level of significance set for this study was $p \leq .05$. This suggests that there is a 95% confidence level that the results from the sample can be generalised to the relationships of the total population (Salkind, 2012). The purpose of correlations is to determine the nature of the relationship between distinct variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Salkind, 2012; Welman et al., 2005). The correlation coefficients range between -1 (perfect negative correlation) and 1 (perfect positive

correlation) taking on any values in between (Salkind, 2012). Positive correlations imply that an increase in one variable will result in the increase in the other, while negative correlations imply an inverse relationship where one variable increases the other decreases. However, it should be noted that correlations do not explain cause (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

Once statistically significant relationships have been identified, the focus turns to the practical effect size of the correlation. The effect size refers to the magnitude of the relationship between the variables (Field, 2013). Simply put, the effect size is used to establish the degree of the significance of the relationship between two variables. The size of the correlation coefficient illustrates the strength of the relationship between variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). A distinction should be made between the significance level and effect size. A significance level merely refers to the probability of whether or not a difference exists in the sample of the population, whereas the effect size refers to the actual magnitude of the difference (Field, 2013).

The statistically significant ($p \leq .05$) correlation coefficients (r) found in the present study were interpreted according to the guidelines set by (Cohen, 1992), namely - $r \geq .10$ (small practical effect); $r \geq .30$ (medium practical effect); and $r \geq .50$ (large practical effect).

3.9   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Of central importance to research methodology and to support the integrity of findings, strict ethical considerations should be adhered to.

To ensure that all the ethical conditions were satisfied in this study, the following procedures were applied in terms of the methods employed to conduct the research:

- The research was conducted within recognised limits.
- Written permission was obtained from the host institution.

- Conventional and current resources were embraced when analysing and describing concepts.

- Theories by experts in the field of research were accessed to ensure that a scientific research process was carried out.

- Every source that was used was quoted and explicitly referenced.

- Participation in this study was completely voluntary without intimidation, force or bribery.

- Secondary data was obtained using company reported information. Permission was not sought from participants on the use of secondary data as this was deemed as company information.

In terms of the protection of participant privacy the following procedures were adhered to:

- The informed and voluntary consent of every participant was required.

- The cover letter of consent provided participants with all the information on the research, including the aim and objectives of the study. The researcher's contact details were also provided.

- The survey was distributed to participants in a sealed envelope with the assistance of supervisors.

- The confidentiality of participants was ensured.

- The participant's information will not be identifiable to anyone reading the final report.

- Participants had the option of choosing not to participate in the study before submitting the questionnaire.

In terms of the protection of data storage the following procedures were adhered to:

- The questionnaires were saved on an online database that was secured by means of a password.

- The data will be retained for a period of five years on an external hard drive.

- The data is password protected.

- A computer software program was used to delete all electronic data stored on the external hard drive. The hard drive was then formatted. The researcher will keep a record of what was deleted and when.

3.10   SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the empirical investigation and the methods adopted in the study. The chapter started with an introduction, which listed the steps followed in this part of the study. Thereafter each step was explained in detail, which included the following: the determination of the sample, a description of the measuring instrument, the data collection process, formulation of objectives for the study and the data analysis processes applied. A discussion of the ethical considerations of the study concluded the chapter.

RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to report on and discuss the statistical results of the study and integrate the empirical research findings with the information derived from the literature review. The statistical results pertaining to the research objectives, which were presented in chapter 1, were reported on in chapter 3.

The empirical study continued with the following steps in this chapter:

➢ Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results.
➢ Step 8: Integrating the research findings.

The statistical results were reported on in terms of descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics.

4.2 IDENTIFICATION OF THE CONSTRUCTS RELATING TO PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

In this study an exploratory factor analysis was performed, but the factors that were identified did not make logical sense in relation to the existing literature on performance management. The factor analysis furthermore required the elimination of a large number of items. Formative research involves a type of developmental research or action research intended to improve design theory for designing the instructional practices of processes (Reigeluth & Frick, 1999). In the current study, items were grouped logically on the basis of the existing literature on performance management. The study was exploratory in nature because there were "no clear, single set of outcomes" (Yin, 1984, p. 25). According to

Reigeluth and Frick (1999) in the instance of a designed case to develop a new theory, the methodological concerns centre around the following processes:

- Create a case to help you generate the design theory.
- Collect and analyse formative data on the instance
- Revise the instance.
- Repeat the data collection and revision cycle.
- Fully develop your tentative theory.

Because this study was exploratory with the aim of designing instructional practices for the management of performance, the researcher opted for a self-developed questionnaire. The questionnaire was based on performance management practices and principles, which the researcher intended to measure within the workplace. Section B was divided into subsections to elicit information on the performance factors relating to work performance, behaviours and treatment in the workplace.

The questionnaire items were identified in order to address various components critical to the effective implementation of a performance management system. Hence questions relating to behaviour, performance and workplace treatment were included in the questionnaire. The following 11 factors as regards to the effective management of performance were identified:

1. realistic work expectations;
2. supervision;
3. training (mentoring);
4. rewards/recognition;
5. policy/procedure;
6. support;
7. information;
8. interpersonal relationships;
9. satisfaction;

10.   commitment; and

11.   quality of work life.

Each of the factors is discussed below and statistics on the means of each factors provided. The descriptions of the scales were used to help with the interpretation of the descriptive statistics. The highest scale option (4) indicated that the participant strongly agreed (always true) with the item, while the lowest scale option (1) (never true) indicated that the participant strongly disagreed with the item.

4.2.1   Realistic work expectations

The purpose of this factor was to determine whether security officers deemed their work expectations to be realistic in terms of coping with tasks and workloads as well as job standards and fair workloads.

Figure 4.1: Realistic work expectations

Legend:
- I cope with the tasks for my job
- I can cope with my daily tasks
- I cope with my workload
- I am expected to meet fair job standards
- I am expected to handle fair workloads
- Average = 3.68 [alpha = 0.698; IIC = 0.330]

Figure 4.1 indicates an average mean score of 3.68. Most of the respondents confirmed that they did cope with the tasks of their job and were expected to handle fair workloads, although some of them felt that their workloads were not fair, which could impact on fair job standards. The results seem to indicate that the respondents were more concerned about coping with their tasks than with meeting fair job standards.

4.2.2 Supervision

The purpose of this factor was to determine the role played by a supervisor in the management of security officers' performance.

Figure 4.2: Supervision
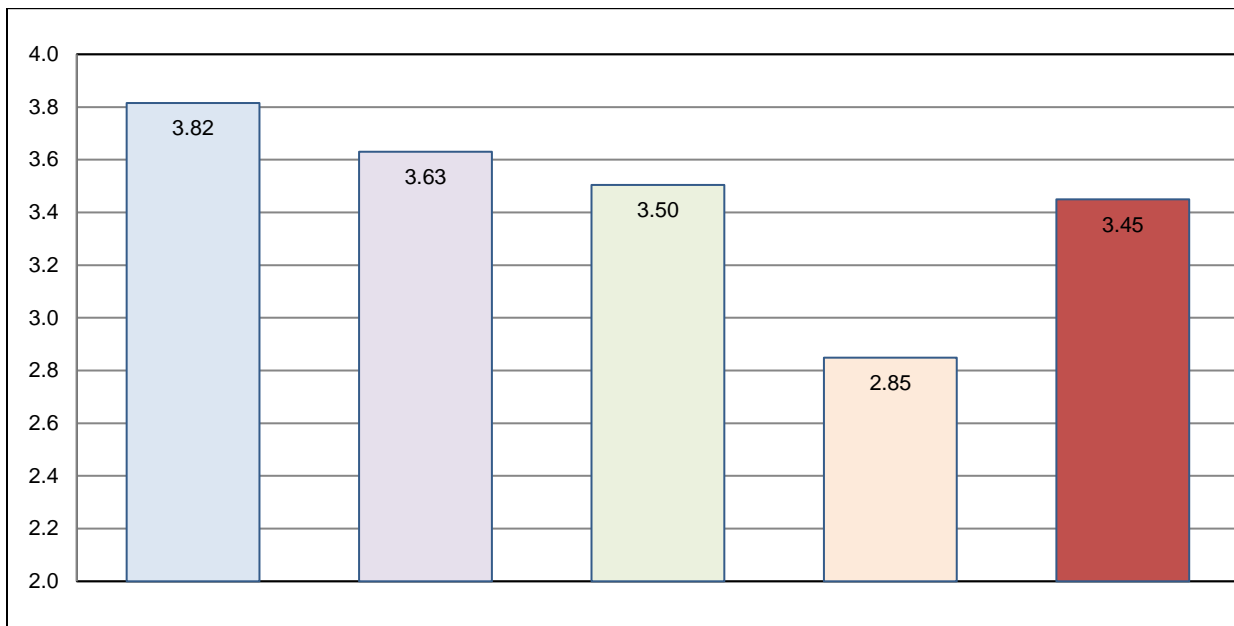
	My supervisor is satisfied with my work performance
	I do feel free to discuss work related problems with my supervisor
	My supervisor or manager usually approves my leave request
	I do feel free to discuss personal related problems with my supervisor or management
	Average = 3.45 [alpha = 0.564; IIC = 0.245]

Figure 4.2 indicates the responses to the role played by supervisors in performance management. The average mean score was 3.45, indicating that the respondents' supervisors did play an important role in performance management. The lowest mean score of 2.85 indicates that the respondents appeared less inclined to discuss personal problems with their supervisor or manager and, the highest mean score of 3.82 showed that supervisors were generally satisfied with security officers' work performance. Overall, the results indicated that respondents were comfortable discussing work-related problems, but not personal problems with their supervisors and in turn the supervisors were satisfied with their work. Effective supervision is one of the key aspects of performance management and relates to mutual trust between employees and management.

4.2.3   Training (mentoring)

The purpose of this factor was to determine whether employees had knowledge of their jobs and whether training was deemed as a necessary factor in the performance management of security officers.

Figure 4.3: Training (mentoring)

Legend:
- I received induction training when I was employed by the company
- I have the knowledge to do my job
- I have the necessary skills to do my job

I think the training I received was effective for me to perform my job correctly

I receive follow-up training on my site procedures

I may perform better if I were to receive feedback on my work performance

I am given jobs in which I must handle unpredictable situations

Average = 3.50 [alpha = 0.313; IIC = 0.081]

Figure 4.3 indicates an average score of 3.50 which indicates that the respondents viewed training/mentoring in the management of security officers' performance as an important factor in the performance of their jobs. Overall, there was a strong indication that the respondents viewed training/mentoring and having the necessary skills to do their jobs as a positive factor in the management of performance. However, the security officers did not agree strongly on situations relating to jobs in which they are required to handle unpredictable situations. It would therefore seem that the company does not present security officers with many unpredictable situations. The security officers indicated that they would probably perform better it they were given feedback on their work performance. This indicates a need by security officers to be recognised and provided with sufficient feedback on their performance. The lack of providing respondents with feedback on their work performance could lead to a decline in other factors of performance management, such as interpersonal relationships, support and commitment.

4.2.4 Rewards/recognition

The purpose of this factor was to determine whether respondents felt they were valued and recognised in terms of being respected and treated with dignity.

Figure 4.4: Rewards/recognition

Legend:
- I am being held accountable for my actions
- I am treated with respect and dignity by co-workers
- I am recognized for work done well
- Security guards are respected enough*
- Security guards have powerful positions
- Employees who do well in their work are rewarded
- **Average = 2. 80 [alpha = 0.608; IIC = 0.202]**

* indicates reverse scoring of items.
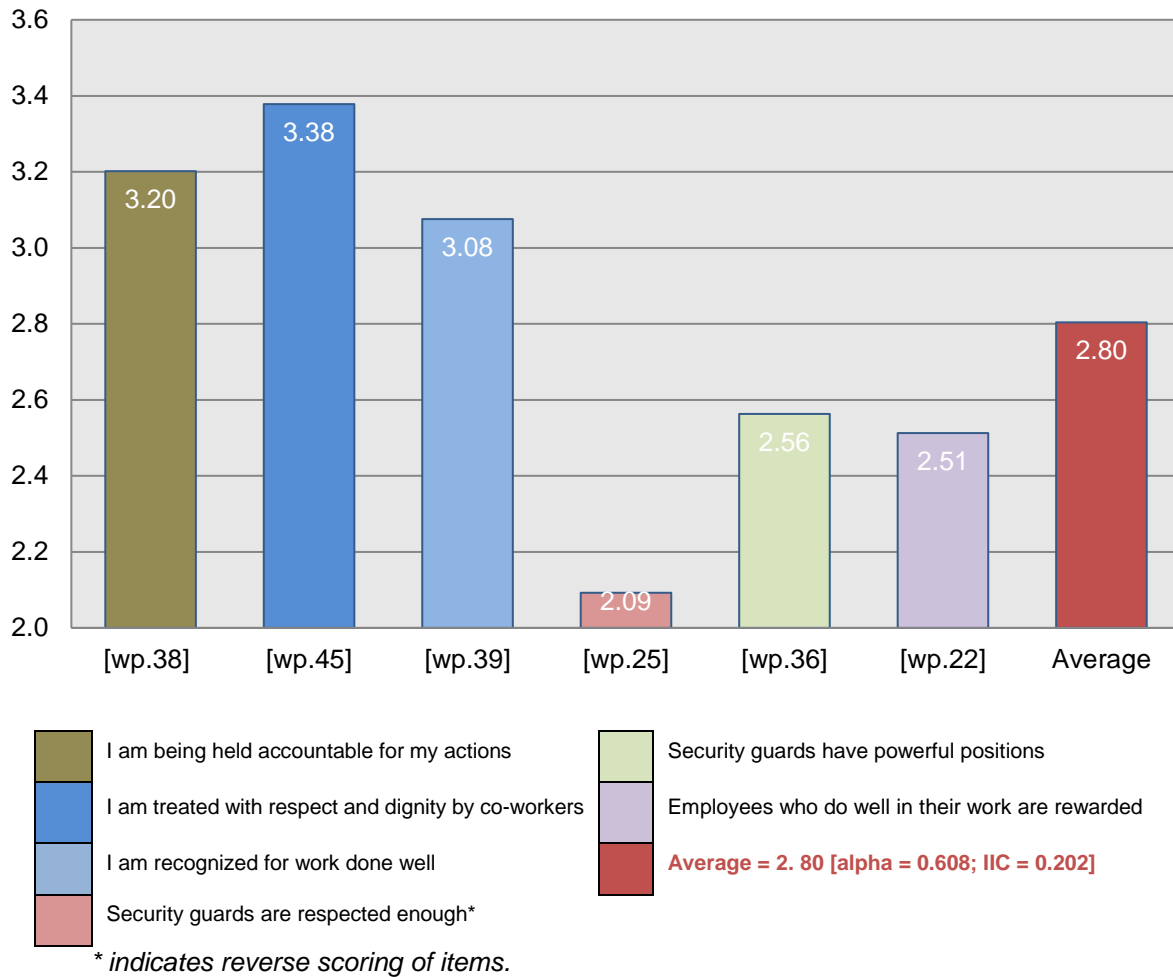
Figure 4.4 indicates an average mean score of 2.80. This mean score was lower than the other factors relating to performance management which, indicates that security officers might have concerns about rewards and recognition. A lower than average score indicates that security officers feel that they do not have powerful positions, and they did not feel that they were rewarded for work done well. Notably, a low score of 2.09, indicates that security officers felt that were not respected enough. This could be ascribed to the treatment they receive from their supervisors, managers, clients or the public, or it could be viewed as the general public's lack of respect for security officers in general. In the eyes of the public, security officers feel that they are not respected, although they do feel that they are treated with respect by their co-workers.

4.2.5 Policy/procedure

The purpose of this factor was to determine how important the company's policies and procedures are in the management of security officers' performance.

Figure 4.5: Policy/procedure
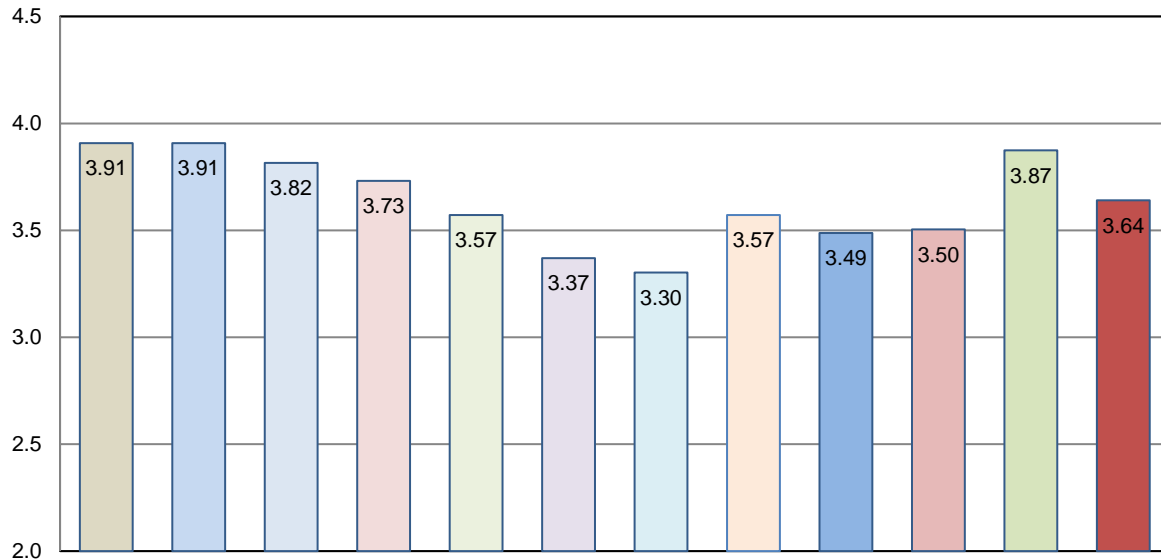
Legend:
- I am required to tell my supervisors of all problems at my site
- I always try not to have an injury on duty (IOD)
- I follow the company's procedure for booking off sick
- I always adhere to company's Health and Safety policy
- I always comply with the safety equipment provided to me
- My company applies a strict policy on the handing in of medical certificates – even for one day absences
- Sick leave days given per annum are enough for me
- I would not rather take sick leave than annual leave*
- My company does not take corrective steps or disciplinary actions against employees who abuse sick eave
- The process of applying for leave in my company does not take a long time*
- I have not asked a doctor to provide me with a medical certificate without being really sick*
- **Average = 3.64 [alpha = 0.564; IIC = 0.135]**

reverse scoring of items.

Figure 4.5 depicts the security officers' view on the company's policies and procedures. They strongly agreed that they are required to tell supervisors of any problems on site, which is further underscored by the positive scores for attempting not to sustain any injuries on duty, adhering to company health and safety policies, and complying with the safety equipment provided to them. There was a slightly lower agreement about security officers feeling that they were not provided with enough sick leave per annum, and they responded negatively by indicating that they would rather take annual leave than sick leave. The respondents indicated that the company tends to take corrective steps or disciplinary action against employees who abuse sick leave, and they confirmed that they had not asked a doctor for a medical certificate without being sick.

4.2.6 Support

The purpose of this factor was to identify whether security officers felt they were supported by both management and company resources/processes to ensure an effective performance management system for security officers.

Figure 4.6: Support

Legend:
- I am provided with the necessary site equipment (e.g. base radio, pepper spray, torch, baton etc.) to perform my job
- Employees may lodge a grievance when they feel that they have not been treated fairly
- The company provides tools such as suggestion boxes, grievance and disciplinary procedures to protect employees against any unfair or discriminatory treatment
- I am being listened to when I make suggestions
- My work performance does not depend on the performance of others*
- Average = 3.25 [alpha = 0.454; IIC = 0.158]

indicates reverse scoring of items.

The items represented in figure 4.6 indicate an average mean score of 3.25. In terms of support provided to security officers, they agreed that they are provided with the necessary equipment and support to execute their duties. The respondents indicated that they felt they were listened to when making suggestions and their work performance did not depend on the performance of others. The fact that the security officers felt that they were not listened to enough (mean = 3.02) supports the result that they were not respected enough and did not hold powerful positions. The lack of feedback from supervisors/managers could also have an influence on security officers' performance and hamper the promotion of a positive environment for an effective performance management system.

4.2.7 Information

The purpose of this factor was to determine the importance of information and communication in the management of performance.

Figure 4.7: Information

I am aware of my company's leave/sick leave policy and procedures

I am aware of my company's disciplinary policy and procedure

The training I receive helps me to perform in my job

My tasks are clearly explained to me

Average = 3.79 [alpha = 0.616; IIC = 0.304]
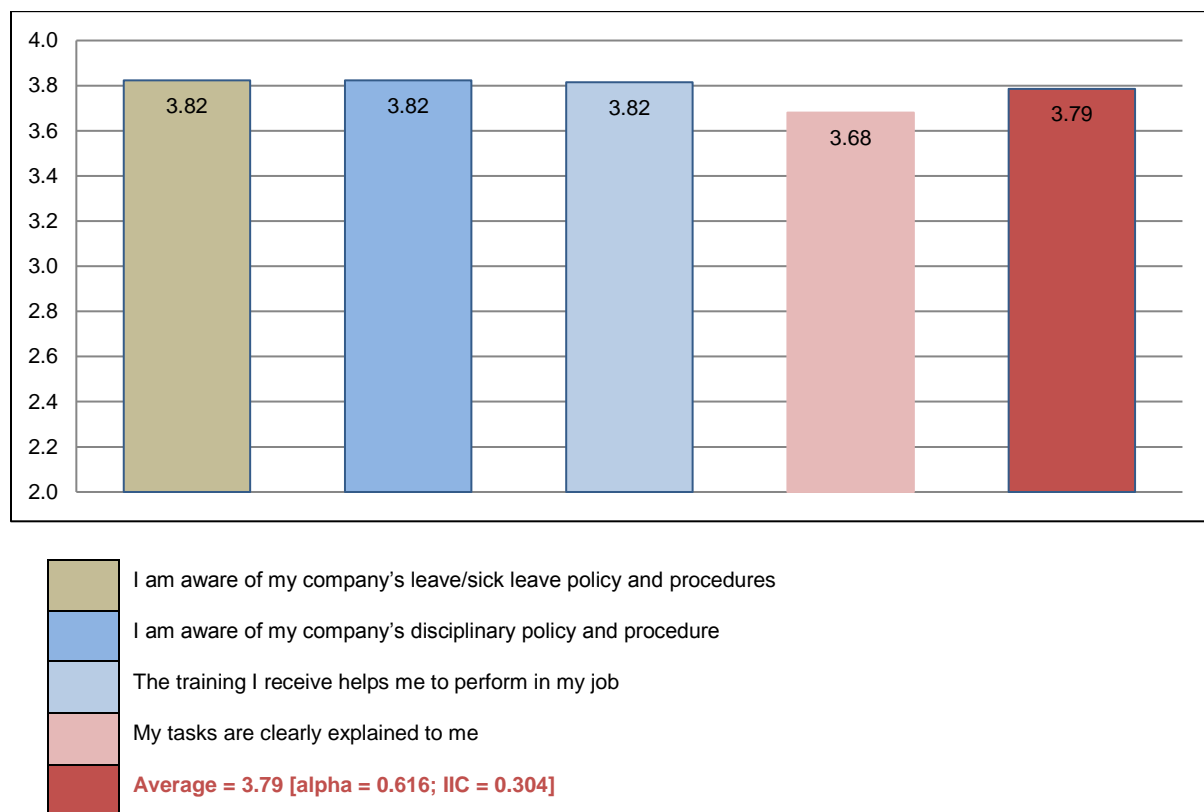
The average mean score of 3.79 indicates that security officers regarded information as important to the management of their performance. According to Figure 4.7, security officers were aware of the company's leave and sick leave policies and procedures, disciplinary policy and procedure. The respondents further agreed that the training they received helped them to perform in their jobs. They also mentioned that the tasks and duties of their jobs had been clearly explained to them.

4.2.8 Interpersonal relationships

Interpersonal relationships are a factor that can have a positive or negative effect on how individuals respond to co-workers, supervisors and managers. The purpose of this factor was thus to determine to what extent interpersonal relationships influence the management of security officers' job performance.

Figure 4.8: Interpersonal relationships

Legend:
- I avoid conflict with my supervisor
- My supervisor checks my occurrence book (OB)
- My supervisor sets a good example
- My supervisor keeps me informed of changes to my site procedures/requirements
- I receive site procedure training when I am changed to a new/different site
- I am motivated by the feedback from my supervisor
- My supervisor's guidance enables me to perform
- My supervisor provides specific feedback on my performance
- **Average= 3.38 [alpha = 0.805; IIC =0.309]**

According to Figure 4.8, the mean score (3.38) indicates that security officers experienced satisfactory interpersonal relationships at work. The lowest score of 2.90 shows that security officers felt they did not receive sufficient specific feedback on individual performance. This might be due to the nature of their role, which is driven by policies and procedures and thus reduces the need for interventions by a supervisor.

4.2.9 Satisfaction

The aim of this factor was to determine to what extent job satisfaction has an influence on the management of security officers' performance.

Figure 4.9: Satisfaction

I am satisfied with the current company benefits (e.g. 13th cheque; provident fund; maternity/paternity leave)
I am in security services because I like the job
I am treated fairly by my company
I do feel that the company has measures to help ill health employees (long sick)
I am satisfied in my current job
I am paid fairly in my current job
I feel that my work performance is above average
Performance management is not a waste of time*
Average = 3.28 [alpha = 0.697; IIC = 0.220]

* indicates reverse scoring of items

Figure 4.9 depicts security officers' satisfaction, with an average mean score of 3.28. Overall security officers were satisfied with their jobs. The highest score of 3.76 demonstrates that security officers felt that performance management was not a waste of time. Other scores indicate that security officers feel that they are in the security services because they enjoy their job and feel they are fairly treated. However, the security officers did mention that they were not fairly paid but, agreed that their performance was above average.

4.2.10 Commitment

The purpose of this factor was to determine to what extent commitment influenced the management of security officers' performance. A secondary aim was to ascertain whether security officers were fully productive during their shifts and whether they used their initiative to resolve problems.

Figure 4.10: Commitment

Legend:
- I work hard, and I am productive for my whole shift
- I only take sick leave when I am sick
- I usually look for ways to improve my work performance
- I take responsibility for the successful completion of tasks
- I am a team player
- I am prepared to make sacrifices to solve a problem
- I do more than what is required of me at work
- I do not feel that it is a right to use all my sick leave in my sick leave cycle*
- I do not report colleagues who abuse sick leave*
- I have not tampered with a Doctor's note*
- I would not rather use my sick leave than come to work sick*
- I do not leave work early or come to work late due to personal/home matters*
- I do not buy a sick note instead of consulting a Doctor*
- **Average = 3.50 [alpha = 0.270; IIC = 0.047]**

* indicates reverse scoring of items

Figure 4.10 reflects the security officers' perspective on their commitment to work. The average mean score was 3.50. The above average scores indicated that the security officers felt that they did work hard and were productive during their shift, only took sick leave when they were ill and looked for ways to improve their performance. The results further indicated that the security officers did not buy sick notes instead of consulting a

doctor, did not tamper with a doctor's note and did not leave early or arrive late for their shift. These results thus reflected the characteristics of a committed employee.

4.2.11 Quality of work life

The purpose of this factor was to determine the importance of security officers having a quality work life as a key factor in the management of performance.

Figure 4.11: Quality of work life
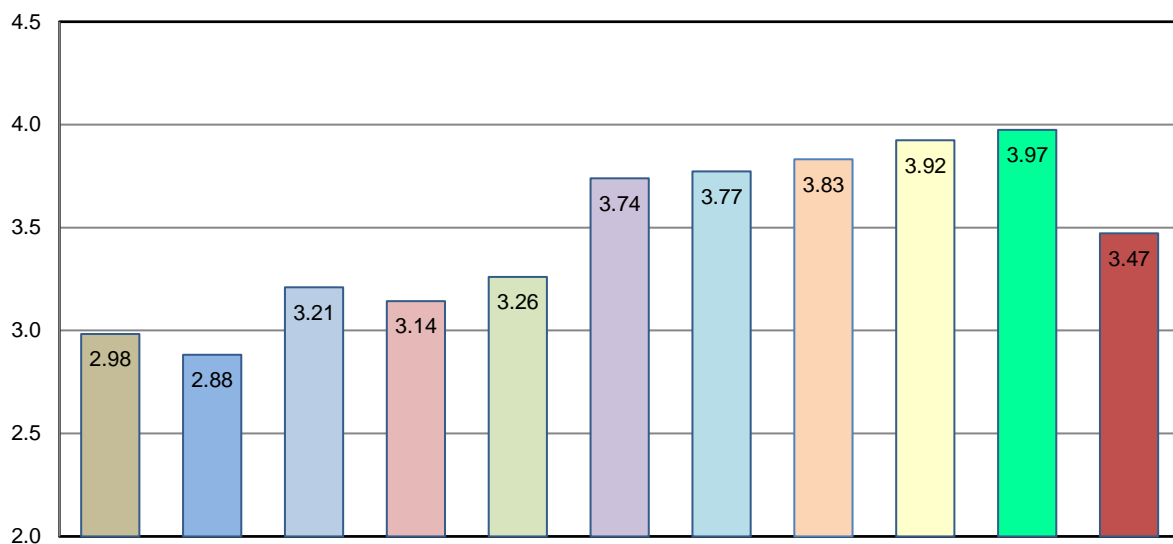
I get leave whenever I need it to attend to my personal or family matters

The company does not treat employees differently because of their personal circumstances such as childcare and transport problems*

I do not find myself very tired to go to work because of traveling long hours between home and work*

Security officers are not bored at work*

Working shifts does not have a negative influence on my personal life*

I do not take sick leave to attend to my personal or family matters*

I do not take sick leave due to stressful situations at work*

I do not sleep at work during working hours*

I do not phone in sick to attend to my personal matters because my manager would not give me time off if I tell him/her the truth*

I do not leave my site unattended to buy food*

Average = 3.47 [alpha = 0.549; IIC = 0.170]

* indicates reverse scoring of items

Figure 4.11 indicates the views of security officers on their quality of work life. The average mean score is 3.47 indicating that security officers were reasonably satisfied with the quality of their work life. According to them, they seldom asked for leave to attend to personal issues. The security officers indicated that they were not tired as a result of travelling long hours between home and work, and that shift work did not have a negative influence on their personal life (mean = 3.21). A small majority of security officers indicated that they were bored at work. The higher than average scores could relate to shift work with security officers indicating that they did not take sick leave to attend to personal or family members. The respondents also mentioned that they did not sleep during working hours. From the above results, it would seem as if security officers experienced a reasonably good quality of work life.

4.3   RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to the extent to which results can be trusted as a true reflection of what is being measured. In terms of qualitative research, terms such as credibility, neutrality or confirmability, consistency or dependability and applicability or transferability are essential criteria for reliability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). They (1985) further highlight "inquiry audit" as a measure which may enhance the dependability of qualitative research. This can examine both process and the product of the research for consistency (Hoepfl, 1997).

Recent research has shown that discovering the truth through measures of reliability and validity is replaced by the idea of trustworthiness, which is "defensible" (Johnson 1997, p. 282) and establishes confidence in the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Nunnally (1978) recommends a minimum Cronbach value of .7. Cronbach alpha values, however are dependent on the number of items in the scale. With a small number of items in the scale (fewer than 10), Cronbach alpha values can be quite small. In this situation, it may be better to calculate and report the mean inter-item correlation for the items. Optimal mean inter-item correlation values range from .2 to .4 (as recommended by Briggs & Cheek, 1986).

In terms of the research conducted for this study, the Cronbach alpha values were found to be lower than .7 for some of the performance management factors. However, it was deemed important to note that all the factors identified were highly related to performance management systems and thus relevant to the management of work performance.

Table 4.1 below provides a description of the performance management factors and the correlating Cronbach alpha values:

Table 4.1: Cronbach alpha values for performance management factors

PERFORMANCE FACTOR	CRONBACH ALPHA SCORES
REALISTIC WORK EXPERIENCE	0.698
SUPERVISION	0.564
TRAINING (MENTORING)	0.313
REWARDS/RECOGNITION	0.608
POLICY/PROCEDURE	0.564
SUPPORT	0.454
INFORMATION	0.616
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP	0.805
SATISFACTION	0.697
COMMITMENT	0.270
QUALITY OF WORK LIFE	0.549

According to Davis (1964) the recommended level should not be below .5 for sample groups over 50. However, for this study, the Cronbach alpha values below .5 were deemed acceptable, because the required degree of reliability was a function of the research and the theoretical justification that reflected experience or logical reasoning.

4.4   FREQUENCIES

One of the aims of this study was to report on the frequencies of certain company-reported and self-reported behaviours.

4.4.1 Company-reported behaviours

In this section, the frequencies of certain behaviours regarding company reported variables are provided. The next section indicates the frequencies of certain behaviours as reported by the security officers, and thereafter the correlation statistics will indicate to what extent there was a relationship between company-reported and self-reported behaviour.

Table 4.2: Behaviours according to company records

Number of days absent

Number of days		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	40	33.6	33.6	33.6
	1	22	18.5	18.5	52.1
	2	8	6.7	6.7	58.8
	3	9	7.6	7.6	66.4
	4	10	8.4	8.4	74.8
	5	8	6.7	6.7	81.5
	6	4	3.4	3.4	84.9
	7	1	0.8	0.8	85.7
	8	3	2.5	2.5	88.2
	9	1	0.8	0.8	89.1
	10	1	0.8	0.8	89.9
	11	2	1.7	1.7	91.6
	12	1	0.8	0.8	92.4
	13	1	0.8	0.8	93.3
	14	2	1.7	1.7	95.0
	16	1	0.8	0.8	95.8
	18	1	0.8	0.8	96.6
	24	2	1.7	1.7	98.3
	41	2	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

According to the statistics on the number of days absent, 47.9% of staff appeared to have been absent for one to five days. In light of the fact that on 18 occasions staff had been absent for four to five days, absenteeism could become a management issue.

Number of sick days

Number of days		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	32	26.9	26.9	26.9
	1	8	6.7	6.7	33.6
	2	13	10.9	10.9	44.5
	3	12	10.1	10.1	54.6
	4	6	5.0	5.0	59.7
	5	5	4.2	4.2	63.9
	6	7	5.9	5.9	69.7
	7	5	4.2	4.2	73.9
	8	4	3.4	3.4	77.3
	9	4	3.4	3.4	80.7
	10	2	1.7	1.7	82.4
	11	3	2.5	2.5	84.9
	12	1	0.8	0.8	85.7
	13	1	0.8	0.8	86.6
	14	1	0.8	0.8	87.4
	15	1	0.8	0.8	88.2
	16	2	1.7	1.7	89.9
	17	1	0.8	0.8	90.8
	18	2	1.7	1.7	92.4
	20	1	0.8	0.8	93.3
	21	1	0.8	0.8	94.1
	23	1	0.8	0.8	95.0
	25	1	0.8	0.8	95.8
	30	1	0.8	0.8	96.6
	31	1	0.8	0.8	97.5
	32	1	0.8	0.8	98.3
	41	1	0.8	0.8	99.2
	299	1	0.8	0.8	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

Sick leave did not seem to be as problematic as days lost due to absenteeism. On 21 occasions, staff have been on sick leave for two to three days. According to the responses of the security officers, 90.1% indicated that they did not abuse sick leave in order to attend to personal or family matters.

Number of disciplinary actions

Number of incidents		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	61	51.3	51.3	51.3
	1	30	25.2	25.2	76.5
	2	20	16.8	16.8	93.3
	3	5	4.2	4.2	97.5
	4	2	1.7	1.7	99.2
	6	1	0.8	0.8	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

It is worthwhile noting that there were 50 cases of disciplinary actions of which 20 involved a second disciplinary action. Disciplinary cases involved breaches in standard operating procedures which are the highest type of disciplinary action taken against security officers. Other disciplinary actions involved security officers not wearing the correct uniform, failure to patrol and harming the company's image and being absent from work.

Disciplinary AWOL

Number of incidents		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	76	63.9	63.9	63.9
	1	28	23.5	23.5	87.4
	2	6	5.0	5.0	92.4
	3	6	5.0	5.0	97.5
	4	3	2.5	2.5	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

Disciplinary AWOL relates to security officers being absent from work, which is regarded as a serious offence in the security industry. These would typically be related to unreported absenteeism, where the security officer has not communicated his absence to this supervisor and is unable to provide a medical certificate should illness be claimed.

The company follows a procedure for any unreported absence of more than three days. In these instances, communication is attempted by means of telegrams, should the employee fail to report his absenteeism, a disciplinary hearing may follow, which could result in the security officer's termination.

Arriving late

Number of incidents		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	106	89.1	89.1	89.1
	1	11	9.2	9.2	98.3
	2	1	0.8	0.8	99.2
	3	1	0.8	0.8	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

According to the statistics, security officers are not often guilty of arriving late for duty with only 11 security officers reportedly having arrived late for work. This corresponds to the security officers' responses, where approximately 90% indicated that they did not leave work early of come to work late.

Sleeping on duty

Number of incidents		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	114	95.8	95.8	95.8
	1	5	4.2	4.2	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

Sleeping on duty did not appear to be a common problem as only five incidences of sleeping of duty were reported. This corresponds to the responses by security officers who indicated that they did not sleep on duty.

Incorrect uniform

Number of incidents		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	108	90.8	90.8	90.8
	1	10	8.4	8.4	99.2
	4	1	0.8	0.8	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

Security officers are not guilty of not wearing the correct uniform as hardly any incidences were reported (11).

Failure to follow instructions

Number of incidents		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	116	97.5	97.5	97.5
	1	3	2.5	2.5	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

Typical instructions include those from a supervisor to carry out site procedures, for example, using a clocking device when making site inspections on an hourly basis, ensuring all visitors fill in the visitor's book, not allowing unauthorised persons on the premises, and checking that the electrical fences are in working order. The results indicate that security officers seldom failed to follow instructions.

Breach of standard operating procedures

Number of incidents		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	87	73.1	73.1	73.1
	1	20	16.8	16.8	89.9
	2	10	8.4	8.4	98.3
	3	2	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

Standard operating procedures refer to any company operating instructions or site-specific procedures. The results show that the security officers were quite often guilty of not implementing standard operating procedures given the fact that there were 30 incidences of security officers not adhering to procedures.

Failure to patrol

Number of incidents		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	0	117	98.3	98.3	98.3
	1	2	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	119	100.0	100.0	

According to the statistics, the security officers were not guilty of not patrolling and there were only two incidences of failure to patrol.

To summarise and with reference to the above statistics, 66.40% of security officers had been absent on one or more occasions. Regarding sick leave, a majority of 73.1% of the respondents had taken sick leave. A total of 48.7% of them had been disciplined, with 63.90% for AWOL and 73.10% for a breach of standard operating procedures.

4.4.2 Self-reported behaviours

This section deals with the security officers' self-reported performance behaviours. The information is based on the responses provided by security officers to questions in the questionnaire.

Table 4.3: Self-reported behaviours

		Never true	Occasionally true	Often true	Always true	Total
[p_abs.1] I sometimes leave work early or come to work late due to personal/home matters	n	94	14	5	6	119
	%	79.0%	11.8%	4.2%	5.0%	100.0%
[p_abs.1] I DO NOT leave work early or come to work late due to personal/home matters [R]*	n	6	5	14	94	119
	%	5.0%	4.2%	11.8%	79.0%	100.0%
[p_abs.2] I sometimes find myself very tired to go to work because of traveling long hours between home and work	n	72	18	11	18	119
	%	60.5%	15.1%	9.2%	15.1%	100.0%
[p_abs.2] I DO NOT find myself very tired to go to work because of traveling long hours between home and work [R]*	n	18	11	18	72	119
	%	15.1%	9.2%	15.1%	60.5%	100.0%
[p_abs.3] I get leave whenever I need it to attend to my personal or family matters	n	21	20	18	60	119
	%	17.6%	16.8%	15.1%	50.4%	100.0%
[p_abs.4] The process of applying for leave in my company takes a long time	n	86	17	6	10	119
	%	72.3%	14.3%	5.0%	8.4%	100.0%
[p_abs.4] The process of applying for leave in my company DOES NOT take a long time [R]*	n	10	6	17	86	119
	%	8.4%	5.0%	14.3%	72.3%	100.0%
[p_abs.5] My supervisor or manager usually approves my leave request	n	5	12	20	82	119
	%	4.2%	10.1%	16.8%	68.9%	100.0%
[p_abs.6] I leave my site unattended to buy food	n	118			1	119
	%	99.2%			0.8%	100.0%
[p_abs.6] I DO NOT leave my site unattended to buy food [R]*	n	1			118	119
	%	0.8%			99.2%	100.0%
	n	2	4	4	109	119

		Never true	Occasionally true	Often true	Always true	Total
[p_abs.7] I work hard and I am productive for my whole shift	%	1.7%	3.4%	3.4%	91.6%	100.0%
[p_abs.8] I do sleep at work during working hours	n	107	8		4	119
	%	89.9%	6.7%		3.4%	100.0%
[p_abs.8] I DO NOT sleep at work during working hours [R]*	n	4		8	107	119
	%	3.4%		6.7%	89.9%	100.0%
[p_abs.9] I only take sick leave when I am sick	n	7	3	2	107	119
	%	5.9%	2.5%	1.7%	89.9%	100.0%
[p_abs.10] I rather come to work sick than to use my sick leave	n	83	14	11	11	119
	%	69.7%	11.8%	9.2%	9.2%	100.0%
[p_abs.10] I DO NOT come to work sick and rather use my sick leave [R]*	n	11	11	14	83	119
	%	9.2%	9.2%	11.8%	69.7%	100.0%
[p_abs.11] Sick leave days given per annum are enough for me	n	13	13	18	75	119
	%	10.9%	10.9%	15.1%	63.0%	100.0%
[p_abs.12] I often take sick leave due to stressful situations at work	n	106	4	4	5	119
	%	89.1%	3.4%	3.4%	4.2%	100.0%
[p_abs.12] I DO NOT take sick leave due to stressful situations at work [R]*	n	5	4	4	106	119
	%	4.2%	3.4%	3.4%	89.1%	100.0%
[p_abs.13] I take sick leave to attend to my personal or family matters	n	106	2	4	7	119
	%	89.1%	1.7%	3.4%	5.9%	100.0%
[p_abs.13] I DO NOT take sick leave to attend to my personal or family matters [R]*	n	7	4	2	106	119
	%	5.9%	3.4%	1.7%	89.1%	100.0%
[p_abs.14] I sometimes phone in sick to attend to my personal matters because my manager would not give me time off if I tell him/her the truth	n	115	1	1	2	119
	%	96.6%	0.8%	0.8%	1.7%	100.0%
[p_abs.14] I DO NOT phone in sick to attend to my personal matters because my manager would not give me time off if I tell him/her the truth [R]*	n	2	1	1	115	119
	%	1.7%	0.8%	0.8%	96.6%	100.0%
[p_abs.15] I follow the company's procedure for booking off sick	n	4	2	6	107	119
	%	3.4%	1.7%	5.0%	89.9%	100.0%
[p_abs.16] I would rather take sick leave than annual leave	n	96	7	4	12	119
	%	80.7%	5.9%	3.4%	10.1%	100.0%
[p_abs.16] I WOULD NOT rather take sick leave than annual leave [R]*	n	12	4	7	96	119
	%	10.1%	3.4%	5.9%	80.7%	100.0%
[p_abs.17] I have asked a doctor to provide me with a medical certificate without being really sick	n	114			5	119
	%	95.8%			4.2%	100.0%
[p_abs.17] I HAVE NOT asked a doctor to provide me with a medical certificate without being sick [R]*	n	5			114	119
	%	4.2%			95.8%	100.0%
[p_abs.18] I do report colleagues who abuse sick leave	n	66	16	8	29	119
	%	55.5%	13.4%	6.7%	24.4%	100.0%
	n	29	8	16	66	119

		Never true	Occasionally true	Often true	Always true	Total
[p_abs.18] I DO NOT report colleagues who abuse sick leave [R]*	%	24.4%	6.7%	13.4%	55.5%	100.0%
[p_abs.19] My company does not take corrective steps or disciplinary actions against employees who abuse sick leave	n	86	16	6	11	119
	%	72.3%	13.4%	5.0%	9.2%	100.0%
[p_abs.19] My company does take corrective steps or disciplinary actions against employees who abuse sick leave [R]*	n	11	6	16	86	119
	%	9.2%	5.0%	13.4%	72.3%	100.0%
[p_abs.20] My company applies a strict policy on the handing in of medical certificates - even for one day absences	n	15	8	14	82	119
	%	12.6%	6.7%	11.8%	68.9%	100.0%
[p_abs.21] I feel that it is a right to use all my sick leave in my sick leave cycle	n	60	16	7	36	119
	%	50.4%	13.4%	5.9%	30.3%	100.0%
[p_abs.21] I DO NOT feel that it is a right to use all my sick leave in my sick leave cycle [R]*	n	36	7	16	60	119
	%	30.3%	5.9%	13.4%	50.4%	100.0%
[p_abs.22] I have tampered with a Doctor's note	n	100	4	3	12	119
	%	84.0%	3.4%	2.5%	10.1%	100.0%
[p_abs.22] I have never tampered with a Doctor's note [R]*	n	12	3	4	100	119
	%	10.1%	2.5%	3.4%	84.0%	100.0%
[p_abs.23] I sometimes buy a sick note instead of consulting a Doctor	n	114		1	4	119
	%	95.8%		0.8%	3.4%	100.0%
[p_abs.23] I DO NOT buy a sick note instead of consulting a Doctor [R]*	n	4	1		114	119
	%	3.4%	0.8%		95.8%	100.0%
[abs.1] Absent from work without permission	n	104	15			119
	%	87.4%	12.6%			100.0%
[abs.2] Absent from work due to valid medical reasons	n	56	41	9	13	119
	%	47.1%	34.5%	7.6%	10.9%	100.0%
[abs.3] Abused sick leave to attend to personal matters	n	116	2		1	119
	%	97.5%	1.7%		0.8%	100.0%
[abs.4] Involved in a work-related accident/incident (injury on duty)	n	113	2	1	3	119
	%	95.0%	1.7%	0.8%	2.5%	100.0%
[abs.5] Received verbal warnings for misconduct	n	103	11	2	3	119
	%	86.6%	9.2%	1.7%	2.5%	100.0%
[abs.6] Received written warnings for misconduct	n	95	18	2	4	119
	%	79.8%	15.1%	1.7%	3.4%	100.0%
[abs.7] Slept on duty	n	111	6	1	1	119
	%	93.3%	5.0%	0.8%	0.8%	100.0%
[abs.8] I have been promoted during the past five years (2011 - 2016)	n	111	8			119
	%	93.3%	6.7%			100.0%

* indicates reverse scoring of items.

Table 4.3 reports on the security officers' self-reported behaviours. Of the behaviours highlighted above, "always true" responses below were noteworthy. A total of:

- 79% reported that they did not leave work early or come to work late because of personal/home issues;
- 72,3% reported that the process of applying for leave in the company did not take a long time;
- 99.2% reported that they did not leave their site unattended to buy food;
- 91.6% reported that they worked hard and were productive for the entire shift;
- 89.9% reported that they did not sleep at work during working hours;
- 89.9% reported that they only took sick leave when they were sick;
- 69.7% reported that they did not come to work sick and would take sick leave;
- 89.1% reported that they did not often take sick leave because of stressful situations at work;
- 89.1% reported that they did not take sick leave to attend to personal or family matters;
- 96.6% reported that they did not phone in sick to attend to personal matters because their manager would not give them time off if they told him the truth;
- 80.7% reported that they would rather not take sick leave than annual leave;
- 95.8% reported that they had not asked a doctor to provide them with a medical certificate without really being sick;
- 72.3% reported that the company did take corrective steps or disciplinary actions against employees who abuse sick leave;
- 50.4% reported that they felt it was not a right to take all their sick leave in their sick cycle;
- 84% reported that they had not tampered with a doctor's note; and
- 95.8% reported that they did not buy a sick note instead of consulting a doctor.

It terms of employees' self-reported behaviours on absenteeism:

- 87.4% reported that they had never been absent without permission;
- 97.5% reported never to have abused sick leave to attend to personal matters;
- 95.0% reported no involvement in a work-related accident/incident; and
- 93.3% reported that they had never slept on duty.

In summary, in terms of the security officers' self-reported behaviours, they clearly viewed themselves as being exemplary employees. In general, they believed they displayed sterling behaviours relating to general timekeeping, arriving on time and leaving work on the completion of a full shift. They further believed that they never abused sick leave, were never absent without permission and never slept on duty.

4.5   CORRELATIONS

Subsequent to the reliability statistics and the descriptive analysis of the factors relating to work performance, correlation analysis was performed to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between the (1) various factors of performance management, (2) biographical information and company-reported behaviours, and (3) performance factors and company-reported factors. In research, the significance level should be determined by the confidence of the results. A small sample of n = 30 could have moderate correlations that may not reach statistical significance at the traditional $p < .05$ level. However, in large samples (n = 100[+]) small corrections of $r = .2$ may reach statistical significance. Owing to the size of the sample (n = 119), small correlations (.100 - .029) did have statistical significance. In the current study, the focus was on the strength of a relationship and the amount of variance (Pallant, 2011).

4.5.1 Performance factors correlations

The correlation coefficients of the factors of performance management are provided in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Correlations			F1 Realistic work expectations	F2 Supervision	F3 Training (mentoring)	F4 Policy/ procedure	F5 Rewards/ recognition	F6 Support	F7 Information	F8 Interpersonal relationship	F9. Satisfaction	F100. Commitment	F11. Quality of work life
Spearman's rho	F1 Realistic work expectations	Correlation coefficient	1.000	0.137	.278**	.254**	.335**	.217*	.292**	.281**	.351**	.181*	0.144
		Sig. (2-tailed)		0.138	0.002	0.005	0.000	0.018	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.049	0.119
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F2 Supervision	Correlation coefficient	0.137	1.000	0.174	.225*	.360**	.255**	.379**	.450**	.383**	0.108	.196*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.138		0.058	0.014	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.240	0.032
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F3 Training (mentoring)	Correlation coefficient	.278**	0.174	1.000	.213*	.281**	0.135	.282**	.444**	.340**	0.176	-0.113
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0.058		0.020	0.002	0.144	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.055	0.221
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F4 Policy/procedure	Correlation coefficient	.254**	.225*	.213*	1.000	.264**	.239**	.195*	.385**	.343**	0.172	.309**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.005	0.014	0.020		0.004	0.009	0.034	0.000	0.000	0.062	0.001
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F5 Rewards/recognition	Correlation coefficient	.335**	.360**	.281**	.264**	1.000	.445**	.255**	.549**	.501**	-0.136	0.006
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.004		0.000	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.141	0.951
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F6 Support	Correlation coefficient	.217*	.255**	0.135	.239**	.445**	1.000	.261**	.316**	.322**	0.139	.216*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.018	0.005	0.144	0.009	0.000		0.004	0.000	0.000	0.132	0.018
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F7 Information	Correlation coefficient	.292**	.379**	.282**	.195*	.255**	.261**	1.000	.386**	.237**	0.177	0.140
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.000	0.002	0.034	0.005	0.004		0.000	0.009	0.054	0.129
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F8 Interpersonal relationship	Correlation coefficient	.281**	.450**	.444**	.385**	.549**	.316**	.386**	1.000	.475**	0.057	0.145
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.538	0.116
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F9 Satisfaction	Correlation coefficient	.351**	.383**	.340**	.343**	.501**	.322**	.237**	.475**	1.000	0.146	.275**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.009	0.000		0.112	0.002
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F10 Commitment	Correlation coefficient	.181*	0.108	0.176	0.172	-0.136	0.139	0.177	0.057	0.146	1.000	0.113
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.049	0.240	0.055	0.062	0.141	0.132	0.054	0.538	0.112		0.222
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F11 Quality of work life	Correlation coefficient	0.144	.196*	-0.113	.309**	0.006	.216*	0.140	0.145	.275**	0.113	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.119	0.032	0.221	0.001	0.951	0.018	0.129	0.116	0.002	0.222	
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119

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

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

It is interesting to note that rewards/recognition; interpersonal relationships, information and satisfaction were significantly related. This emphasises the critical role the human element plays in the effectiveness of a performance management system. The more humane the performance management relationship is between supervisor and employee, the greater the satisfaction with the performance management system. When security officers are recognised for their contributions, can relate to their supervisors and receive sufficient communication on their performance, their satisfaction with the performance management system is positively influenced.

4.5.2 Relationship between biographical factors and company-reported behaviours

The correlation between biographical factors and company-reported behaviours did not yield significant results. According to table 4.5, only years of service and education were significantly related to company-reported behaviours, and it would thus seem that biographical factors had little influence on work behaviours.

The relationship between company-reported behaviours and biographical factors was investigated by means of Spearman's rho. The correlation indicated the existence of a small positive relationship between number of disciplinary actions and years of service (r = .272, n = 119, p < .003). This would indicate that security officers with fewer years of service were more prone to disciplinary action than security officers who had been with the company for a longer period.

A medium negative correlation existed between disciplinary/AWOL and education (r = -.303, n = 119, p < .0001), and there was a small negative correlation between education and dismissals/AWOL (r = -.286, n = 117, p < .002). This indicates that security officers with higher levels of education tended to have fewer disciplinary actions and dismissals based on AWOL. This could indicate a higher level of understanding by individuals on how their actions impact on themselves and the company.

Table 4.5: Correlation between biographical data and company-reported behaviours.

			Age groups	Tenure (post) (Binned)	Tenure (company) (Binned)	Grade	Education	Number of depend-ants	Service
Spearman's rho	Number of days absent	Correlation coefficient	-0.003	0.099	0.036	0.152	-0.154	-0.118	.202*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.970	0.292	0.705	0.106	0.098	0.200	0.028
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Number of sick days	Correlation coefficient	0.070	0.162	0.125	.215*	-.214*	0.086	.201*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.450	0.082	0.181	0.022	0.020	0.354	0.028
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Number of disciplinary action	Correlation coefficient	-0.110	0.083	0.112	0.147	-0.098	-0.155	.272**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.232	0.376	0.230	0.117	0.294	0.093	0.003
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Disciplinary AWOL	Correlation coefficient	0.013	-0.128	-0.141	-0.036	-.303**	-0.075	-0.027
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.888	0.172	0.130	0.700	0.001	0.415	0.768
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Arrive late	Correlation coefficient	-0.047	0.049	0.020	0.138	-0.035	-0.004	0.033
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.609	0.605	0.829	0.142	0.707	0.963	0.719
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Sleep on duty	Correlation coefficient	-0.101	0.122	0.173	-0.078	-0.128	-0.003	0.062
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.276	0.192	0.063	0.407	0.170	0.977	0.505
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Incorrect uniform	Correlation coefficient	0.029	0.020	-0.009	0.073	-0.039	-0.089	0.038
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.750	0.833	0.927	0.440	0.680	0.337	0.681
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Failure to follow instruction	Correlation coefficient	-0.143	0.104	.225*	0.027	0.091	-0.081	.211*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.122	0.267	0.015	0.773	0.327	0.381	0.021
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Breach of SOP	Correlation coefficient	-.203*	0.073	0.123	0.081	-0.053	-.198*	.204*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.027	0.433	0.189	0.391	0.568	0.031	0.026
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Negative about duty	Correlation coefficient	0.021	0.008	-0.004	-0.128	0.008	0.077	0.004
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.824	0.929	0.969	0.176	0.929	0.407	0.966
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Failure to patrol	Correlation coefficient	-.182*	-0.106	-0.115	0.116	0.007	-0.002	-0.001
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.047	0.256	0.219	0.220	0.942	0.982	0.992
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Work performance	Correlation coefficient	-0.128	-0.075	-0.081	-0.150	0.005	-0.001	-0.103
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.164	0.424	0.388	0.111	0.959	0.987	0.263
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119

Table 4.5: Correlation between biographical data and company-reported behaviours continued:

			Age groups	Tenure (post) (Binned)	Tenure (company) (Binned)	Grade	Education	Number of depend-ants	Service
Spearman's rho	Harming company image	Correlation coefficient	0.140	-0.075	-0.081	-0.150	0.005	-0.001	0.067
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.128	0.424	0.388	0.111	0.959	0.987	0.468
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Disciplinary AWOL	Correlation coefficient	0.023	-0.137	-0.157	-0.062	-.286**	-0.087	-0.043
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.804	0.142	0.092	0.514	0.002	0.347	0.645
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Arrive late	Correlation coefficient	-0.044	0.046	0.016	0.133	-0.031	-0.004	0.033
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.634	0.622	0.867	0.158	0.743	0.963	0.722
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Sleep on duty	Correlation coefficient	-0.101	0.122	0.173	-0.078	-0.128	-0.003	0.062
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.276	0.192	0.063	0.407	0.170	0.977	0.505
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Incorrect uniform	Correlation coefficient	0.033	0.020	-0.009	0.070	-0.034	-0.090	0.040
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.718	0.833	0.927	0.458	0.712	0.333	0.664
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Failure to follow instruction	Correlation coefficient	-0.143	0.104	.225*	0.027	0.091	-0.081	.211*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.122	0.267	0.015	0.773	0.327	0.381	0.021
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Breach of SOP	Correlation coefficient	-.189*	0.073	0.130	0.057	-0.036	-.203*	.211*
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.039	0.434	0.164	0.547	0.697	0.027	0.021
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Negative of duty	Correlation coefficient	0.021	0.008	-0.004	-0.128	0.008	0.077	0.004
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.824	0.929	0.969	0.176	0.929	0.407	0.966
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Failure to patrol	Correlation coefficient	-.182*	-0.106	-0.115	0.116	0.007	-0.002	-0.001
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.047	0.256	0.219	0.220	0.942	0.982	0.992
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Work performance	Correlation coefficient	-0.128	-0.075	-0.081	-0.150	0.005	-0.001	-0.103
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.164	0.424	0.388	0.111	0.959	0.987	0.263
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119

Table 4.5 (continue): Correlation between biographical data and company-reported behaviours (continued):

			Age groups	Tenure (post) (Binned)	Tenure (company) (Binned)	Grade	Education	Number of depend-ants	Service
Spearman's rho	Harming company image	Correlation coefficient	0.140	-0.075	-0.081	-0.150	0.005	-0.001	0.067
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.128	0.424	0.388	0.111	0.959	0.987	0.468
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Terminated - Discharged	Correlation coefficient	0.020	0.013	-0.006	0.039	-0.179	0.054	-0.003
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.832	0.889	0.952	0.679	0.054	0.562	0.976
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Terminated - Absconded	Correlation coefficient	0.017	0.010	-0.004	0.164	0.007	0.095	0.029
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.856	0.914	0.962	0.080	0.942	0.306	0.757
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119
	Terminated - Resigned	Correlation coefficient	0.089	0.015	0.035	0.024	0.084	-0.002	0.078
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.336	0.877	0.711	0.802	0.366	0.981	0.398
		N	119	116	116	114	117	119	119

4.5.3 Performance management factors and company-reported behaviours

In this section the aim was to determine whether there was a correlation between security officers' performance management factors and company-reported behaviours, and whether these performance behaviours were linked to the correct behaviours being measured and focused on.

Table 4.6: Correlation between performance management factors and company-reported behaviours

			No of days absent	No of sick days	No of disciplinary actions	Disciplinary AWOL	Arrive late	Sleep on duty	Incorrect uniform	Failure to follow instruction	Breach of SOP	Negative of duty	Failure to patrol	Work performance	Harming company image	Disciplinary AWOL
Spearman's rho	F1. Realistic work expectations	Correlation coefficient	-.218*	0.075	-.192*	-0.116	-0.068	0.095	-0.177	-.243**	0.036	0.154	-0.115	-0.021	-0.021	-0.126
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.017	0.420	0.036	0.209	0.462	0.306	0.054	0.008	0.696	0.094	0.211	0.817	0.817	0.173
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F2. Supervision	Correlation coefficient	-.351**	-0.049	-0.076	-0.119	-0.025	0.109	-0.072	-0.122	-.186*	-0.078	-0.085	0.032	0.110	-0.114
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.595	0.413	0.197	0.786	0.236	0.433	0.185	0.043	0.396	0.358	0.733	0.234	0.217
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F3. Training (mentoring)	Correlation coefficient	-0.083	-0.119	-0.147	0.020	0.077	-0.047	-0.024	-0.045	-.183*	0.029	-0.169	0.091	0.061	0.014
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.369	0.196	0.111	0.833	0.406	0.608	0.795	0.627	0.047	0.753	0.066	0.326	0.510	0.883
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F4. Policy/ procedure	Correlation coefficient	-.185*	-0.057	-0.080	-0.035	-0.157	-0.035	-0.066	-0.066	-0.076	0.158	-0.104	0.060	-0.136	-0.044
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0.044	0.536	0.390	0.704	0.087	0.704	0.475	0.474	0.413	0.086	0.261	0.519	0.142	0.634
		N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
	F5. Rewards/ recognition	Correlation coefficient	-0.174	0.009	0.097	-0.107	0.047	0.113	0.043	-0.017	0.051	0.011	-0.057	0.050	-0.040	-0.136

Table 4.6: Correlation between performance management factors and company reported-behaviours(continued)

	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.058	0.920	0.294	0.248	0.609	0.222	0.643	0.852	0.580	0.906	0.536	0.591	0.663	0.141
	N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
F6. Support	Correlation coefficient	-0.137	-0.037	-0.136	-0.172	-0.019	0.118	-0.099	-0.047	0.006	-0.002	0.041	-0.030	-0.030	-0.161
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.138	0.691	0.140	0.062	0.840	0.199	0.284	0.611	0.946	0.980	0.656	0.749	0.749	0.081
	N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
F7. Information	Correlation coefficient	-0.080	-0.027	-0.109	-0.134	-0.099	0.066	-0.013	-.211*	-0.062	-0.105	-0.007	-0.123	0.067	-0.134
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.386	0.768	0.237	0.145	0.284	0.475	0.888	0.021	0.506	0.257	0.943	0.181	0.468	0.145
	N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
F8. Interpersonal relationship	Correlation coefficient	-.241**	-0.077	-0.129	-0.128	0.070	-0.068	-0.073	-0.139	-.197*	-0.048	-0.147	-0.047	-0.068	-0.143
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.008	0.404	0.161	0.164	0.451	0.461	0.429	0.131	0.032	0.604	0.111	0.609	0.465	0.120
	N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
F9. Satisfaction	Correlation coefficient	-.216*	-0.083	-0.107	-0.027	0.094	0.002	-0.135	-0.055	-0.052	0.042	-0.105	0.113	-0.105	-0.006
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.018	0.370	0.247	0.774	0.308	0.984	0.145	0.553	0.572	0.654	0.255	0.221	0.256	0.952
	N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
F10. Commitment	Correlation coefficient	-0.172	-0.135	-0.059	-.230*	-0.083	-0.005	-0.084	-0.027	0.082	0.082	-0.036	0.124	-0.050	-.219*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.062	0.144	0.523	0.012	0.369	0.958	0.366	0.774	0.378	0.374	0.695	0.180	0.591	0.017
	N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
F11. Quality of work life	Correlation coefficient	-.208*	-0.082	-0.176	-0.132	-0.028	-.210*	-.209*	-0.034	-0.077	-.187*	-0.106	0.062	-0.042	-0.150
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.023	0.375	0.055	0.151	0.764	0.022	0.022	0.716	0.406	0.041	0.250	0.503	0.652	0.104
	N	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119

Table 4.6 shows that there was small negative correlation between realistic work expectations and failure to follow instructions (r = -.243, n = 119, p < .008), which indicates that the higher the work expectation on the employee, the less the employee would be inclined to follow instructions. It is possible that younger aged security officers appeared to be slightly less likely to follow instructions than their older counterparts. It could be due to a lack of experience, or because they were reluctant to take on additional or more senior responsibilities.

A medium negative correlation was evident between supervision and number of days absent (r = -.351, n = 119, p<.0000). This indicates that higher levels of supervision resulted in fewer days absent. This could be due to the supervisor having tighter controls over this area of responsibility, which means that security officers would be less inclined to arrive late, leave their sites early and be absent.

A small negative correlation was evident between interpersonal relationships and number of days absent (r = -.241, n = 119, p > .008). It appears that interpersonal relationships had a direct impact on security officers' willingness to turn up for work. Healthy work relationships and pleasant circumstance had a positive effect on security officers' behaviour in terms of work presence.

4.6 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES AND SELF OR COMPANY-REPORTED WORK BEHAVIOUR

The relationship between biographical variables and self or company-reported performance revealed the following:

The number of days absent correlated with both self-reported (r = .276, n = 119, p > .0.002) and company-reported behaviours (r = .434, n = 119, p > 0.000), which was confirmed by the number of security officers' services terminated due to absenteeism (r = .396, n = 119, p > 0.000).

The relationship between self-reported negative behaviours, ($r = .299$, $n = 119$, $p > 0.001$) and company-reported negative behaviours ($r = .522$, $n = 119$, $p > 0.000$) regarding disciplinary action based on AWOL, correlated with education ($r = -.303$, $n = 119$, $p > 0.009$), which indicates that the higher the educational level of an employee, the less prone an employee would be to being absent.

Table 4.7: Summary of biographical, self-reported and company-reported work behaviours

Spearman's rho

		Self-reported negative behaviour indicator	Company reported negative behaviour indicator	Terminated	Age groups	Tenure (post) (Binned)	Tenure (company) (Binned)	Education	Number of dependents	Service	Number of days absent	Number of sick days	Number of disciplinary actions	Disciplinary AWOL	Arrive late	Sleep on duty	Incorrect uniform	Failure to follow instruction	Breach of SOP	Negative of duty	Failure to patrol	Work performance	Harming company image
Self-reported negative behaviours indicator	Correlation coefficient	1.000	.392**	0.016	-0.119	-0.020	-0.083	-0.033	-.195*	0.095	.276**	0.162	.324**	.299**	0.165	0.131	.221*	0.008	0.069	0.124	0.053	-0.062	-0.062
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.861	0.197	0.832	0.377	0.722	0.034	0.305	0.002	0.078	0.000	0.001	0.073	0.156	0.016	0.933	0.458	0.181	0.564	0.504	0.504
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Company reported negative behaviours indicator	Correlation coefficient	.392**	1.000	0.078	-0.125	0.071	0.052	-0.146	-0.171	.253**	.434**	.294**	.691**	.552**	.263**	0.158	.240**	0.121	.451**	0.121	0.098	0.069	0.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.401	0.175	0.450	0.576	0.116	0.063	0.006	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.087	0.009	0.190	0.000	0.190	0.287	0.454	0.454
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Terminated	Correlation coefficient	0.016	0.078	1.000	0.075	0.023	0.016	-0.076	0.078	0.057	.396**	0.136	.184*	.238**	0.069	-0.070	0.093	-0.054	0.126	-0.054	-0.044	-0.031	-0.031
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.861	0.401		0.419	0.809	0.867	0.413	0.399	0.538	0.000	0.140	0.045	0.009	0.455	0.448	0.314	0.561	0.172	0.561	0.636	0.739	0.739
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Age groups	Correlation coefficient	-0.119	-0.125	0.075	1.000	-0.140	-.188*	0.038	.342**	-0.063	-0.003	0.070	-0.110	0.013	-0.047	-0.101	0.029	-0.143	-.203*	0.021	-.182*	-0.128	0.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.197	0.175	0.419		0.135	0.043	0.681	0.000	0.498	0.970	0.450	0.232	0.888	0.609	0.276	0.750	0.122	0.027	0.824	0.047	0.164	0.128
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Tenure (post) (Binned)	Correlation coefficient	-0.020	0.071	0.023	-0.140	1.000	.858**	0.012	-0.125	.511**	0.099	0.162	0.083	-0.128	0.049	0.122	0.020	0.104	0.073	0.008	-0.106	-0.075	-0.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.832	0.450	0.809	0.135		0.000	0.896	0.181	0.000	0.292	0.082	0.376	0.172	0.605	0.192	0.833	0.267	0.433	0.929	0.256	0.424	0.424
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	114	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
Tenure (company) (Binned)	Correlation coefficient	-0.083	0.052	0.016	-.188*	.858**	1.000	0.005	-0.182	.520**	0.036	0.125	0.112	-0.141	0.020	0.173	-0.009	.225*	0.123	-0.004	-0.115	-0.081	-0.081
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.377	0.576	0.867	0.043	0.000		0.959	0.051	0.000	0.705	0.181	0.230	0.130	0.829	0.063	0.927	0.015	0.189	0.969	0.219	0.388	0.388
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	114	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
Education	Correlation coefficient	-0.033	-0.146	-0.076	0.038	0.012	0.005	1.000	-0.122	0.159	-0.154	-.214*	-0.098	-.303**	-0.035	-0.128	-0.039	0.091	-0.053	0.008	0.007	0.005	0.005
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.722	0.116	0.413	0.681	0.896	0.959		0.191	0.087	0.098	0.020	0.294	0.001	0.707	0.170	0.680	0.327	0.568	0.929	0.942	0.959	0.959
	N	117	117	117	117	114	114	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117	117
Number of dependents	Correlation coefficient	-.195*	-0.171	0.078	.342**	-0.125	-0.182	-0.122	1.000	-.186*	-0.118	0.086	-0.155	-0.075	-0.004	-0.003	-0.089	-0.081	-.198*	0.077	-0.002	-0.001	-0.001
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.034	0.063	0.399	0.000	0.181	0.051	0.191		0.043	0.200	0.354	0.093	0.415	0.963	0.977	0.337	0.381	0.031	0.407	0.982	0.987	0.987
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Service	Correlation coefficient	0.095	.253**	0.057	-0.063	.511**	.520**	0.159	-.186*	1.000	0.202	.201*	.272**	-0.027	0.033	0.062	0.038	.211*	.204*	0.004	-0.001	-0.103	0.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.305	0.006	0.538	0.498	0.000	0.000	0.087	0.043		0.028	0.028	0.003	0.768	0.719	0.505	0.681	0.021	0.026	0.966	0.992	0.263	0.468
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Number of days absent	Correlation coefficient	.276**	.434**	.396**	-0.003	0.099	0.036	-0.154	-0.118	0.202	1.000	.313**	.446**	.456**	0.099	-0.009	.245**	0.012	0.143	0.021	-0.012	-0.108	-0.108
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.970	0.292	0.705	0.098	0.200	0.028		0.001	0.000	0.000	0.285	0.920	0.007	0.897	0.122	0.823	0.900	0.241	0.241
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Number of sick days	Correlation coefficient	0.162	.294**	0.136	0.070	0.162	0.125	-.214*	0.086	.201*	.313**	1.000	.357**	.226*	.209*	-0.014	-0.021	0.026	0.157	-0.110	-0.067	-0.035	-0.118
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.078	0.001	0.140	0.450	0.082	0.181	0.020	0.354	0.028	0.001		0.000	0.014	0.023	0.884	0.819	0.779	0.088	0.235	0.467	0.704	0.202
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Number of disciplinary action	Correlation coefficient	.324**	.691**	.184*	-0.110	0.083	0.112	-0.098	-0.155	.272**	.446**	.357**	1.000	.416**	.398**	0.072	.312**	0.119	.510**	-0.028	0.026	-0.085	-0.085
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.045	0.232	0.376	0.230	0.294	0.093	0.003	0.000	0.000		0.000	0.000	0.439	0.001	0.198	0.000	0.762	0.780	0.360	0.360
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Disciplinary AWOL	Correlation coefficient	.299**	.552**	.238**	0.013	-0.128	-0.141	-.303**	-0.075	-0.027	.456**	.226*	.416**	1.000	0.115	-0.079	0.141	-0.118	-0.019	-0.023	0.020	-0.068	0.096
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.000	0.009	0.888	0.172	0.130	0.001	0.415	0.768	0.000	0.014	0.000		0.213	0.391	0.126	0.201	0.835	0.805	0.828	0.465	0.299
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Arrive late	Correlation coefficient	0.165	.263**	0.069	-0.047	0.049	0.020	-0.035	-0.004	0.033	0.099	.209*	.398**	0.115	1.000	-0.073	-0.001	0.113	0.108	-0.056	-0.046	-0.032	-0.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.073	0.004	0.455	0.609	0.605	0.829	0.707	0.963	0.719	0.285	0.023	0.000	0.213		0.428	0.993	0.223	0.242	0.543	0.621	0.728	0.728
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119

Table 4.7: Summary of biographic, self-reported and company-reported work behaviours (continued)

		Self-reported negative behaviour indicator	Company reported negative behaviour indicator	Terminat-ed	Age groups	Tenure (post) (Binned)	Tenure (company) (Binned)	Education	Number of depend-ents	Service	Number of days absent	Number of sick days	Number of disciplinary actions	Disciplin-ary AWOL	Arrive late	Sleep on duty	Incorrect uniform	Failure to follow instruction	Breach of SOP	Negative of duty	Failure to patrol	Work perform-ance	Harming company image
Incorrect uniform	Correlation coefficient	.221*	.240**	0.093	0.029	0.020	-0.009	-0.039	-0.089	0.038	.245**	-0.021	.312**	0.141	-0.001	0.077	1.000	-0.051	-0.053	-0.051	-0.042	-0.029	-0.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.016	0.009	0.314	0.750	0.833	0.927	0.680	0.337	0.681	0.007	0.819	0.001	0.126	0.993	0.408		0.580	0.568	0.580	0.652	0.751	0.751
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Breach of SOP	Correlation coefficient	0.069	.451**	0.126	-.203*	0.073	0.123	-0.053	-.198*	.204*	0.143	0.157	.510**	-0.019	0.108	0.150	-0.053	0.149	1.000	0.118	.235*	-0.055	-0.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.458	0.000	0.172	0.027	0.433	0.189	0.568	0.031	0.026	0.122	0.088	0.000	0.835	0.242	0.104	0.568	0.107		0.199	0.010	0.551	0.551
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Disciplinary AWOL	Correlation coefficient	.288**	.566**	.213*	0.023	-0.137	-0.157	-.286**	-0.087	-0.043	.414**	.183*	.333**	.976**	0.074	-0.070	0.125	-0.121	-0.036	-0.009	0.038	-0.069	0.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.000	0.020	0.804	0.142	0.092	0.002	0.347	0.645	0.000	0.046	0.000	0.000	0.424	0.447	0.176	0.190	0.700	0.919	0.684	0.454	0.185
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Arrive late	Correlation coefficient	0.172	.263**	0.062	-0.044	0.046	0.016	-0.031	-0.004	0.033	0.096	.207*	.396**	0.113	.999**	-0.073	-0.011	0.116	0.105	-0.056	-0.046	-0.032	-0.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.061	0.004	0.505	0.634	0.622	0.867	0.743	0.963	0.722	0.299	0.024	0.000	0.220	0.000	0.428	0.906	0.211	0.254	0.543	0.621	0.728	0.728
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Sleep on duty	Correlation coefficient	0.131	0.158	-0.070	-0.101	0.122	0.173	-0.128	-0.003	0.062	-0.009	-0.014	0.072	-0.079	-0.073	1.000**	0.077	-0.034	0.150	.234*	-0.027	-0.019	-0.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.156	0.087	0.448	0.276	0.192	0.063	0.170	0.977	0.505	0.920	0.884	0.439	0.391	0.428		0.408	0.716	0.104	0.011	0.768	0.835	0.835
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Incorrect uniform	Correlation coefficient	.224*	.240**	0.086	0.033	0.020	-0.009	-0.034	-0.090	0.040	.243**	-0.023	.309**	0.137	-0.009	0.078	1.000**	-0.051	-0.059	-0.051	-0.042	-0.029	-0.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.014	0.009	0.353	0.718	0.833	0.927	0.712	0.333	0.664	0.008	0.800	0.001	0.137	0.919	0.400	0.000	0.579	0.526	0.579	0.652	0.751	0.751
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Failure to follow instruction	Correlation coefficient	0.008	0.121	-0.054	-0.143	0.104	.225*	0.091	-0.081	.211*	0.012	0.026	0.119	-0.118	0.113	-0.034	-0.051	1.000**	0.149	-0.026	-0.021	-0.015	-0.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.933	0.190	0.561	0.122	0.267	0.015	0.327	0.381	0.021	0.897	0.779	0.198	0.201	0.223	0.716	0.580		0.107	0.780	0.820	0.873	0.873
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Breach of SOP	Correlation coefficient	0.084	.456**	0.112	-.189*	0.073	0.130	-0.036	-.203*	.211*	0.152	0.180	.493**	-0.008	0.093	0.156	-0.058	0.144	.988**	0.144	.216*	-0.056	-0.056
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.364	0.000	0.227	0.039	0.434	0.164	0.697	0.027	0.021	0.100	0.051	0.000	0.928	0.313	0.089	0.533	0.118	0.000	0.118	0.019	0.546	0.546
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Negative of duty	Correlation coefficient	0.124	0.121	-0.054	0.021	0.008	-0.004	0.008	0.077	0.004	0.021	-0.110	-0.028	-0.023	-0.056	.234*	-0.051	-0.026	0.118	1.000**	-0.021	-0.015	-0.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.181	0.190	0.561	0.824	0.929	0.969	0.929	0.407	0.966	0.823	0.235	0.762	0.805	0.543	0.011	0.580	0.780	0.199		0.820	0.873	0.873
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Failure to patrol	Correlation coefficient	0.053	0.098	-0.044	-.182*	-0.106	-0.115	0.007	-0.002	-0.001	-0.012	-0.067	0.026	0.020	-0.046	-0.027	-0.042	-0.021	.235*	-0.021	1.000**	-0.012	-0.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.564	0.287	0.636	0.047	0.256	0.219	0.942	0.982	0.992	0.900	0.467	0.780	0.828	0.621	0.768	0.652	0.820	0.010	0.820		0.897	0.897
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Work performance	Correlation coefficient	-0.062	0.069	-0.031	-0.128	-0.075	-0.081	0.005	-0.001	-0.103	-0.108	-0.035	-0.085	-0.068	-0.032	-0.019	-0.029	-0.015	-0.055	-0.015	-0.012	1.000**	-0.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.504	0.454	0.739	0.164	0.424	0.388	0.959	0.987	0.263	0.241	0.704	0.360	0.465	0.728	0.835	0.751	0.873	0.551	0.873	0.897		0.927
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Harming company image	Correlation coefficient	-0.062	0.069	-0.031	0.140	-0.075	-0.081	0.005	-0.001	0.067	-0.108	-0.118	-0.085	0.096	-0.032	-0.019	-0.029	-0.015	-0.055	-0.015	-0.012	-0.008	1.000**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.504	0.454	0.739	0.128	0.424	0.388	0.959	0.987	0.468	0.241	0.202	0.360	0.299	0.728	0.835	0.751	0.873	0.551	0.873	0.897	0.927	
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Terminated - Discharged	Correlation coefficient	0.011	0.093	.688**	0.020	0.013	-0.006	-0.179	0.054	-0.003	.266**	0.163	0.122	0.164	0.055	-0.048	.202*	-0.037	0.059	-0.037	-0.030	-0.021	-0.021
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.904	0.312	0.000	0.832	0.889	0.952	0.054	0.562	0.976	0.004	0.077	0.185	0.075	0.554	0.602	0.028	0.689	0.524	0.689	0.745	0.819	0.819
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Terminated - Absconded	Correlation coefficient	0.053	-0.038	.390**	0.017	0.010	-0.004	0.007	0.095	0.029	.215*	0.030	0.052	0.071	-0.046	-0.027	-0.042	-0.021	0.053	-0.021	-0.017	-0.012	-0.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.564	0.684	0.000	0.856	0.914	0.962	0.942	0.306	0.757	0.019	0.747	0.576	0.440	0.621	0.768	0.652	0.820	0.570	0.820	0.854	0.897	0.897
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119
Terminated - Resigned	Correlation coefficient	-0.025	0.043	.557**	0.089	0.015	0.035	0.084	-0.002	0.078	.186*	0.008	0.123	0.148	0.082	-0.039	-0.059	-0.030	0.101	-0.030	-0.024	-0.017	-0.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.791	0.641	0.000	0.336	0.877	0.711	0.366	0.981	0.398	0.043	0.929	0.184	0.108	0.378	0.673	0.520	0.746	0.273	0.746	0.792	0.853	0.853
	N	119	119	119	119	116	116	117	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119	119

Spearman's rho

Table 4.7 indicates a positive relationship between the number of service terminations and the number of days absent (r = .396, n = 119, p < 0.000) and disciplinary AWOL (r = .238. n = 119, p < 0.009). These correlations indicated that security officers guilty of days absent were also guilty of abusing sick leave or high usage thereof and they were generally subjected to disciplinary actions quite often. There was a positive relationship between breach of standard operating procedures (SOP) and the number of disciplinaries (r = .510, n = 119, p < 0.000), as well as arriving late and number of disciplinaries (r = .396, n = 119, p < 0.000) and incorrect uniform and number of disciplinaries (r = .309, n = 119, p < 0.001). This indicates that disciplinary action was taken against security officers who were guilty of misconduct. In addition, a positive correlation was evident between education and number of disciplinary AWOL actions (r = .303, n = 117, p < 0.001) and years of service and number of disciplinary actions (r = .272, n = 119, p < 0.003). This indicates that lower levels of education and fewer years of service among the security officers resulted in higher levels of disciplinary actions.

This study also investigated the relationship between age and the various performance management factors. According to the mean ranks, as indicated in Table 4.8, the following relationships were evident.

- *Realistic work expectations.* The 22 to 29 age group had a lower mean rank than the 30 to 39 and 40 to 54 age groups. This indicated that younger security officers regarded realistic work expectations as less important to performance management compared to security officers in the 30 to 54 age group.
- *Supervision.* The 40 to 54 age group had a higher mean rank than the 22 to 39 age group. Security officers between the ages of 40 to 45 viewed supervision as important to performance management compared to the other younger age groups.
- *Training.* The 40 to 54 age group had the highest mean rank, which indicates that this age group deemed training to be an important factor in performance management. However, the 30 to 35 age group indicated a higher mean rank relating to performance if they received feedback and were encouraged to discuss problems with their supervisors.

- *Policy/procedure.* Security officers aged between 30 and 39 and 40 and 54 years deemed policies and procedures to be an important component of performance management.

- *Rewards/recognition.* Security officers aged between 30 and 39 and 40 and 45 viewed rewards/recognition as an important factor in performance management, whereas security officers aged between 22 and 29 indicated that security officers were not respected enough.

- *Support.* The 22 to 29 age group indicated that they were provided with the necessary site equipment, while the 30 to 39 age group indicated that security officers could lodge grievances if they felt they had not been treated fairly. The 40 to 54 age group did not rank highly under the items for support other than that they felt their suggestions were listened to.

- *Information.* The 30 to 39 age group and 40 to 54 age groups compared to the 22 to 29 age group viewed information as an important performance management factor.

- *Interpersonal relationships.* Interpersonal relationships were mostly ranked higher in the 40 to 54 age group, with the 30 to 39 age group ranking higher on items such as the supervisor setting a good example.

- *Satisfaction.* Satisfaction was ranked higher by the 30 to 39 and 40 to 54 age groups. The 22 to 29 age group ranked higher in terms of being paid fairly in their current job.

- *Commitment.* Commitment was ranked highest by the 30 to 39 and 40 to 54 age group. The 22 to 29 and 40 to 54 age group ranked higher on items relating to them feeling it was their right to use all their sick leave in a sick cycle and not reporting colleagues who abused sick leave and leaving work early or arriving late on account of personal/home matters.

- *Quality of work life.* Security officers in the 40 to 54 age group viewed quality of work life as important and felt that they were being treated differently because of their personal circumstances and found themselves tired because of travelling long hours between home and work as less important. They also viewed taking sick leave to attend to personal/family matters as less important compared to their younger counterparts.

Table 4.8: Relationship between performance management factors and age

Ranks

Age group		N	Mean rank
F1. Realistic work expectations	22 - 29 yrs	32	48.59
	30 - 39 yrs	63	64.02
	40 - 54 yrs	24	64.65
F2. Supervision	22 - 29 yrs	32	54.22
	30 - 39 yrs	63	60.90
	40 - 54 yrs	24	65.33
F3. Training (mentoring)	22 - 29 yrs	32	51.20
	30 - 39 yrs	63	62.98
	40 - 54 yrs	24	63.90
F4. Policy/procedure	22 - 29 yrs	32	51.16
	30 - 39 yrs	63	66.48
	40 - 54 yrs	24	54.77
F5. Rewards/recognition	22 - 29 yrs	32	56.20
	30 - 39 yrs	63	61.19
	40 - 54 yrs	24	61.94
F6. Support	22 - 29 yrs	32	58.33
	30 - 39 yrs	63	60.64
	40 - 54 yrs	24	60.54
F7. Information	22 - 29 yrs	32	55.53
	30 - 39 yrs	63	62.19
	40 - 54 yrs	24	60.21
F8. Interpersonal relationships	22 - 29 yrs	32	54.83
	30 - 39 yrs	63	59.85
	40 - 54 yrs	24	67.29
F9. Satisfaction	22 - 29 yrs	32	55.56
	30 - 39 yrs	63	61.77
	40 - 54 yrs	24	61.27
F10. Commitment	22 - 29 yrs	32	49.11
	30 - 39 yrs	63	65.72
	40 - 54 yrs	24	59.50
F11. Quality of work life	22 - 29 yrs	32	68.88
	30 - 39 yrs	63	58.85
	40 - 54 yrs	24	51.19
Totals number of respondents		**119**	

4.7 INTEGRATION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

In this section, the results are discussed in terms of the research objectives that were investigated. Each research aim with its corresponding statistical findings is presented and analysed. Table 4.7 provides an overview of the research aims that were formulated for the purposes of this study, the statistical procedures performed to investigate the research objectives and the final decisions reached.

Table 4.9: Summary of decisions regarding the research aims

Empirical research aim	Statistical procedure
Research aim 1: To determine how security officers, perceive the management of their performance	Factor analysis by means of formative research analysis
Research aim 2: To determine to what extent security officers' perceptions about performance management related to actual job performance	Spearman's rho utilised to investigate correlations between performance management and company-reported performance
Research aim 3: To determine to what extent security officers' perceptions of their own performance related to actual work performance	Correlations between self-reported performance and company-reported performance Spearman's rho
Research aim 4: To determine to what extent biographical factors such as age, educational level, marital status and number of dependants influence perceptions about performance management and work behaviour	Frequencies and correlations between biographical factors, performance management and company-reported behaviours

Research aim 5: To formulate conclusions and recommendations for the discipline of human resource management regarding the performance management of security officers and possible future research based on the findings of the research	177 | P a g e

4.7.1 Research aim 1

The results provide supportive evidence for research aim 1: To determine how security officers at the company perceive the management of their performance.

This research aim was investigated by means of a formative research analysis which was used to identify factors critical to the management of security officers' performance.

The following eleven factors were identified:

- (1) Realistic work expectations;
- (2) Supervision;
- (3) Training (mentoring);
- (4) Rewards/recognition;
- (5) Policy/procedure;
- (6) Support;
- (7) Information;
- (8) Interpersonal relationships;
- (9) Satisfaction;
- (10) Commitment; and
- (11) Quality of work life.

The results indicated that in terms of the eleven identified performance management factors, there was a strong indication that security officers felt that overall, they coped with their work tasks and work load, expressed satisfaction with their supervision and were comfortable discussing work-related issues with their supervisor. The training they received to perform their duties and to gain knowledge indicated high levels of satisfaction. They also mentioned that they were recognised for their work, felt that they were respected by colleagues and were aware of the company's policies and procedures. They indicated that the support provided to them to perform their duties was sufficient. The information provided to them indicated awareness of sick and leave policies and job tasks were clearly explained to them. The security officers had a relatively positive response to interpersonal relationships in the workplace and being satisfied with their role and the benefits they received. They felt that they work hard and were productive during their shifts, only took sick leave when they were ill, and that they looked for ways to improve their performance. They further indicated that they had not tampered with a doctor's note or bought a sick note instead of consulting a doctor, neither had they reported to leaving early or arriving late at work.

Security officers did not view performance management as a waste of time but stated that if they were to receive feedback on their performance, they would perform better.

The security officers agreed that they were treated with dignity by co-workers, but they had reservations about being respected enough by their supervisors and the public. They indicated a level of boredom in their jobs, felt they were not paid enough and that the company did not adequately address their requests for leave nor did they take into consideration options to accommodate the different needs of individuals.

4.7.2 Research aim 2

Research aim 2 investigated the relationship between security officers' perceptions of performance management and their actual job performance. This research aim was investigated by means of Spearman's rho correlations, which were used to identify perceptions about performance management and actual job performance.

By means of data analysis, it was determined that there was a negative correlation between realistic work expectations and failure to follow instructions. It was further determined that there was a negative correlation between the number of days absent and supervision, and the number of days absent and interpersonal relationships. It also emerged that the more the employer expects of an employee, the less he is inclined to follow instructions. Similarly, the stricter the supervision, the less inclined the employee is to be absent from work, and the higher the level of interpersonal relationships, the less inclined the employee is to be absent. This emphasises the critical role a supervisor plays in employees' performance.

4.7.3 Research aim 3

Research aim 3 investigated the relationship between security officers' perceptions of their own performance and their actual work performance.

The data analysis did not reveal significant differences between the way in which security officers viewed their own performance compared to their actual work performance according to company records. Absenteeism appeared to be a problem, although the respondents did not admit to being absent. The majority of disciplinary cases involved failure to perform standard operating procedures, although the respondents did not report this.

There seemed to be consensus among the respondents about performance behaviours such as sick leave, arriving late, sleeping on duty, not wearing the correct uniform and failure to patrol sites. The company did not report these behaviours as being problematic, and according to the security officers, they were also not guilty of misconduct in terms of these behaviours.

4.7.4 Research aim 4

The purpose of research aim 4 was to determine to what extent biographical factors such as age, educational level, marital status, and number of dependants influenced work performance.

Differences were evident between the 22 to 29, 30 to 39 and 40 to 49 age groups. The 20 to 29 age group regarded realistic work expectations as less important and did not view supervision as an important aspect of performance management. This age group opined that security officers were not respected enough, and they did not deem information a significant performance management factor. However, they did feel that they were fairly paid in their current job. The younger age group also felt it was their right to use all their sick leave in a sick leave cycle, and they did not report colleagues who abused sick leave or left early or arrived late because of personal matters.

The 30 to 39 age group viewed realistic work expectations as an important factor of performance management and were also of the opinion that they performed better provided that they received feedback. They regarded policies/procedures and rewards and recognition as critical components of a performance management system. They were aware of the grievance procedure and were also prepared to lodge a grievance if unfairly treated. Compared to the younger group, they indicated that information was important for performance management. Overall, they felt satisfied and committed towards responsible sick leave management.

The 40 to 54 age group also felt that realistic work expectations, supervision, training, policies/procedures, information and interpersonal relationships, as well as satisfaction, were critical components of a performance management system. This age group did not view support as an important factor but did indicate that their superiors are listened to their suggestions. One would assume that older employees have more experience and are in a better position to provide input - hence the fact that their superiors listened to them. They also regarded it as their right to use all their sick leave in a cycle and not report colleagues who abused sick leave, left early or arrived late for duty. Apart from the fact that the older workers were more inclined to make use of sick leave, a mentality of "the company owes me for years of hard work" was often adopted, which led to employees fully utilising any employee benefit. Quality of work life was deemed as important, but they did not feel that they should be treated differently because of their personal circumstances and travelling long distances between work and home, compared to the younger security officers.

No significant correlations could be established between biographical factors such as marital status and number of dependants which influenced work performance.

4.7.5 Research aim 5

The last research aim was to formulate conclusions and recommendations for the discipline of human resource management regarding the performance management of security officers and possible future research based on the findings of the research.

In the next chapter, various recommendations are made on the basis of results of this study. The recommendations focus on how performance management could be improved to allow the DSI to become more useful in relation to the management of security officers' performance.

4.8   SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the factor analysis, descriptive, frequencies and correlational statistics relevant to the study in order to integrate the findings of the literature study with the findings of the empirical research study which had been conducted.

The findings discussed above indicate that the empirical research aims of the study were achieved. Chapter 5 deals with the conclusions, limitations and recommendations regarding this research.

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter of the study provides a conclusive and holistic view of the research findings. Firstly, the reasons for conducting this study are highlighted, followed by the conclusions of the study in terms of the research findings. The limitations of the study are reported and acknowledged as boundaries for the application of this research. Thereafter recommendations are formulated for the field of human resource management and specifically for the management of security officers' performance in a private security company. Suggestions are then made for future research in terms of the performance management of security officers. The chapter and study conclude with an overall analysis of the contribution of the study and a final summary of the chapter.

This chapter addresses research aim 5, namely to formulate conclusions and recommendations for the discipline of human resource management regarding performance management of security officers and possible future research based on the findings of the research.

5.2 REASONS FOR CONDUCTING THE RESEARCH

Performance Management forms an integral aspect of Human Resources Management, which has been widely researched with new theories and ideologies having been discussed and documented over the years. One area in which performance management has scant attention is the performance management of positions such as security officers. These positions may be driven largely by policies and procedures but lack the human resources element. There is minimal documented research on security officers' performance. With the increasing demands of the private security industry and the desire to render a service to clients which surpasses the

perception of a run-of-the-mill service, it was identified as an area that merited further investigation.

The aim of the study was to identify the various performance management factors that play a critical role in the management of security officers' performance. To this end, a comprehensive literature study was undertaken to identify the factors underlying effective performance management practices. The questionnaire items were categorised according to these factors, which were then used as constructs of performance management. Work performance was analysed in terms self-reported behaviours and company-reported work performance. Security officers' perception of performance management were compared with security officers' self-reported and company-reported behaviours. The study further investigated the relationship between biographical factors such as age and education and the work performance of security officers.

The above discussion provided a brief background on the reasons for conducting this research. This study was viewed from a performance management perspective with special attention focused on security officers. Each of the topics covered in this study were extensively reviewed in the literature study conducted in chapters 2 and 3. The research was performed at a private security company in Gauteng.

5.3   CONCLUSIONS BASED ON THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

The nature of this study was exploratory and provided valuable insights into the perception of security officers' performance management. This section focuses on the conclusions drawn from the empirical study. The statistical results provided supportive evidence for the research aims formulated in Chapter 1. The findings in terms of each of the research aims that merit discussion are presented as conclusions.

5.3.1 Conclusions drawn from research aim 1

Research aim 1: To determine how security officers at the company perceive the management of their performance

Research aim 1 encompassed the general aim of the research. The researcher was of the opinion that by determining the factors that could assist in the management of security officers' performance, a more detailed and structured performance management system could be implemented by security companies. This would enable these companies to gain a competitive advantage and become an employer of choice. This study identified the following performance management factors as critical for the management of security officers' performance:

➢ **Realistic work expectations**

The findings for realistic work expectations as a performance factor indicated that the employees coped with their tasks and were capable of handling fair workloads. The results seem to indicate that employees were unaware or unsure of what was expected of them in meeting fair workloads and job standards. The outcome would therefore indicate that security officers performed their tasks daily but were unsure about what this entailed to meet fair job workloads and job standards. They merely performed what they perceived to be their daily tasks within the structure they were familiar with. For this performance factor to deliver better results it might be necessary to included it in a performance management system to measure and improve workloads and job standards.

➢ **Supervision**

According to the results, the supervisor does play a significant role in the daily management of performance. Security officers view their supervisors as being satisfied with their work performance, although this may not be measured on actual performance factors, but more on attendance and resolving issues relevant to a site. Security officers do value the supervisor's involvement and places a high value on the approachability of supervisors relating to work situations. Security officers often face personal problems and require a supervisor who is sympathetic towards their unique circumstances. One reason why the supervisor may have less of a sympathetic ear regarding personal problems is the time factor. A supervisor has several sites to visit daily, which may cause him or her to spend time on work-related issues only.

➢ **Training/mentoring**

The findings for this factor indicated that security officers received sufficient operational training to perform their jobs daily because they were inducted when joining the company and if transferred to a different site, they are provided with site training. Hence at operational level, security guards should be fully compliant with what their duties entail – this was evident in the results. The results indicated that security officers perform mundane tasks with limited unpredictable situations. However, having indicated sufficient operational training, additional soft skills training could be beneficial to the employees, the company and the public when liaising with clients and the public. Security officers are ultimately the "face" of the company. The respondents indicated that if they were to be provided with feedback on their performance they might perform better. This is an indication of a lack of a more formalised performance management system and perhaps a lack of quality supervision resulting from the current supervisory structure.

➢ **Rewards/recognition**

The findings indicated that the security officers felt they were held accountable for their actions because disciplinary action was taken. They opined that they were treated with respect and dignity by their co-workers but did not feel they are being respected enough as security officers, which could be the way they view the treatment they receive from the public and/or supervisors. The respondents did not view their positions as being powerful, which could also relate to a lack of confidence or understanding of the importance of the roles they perform in the greater security solution offerings. They did not believe that they were rewarded for work performance. In the absence of a successfully managed performance management system, this is a realistic view, with security officers being paid a salary with only statutory requirements (i.e. allowances for, say, night shifts or cleaning).

➢ **Policy/procedures:**

Overall, the findings indicated that the respondents had a high level of understanding of the requirements of the company's policies and procedures. The company's policies and procedures form part of a security officers' training and therefore indicated positive results in terms of the security officers' view that policies are an integral part of performance management. The security officers indicated a slightly lower than

average score regarding the company taking consistent corrective action or disciplinary action against security officers who abuse sick leave. The respondents agreed that the company requires a sick note if an employee be absent for one day, but this requirement may not be viewed by security officers as being applied consistently, which was supported by the lower than average score on the belief that corrective action is taken against security officers who abuse sick leave. This statement did not appear to have merit when examining the number of disciplinary actions or terminations based on absenteeism. The results indicated a clear relationship between disciplinary actions taken and the abuse of sick leave. It might be worthwhile to investigate whether disciplinary action is instituted against all absent security officers. This also highlights the crucial role a supervisor plays in the consistent management of work performance. It was interesting to note that the security officers reported not having asked doctors to provide them with a medical certificate when they were not actually ill. The reason for this could be that security officers do not have money to waste on visiting doctors in order to obtain a medical certificate.

➢ **Support**

The findings indicated that the security officers felt they were provided with the necessary site equipment, and they could voice grievances against unfair treatment. However, they were not as confident about being heard when making suggestions. They did not view their performance as having an impact on their colleagues. This indicated that the security officers were not aware of their individual importance and the impact they have on the service delivery to clients. As indicated in the previous chapter, their handover at shift changes is vital, specifically in carrying out instructions and information arising from the previous shift. The fact that they are not being heard when making suggestions indicates a lack of support from their supervisor. The respondents were also concerned about the lack of respect from their supervisor when he or she failed to convey their suggestions to management and provide feedback to them.

➢ **Information**

This factor scored high in terms of the information provided on company policies and procedures. Security officers also reported that they received training to enable them

to perform their jobs. The management of performance in relation to supplying information seems to be on track. In the company, this is possibly because of the induction/on-site training given to recruits when they join the company. This has a positive impact in terms of the training (mentoring) factor, where the respondents indicated that positive feedback was received on induction training, and the knowledge and skills required to perform their duties

➢ **Interpersonal relationships**

The findings indicated that the security officers had a good relationship with their supervisors at an operational level, because they were informed of changes and provided with training on any new procedures. At the negative end of the scale, the security officers felt they were not given feedback on their individual performance, and they did not feel motivated by the supervisor's feedback; nor did the supervisor's guidance enable them to perform better. This result was also indicated under the factor relating to support. A possible area of development would be the role a supervisor is required to perform in the management of and relationships with security officers. Supervisors' roles should be clarified in detail and they should receive refresher courses on supervisory skills.

➢ **Satisfaction**

The security officers indicated that performance management was not a waste of time. This also relates back to security officers' indication that if they were to be given better feedback on their performance they might perform better. Another factor that scored higher than the average was the security officers' satisfaction with company benefits. They also indicated that they liked their jobs and felt that the company treated them fairly. On a slightly lower scale, the respondent felt the company had measures to deal with ill-health. Ill-health is part of the company's provident fund, which makes provision for permanent disability and death benefits. One factor that stood out negatively was the security officers assertion that they did receive fair remuneration for their jobs.

➢ **Commitment**

The findings largely indicated committed employees. However, the negative indicators referred to security officers' assertion that they did not do more than is required of them; they felt it was not their right to use all their sick leave in a sick leave cycle; they

did not report colleagues who abused sick leave; they did not tamper with a medical certificate; and they did not buy medical certificates. Overall, the security officers were aware of what was required of them and they demonstrated a good sense of commitment towards the company.

➢ **Quality of work life**

The findings indicated that the security officers were not afforded leave to attend to personal matters. They felt that the company did not treat security officers differently because of personal circumstances. Shift work also did not seem to affect them and did not feel fatigued because of travelling long hours to and from work. They also indicated that they were not bored in their jobs. They mentioned that they did not abuse sick leave for personal matters, and seldom took sick leave because of stressful situations at work and did not sleep during working hours.

In summary, the overall indication based on the results drawn of the factor analysis was that security officers in the company were generally satisfied with the 11 performance factors. Areas of concern however involved a lack of performance management, feedback on individual performance, recognition/rewards and of job empowerment.

5.3.2 Conclusions drawn from research aim 2

Research aim 2: To determine to what extent security officers' perceptions about performance management related to actual job performance?

The research results indicated a clear relationship between performance management factors and work performance. The direction of the results varied across the factors. The following factors appeared to have the most significant impact on work performance:

➢ *Realistic work expectations.* A small negative correlation was evident between realistic work expectations and failure to follow instructions. Although the security officers reported that they were coping with their tasks and workload, it appeared that the higher the work expectation, the more security officers were found not

following instructions. This was evident in the disciplinary actions relating to failure to follow instructions reported by company behaviours. According to the statements, the security officers assigned less importance to meeting fair job standards or handling fair workloads. This does not mean they were not concerned about it, but it is possible they might have lacked a clear definition of or direction in what is expected of them. It is also possible that their supervisors were at fault by not communicating fair standards or fair workloads. Hence the security officers were thus not confronted with issues about job standards or workloads and did not grasp the actual significance of meeting fair job standards and handling fair workloads. It is possible that they only equate doing their jobs diligently with what is operationally required of them. This could have led to a poor work ethic and hence poor performance/behaviours, supported by the number of disciplinary cases.

➢ *Supervision.* The findings indicated a medium negative correlation between supervision and number of days absent. It emerged that the higher the engagement between a supervisor and security officer and the higher the level of trust displayed between them, the less frequently the security officer would be inclined to be absent from work. Where a supervisor was less engaged with his direct employees, the rate of absenteeism was higher.

Generally, a supervisor interacts on a daily basis with each of his sites. Once he has visited the site, the security officer is aware that he will probably not re-visit the site again – hence where there is a low level of engagement, the security officer may be inclined to arrive late, leave the site early or abandon his site to buy food. The supervisor's interaction on a daily basis is imperative to the management of employee performance. This role requires a high level of engagement, teamwork and trust.

➢ *Interpersonal relationships.* The findings indicated a small negative correlation between interpersonal relationships and work performance in relation to the number of days absent. This indicates that the positive relationships between a supervisor and staff would result in fewer employees showing a tendency to be absent.

These results clearly indicated that there is in fact a relationship between performance factors and work performance. This further underscores the importance of a supervisor managing the performance of security officers and the impact effective management has on the work performance of security officers.

5.3.3 Conclusions drawn from research aim 3

Research aim 3: To determine to what extent are security officers' perceptions about their own performance related to actual work performance?

Supportive evidence was provided to establish that security officer's perceptions about their own performance compared to company-reported behaviours indicated hardly any differences. The differences related mostly to absenteeism, disciplinary AWOL and disciplinary cases pertaining to failure to perform standard operating procedures.

As reported in Chapter 4, the results indicated that the company reported 33.6% or 40 security officers having never been absent; 52.1% or 22 security officers being absent for one day; 74.8% or ten employees being absent for four days and 98.3% or two security officers being absenteeism for 41 days. By contrast, the security officers reported that 87.4% of security officers had never been absent from work, and 12.6% had reportedly been absent for between one and three days. The figure of 98% reported by the company could relate to two individuals having used all their sick leave in their leave cycle on account of extended illness. The above figures indicate a misrepresentation of absenteeism reported by security officers. Further investigation would be required to report on the causes of absenteeism.

In terms of sick leave, the company reported that 26.9%, or 32 security officers had never taken sick leave. The remaining security officers had taken sick leave varying between one and 41 days. Most of the sick leave used related to 13 employees who had each taken two days, and 12 employees who had each taken three days. The highest incidence of sick leave of 41 days was by one by 1 security officer. In total 299 days sick leave were used.

The results showed that 89.9% of security officers rated themselves as "I only take sick leave when I am sick"; 89.1% reported they did not take sick leave because of stressful situations at work, that is, "[I] take sick leave to attend to personal situations"; and 80.7% indicating that "[I] rather take sick leave than annual leave". A total of 97.5% reported that they were never absent from work for valid medical reasons. From the total sample, only 32 security officers had not used sick leave, with the balance of 87 having been sick from between one and three days. For both absenteeism and sick leave, there appears to be a clear misrepresentation between company-reported and self-reported behaviours. The question is therefore whether absenteeism and sick leave are linked to abuse, resulting in problems that cause employees to use sick leave, or whether real illness is the actual cause of sick leave and absenteeism. It could relate to security officers not having funds to visit medical practitioners and therefore staying at home, or it could be a matter of "month-end" illness, where security officers stay away or book off sick over a pay weekend so that they can take money to their families. This would require further investigation to determine the actual cause of sick leave.

A total of 51.3% security officers had not been disciplined, with 30 each having been disciplined for one incident, (76.5%), and 20 each having been disciplined for two incidents (93.3%), and two having been disciplined for a total of four incidents each, making up 99.2%. In comparison, 95% of the respondents reported not having received any verbal warnings, with small percentages (between 1.7% and 2.5%) having received warnings for being absent for one to three days and more than six days respectively.

The above results can be compared with the self-reported behaviours, which indicated significant frequencies based on "always true", namely that 79% reportedly did not leave work early or arrive late; 72.3% claimed that applying for leave did not take long; 99.2% did not leave their site unattended to buy food; 89.9% did not sleep on the job; 69.7% did not come to work sick but rather used sick leave; 89.1% did not take sick leave because of stressful situations or to attend to personal problems; 96.6% did not phone in sick to attend to personal matters; 80.7% would use their annual leave rather than their sick leave; 95.8% did not ask a doctor to provide a sick note without being sick; and 97,5% reportedly never abused sick leave. The results indicated that security

officers' perceptions of self-reported performance regarding sick leave differed slightly from company-reported behaviours although sick leave was not emphasised as being problematic.

5.3.4 Conclusions drawn from research aim 4

Research aim 4: To determine to what extent biographical factors such as age, educational level, marital status and number of dependants influence perceptions of performance management at the company

The results showed that age and educational levels did play a significant role in perceptions of performance management and actual work performance. A negative correlation determined that employees who had some form of higher education had fewer disciplinary actions taken for absenteeism. Security officers with longer tenure appeared to have more disciplinary actions. This could be attributed to security officers with higher education having a better understanding of the potential threat to their positions and higher level of responsibility. Security officers with longer tenure could have had higher number of disciplinary actions because of their exposure to more interactions, resulting in disciplinary actions being taken.

Marital status and number of dependants did not indicate any significant conclusions regarding performance management. This could be ascribed to the fact that the survey was conducted on males who might not be living with their spouses and/or children but residing elsewhere. The results showed the following differences between the various age groups:

The results for the security officers between the ages of 22 and 29 revealed the following:
➢   Realistic work expectations were viewed as less important.
➢   Supervision was perceived to be less important to performance management.
➢   Training was less important compared to the views of the other age groups.
➢   Policy/procedures were deemed less important compared to the views of the other age groups.
➢   Security officers were not respected enough.

The results for the security officers between the ages 30 and 39 revealed the following:

➢ Realistic work expectations were important.

➢ Feedback on performance would encourage better performance.

➢ Policy/procedure was deemed a significant performance factor.

➢ Reward and recognition were important as a performance factor.

➢ It is necessary to be provided with information as a performance management factor.

➢ It is important for supervisors to set a good example.

➢ Satisfaction is a significant important performance factor.

➢ Commitment is a key performance factor.

The results for the security officers in the 40 to 54 age group revealed the following:

➢ Work expectations are an important performance factor.

➢ Supervision is a significant performance factor.

➢ Training is viewed as a vital performance factor.

➢ Policy/procedure is an important performance factor.

➢ Reward and recognition are a key performance factor.

➢ It is essential to be provided with information as a performance management factor.

➢ It is necessary for supervisors to set a good example.

➢ Satisfaction is a key performance factor.

➢ Commitment is an important performance factor.

➢ Quality of work life is a significant performance factor.

The conclusions that could be drawn from research aim 4 indicated many similarities between the 30 to 39 and 40 to 54 age groups. Both groups intimated that performance factors relating to supervision, training, policy/procedures and reward/recognition were important performance management factors. The youngest age groups (22 to 29) emphasised as significant those factors relating to respect, receiving remuneration for their job, having a right to use sick leave and not reporting colleagues who abuse sick leave. This underscored a higher level of employee engagement with security officers in the categories of 30 to 54, whereas the younger group appeared more materialistic

and less concerned about using sick leave responsibly. The findings seem to indicate that the younger age group would be inclined to be less motivated, with less employee engagement compared to the older age groups, who would have acquired skills over the span of their careers, and would tend to be more engaged, responsible and motivated.

5.3.5 Conclusions drawn from research aim 5

Research aim 5: To formulate conclusions and recommendations for the discipline of the performance management of security officers regarding strategies and in relation to possible future research based on the findings of the research

Based on the findings, conclusions and limitations of this study, recommendations for the performance management of security officers, and for further research in the field are highlighted below.

5.4   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE FIELD OF HR: THE PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT OF SECURITY OFFICERS

When developing a performance management system for security officers the following recommendations should be considered:

The job description of security officer should be re-analysed to ensure it is relevant and meets the company's goals. It is evident from the current job descriptions that they need to be updated to relate more specifically to the performance management system. Although the current job description does touch on factors such as absenteeism, client liaison, training/coaching of staff, it does not adequately address all the aspects of performance management.

The possibility of formulating a structured performance management system should be explored. The findings of the study showed that certain measurement factors are in existence, but they have not been translated into structured and formalised goals, linked to rewards and recognition. The measurement factors that were identified and that could be included in a performance management system are, realistic work

expectations pertaining to security officers' performance in meeting fair job standards and fair workloads, adhering to policies and procedures and interpersonal relationships with supervisors and clients. Performance management should also include absenteeism and timekeeping, whether it be arriving late, leaving early or abandoning a site to buy food. The management of performance should be linked to a training/mentoring programme to address areas of development and ultimately, effective performance management linked to rewards and recognition.

Regarding the management of supervisory staff, the findings showed that although supervisors conducting regular checks on the security officers, these are mostly routine and extremely limited, and hardly any performance management skills are deployed. Supervisors should be up skilled/trained to meaningfully measure the performance of security officers and provide meaningful feedback, coaching and mentoring to individuals. Supervisors should become more involved in the security officers' daily tasks in order to build effective interpersonal relationships based on trust, integrity and overall engagement.

The role of rewards and recognition in the management of security officers' performance warrants further research. The findings showed that security officers are not being properly rewarded and recognised. Owing to the remuneration structure of security officers being determined by a sectoral determination, based on regulated rates of pay, the revenue margins of companies are marginalised. Additional costs cannot be carried over to clients because the provision of security services is highly cost sensitive and competitive. Because of the small revenue margins, providing for rewards and recognition programmes tends to be difficult. The introduction of a rewards and recognition programme would require an in-depth investigation to find alternative methods of implementation without necessarily increasing salaries. Possible areas would include the work environments, motivation, staff development and staff benefits.

Organisations should strive to provide skills programmes that promote the development and skills of security officers to develop them for positions such as the armed response or other skills required by the organisation. This would afford security officers the opportunity to improve their career and life-style. In addition, it could serve

as a promotional structure and form part of a performance management system that rewards and recognises performance.

5.5   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The researcher maintains that to enhance external validity, further research should focus on a larger representative sample, inclusive of other security companies. The results of a wider research base could offer deeper insight into the performance management of security officers.

5.6   CONTRIBUTION

The conclusions drawn from each research aim were discussed above. This provided a brief overview of how the study should contributed to research in the field of human resource management. This is a special and distinctive study in that it provides insight into a performance management system of security officers.

From an empirical point of view, this study made the following contributions:

➢   It identified the different performance factors relating to the performance management of security officers.
➢   It determined the relationship between self-reported and company-reported behaviours and the different performance management factors.
➢   It acknowledged the fact that a structured performance management system is required in the performance management of security officers.

From a general perspective, this study made the following contributions:

➢   The literature review provided insights into the various concepts and theoretical models of performance management.
➢   The findings of the empirical study provided a unique contribution in terms of the performance management of security officers.
➢   The integration of the findings of the literature review and the empirical study should provide the company under investigation and other security

organisations with key factors that could be used to develop an effective performance management system specifically for security officers.

5.7   LIMITATIONS

When considering the unique work circumstances of security officers regarding performance management, there is a paucity of research both in the South African context and abroad on the performance management of security officers. Although extensive research has been conducted on the field of performance management, research on the management of security officers' performance is extremely limited.

The study was conducted in a security company in South Africa and may not apply to organisations in other fields of practice. This study was conducted in the Gauteng province and may therefore not be applicable to the performance management of security officers in South Africa or elsewhere in the world, for that matter.

The population and sample consisted exclusively of men. Owing to the nature of the industry, hours of work and shift work, few female security officers are employed and were therefore excluded from this study. Therefore, the findings of the research related exclusively to men and cannot be generalised to both gender groups.

The sample was relatively small and was deemed to be slightly biased because of to the representation of African men only. Hence the findings of the study are applicable to men who work in the security industry only.

In terms of Cronbach values below 0.5, these values are seen as a limitation to the study.

5.8   SUMMARY

This chapter marks the end of this study, which examined the performance management of security officers.

This chapter provided a brief overview of the rationale for this research study in order to provide a holistic assessment of the research. Thereafter conclusions were drawn from the research findings and briefly explained. The contribution and limitations of the research were discussed. In the final section formulated recommendations for the field of human resource management and for the performance of security officers.

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