MEDIATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND INTENTION TO QUIT

BY

CHRISBEL MDUDUZI NCUBE

(361500)

A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Commerce.

Supervisor - Professor Michael O. Samuel

JOHANNESBURG

SOUTH AFRICA

MAY 2016

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, **Chrisbel Mduduzi Ncube**, hereby declare that this research is my own, unaided work. It is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Commerce at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

I further declare that:

- I am aware that plagiarism (the use of someone else's work without their permission and/or without acknowledging the original source) is wrong.
- I have followed the required conventions in referencing the thoughts and ideas of others.
- I understand that the University of the Witwatersrand may take disciplinary action against me if there is a belief that this is not my own unaided work or that I have failed to acknowledge the source of the ideas or words in my writing.

Signed at the **University of the Witwatersrand** on this the **25th day of May, 2016**

____

(Signature)

ABSTRACT

Since McKinsey and Company (1998) coined the term "the war for talent" (Axelrod, Handfield-Jones, & Welsh, 2001; Michaels, Handfield-Jones & Axelrod, 2001) in response to a lack of highly skilled and talented employees in the labour market and the need for organisations to compete for this limited talent pool, the topic of talent management has received a remarkable degree of practitioner and academic interest (Bhatnagar, 2007; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Vaiman, Scullion & Collings, 2012). The scarcity of highly skilled and talented employees has resulted in a paradigm shift, with the "old reality" (people need companies) replaced by new business realities (companies need talented and highly skilled people). This has forced organisations to institute aggressive talent management policies, practices and strategies to attract, develop, and optimise the available talent in both the broader market place and specific industries. The effective management of highly skilled and talented employees has also emerged as a major source of competitive advantage for organisations, resulting in desirable consequences such as organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and lower turnover intentions.

Based on this premise, this study sought to investigate the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between employees' perception of the organisation's current talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction and their intention to quit the organisation. The mediating characteristics of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction on the relationship between the perceived talent management practices and employees' intention to quit are also investigated. A cross-sectional, survey-based descriptive research design utilising quantitative research methods was adopted to acquire information and primary data needed for analysis. The study was carried out on highly skilled and talented employees (supervisors, line managers, senior managers and directors) of a multinational fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) food manufacturing company in South Africa. The target population of the research comprised of (N = 267) 267 employees of the surveyed organisation with a sample size of (N = 151) 151 respondents. A standardised questionnaire adapted from five instruments− talent management practices (Human Capital Institute, 2008), organisational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990), employee engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003), job satisfaction (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967), and intention to quit (Arnold & Feldman, 1982) measured on a Likert type of scale was utilised to collect primary data. A non-probability sampling technique (convenience sampling) was used to collect primary data. The scales used in the study reported Cronbach Coefficient Alphas above the minimum recommended 0.70 margin (Field, 2009) suggesting that the measuring instrument is reliable. The study utilised multiple linear regression analysis to test the proposed hypotheses.

The results showed direct significant relationships between the variables under study, suggesting that investing in effective talent management practices relating to talent acquisition, workforce planning, talent development, performance management, talent retention, and other practices may result in desirable outcomes for the organisation. These include enhanced organisational commitment, high levels of employee engagement, increased employee job satisfaction, and reduced turnover intentions. It is recommended that organisations in South Africa and the organisation under study, in particular, develop talent management practices and strategies that can be implemented and applied in the organisation in order to attract and retain highly skilled and talented employees. It is further recommended that organisations develop effective, practical and holistic talent management practices and strategies that will not only attract talent, but also address organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and the retention of highly skilled and talented employees, thus boosting organisational performance and productivity.

Keywords: talent, talent management, talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, intention to quit, FMCG.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I am deeply thankful to God Almighty for His unconditional love, kindness, abiding faith, provision, mercy and most importantly for the strength and ability to complete this dissertation.

I would also like to extend my heartfelt gratitude to my supervisor Professor Michael Olorunjuwon Samuel for the continued guidance, direction and support of my Masters research, for his patience, motivation, enthusiasm, and immense knowledge. I could not have imagined having a better supervisor and mentor for my research.

To the management and employees of the organisation subject to this research, thank you for participating in this work. Your time and cooperation is greatly appreciated. Special appreciation goes to Estie, the Senior Human Resources Business Partner of the company under study for her continued assistance throughout the whole primary data collection process.

To Emmanuel Nkomo, thank you for your unwavering support and constant guidance during the completion of my studies.

To my brother Forgive, and my friends Nadia, Isabella and Goodwill, thank you for constantly affirming your support.

Lastly, but most importantly, I would like to thank my mother, Sithabile Ncube for all your love, support, and encouragement. I would not have made it without you.

DEDICATION

To my mother, Sithabile Ncube;

My brother, Mthokozisi Blessing Ncube;

and

To my late auntie, Constance "Connie" Ncube

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Talent management has become one of the most debated topics in human resource management theory and practice (Huselid, Beatty & Becker, 2005; Ready & Conger, 2007; Thunnissen, Boselie & Fruytier, 2013), and a major key strategic issue facing managers in the twenty first century (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007; Capelli, 2008; Collings & Mellahi, 2009). In a knowledge-based and hyper-connected global economy, the environment for most organisations today is global, complex, dynamic, highly competitive, and extremely volatile, and is predicted to remain so for years to come (Tarique & Schuler, 2010). McCauley and Wakefield (2006) posit that as a result of a highly competitive global market, today's businesses are faced with more difficulties in attracting, developing, and retaining the highly skilled workers they need. Researchers over the past few years (Tymon Jr, Strumpf & Doh, 2010; Vaiman, 2010; Vaiman, *et al.*, 2012) suggest that for organisations across the globe, talent management of knowledge workers and workers with high potential is of increasing strategic importance.

In order to understand talent management, it is important to firstly understand the concept of talent. Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries and González-Cruz (2013) argue that the continued lack of clarity about the meaning of 'talent' within the world of work is hindering the establishment of widely accepted talent management theories and practices. According to Lewis and Heckman (2006) talent is essentially a euphemism for people. Talent can be seen as a scarce or critical skill (Marah & Leigh-Ann, 2008), or as people with the ability to add value to the organisation through the use of their skills, abilities and knowledge (Goff, 2008; Iles, Preece & Chuai, 2010; Preece, Iles & Chuai, 2011).

The worldwide skills gaps have forced organisations to institute aggressive talent management policies, practices and strategies to attract, develop, and optimise the available talent in both the broader market place and specific industries (Meyer *et al*., 2007). Even amidst high unemployment in South Africa, officially estimated at approximately 25.5% in the third quarter (Stats SA, 2015), the competition for talent continues to heat up, fuelled by the need to gain a competitive advantage. The increasing attention for talent and the expected talent shortages are affected by several trends and factors, such as demographic changes caused by ageing, increasing mobility, competition, advances in technology and globalisation (Basri & Box 2008; Beechler & Woodward 2009; Tarique & Schuler 2010; Schuler, Jackson & Tarique 2011).

South Africa is currently experiencing a brain drain that could severely impact its competitiveness (Du Preez, 2002). According to Oehley (2007), South Africa is experiencing a unique situation in the quest to find and retain talented employees. Contogiannis (2007) stresses that skills shortages in the South African economy, and the reasons behind them, are well known and they are one of the major constraints for sustainable economic growth. In addition, Mitchell, Holtom and Lee (2001) postulate that strong competition exists in the country, amongst companies, to attract the best remaining talent that can contribute to organisational competitiveness. Bakos (2007) maintains that the South African employment industry is currently facing a situation where the demand for highly skilled employees is far greater than the supply. This is complicated by the fact that most organisations are in search of this scarce resource and as a result talent pools are becoming exhausted. Thus, there is a need for organisations in South Africa to develop and implement effective talent management practices, policies and strategies that will enhance organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and reduce employees' intention to quit and in turn decrease staff turnover.

Numerous researchers argue that effective talent management of employees increases employees' job satisfaction (Magolego, Barkhuizen & Lesenyeho, 2013), reduces turnover intentions (Du Plessis, Stanz & Barkhuizen, 2010), enhances organisational commitment (Collings, & Mellahi, 2009; Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011), and results in more engaged employees (Lockwood, 2006; Bhatnagar, 2007).

Bhatnagar (2007) suggests that if talent management policies and practices are implemented effectively, it can result in higher levels of employee engagement and commitment amongst employees. The author also asserts that employee engagement has a significant impact on talent retention and overall employee productivity (Bhatnagar, 2007). A number of researchers suggest that employee engagement (Luthans & Peterson, 2002; Cartwright & Holmes, 2006; Joo & Mclean, 2006; Stairs, Galpin, Page & Linley, 2006), job satisfaction (Birt, Wallis & Winternitz, 2004; Deery, 2008) and organisational commitment (Chew, Girardi & Entrekin, 2005; Davidson, Timo & Wang, 2010) are key areas for the attraction, retention and growth of talent and where rigorous academic research is required.

The purpose of this research is to investigate the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit. The study also seeks to examine the extent to which employee engagement, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit, that is the variables that explain the actual relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit. Based on an extensive review of existing literature, a conceptual model of the relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit was derived and tested quantitatively using a sample from the South African context. Moreover, research literature relating to the constructs under study is reviewed.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Talent management is likely to be a challenge for organisations in all the major economies across the world (Vaiman, *et al.*, 2012). Recent research studies (Yeung, Warner & Rowley, 2008; Tymon *et al*., 2010; Vaiman & Holden, 2011) suggest that talent management challenges may be even more acute in the emerging markets. However, there is a paucity of empirical research on talent management in the emerging markets (Vaiman *et al*., 2012). In the past ten years, talent management has become a key management issue. Several studies show that business leaders consider that the attraction, engagement, and retention of highly skilled and talented employees will become a major managerial preoccupation for this decade (Paauwe, 2007; Guthridge, Komm & Lawson, 2008; Deloitte, 2010). These authors expect that the intensifying competition for talent will have a significant effect on companies. Athey (2004) argues that in today's competitive global talent market, organisations tend to address workforce shortages by engaging in a war for talent.

Deloitte's (2010) study suggests that despite the recession of 2008-2009, organisations are adjusting their talent strategies to meet the current talent shortages. In a survey conducted by Oxford Economics (2012), technological advancement (42%), globalisation (41%), shifts in labour demographics (38%), customer needs (38%) and competition (38%) were ascertained as underlying forces that will have the biggest impact on organisations' talent requirements in the years ahead. Beechler and Woodward (2009) identified global demographics and economic trends, increasing mobility of people and organisations, transformational changes to business environments, skills and cultures, and growing levels of workforce diversity as the five significant factors affecting the quantity, quality and characteristics of talent.

The Boston Consulting Group, in cooperation with the European Association for Personnel Management, carried out a survey (Strack, Caye, Von der Linden, Quiros & Haen, 2012) during their joint research project and found that companies which excel in 22 key human resource areas have a profit margin 2.1 times higher, and revenue growth 3.5 times higher than companies that do not excel in these areas. In addition, their findings showed that the three most important areas were talent management, leadership development, performance management and rewards. The present study seeks to determine how, in a knowledge-based global economy, companies can attract, develop and manage talent that will give them a competitive advantage and reduce employees' intention to quit and, in turn decrease staff turnover.

1.2 The Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the current study are to:

- Identify the talent management practices required by managers in order to address the strategic talent plan and value chain relative to the attraction, retention, and growth of talent in an organisation.
- Determine the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit.
- Determine how companies can attract, engage and optimise talent within the broader context and limitations, given the current and future supply and demand of talent.
- Add value to the body of knowledge within the domain of talent management and human resources.

1.3 Research Questions

The research questions are as follows:

- *Is there a significant negative relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit?*
- *Is there a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment?*

- *Is there a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement?*
- *Is there a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction?*
- *Is there a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit?*
- *Is there a significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit?*
- *Is there a significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit?*
- *Is there a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment?*
- *Is there a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction?*
- *Is there a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment?*
- *Does organisational commitment mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit?*
- *Does employee engagement mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit?*
- *Does job satisfaction mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit?*

1.4 Significance of the Study

Over the past few years, talent management has emerged as a popular topic for researchers (Tarique & Schuler, 2010; McDonnell, 2011; Tansley, 2011; Bhengu & Bussin, 2012; Theron, Barkhuizen & Du Plessis, 2014). However, the topic of talent management remains underdeveloped and under-researched (Cohn, Khurana & Reeves, 2005; Lewis & Heckman 2006; Scullion & Collings, 2006; Cappelli, 2008; Collings & Mellahi, 2009), despite it representing one of the greatest organisational challenges of recent decades (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007). There is also a dearth of literature on talent management in developing countries such as South Africa.

In research carried out by the Human Capital Institute (2011), only 57% of companies surveyed had a department formally dedicated to talent management. The results of this study also showed that more than half of companies find it difficult to implement talent management practices. Considering this, it is important that this topic is covered extensively. Moreover, there are a number of areas and questions that need to be explored in order to bridge existing gaps in the literature.

In terms of talent management within a global context, questions such as the following abound: What are the talent management practices and strategies required of line managers and human resource managers to effectively manage talent? To what extent do employee engagement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit? How can organisations attract, engage and optimise talent in the current global market conditions? These questions are likely to have a particularly important applied benefit as they represent some of the key challenges organisations are grappling with in effectively managing their talent. Darvish, Najafi and Zare (2012) maintain that the future of most businesses is reliant on the acquisition, development and retention of talented people to create the leadership capacity and talent required to implement new strategies so as to meet current and future business needs.

It is imperative that human resources departments set the stage for success by attracting, developing and retaining capable employees. There is a need for organisations to establish talent management practices, strategies and new approaches to find, develop, motivate and retain highly skilled and talented employees. The current study will assist human resource and line managers, in particular, with the necessary information and strategic talent plan to identify people whose talent retention is critical. Moreover, the study will ensure that strategic, talent driven organisations endeavouring to win the talent war within a competitive global economy, adopt a long term, integrated and systematic view of their talent, and the supply and demand in the market. It is also hoped that this study will assist organisations in identifying talent management strategies and processes and practices that can be used to attract, select, develop, evaluate and retain talent. Furthermore, it is believed that this study will motivate other researchers to further investigate areas that are not covered in this work.

1.5 Brief Literature Overview

A brief literature overview is presented in this section. An extensive literature review is discussed in greater detail in chapter 2 of the study.

1.5.1 The concept of talent

Michaels, *et al*. (2001) define talent as a person's abilities, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, attitude, character and their ability to learn and grow. Ulrich and Smallwood (2012) suggest that talent equals competence (knowledge, skills, and values required for today’s and tomorrow’s jobs, right skills, right place, right job, right time) times commitment (willing to do the job) times contribution (finding meaning and purpose in their job). The current study adopted Tansley, Turner, Carley, Harris, Sempik, and Stewart’s (2007) definition of talent. The authors assert that talent consists of individuals who demonstrate the highest levels of potential to make a significant contribution to organisational performance.

1.5.2 The concept of talent management

The concept of talent management emerged in the late 1990's, after the publication of McKinsey and Company's 1998 article, The War for Talent (Chambers, Foulon, Handfield-Jones, Hankin & Michaels, 1998), in response to a shortage of highly skilled and talented employees in the labour market. This was because of demographic changes, globalisation, technological advancements, ageing, and increased mobility of the labour force which has resulted in talent management receiving a remarkable degree of practitioner and academic interest (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; McDonnell, Lamare, Gunnigle and Lavelle 2010). For the current study, Stahl, Bjorkman, Farndale, Morris, Stiles and Trevor's (2007) broad definition of talent management, as an organisation's ability to attract, select, develop, and retain highly skilled and talented employees, is adopted.

1.5.3 The concept of organisational commitment

Organisational commitment has received considerable attention from researchers and organisational managers over the past 30 years, with findings indicating that organisational commitment is a better predictor of turnover intentions (Steers, 1977; Arnold & Feldman, 1982); higher performance levels (Mowday, Porter & Durbin, 1974; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Winterton, 2004) and team effectiveness (Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2013). Allen and Meyer (1990) define organisational commitment as a psychological state that binds the individual to the organisation, thereby making turnover less likely.

1.5.4 The concept of employee engagement

Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) define employee engagement as a positive, fulfilling, and work-related state of mind that consists of vigour, dedication, and absorption. According to

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), vigour is characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working. Dedication is characterised by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge. Absorption is characterised by being totally and happily immersed in one's work, to the extent that it is difficult to detach oneself (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

1.5.5 The concept of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has emerged as a popular topic for researchers in a wide area of fields including industrial psychology, public administration, business and higher education (Metle, 2005). Many scholars have offered some guiding definitions to help us understand the concept of job satisfaction. Locke (1976) defines it as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences.

1.5.6 Intention to quit

Intention to quit or leave an organisation is defined as a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Intention to quit has received a great deal of attention (Brown, 1996) and is seen by many writers as the best predictor of turnover. Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole and Owen (2002) define intention to quit as the strength of an individual's view that they do not want to stay with their current organisation. The authors argue that determining the antecedents that lead to an individual's intention to leave (quit) the employment of an organisation is therefore seen as important (Boshoff *et al.*, 2002). According to Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell and Allen (2007) attitudinal and relational inducements play an important role in influencing an individual's decision to quit or stay with an organisation. Moreover, existing literature indicates the interdependence of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and intention to leave (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004).

1.6 Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework is the foundation on which the entire research is based. It should be noted that the topic of talent management has gained increasing attention in the last decade. However, to date, a number of researchers have focused on current talent management or organisational practices, but often lack a theoretical perspective. Recent studies have come to the conclusion that the academic field of talent management is characterised by a lack of definitions and theoretical frameworks (Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007; Capelli, 2008; Meyers & van Woerkom, 2013; Nijs, Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries & Sels, 2014). Collings and Mellahi (2009) argue that if talent management is to gain more mainstream acceptance then the theoretical foundations which underpin it must be advanced.

As the empirical research reported, talent management literature is not based on any specific theory or set of related theories, the current study, therefore, took into consideration the most relevant constructs from prior studies to evaluate the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit. As such, the current study reviewed existing literature (Bhatnagar, 2007; Deery, 2008; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Oehley & Theron, 2010; Magolego *et al.*, 2013; Barkhuizen, 2014) where factors such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, employee engagement and turnover intention are seen as major concerns in the literature on talent management. Based on this review of prior studies, the theoretical foundation of the present study is considered to rest on the social exchange theory (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964), the human capital theory (Becker, 1962) and Herzberg's (1966) two-factor (motivator & hygiene) theory.

1.6.1 Theories underlying the current research

The theoretical framework of the current study, as mentioned above, is focused on the social exchange theory (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964), the human capital theory (Becker, 1962), and the two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1966) which are deemed to be relevant to the study. Based on these three theories, this research explored the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction and employees' intention to quit and considers them as theories that can be used to explain a talented employee's intention to quit or to stay with an organisation. Theories underlying the current research will be explained extensively in the following chapter. The present study drew insights from these theories in order to elucidate their adoption in understanding talent management practices and employees' intention to leave or stay with the organisation.

1.7 Outline of the Dissertation

The chapter outline of the thesis is introduced as follows.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 1 presents an introduction to the study, statement of the problem, and the research objectives which are clearly spelt out. After this, the research questions are introduced, the significance of the study discussed, and a brief literature review given. The definitions of the main research constructs are also laid out. The theoretical foundation for the research is also briefly discussed, with the social exchange theory (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964), the human capital theory (Becker, 1962) and the two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1966) identified as the theories underlying the current research. The chapter concludes with an outline of the chapters for the dissertation.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter 2 provides a detailed discussion of the literature review relating to the constructs under study. The literature that relates to talent, talent management and talent management practices is reviewed. After this, the literature that relates to organisational commitment is reviewed, with Allen and Meyer's three component model (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1991) (affective, continuance & normative), adopted for the commitment construct. Existing literature on employee engagement is reviewed, with the concept of employee engagement defined and the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement briefly discussed, followed by a review of literature relating to job satisfaction and employees' intention to quit. The theoretical basis of the study is presented, with the social exchange theory (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964), the human capital theory (Becker, 1962) and the two-factor (motivation & hygiene) theory (Herzberg, 1966) providing the theoretical framework on which this study is based. The final section of the chapter reviews existing literature relating to the direct and indirect (mediated) relationships between the five concepts under study (talent management practice, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, & intention to quit). The proposed hypothetical model of the study is also presented.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Chapter 3 provides a detailed discussion of the research methodology and design. The first section of the chapter places the research study within certain research paradigms, with particular consideration made of the ontology, epistemology, and the methodology of the study. The second section of the chapter discusses the design and then, the target population, sample size, sampling procedure, and data collection methods are considered. Thereafter, the ethical considerations observed in the research study are deliberated on. An explanation of the research instrument in terms of its design, reliability and validity is given. The chapter concludes with a consideration of the statistical techniques utilised in the research study to analyse the data.

Chapter 4: Research Results and Discussion

Chapter 4 presents the results of the study and includes an analysis and discussion of the research findings. The first section of this chapter presents the results of the descriptive statistics undertaken, with measures of frequency distribution for the biographical characteristics -gender, age, education, and tenure (frequency tables & percentages), cross-tabulation, measures of central tendency (mean), and dispersions (standard deviation) of dependent and independent variables and testing for normality (skewness & kurtosis). The chapter also discusses the Cronbach coefficient Alphas and exploratory factor analysis used to illustrate the internal reliability and validity of the measuring scales. Thereafter, the chapter presents the hypotheses testing process, using multiple linear regression analyses to test the proposed hypotheses, examining the direct and indirect (mediated) relationships between the predictor variable(s) and the outcome variable(s) under study.

Chapter 5: Discussion of Findings, Conclusion, Recommendations and Implications

Chapter 5 concludes the research process with a summary of the empirical research findings reported and analysed in chapter 4. Moreover, the chapter provides a discussion of the resultant implications of the results of the analysis of the research findings. The final section of this chapter presents the conclusions, recommendations, limitations and issues for further research.

1.8 Summary of Chapter

This chapter provided an introduction to the research and a brief discussion of the issues which are discussed in greater detail in the subsequent chapters. This chapter again provided the statement of the problem, the objectives of this study and also its significance. It also provided a brief literature overview including the theoretical framework of the study. Lastly, the chapter gave an outline of each of the chapters found in this dissertation.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided an introduction and a brief summary of the issues that are discussed in this research. This chapter presents a detailed literature review on the topic under study. The purpose of this study is to investigate the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction and employees' intention to quit. A comprehensive review of literature relating to the constructs under study is also given.

Firstly, literature that relates to talent management is reviewed. This section of the literature review focused on the concepts of talent and talent management, factors impacting the war for talent, and then identified talent management practices adapted from the Human Capital Institute (2008) such as the talent review process, staffing, talent acquisition, talent development, workforce planning, performance management, talent strategy, talent retention and financial rewards. Secondly, literature that relates to organisational commitment is reviewed. Researchers have identified affective, continuance, and normative commitment as the three dimensions of organisational commitment. Literature that relates to employee engagement is also reviewed. Researchers argue that employee engagement is a positive work-related state of mind that consists of vigour, dedication and absorption. Moreover, literature that relates to intention to quit is also reviewed followed by that relating to job satisfaction. The final section of the literature review examines the relationships among the five concepts/constructs under study (talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit).

2.2 Talent, Talent Management and Talent Management Practices

2.2.1 Introduction

This section seeks to discuss and critically analyse the definitions of talent and talent management in order to add value to both concepts. The conceptual analysis of talent and talent management arguably presents a much broader and more comprehensive foundation for advancing talent management as an important field within the domain of human resources management. This section focuses on clearly defining the concept of talent and the management of talent itself. Moreover, talent management practices relating to how organisations can attract, develop and retain talent are identified and reviewed. The present study focuses on talent management practices such as talent review process, staffing, talent acquisition, talent development, performance management, workforce planning, talent strategy, talent retention and financial rewards.

2.2.2 The concept of talent

In order to understand talent management better, one must firstly understand the concept of talent. An understanding of the term talent is essential and particularly important. However, the lack of clarity regarding the meaning of 'talent' in the workplace is impeding the development of acceptable talent management theories and practices (Gallardo-Gallardo *et al*., 2013). Some argue that companies do not even know how to define talent, let alone how to manage it (the Economist, 2006). Definitions of talent may differ from one organisation to another (Michaels *et al*., 2001), and are highly influenced by the type of industry in which they operate (Tansley *et al*., 2007).

2.2.2.1 A brief etymological history of the term 'talent'

The term 'talent' has a long history with varied meanings. Holden and Tansley (2008) maintain that etymologically speaking, the word talent is thousands of years old and lexicologists demonstrate that the term has varied greatly with time, people, and locality. Tansley (2011, p. 267) provides a number of examples summarised below:

- The first dictionary definition of 'talent' refers to 'a denomination of weight, used by the Assyrians, Babylonians, Greek, Romans, and other ancient people.
- A talent became a monetary unit when value was attributed to one talent of silver. The word 'talent' entered English via the Bible. In Matthew 25: 14 there is a reference to a man who, about to go on a journey, entrusts his property to his servants, giving each five, two and one talents respectively 'according to his ability'.
- The Greek version of this verse uses the word 'talent', whereas the New English Bible replaces the Greek word 'talent' with the word 'capital'. Today, human resources people also use the term 'human capital', which in some contexts could be seen as synonymous to 'talent'.
- By the thirteenth century the word 'talent' was related to an inclination or a disposition.
- In the fifteenth century it was used to mean treasure, riches, mental endowment and natural ability.
- In the seventeenth century 'talent' related to a special natural ability or aptitudes and faculties of various kinds (mental orders of a superior order, mental power or abilities).
- By the nineteenth century, talent was viewed as embodied in the talented – hence, a person of talent and ability.

The brief etymology of the term ‘talent’ shows how the word has been filled with metaphorical meanings over the centuries. Tansley (2011) argues that throughout the ages, the word ‘talent’ which started life as a unit of weight and then of money, acquired new meaning in Europe during the Middle Ages. Today, the word ‘talent’ has changed to mean special ability or aptitude, with those seen as talented able to demonstrate outstanding accomplishments in mental and physical domains (Tansley, 2011).

2.2.2.2 Talent in the corporate world

There is a lack of consensus on the extent to which the term talent is used in the workplace. A number of researchers (Tansley *et al.*, 2007; McDonnell, 2009; Tansley, 2011; Gallardo-Gallardo *et al.*, 2013) argue that the word talent as it is used in the corporate world has various connotations. According to Tansley *et al.* (2007), the definitions of talent are organisationally specific and influenced by the industry in which they operate, as well as the nature of the work dynamic. In fact, numerous researchers (Michaels *et al.*, 2001; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Silzer & Dowell, 2010; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2012) have tried to define talent in the world of work (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Definitions of talent in the world of work are summarised below

Author (s)	Definition of talent
Michaels *et al.* (2001)	McKinsey define talent as the sum of a person's abilities−his or her intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, judgment, attitude, character and drive. It also includes his or her ability to learn and grow.
Ulrich and Smallwood (2012)	Talent = competence (knowledge, skills, and values required for today's and tomorrow's jobs, right skills, right place, right job, right time) × commitment (willing to do the job) × contribution (finding meaning and purpose in their job).
Tansley *et al.* (2007)	Talent consists of those individuals who can make a difference to organisational performance, either through their immediate contribution or in the longer-term by demonstrating the highest levels of potential.
Lewis and Heckman (2006)	Talent is essentially a euphemism for people.
Tansley Harris, Stewart and Turner (2006)	Talent can be considered as a complex amalgam of employees' skills, knowledge, cognitive ability and potential. Employees' values and work preferences are also of major importance.
Stahl *et al.* (2007)	A select group of employees – those that rank at the top in terms of capability and performance – rather than the entire workforce.
Silzer and Dowell (2010)	An individual's skills and abilities (talents) and what the person is capable of doing or contributing to the organisation.
Bethke-Langenegger (2012)	The author understands talent to be those workers, who ensure the competitiveness and future of a company (as specialists or leaders) through their organisational/job specific qualification and knowledge, their social and methodical competencies, and their characteristic attributes, such as eagerness to learn or achievement oriented.

Source: Researcher's own construction

For the purpose of this study, talent is viewed as individuals with high potential, ability, engagement and commitment to progress in the organisation to management roles, particularly leadership positions (Tansley, 2011). Tansley (2011) defines a high potential employee as someone with the ability, engagement and aspiration to rise to and succeed in more critical senior, positions (See Table 2.2).

Table 2.2: The high-potential employee

Ability	A combination of the innate characteristics and learned skills that an employee utilises to carry out their day-to-day work, including innate characteristics, mental/cognitive ability, emotional intelligence, learned skills, technical/functional skills and interpersonal skills.
Aspiration	The extent to which an employee wants or desires prestige and recognition in the organisation, advancement and influence, financial rewards, work-life balance, and overall job satisfaction.
Engagement	Emotional commitment: The extent to which employees value, enjoy and believe in their organisations. Rational commitment: The extent to which employees believe that staying with their organisation is in their self-interest. Discretionary effort: Employee willingness to go ‘‘above and beyond’’ the call of duty. Intent to stay: Employee desire to stay with the organisation. Passion and motivation.

Source: Tansley (2011, p. 8)

2.2.3 Talent management

2.2.3.1 Defining talent management

The topic of talent management has received a remarkable degree of practitioner and academic interest. However, one of the key challenges scholars have experienced over the past decade has been the lack of clarity regarding both the definition and goals of talent management. Lewis and Heckman (2006, p. 139) conducted a comprehensive and critical review of the talent management literature from both practitioners and academics and found a "disturbing lack of clarity" concerning its definition. The authors argue that there is much confusion regarding the precise meaning of "talent management", as well as its terms and assumptions made by various authors within the domain of talent management (Lewis & Heckman, 2006, p. 140).

The lack of a consistent definition can be a result of dissimilarities in industries and organisational characteristics. Tansley *et al.* (2007) for example, conducted a study and found that the main factors that influence the definition of talent were the nature of work dynamics and the type of industry. However, researchers over the past few years (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007; Cappelli, 2008; Lengnick-Hall & Andrade, 2008; Becker, Huselid & Beatty, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; McDonnell *et al.*, 2010; Scullion, Collings, & Caligiuri, 2010; Tarique & Schuler, 2010; Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011; Bethke-Langenegger, Mahler & Staffelbach, 2011; Collings, Scullion & Vaiman, 2011; McDonnell, 2011) have tried to address this issue and have contributed theoretically to the study of talent management.

Despite acknowledging that talent management lacks a consistent definition and clear conceptual framework, Lewis and Heckman (2006) did, however, identify three key streams of thought around the concept of talent management: (1) as a collection of typical human resources management practices, (2) as a general classification of employees into different talent groups, and (3) as a concept of internal talent pools.

The first stream defines talent management as a set of human resource practices, functions, and activities, such as recruiting, selection, development, and succession management (Chowanec & Newstrom, 1991; Byham, 2001; Heinen & O'Neill, 2004; Mercer, 2005; Fegley, 2006). Researchers of this stream have a broad view of talent management that requires integrating human resources processes that need to be aligned with the overall corporate strategic goals. Lewis and Heckman's (2006) second conception of talent management is centred on talent in general and requires the classification of employees into different talent groups (top, middle and low performers, also labelled a, b, and c performers). The third and final perspective on talent management identified by Lewis and Heckman (2006) focuses on the concept of talent pools. Authors in this stream view talent management as a set of processes designed to ensure that there is an adequate flow of employees into jobs throughout the organisation (Kesler, 2002; Pascal, 2004; Cohn, *et al*., 2005).

In addition to the three perspectives on talent management mentioned above and identified by Lewis and Heckman (2006), Collings and Mellahi (2009) added a fourth emerging stream based on existing literature (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Huselid, *et al*., 2005), which emphasises the identification of critical positions which significantly contribute to the organisation's competitive advantage. The authors argued that "identification of key positions rather than talented individuals per se" is at the core of this emerging stream (Collings & Mellahi, 2009, p. 305).

Varied definitions of talent management from existing literature have been identified (see Table 2.3). However, Silver and Dowell (2010) have noted that some of the definitions are narrowly focused on a single process or individual group, while other definitions are broadly focused and all encompassing.

Table 2.3: Definitions of talent management

Author (s)	Definition of talent management
Wellins, Smith and McGee (2006, p. 2)	Talent management "is the recruitment, development, promotion and retention of people, planned and executed in line with your organisation's current and future business goals".
Lawler (2008, p. 63)	"… an outstanding talent management system … attracts the right talent and helps them understand exactly what to expect from their work experience with the company… also provides employees with the kind of development experiences that build the organisation's capabilities and core competencies so they retain the right people".
CIPD (2006)	Talent management is a systematic attraction, identification, development, engagement, retention and deployment of those individuals with high potential who are of particular value to an organisation.
Collings and Mellahi (2009, p. 305)	"… activities and processes that involve the systematic identification of key positions which differentially contribute to the organisation's sustainable competitive advantage, the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill these roles, and the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation".

Source: Researcher's own construction

Lawler (2008, p. 2) states that "effective talent management is not just about attracting, developing, and retaining the best talent; it is about organising and managing people so that they perform in ways that lead to excellent organisational performance". Talent management typically involves the identification, development, appraisal, deployment, and retention of high-performing and high-potential employees who are of particular value to an organisation

(Collings & Scullion, 2007; Tansley *et al.*, (2007). For the purpose of the present research, Lockwood's (2006) broad definition of talent management is adopted. According to Lockwood (2006, p. 2) talent management can be defined as "the implementation of integrated strategies designed to attract, develop, retain and productively utilise people with the required skills and aptitude to meet current and future business needs".

Bethke-Langenegger, *et al*., (2011) conducted a study which showed that talent management focusing on retaining and developing talent has a significant positive effect on human resource outcomes such as job satisfaction, motivation, commitment and trust in leaders. Moreover, the study showed that talent management practices with a strong focus on corporate strategy have a significant impact on organisational outcomes such as company attractiveness, the achievement of business goals, customer satisfaction and financial performance (Bethke-Langenegger *et al.*, 2011).

According to Michaels *et al.* (2001, p. 6), "the war for talent is creating a new business reality". McKinsey's study (Michaels *et al*, 2001, p. 6) resulted in a paradigm shift, with "the old reality" (people need companies) replaced by "the new reality" (companies need people) (see Table 2.4). The findings of McKinsey's updated study (Axelrod *et al*., 2001), showed that between 89% and 90% of respondents thought that it was even more difficult to attract and retain talented people than before. Moreover, the study also revealed that companies effectively managing their talent were delivering far better results for shareholders (Axelrod *et al.*, 2001). Michaels *et al.* (2001) contend that people, not machines, capital or geography, have become the new source of competitive advantage for organisations.

Table 2.4: Paradigm shift - the war for talent is creating new business realities

The old reality	The new reality
People need companies.	Companies need people.
Machines, capital, and geography are the competitive advantage.	Talented people are the competitive advantage.
Better talent makes some difference.	Better talent makes a huge difference.
Jobs are scarce.	Talented people are scarce.
Employees are loyal and jobs are secure.	People are mobile and their commitment is short term.
People accept the standard package they are offered.	People demand much more.

Source: Michaels *et al.* (2001, p. 6).

The implications of the war for talent according to Michaels *et al.* (2001) are that the power has shifted from the corporation to the individual. Moreover, effective talent management has become a major source of competitive advantage. Organisations that are doing well in attracting, developing and retaining the highly skilled talent, stand a better chance of gaining a competitive advantage and increased performance. The following is a brief review of the significant trends and factors that affect the global war on talent.

2.2.4 Factors impacting the war for talent

A number of researchers maintain that several trends and factors, such as demographic changes, globalisation, technology, the knowledge economy, ageing, and increased mobility have an impact on the increasing attention for talent and the expected talent shortages (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Hatum, 2010; Tarique & Schuler, 2010; Schuler, Jackson & Tarique, 2011; Scullion & Collings, 2011). These factors and trends have influenced the need for organisations to introduce effective talent management practices, strategies and policies in order to attract, develop and manage talent that will give them a competitive advantage, reduce employees' intentions to quit and actual quitting.

2.2.4.1 Globalisation

Globalisation, with increasing free-market economic reforms and technological advancements across nations, has greatly impacted the supply for labour and the talent war (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). Tucker, Kao and Verma (2005) argue that companies are offshoring jobs in IT, call centre support, human resources, finance, and accounting to countries where labour and operational costs are greatly reduced. This has led to intensified competition among organisations for the array of talent in the global labour market. Moreover, the results of the advancement of globalisation and improved technologies have intensified competition for talent. Many organisations need to respond and adapt in order to gain and sustain a global competitive advantage (Palmisano, 2007; Schuler & Tarique, 2007; Stephenson & Pandit, 2008; Lohr, 2010).

2.2.4.2 Demographic changes of the workforce

The increasing demographic changes of the workforce caused by ageing and increasing mobility and globalisation are another major force that profoundly impacts labour supply and the talent war. However, current trends show that while the populations of many developed economies are aging and shrinking in size, the populations of developing and emerging economies are expanding and getting younger (Strack, Baier & Fahlander, 2008; Tarique & Schuler, 2010; Schuler *et al.*, 2011).

2.2.4.3 Increasing job mobility of employees

The increasing job mobility of employees has resulted in difficulties for organisations to attract and retain talent. Baruch, Budhwar and Khatri (2007) argue that globalisation changes the mobility of people across permeable geographic and cultural boundaries. Workers are no longer limited to working within the confines of one’s country or region, they can market their skills in organisations based anywhere in the world, as the impact of talent shortages heighten (Tucker *et al.*, 2005).

2.2.4.4 The knowledge economy

Knowledge has become the most important source of an organisation's competitive advantage. This has resulted in knowledge workers becoming strategically important to organisations. According to Andriessen (2004), knowledge has replaced labour and capital as a basic resource in factors of production. In other words, knowledge has become the dominant factor of production. The development of the knowledge economy can be characterised in terms of the increasing role of knowledge as a factor of production and its impact on skills, technology and innovation (Houghton & Sheehan, 2000).

2.2.4.5 Workforce diversity

Companies are now operating in an increasingly globalised environment characterised by a very diverse workforce in terms of age, gender, ethnicity, and life pursuits. More generations with different values and expectations are now working together in the workforce than ever before, from ‘Veterans’ and ‘Baby Boomers’ to Generations ‘X’ and ‘Y’ (Tucker *et al.*, 2005; Beechler & Woodward, 2009). There is also increasing gender diversity with more women entering the workforce, providing companies with opportunities to attract and retain talented women to help fill talent gaps.

2.2.5 Talent management practices

Talent management practices result in increased competitive advantages for organisations (Heinen & O'Neill, 2004), which, in turn can lead to decreased turnover intentions and actual turnover. According to McCauley and Wakefield (2006), talent management practices play a critical role in the attraction, growth and retention of highly skilled employees for organisations. Moreover, the authors suggest that talent management practices need to be more strategic, connected and broad-based than ever before.

In a study carried out by Accenture and Tilburg (2009) on the effectiveness of talent management practices, the findings showed that investing in 16 talent management practices in contrast to not investing at all, result in 27% higher fulfilment of the psychological contract, 34% less violation, 13% more commitment and 19% less intention to quit. The results of this study correspond with the outcomes of Sonnenberg's (2011) research, which found that high investment in talent management practices leads to 30,1% higher fulfilment of the psychological contract, 16,2% lower violation, 20,3% higher commitment, 18,5% lower turnover intention, 8,2% higher feelings of wellbeing, and 11,3% higher feelings of fairness. The findings of these studies show that investing in talent management practices and human capital results in desirable consequences, adds value to the organisation and has a significant effect on employees' commitment and turnover intentions.

From a South African perspective, existing studies conducted in South Africa (Du Plessis *et al*., 2010; Mpofu & Barkhuizen, 2013; Mtila, Barkhuizen & Mokgele, 2013) indicate that talent management practices are inadequately utilised in most South African organisations. Barkhuizen *et al.* (2014) maintain that talent management practices relating to talent acquisition and retention, performance management and talent development affect the effective management of talented employees.

It should be noted that the effective management of talented employees results in positive organisational outcomes such as increased competitiveness and business results. In individuals it results in outcomes such as greater motivational levels, job satisfaction, increased commitment, and in turn results in more engaged employees and reduced turnover intentions (Oehley, 2007; Du Plessis, 2010; Magolego *et al.*, 2013; Barkhuizen *et al.*, 2014; Smith, 2014). Barkhuizen *et al.*'s (2014) study showed that some talent management practices, which include management commitment, talent review process and talent development, were positively significantly related to the dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication & absorption). However, the effects were mostly small and medium.

According to Lockwood (2006), effective talent management practices result in more engaged employees, high commitment to human capital and lower turnover. Moreover, the author posits that employees who are committed to the organisation perform 20% better and are 87% less likely to quit their jobs. Furthermore, Lockwood (2006) argues that effective talent management practices have a significant impact on employee engagement.

2.2.5.1 Practices impacting talent management

As a result of changes in the workplace environment due to globalisation and technological advancement, talent management practices have been developed and adapted over the past few years. In order to drive performance levels and deal with an ever changing global market, McCauley and Wakefield (2006) posit that organisations need to institute and align talent management practices with their business strategies. The authors, in their research, identified talent management practices such as workforce planning, recruiting, talent gap analysis, staffing, education and development, retention, talent reviews, succession planning, and evaluation (McCauley & Wakefield, 2006).

The current study focused on talent management practices adapted from the Human Capital Institute (2008), such as talent review process, staffing, talent acquisition, talent development, workforce planning, performance management, talent strategy, talent retention and financial rewards. The Human Capital Institute (2008) carried out a major study on talent management practices relating to how organisations can acquire, develop, retain, and reward employees. It is essential that organisations develop the capacity to analyse, deploy and redeploy their workforce effectively (Schweyer, 2010). The present study hypothesises that the identified talent management practices have a significant effect on organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and intention to quit. Below is an overview of the identified talent management practices adapted from the Human Capital Institute (2008), and based on a literature review.

2.2.5.1.1 Talent strategy

According to the Human Capital Institute (2008, p. 6) "talent management is a complex discipline, encompassing a wide array of programs and processes", and for such initiatives to be successful, a concrete talent strategy must serve as a constant guide, providing direction for how the organisation will acquire, develop, and retain employees, while always reflecting the key business goals of the organisation. The Human Capital Institute (2008) suggest that talent strategies of successful companies are embedded into the overall strategic planning process, and integrated into individual programs and practices to ensure they are all driving toward the same set of objectives.

The findings of the Human Capital Institute's (2008) study, showed a limited alignment of talent with business strategy in spite of management support. Moreover, the survey results showed a lack of consistent execution and integration of talent management practices in most organisations with only 21% of companies consistently doing so. Additionally, the survey showed that organisations are building strong employment brands as part of their talent strategy to attract the best talent (Human Capital Institute, 2008).

According to Stadler (2011), existing research shows that many organisations do not have a talent strategy. Guthridge *et al.* (2008) maintain that organisations attempting to win the war on talent must invest in strategies and practices that attract, motivate, and retain talent. Moreover, Guthridge *et al*. (2008) suggest that organisations should ensure that their talent strategies are focused on all employees and not just the top performers. The authors argue that different factors make people from diverse backgrounds, genders, ages, and nationalities want to stay with a company. They contend that focusing on all employees is the only way in which talent management can establish itself at the heart of business strategy (Guthridge *et al.*, 2008).

Srivastava and Bhatnagar (2008) maintain that organisations should develop effective, practical and holistic talent strategies that will not only attract talent, but also address employee engagement and the retention of key skills thus boosting productivity and business performance.

2.2.5.1.2 Talent review process

The talent review process is a significant component of talent management. Stadler (2011) regards talent review to be a rigorous competency-based assessment of employees, that is used to identify high-potential employees and future leaders, determine bench strength at a particular level (for example, senior management), identify talent gaps, organisational vulnerabilities and risks, and to develop a view of organisational capability. Tansley *et al.* (2007) argue that a talent review panel plays a critical role in the identification and selection of people with high potential for succession planning. The talent review panel may consist of individuals drawn from various organisational departments including senior management representatives, line and human resource managers, as well as specialists in a particular field. Heinen and O'Neill (2004) support this point and maintain that for the success of the talent-review processes, line managers and human resources staff must be at the forefront of the talent-review meetings. Heinen and O'Neill (2004) argue that talent reviews are utilised to focus on individual and organisational capability matters. The authors further assert that successful organisations conduct regular talent reviews of all of their key employees in order to plan and coordinate development activities and monitor progress. Moreover, talent reviews provide an assessment of a company's aggregate talent and individual development (Heinen & O'Neill, 2004).

2.2.5.1.3 Staffing

Staffing is defined as the process of attracting, selecting, and retaining competent individuals to achieve organisational goals (Ployhart, 2006). Even though economic, societal, and cultural changes make organisational success and survival dependent on staffing, Ployhart (2006) argues that many organisational decision makers and even organisational scholars fail to recognise the value of staffing. The author posits that staffing acts as a key strategic opportunity to gain competitive advantage and should play a pivotal role in the war for talent (Ployhart, 2006). Srivastava and Bhatnagar (2008) contend that organisational success is directly linked to talent recruitment.

2.2.5.1.4 Talent acquisition

With talent management becoming an area of growing concern for academics and practitioners, Srivastava and Bhatnagar (2008) suggest that there is a need for organisations to practice due diligence in their talent acquisition strategy. The authors posit that the "war for talent" has focused on acquiring and assimilating "the best" (Srivastava & Bhatnagar, 2008, p. 254). Talent acquisition enhances employee engagement which leads to increased productivity (Srivastava & Bhatnagar, 2008). In a study conducted by Axelrod *et al.* (2001), nearly 90% of approximately the 7,000 managers surveyed indicated that talent acquisition and retention were becoming more problematic.

The Human Capital Institute (2008) contends that most organisations have the fundamental aspects of talent acquisition firmly in place, including processes to ensure compliance, incentives for employee referrals, and internal job posting mechanisms. However, few organisations have well-integrated talent acquisition processes or are effectively leveraging technology (Human Capital Institute, 2008). Despite these challenges, the authors noted that most companies report being able to attract the talent they need. Organisations can create the best business strategy, make the right talent acquisitions, and invest in the right programs by attracting and developing the necessary talent to ensure desired investment returns (Heinen & O'Neill, 2004).

2.2.5.1.5 Workforce planning

Workforce planning and talent acquisition are critical links in an organisation's talent supply chain and strategic business planning process (Human Capital Institute, 2008). Organisations need to know how many, and what kind of people they need in order to meet current and future business needs. Armstrong and Taylor (2010, p. 216) define workforce planning as "a core process of human resource management that is shaped by the organisational strategy and ensures the right number of people with the right skills, in the right place at the right time to deliver short and long-term organisational objectives". Workforce planning provides the focus for talent management. To enhance individual and organisational performance, Heinen and O'Neill (2004) suggest that leading organisations merge their workforce and career planning, as well as development processes.

The research findings of the Human Capital Institute (2008) showed that workforce planning in most organisations is short-term focused. For example, only 34% of the surveyed companies reported using workforce planning to forecast the supply and demand of talent. However, the results of the study showed that most workforce planning efforts focused on top executive, management, and critical roles, with 33% of companies forecasting top executive talent needs three or more years in advance (Human Capital Institute, 2008).

2.2.5.1.6 Talent development

The desire to excel, make a difference and be recognised and rewarded for performance is ingrained in the human spirit (Thedford, 2010). Rothwell and Kazanas (2003, p. 4) suggest that talent development is "the process of changing an organisation, its employees, its stakeholders, and groups of people within it, using planned and unplanned learning, in order to achieve and maintain a competitive advantage" for the organisation. Booth (1998) is of the view that talent development increases an organisation's intellectual capital.

The Human Capital Institute (2008) identified Kellogg as one of the leading organisations that has taken a proactive approach to talent development. The authors argue that through rigorous job analysis, Kellogg identified key competencies for every position within the organisation, with significant emphasis on rotation to ensure skills development (Human Capital Institute, 2008).

According to the Human Capital Institute (2008), achieving sustained organisational performance through the development of a capable workforce lies at the very heart of talent management. However, the study found a lack of accountability and capability for talent development in most organisations. The authors noted that talent development is a priority to ensure the strong depth of talent required to meet current and future needs.

2.2.5.1.7 Performance management

Armstrong and Baron (2000, p. 69) maintain that "performance management is a process which is designed to improve organisational, team and individual performance and which is owned and driven by line managers". According to Israelite (2009), performance management is the core of talent management. Moreover, the author suggests that the performance management process is currently used by many organisations to establish the foundation for much of the rest of talent management. Grobler, Warnich, Carell, Elbert and Hatfield (2011, p. 293) define performance management as "a process which significantly affects organisational success by having managers and employees work together to set expectations, review results and reward performance".

Numerous researchers have identified performance management as a major aspect of talent management (Romans & Lardner, 2006; Scheweyer, 2004) (Romans & Lardner, 2006;

Scheweyer, 2004). Heinen and O'Neill (2004) identified performance management, recruiting, selection, mentoring, career development, succession planning, leadership development, career planning, and recognition and rewards as the practices that are related to talent management. The authors argue that the identified talent management practices must be aligned, integrated and designed to fit the strategic requirements of the business (Heinen & O'Neill, 2004). Martel (2003) is of the view that talent management practices, including performance management systems, support talent management and employee engagement.

Garrow and Hirsh (2008) suggest that developing talent management into the performance management process is essential in ensuring that organisations have significant returns on their investments. The authors regard performance management to be a critical function for talent identification and development (Garrow & Hirsh, 2008).

2.2.5.1.8 Talent retention

Talent retention has recently received increased interest in the literature, separately and as part of talent management strategies. According to Kerr-Phillips and Thomas (2009), South Africa is currently facing a skills crisis, especially pertaining to the retention of its top talent or knowledge workers. Moreover, talent retention has become a major priority for organisations due to increased competition and the scarcity of highly talented and skilled employees (Fegley, 2006). The author posits that the emphasis on human capital is now being aligned with management processes such as succession planning, leadership development, retention and career planning (Fegley, 2006). Frank, Finnegan and Taylor (2004) define talent retention as the effort by an employer to keep desirable workers, in order to meet business objectives.

Masibigiri and Nienabe (2011) suggest that talent retention is important because labour turnover results in organisations incurring direct costs (for example, recruitment and placement costs), and indirect costs (for example, losing tacit knowledge as a result of employees leaving the organisation). Amid high competition for scarce talent, Kontoghiorghes and Frangou (2009) suggest that executives are concerned with their organisation's ability to locate, attract, hire, develop, and retain the skilled and qualified people needed to run their companies. In a study conducted by Bhatnagar (2007), the findings indicated that a good level of employee engagement may result in high retention of talent.

2.2.5.1.9 Financial rewards

Prior studies suggest that financial reward systems are designed with the belief that money can motivate employees and higher compensation can improve individual performance (Opsahl & Dunnette, 1966; Lawler, 1971). However, recent studies have proved otherwise, for example, Markova and Ford’s (2011) study indicates that monetary incentives may not have the same effect across different classifications of employees, especially the highly skilled knowledge workers.

In a knowledge-based and hyper-connected global economy, financial inducements are necessary for organisations to attract talent. Financial rewards such as remuneration, performance bonus, travel allowances, pension scheme, medical scheme, profit sharing schemes and car grants have usually been a significant facet of the employment relationship. According to Rumpel and Medcof (2006), organisations should identify the rewards (monetary or non-monetary) that are valued by employees in order to determine whether or not their configuration will achieve the desired attraction and retention effects. Lockwood (2006) suggests that rewards and recognition contribute in the retention of talent and to improve performance. Moreover, the author argues that organisations are setting up formal and informal reward programs (Lockwood, 2006). For example, according to the Society of Human Resources Management’s 2005 Reward Programs and Incentive Compensation

Survey Report conducted by Burke (2005), 84% of companies offer some form of monetary and/or non-monetary reward programs to employees.

In a workplace environment characterised by market-driven turnover, Birt *et al.* (2004) suggest that organisations seeking to retain talent are confronted with difficulties in determining the significant factors impacting turnover of highly skilled employees. Schlechter, Hung and Bussin (2014) posit that in order to attract knowledge workers and maintain a competitive advantage, it is imperative that organisations understand how knowledge workers are attracted to different types and levels of financial rewards. The present research focused on three financial rewards (remuneration, employee benefits & variable pay) of employees under study.

2.2.6 Overview of section

This section of the literature review gave a comprehensive and critical analysis of the concepts of talent and talent management. Several trends and factors impacting the war for talent and expected talent shortages were identified, such as demographic changes of the workforce, globalisation, technological advancement, workforce diversity, ageing, increased job mobility of the employees, and the knowledge economy. Talent management practices relating to how organisations can attract, develop and retain talent were identified and reviewed. The practices impacting talent management such as the talent review process, staffing, talent acquisition, talent development, performance management, workforce planning, talent strategy, talent retention and financial rewards were identified and discussed.

The following section of the study reviews literature relating to organisational commitment.

2.3 Organisational Commitment

2.3.1 The concept of organisational commitment

The concept of organisational commitment has received a great deal of attention from researchers over the years (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Becker, 1992). A wide variety of definitions of organisational commitment exist. However, Meyer and Allen (1991) maintain that there is a lack of consensus in the literature regarding the definition of organisational commitment which has contributed greatly to its treatment as a multidimensional construct. Allen and Meyer (1990) regard organisational commitment as an attitude, as it relates to an individual's mindset about the organisation. A summary of selected definitions taken from relevant literature, to help us gain an understanding of the existing conceptualisations of organisational commitment, is provided below (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5: Selected definitions of organisational commitment

Author (s)	Definition
Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974)	The relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organisation.
Morrow (1983)	Organisational commitment is commitment to a place of work.
Allen and Meyer (1990)	Organisational commitment is defined as a psychological state that binds the individual to the organisation (i.e., makes turnover less likely).
Knights and Kennedy (2005)	Organisational commitment is defined as a strong identification with, and involvement in, the organisation.
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986)	…the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organisation. It reflects the degree to which the individual internalises or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organisation.

Source: Researcher's own construction

In the context of the present study, Allen and Meyer (1997) define organisational commitment as the psychological bond that links employees to their organisation. Organisational commitment has received a significant degree of attention from researchers, as companies seek ways to attract, develop and retain highly skilled and talented employees. Findings from existing studies (Steers, 1977; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino, 1979; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003) suggest that commitment is a better predictor of turnover intentions. In addition, findings by Mowday *et al*. (1974) imply that employees who are highly committed to the organisation may perform better than less committed employees.

According to Scholl (1981) organisational commitment literature is divided into two common schools. One school is generally termed the rational or the attitudinal school led by Mowday *et al*. (1974). The attitudinal school is the most studied type of organisational commitment. According to Mowday *et al.* (1974), attitudinal commitment exists when an employee's identity and involvement is linked to a particular organisation, and consists of three dimensions: (i) a strong belief in, and acceptance of, the organisation's goals and values; (ii) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (iii) a strong desire to maintain membership of the organisation. Individuals who showed these characteristics were thought to be committed to the organisation. This led to the development of the organisational commitment questionnaire (Allen & Meyer, 1990) which has been adapted for the present research. Becker (1992) argues that since the development of the organisational commitment questionnaire (Allen & Meyer, 1990), it has become the most frequently used instrument for the measurement of commitment. The other school is known as the irrational or psychological school which views commitment as a force that ties the individual to a particular organisation (Scholl, 1981).

2.3.2 Organisational commitment as a multidimensional concept

A number of authors regard organisational commitment as a multidimensional concept (Angle & Perry, 1981; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Penley & Gould, 1988; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mayer & Schoorman, 1992; Jaros, Jermier, Koehler & Sincich, 1993; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Various dimensions of commitment provided in prominent multidimensional models of organisational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001) are summarised below.

Table 2.6: Dimensions of organisational commitment

Author (s)	Dimension
Angle and Perry (1981, p. 4) Value commitment Commitment to stay	Commitment to support the goals of the organisation. Commitment to retain their organisational membership.
O'Reilly and Chatman (1986, p. 493) Compliance Identification Internalisation	Instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards. Attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organisation. Involvement predicted on congruence between individual and organisational values.
Penley and Gauld (1988, p.46) Moral Calculative Alienative	Acceptance of, and identification with, organisational goals. A commitment to an organisation which is based on the employee's receiving inducements to match contributions. Organisational attachment which results when an employee no longer perceives that there are rewards commensurate with investments; yet remains due to environmental pressures.
Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67) Affective Continuance Normative	The employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. A feeling of obligation to continue employment.
Mayer and Schoorman (1992, p. 673) Value Continuance	A belief in and acceptance of organisational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation. The desire to remain a member of the organisation.
Jaros *et al.* (1993, p. 54) Affective	The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belonging, fondness, pleasure and so on.

Continuance	The degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of high costs of leaving.
Moral	The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an employing organisation through internalisation of its goals, values and missions.

Source: Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 304)

2.3.3 The three component model

A number of multidimensional models have been developed over the years, some of which are stated above. However, the approach to commitment used in the present study is based on the three component model which takes into account the major conceptualisations described in existing literature (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1991). Moreover, the current study used Meyer and Allen's (1991) three component model because it has undergone an extensive empirical evaluation to date (Allen & Meyer, 1996) and has become the most widely accepted multidimensional model in the literature (Bagraim, 2004; Coetzee, 2005).

According to Meyer and Allen (1984) commitment is made up of three psychological states: Affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Allen and Meyer (1993) indicate that employees can experience varying degrees of all three forms of commitment. However, the authors noted that each component develops independently and results in different work behaviour. Furthermore, Allen and Meyer (1990) maintain that employees with a strong, affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong a continuance commitment because they need to, and those with a strong normative commitment because they ought to do so.

2.3.3.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Employees develop a strong affective commitment based on experiences within the organisation that are consistent with their expectations and that increase the employees' feelings of challenge and wellbeing in the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1993). Kanter (1968) defines affective commitment as the attachment of an individual's fund of affectivity and emotion to the group. Sheldon (1971) regards it as an attitude or an orientation toward the organisation, which attaches the identity of the person to the organisation.

Meyer and Allen (1997) maintain that factors such as role clarity, goal clarity and difficulty, job challenge, equity, personal importance, receptiveness by management, feedback, participation, peer cohesion and dependability have an effect on affective commitment. Affective commitment involves employees having a sense of belonging and identification with the organisation that increases their involvement in the organisation's activities, their willingness to pursue the organisation's goals, and their desire to be committed to the organisation (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Beck & Wilson, 2000).

2.3.3.2 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment refers to the recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. It should be noted that continuance commitment develops as a result of employees' recognition of the level and magnitude of accumulated investments, both on a personal and professional level, that would be lost if they left the organisation, and the degree to which they feel they have alternative employment (Allen & Meyer, 1993). Meyer and Allen (1997) define continuance commitment as the awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) regard continuance commitment as a structural phenomenon which occurs because of individual-organisational transactions and alterations in side bets or investments over time.

According to Fullerton (2003) the continuance commitment construct was developed as a means of explaining the extent that the employees feel bound to an organisation. Allen and

Meyer (1990) maintain that accrued investments and poor employment alternatives tend to force individuals to maintain their line of action and are responsible for these individuals being committed because they need to be.

2.3.3.3 Normative commitment

Finally, normative commitment is the last component of the organisational commitment model. Normative commitment refers to the perceived obligation to remain with the organisation. Meyer and Allen (1997) define normative commitment as a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Marsh and Mannari (1977) view the normative component as the commitment when employees consider it is morally right to stay in the company, regardless of how much status enhancement or satisfaction the firm gives them over a period of time. McDonald and Makin (2000) concur with Marsh and Mannari (1977) and state that normative commitment is commitment that is induced by society's norms about the extent to which people ought to be committed to their organisations. Moreover, Allen and Meyer (1993) support this view and argue that the antecedents of normative commitment include early socialisation experiences that emphasise the appropriateness of remaining loyal to one's employer, as well as those that occur after organisational entry and that create a reciprocal relationship between the employee and the organisation.

It should be noted that Meyer and Allen (1990) used the three components model to conceptualise organisational commitment into affective, continuance and normative commitments. Moreover, many studies have examined the construct validity of Meyer and Allen's three component model and its measures. In addition, numerous studies on commitment have attempted to explore its effect on work outcomes and found affective and normative commitment to be positively related and continuance commitment to be negatively related to organisational outcomes such as performance and citizenship behaviour (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Hackett, Bycio & Hausdorf, 1994). However, Meyer and Allen (1997) argue that many of these studies on commitment have been conducted from a perspective of western countries. There is a need to conduct a more systematic research to determine whether these models apply elsewhere (Meyer & Allen, 1997). In addition, Steers (1977) maintains that there is little information to guide researchers in model building.

Lesabe and Nkosi (2007) maintain that the effective integration of management strategies is critical in order to increase an employee's commitment to the organisation. The authors identified morale and motivation, leadership, training and development, performance management, compensation, career growth and development, the nature of the job itself, benefit packages, and the work environment as the factors that can increase employee commitment to the organisation and talent retention. Moreover, Lesabe and Nkosi argue that management need to consider and implement these strategies in order to increase the affective commitment levels of employees and organisational performance.

2.3.4 The antecedents of organisational commitment

Since Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conducted a meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organisational commitment, the antecedents have been researched on extensively. Moreover, a number of researchers have identified different variables that have been examined as potential antecedents of commitment. Research conducted by Steers (1977) on 382 hospital employees and 119 scientists and engineers showed that personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences have a significant effect on commitment. Personal characteristics consist of those variables which define the individual (Steers, 1977). Commitment has been shown to be significantly related to age (Lee, 1971; Sheldon, 1971; Steers, 1977; Angle & Perry, 1981; Meyer & Allen, 1984 Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992), education (Koch & Steers, 1978), Tenure (Buchanan, 1974; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979; Meyer & Allen, 1984; Mottaz, 1988), opportunities for achievement (Brown, 1969; Hall, Schneider & Nygren, 1970; Patchen, 1970; Lee, 1971), and role tension (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) identified personal characteristics such as age, gender, education, marital status and tenure to be significant predictors of organisational commitment. Igbaria and Greenhaus (1992), in their research, identified age, organisational tenure, role ambiguity, role conflict, salary, promotion opportunities, and career advancement to have a significant influence on organisational commitment. Similarly, Suman and Srivastava's (2012) study results indicate that various personal characteristics such as age, tenure and locus of control, and organisational characteristics such as job characteristics and organisational structure are significant predictors of organisational commitment. Moreover, Suman and Srivastava (2012) suggest that an employee's personality and attribution processes may be an important antecedent to commitment.

Existing literature has shown that employee engagement is an antecedent of organisational commitment because engaged employees in the workplace tend to be more committed to their organisations (Jackson, Rothmann & Van de Vijver, 2006; Saks, 2006). Williams and Hazer (1986) contend that a direct relationship exists between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, with job satisfaction as an antecedent of organisational commitment. The findings of Williams and Hazer (1986) are consistent with similar studies (Price & Mueller, 1986) that have adopted job satisfaction as an antecedent of organisational commitment.

2.3.5 The consequences of organisational commitment

Commitment has been tested and consistently found to have statistically significant, negative relationships with intention to quit and actual turnover (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004; Turnipseed, 2005; Jawahar & Hemmasi, 2006; Loi, Hang-Yue & Foley, 2006). Moreover, existing studies (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Buck & Watson, 2002) have shown that all three components of commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment) are positively related to turnover.

The most common finding in commitment research is a negative relationship between commitment and turnover (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mowday *et al*., 1982). Another common finding is the lack of a relationship between commitment and performance (Steers, 1977; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Morrow, 1993). Meyer and Allen (1991) point out that research into the link between organisational commitment and performance has provided mixed results. However, research that indicates a significant negative result between organisational commitment and turnover or turnover intention, has been widely conducted and confirmed in many studies (Steers, 1977; Wiener & Vardi, 1980; Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Griffeth *et al*., 2000; Elangovan, 2001). Researchers suggest that extra-role or organisational citizenship behaviour are related to affective commitment (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000).

2.3.6 Overview of section

The previous section of the literature reviewed initially defined organisational commitment and from that two schools of thought emerged. One school generally termed the rational or the attitudinal school, viewed commitment as an attitude, and the other school, known as the irrational or psychological school, viewed commitment as behaviour. Various multidimensional models of commitment developed over the years were identified and summarised. However, the study used Allen and Meyer's three component model (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1991), which has become the most widely accepted multidimensional model in the literature. The three dimensions of Allen and Meyer's three component model were identified and defined. These are affective, continuance and normative commitment. The possible antecedents and consequences of organisational commitment were also briefly discussed.

The following section of the literature review discusses employee engagement.

2.4 Employee Engagement

2.4.1 Introduction

Since the publication of original work by Kahn (1990), one of the first researchers to theorise about employee engagement, there has been a great deal of interest in employee engagement, with a number of researchers (Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Bates, 2004; Baumruk, 2004; Richman, 2006) suggesting that employee engagement predicts organisational success, financial performance, and employee outcomes. Lockwood (2007) supports this notion and suggests that employee engagement has emerged as a key driver of business success, as high levels of engagement promote organisational performance and the retention of talent. However, Robinson, Perryman and Hayday (2004) maintain that there has been a paucity of academic and empirical research on the topic of employee engagement. Saks (2006) concurs with Robinson *et al.* (2004) and states that there a surprising dearth of empirical research on employee engagement in the academic literature.

Saks (2006) posits that employee engagement is related to employees' attitude, intention and behaviour. Moreover, the author postulates that the concept of employee engagement is vital to organisations, as it is a significant predictor of employees' intention to quit (Saks, 2006). Numerous researchers argue that employee engagement is associated with many positive outcomes such as increased job performance, motivation, job satisfaction, customer satisfaction, increased profits and lower intention to leave (Harter *et al.*, 2002; Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008).

A number of researchers have argued for the need to differentiate between the types of engagement because they have divergent antecedents and consequences (Saks, 2006; Simpson, 2009). In a review of existing literature, Simpson (2009) identified different types of engagement research, namely personal engagement (Kahn, 1990), employee engagement (Harter *et al.*, 2002), burnout and/or engagement (Leiter & Maslach, 2004), and work engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Moreover, existing literature reviewed for the current study, identified different types of work-related engagement (Kahn, 1990; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Saks, 2006; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010):

- Job engagement,
- Organisation engagement,
- Personal engagement,
- Burnout/engagement,
- Work engagement, and
- Employee engagement.

The present study has focused on employee engagement and its antecedents and outcomes.

2.4.2 The concept of employee engagement

Employee engagement has emerged as a popular topic, not only for academics and researchers, but also for practitioners in organisations (Strümpfer, 2003; May, Gilson & Harter, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Existing research on employee engagement has ascertained relations between engagement and positive organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance, organisational commitment, low turnover intention, good health and positive work affect (Kahn, 1990; Demerouti, Bakker, De Jonge, Janssen & Schaufeli, 2001; Rothbard, 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Donaldson & Ko, 2010). However, one of the major challenges presented by the existing academic and practitioner literature regarding employee engagement is the lack of a universally acceptable definition (Kular, Gatenby, Soane, & Truss 2008; Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt & Diehl, 2009; Gruman & Saks, 2011). Bhatnagar (2007) considers employee engagement to be a multidimensional construct.

Saks (2006: 602) defined employee engagement as "a distinct and unique construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components associated with individual role performance". Falcone (2006) contends that engagement is the state of emotional and intellectual commitment to an organisation or group. The author argues that an engaged employee is fully involved and enthusiastic about their work. Heintzman and Marson (2005) suggest that employee engagement is comprised of two distinct yet related components: Employee commitment and employee satisfaction. Moreover, engaged employees are considered to have high degrees of involvement and attachment to their organisations (Shaw, 2005; Richman, 2006).

Kahn (1990), in his much cited paper based on the foundational theories of psychology and sociology (Freud, 1922; Merton, 1957; Bion, 1961; Goffman, 1961; Slater, 1966), conceptualised personal engagement and formally defined it as the harnessing of organisation member's selves to their work roles. The author argued that in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances. Thus, engaged employees put much more effort into their work because they identify with it. Employee disengagement, on the other hand, refers to the uncoupling of selves from work roles. Furthermore, in disengagement, people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performances (Kahn, 1990). According to May *et al.* (2004), disengagement plays a central role in the individual's lack of commitment and motivation.

Kahn's (1990) research now serves as a framework for the study of employee engagement. It identified meaningfulness, psychological safety and psychological availability as the three psychological dimensions that contribute to engagement, and in understanding why a person would become engaged in their work. Kahn (1990, p. 705) defines meaningfulness as the positive "sense of return on investments of self in role performance". Safety was defined as "the ability to show oneself without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career" (Kahn (1990, p. 705). The author defined availability as the "sense of possessing the physical, emotional, and psychological resources necessary" for the completion of work.

In one of the first studies to empirically test Kahn's (1990) model, May *et al.* (2004) explored the determinants and mediating effects of three psychological conditions: Meaningfulness, safety and availability on employees' engagement in their work. The results of this study support Kahn's (1990) earlier work and showed that meaningfulness, safety, and availability were significantly related to engagement. In addition, job enrichment and role fit were positively related to psychological meaningfulness. Moreover, good relations with co-workers and supportive supervisors were positively related to psychological safety on the job.

In contrast, burnout researchers regard engagement to be the opposite of burnout (Maslach *et al.*, 2001). The authors define employee engagement as a persistent positive affective state characterised by high levels of activation and pleasure (Maslach *et al.*, 2001). Bakker and Demerouti (2007) support this viewpoint and regard engagement as representing the direct opposite of burnout. They contend that employee engagement is characterised by energy, involvement and efficacy (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Existing literature has conceptualised employee engagement as either the antithesis of burnout or as separate and unrelated to burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma and Bakker (2002) argue that employee engagement and burnout are two distinct, albeit negatively correlated, mental states. Schaufeli *et al.* (2002) define engagement as a persistent and positive affective-motivational state of fulfilment. The authors posit that engagement is not a momentary and specific state, but rather it is a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular object, event, individual, or behaviour (Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002).

The most accepted conceptualisation of employee engagement, suggests that employee engagement is a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that encapsulates vigour, dedication and absorption (Bakker *et al.*, 2008). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) maintain that vigour is characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, and the willingness to invest effort in one's work, as well as persistence in the face of difficulties. The authors contend that dedication is characterised by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge. Additionally, absorption is characterised by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in work, whereby time passes quickly and the employee has difficulties in detaching themselves from work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The authors argue that engagement is empirically measured with the Utrecht work engagement scale, an instrument which measures the three underlying dimensions of employee engagement: Vigour, dedication and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

2.4.3 Dimensions of employee engagement

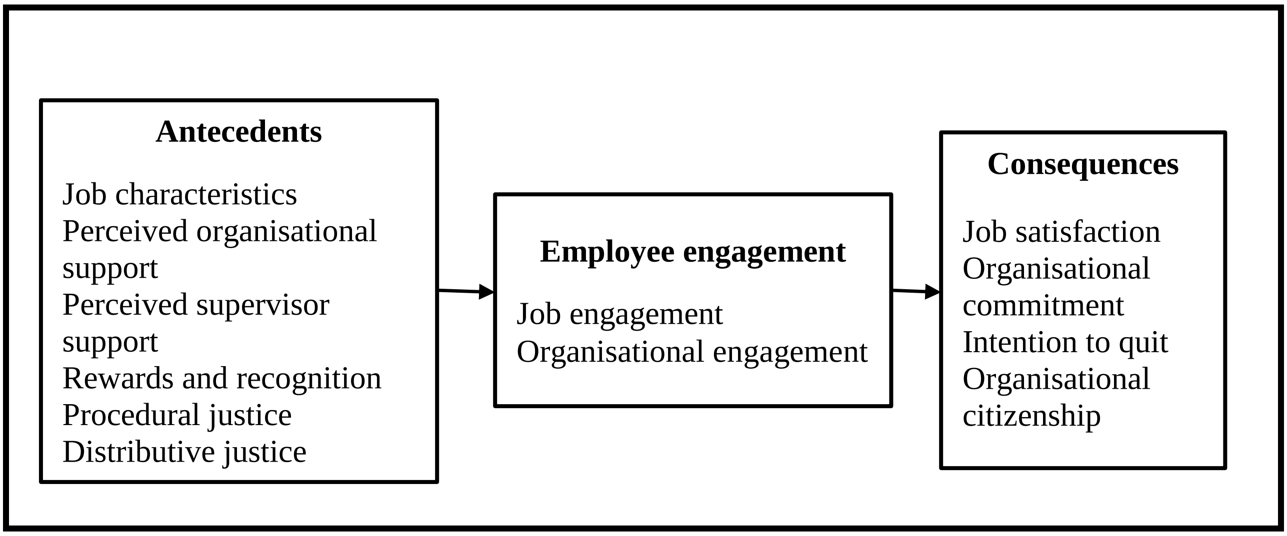
Based on the perspectives of existing studies (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli *et al.*, 2002), Rothmann and Rothmann Jr (2010) suggest that employee engagement comprises three dimensions. The physical component includes being physically involved in a job and displaying vigour and a positive emotional state. The cognitive component describes alertness and feelings of absorption and involvement at work. Lastly, the emotional component refers to being connected to one's work and demonstrating feelings of dedication and commitment (Rothmann & Rothmann Jr, 2010).

Bakker (2011) argues that employee engagement is distinctively dissimilar from job satisfaction in the sense that it combines dedication with vigour and absorption. Moreover, employee engagement is different from work-related flow which refers to a shorter, peak experience of less than an hour, whereas engagement refers to a longer performance episode. Lastly, employee engagement is dissimilar from motivation, in that it also refers to cognition (absorption) and affect (vigour), in addition to motivation (dedication) (Bakker, 2011).

2.4.4 The antecedents and consequences of employee engagement

Employee engagement has emerged as a popular topic for researchers and human resources management practitioners. However, little is known about the predictors and outcomes of employee engagement (Saks, 2006; Wollard & Shuck, 2011). In the past few years, some studies have begun examining the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement (Saks, 2006; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Shuck, Reio Jr & Rocco, 2011; Wollard & Shuck, 2011).

The model below shows the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement adopted from Saks (2006) to try and help understand employee engagement and its predictors and outcomes.



Source: Saks (2006, p. 604)

Figure 2.1: A model of the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement

2.4.4.1 The antecedents of employee engagement

Antecedents of employee engagement are defined as constructs, strategies or conditions that precede the development of employee engagement (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). Previous research on employee engagement has focused primarily on engagement at the individual level. In recent years, some authors have tried to explore both the individual and organisational antecedents of employee engagement.

Shuck and Wollard (2010) regard employee engagement as an individual-level variable that is more often measured at the organisational level. In terms of the individual antecedents, researchers have identified a meaningful workplace environment and involvement (May *et al.*, 2004; Rich, Lepine & Crawford, 2010), work-life balance (Singh, 2010), personal involvement in corporate citizenship (Glavis & Piderit, 2009), vigour, dedication, and absorption in one’s work (Maslach *et al*, 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) as antecedents of employee engagement. Moreover, existing studies suggest that opportunities for learning (Czarnowsky, 2008) and talent management systems and practices (Christensen Hughes & Rog, 2008) are significant organisational antecedents to engagement.

Based on Kahn’s (1990) and Maslach *et al.*’s (2001) models, Saks (2006) conducted a study to test a model of the antecedents and consequences of the two types of engagement, (job & organisational engagement) grounded on the social exchange theory. Job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, rewards and recognition, procedural justice and distributive justice were identified as possible predictors of job and organisational engagement. The results of the study indicated that the identified antecedent variables explained a significant amount of the variances in job and organisational engagement (Saks, 2006). The author posits that job characteristics and organisational support are significant predictors of job engagement. Moreover, organisational support and procedural justice had an effect on organisation engagement (Saks, 2006).

2.4.4.2 Consequences of employee engagement

Prior studies have tried to address the outcomes of employee engagement. Saks (2006) suggests that employee engagement has become a popular topic because of the positive consequences it derives for organisations. Harter *et al.* (2002) posit that there is an association between employee engagement and business results. Saks (2006) regards engagement to be an individual-level construct. The author argues that for employee engagement to lead to business results, it must first impact individual-level outcomes (Saks, 2006).

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) suggest that engaged employees are likely to be committed to their organisation and have lower tendencies to quit. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) base their argument on the social exchange theory and claim that if both the employer and employee abide by the exchange rules, the result will be a reciprocal relationship built on trust, loyalty and mutual commitment.

Numerous studies have found a relationship between engagement and work outcomes (Saks, 2006). Employee engagement has consistently been found to be significantly positively correlated to organisational commitment and negatively related to intention to quit (Sonnentag, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Saks, 2006). According to Saks (2006) employee engagement predicts work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, intention to quit and organisational citizenship. In a study conducted by the Gallup Organisation (2004), employee engagement was found to be significantly related to customer loyalty, business growth and profitability.

2.4.5 Overview of section

Existing literature on employee engagement was reviewed, with the concept of employee engagement defined and different types of work-related engagement identified. These included job engagement, organisational engagement, personal engagement, burnout/engagement, work engagement, and employee engagement (Kahn, 1990; Maslach *et al*., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Saks, 2006; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). However, the study focused more on employee engagement which was conceptualised as a positive, fulfilling and work-related state of mind that encapsulates vigour, dedication and absorption (Bakker *et al.*, 2008). Based on Saks's (2006) model, the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement were briefly discussed.

The following section of the literature review looks at the concept of job satisfaction.

2.5 Job Satisfaction

2.5.1 The concept of job satisfaction

The construct of job satisfaction has generated a lot of debate over the past few decades. Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as enabling the achievement of work experiences. Job dissatisfaction, on the other hand, is the unpleasurable emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job as hindering or preventing the attainment of work experiences (Locke, 1976). Mullins (2005) regards job satisfaction as more of an attitude or an internal state.

2.5.2 The antecedents of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the result of a wide range of factors that affect the quality of working life (Winterton, 2004). Researchers in the past have identified three groups of variables that affect job satisfaction: Job/task-related characteristics (Abdel-Halim, 1981; Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981; Goldstein & Rockart, 1984; Spector, 1985; Glick, Jenkins & Gupta, 1986; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim & Carson, 2002; Rayton, 2006), individual characteristics (Dewar & Werbel, 1979; McNeely, 1984; Staw & Ross, 1985), and organisational characteristics (Haynes 1979; Brass, 1981; Lopez, 1982; Bateman & Organ, 1983; Zeffane, 1994). Moreover, Weiss *et al.* (1967) identified various extrinsic factors (for example, supervision, interpersonal relationships, company policies, & working conditions) and intrinsic factors (for example, variety, responsibility, recognition, achievement, & advancement) as potential sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, which is consistent with Herzberg's (1966) two factor theory.

Yang (2010) carried out a study on the antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction in the hotel industry. The author identified role conflict, burnout, socialisation, and work autonomy as significant predictors of job satisfaction. However, in the same study, role ambiguity had no effect on job satisfaction (Yang, 2010).

In a study conducted by Ncube and Samuel (2014), the authors established that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation correlate significantly to job satisfaction among employees of a municipality. Intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, the nature of the work and personal growth and advancement were found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction. Moreover, the findings of this study showed that extrinsic factors such as working conditions, supervision, salary, job security, interpersonal relations and company policy and administration had an effect on job satisfaction (Ncube & Samuel, 2014).

In terms of the individual characteristics of the worker, age, experience, gender and education have been established to predict job satisfaction. Dewar and Werbel (1979) propose it to be related to age whereas Clark, Oswald and Warr (1996) are of the belief that it increases linearly with age. Similarly, Okpara (2004) contends that age affects the level of job satisfaction. McNeely (1984) reported gender predicting job satisfaction. However, there has been a noticeable inconsistency in the literature regarding gender differences as a determinant of job satisfaction (Chiu, 1998; Oshagbemi, 2000). A number of studies (Falcone, 1991; Rogers 1991; Howard & Frink, 1996; Andres & Grayson, 2002) support the notion that an employee's level of education helps determine the degree of job satisfaction. Regarding the number of years an employee has spent in a particular organisation (tenure) in relation to the degree of their job satisfaction, numerous studies have consistently found that tenure has an effect on job satisfaction (Bedeian, Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Clark *et al.*, 1996; Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003).

2.5.3 The consequences of job satisfaction

In the literature, job satisfaction has been viewed as an antecedent of organisational outcomes, such as business performance (Iaffaldan & Muchinsky, 1985; Schyns & Croon, 2006), employee turnover (Williams & Hazer, 1986; Griffeth *et al.*, 2000; Schyns & Croon, 2006; Silva, 2006), and organisational commitment (Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Lowery, Beadles & Krilowicz, 2002; Lam & Qiu Zhang, 2003; Silva, 2006).

Yang (2010) postulates that job satisfaction is significantly related to psychological outcomes in terms of organisational effectiveness. This means that if employees are satisfied with their jobs it will result in greater affective and continued commitment and lower employee turnover intentions. Igbaria and Guimaraes (1992) carried out a study to explore the antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction for information centre employees. Organisational commitment and intention to leave the organisation were considered to be outcomes from job satisfaction. The results of the study confirmed the importance of job satisfaction in predicting organisational commitment and intention to quit (Igbaria & Guimaraes, 1992).

In most South African companies there is a lack of job satisfaction, which in turn, results in a low level of employee commitment to performance and achievement of organisational goals. The symptoms of job dissatisfaction have been identified as low productivity, high absenteeism, labour unrest, industrial action, and high labour turnover (Robbins *et al.*, 2009; Ncube & Samuel, 2014).

2.5.5 Overview of section

In this section of the study, the construct of job satisfaction was reviewed. This allowed a comprehensive understanding of the concept of job satisfaction and its dimensions. The antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction were also briefly discussed.

The following section is a discussion of intention to quit.

2.6 Intention to Quit

2.6.1 Introduction

Extensive research has been conducted over the past few decades on intention to quit (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992; Jaros, 1997; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Elangovan, 2001; Lambert, 2001; Lambert, Hogan & Barton, 2001; Benson, 2006; Rahman, Naqvi & Ramay, 2008). Intention to quit can also be termed turnover intention. Turnover intention is regarded as a type of withdrawal behaviour that is related to under-identification with work (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004).

2.6.2 Definition of intention to quit

Intention to quit is the strength of an individual's view that they do not want to stay with their current employer (Boshoff *et al.*, 2002; Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008). In contrast, turnover refers to actually quitting the organisation. For the current study, Tett and Meyer's (1993, p. 2) definition of intention to quit as the employee's "conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" will be used.

2.6.3 Linking intention to quit to actual turnover

Intention to quit has been found to be a significant predictor of actual turnover and may be the most important antecedent of employee turnover (Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008; San Park & Hyun Kim, 2008; Mendes & Stander, 2011). Prior studies (Mobley, 1977; Mobley *et al.*, 1979; Steers & Mowday, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Price & Mueller, 1986) have consistently found a close relationship between intention to quit and actual turnover. Weisberg (1994) posits that an employee's intention to quit is a valid indicator of quitting. In a large scale analysis of turnover research conducted by Maertz and Campion (2001), the findings showed that intention to quit had the most consistent relationship with turnover behaviour.

It should be noted that prior studies on turnover intention (Hinshaw, Smeltzer & Atwood, 1987; Irvine & Evans, 1995; Shader, Broome, Broome, West & Nash, 2001; Larrabee, Janney, Ostrow, Withrow, Hobbs & Burant 2003) have constantly demonstrated a consistent relationship between lower job satisfaction and higher intention to quit. According to Tett and Meyer (1993) intention to quit the organisation is the immediate precursor to actual turnover. This is consistent with similar studies (Mobley, 1982; Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Currivan, 2000; Griffeth, *et al.*, 2000; Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004) that consider intention to quit to be the most important and immediate antecedent of actual turnover. Griffeth *et al.* (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover and found that intention to quit is one of the major predictors of turnover. Furthermore, intention to quit has been found to have a significant impact on the effectiveness of an organisation (Erat, Erdil, Kitapçı & Çömlek, 2012).

Takase (2010) suggests that intention to quit is a multiple stage process, which includes an employee voluntarily leaving a current position, triggered by negative psychological responses into withdrawal behaviour that actually lead to quitting. Winterton (2004) supports this view and adds that employees leave work because of retirement, dismissal, or voluntary resignation. Grobler *et al.* (2011) maintain that high labour turnover has robbed the South African economy of several million rands per year due to decreased productivity, increased accidents, and high absenteeism and quitting problems.

Considerable research has been conducted on work attitudes, behaviour and outcomes regarding turnover intentions, however, there is a paucity of research on the link with talent management practices that enable the organisation to attract, develop, engage, and retain talent. Losing highly skilled employees disrupts organisational functioning, service delivery and administration (Bothma & Roodt, 2012). In addition, a loss of talented employees can also have a significant effect on hiring and training costs (Roodt & Bothma, 1997; Sulu, Ceylan & Kaynak, 2010). Job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to quit have been commonly cited in the literature as major antecedents of actual turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982). Pienaar, Sieberhagen and Mostert (2007) maintain that by identifying factors that may be related to turnover intention, human resources managers may act proactively in retaining their talented employees. This study takes a step in this direction and examines the direct and indirect (mediated) effect of talent management practices on organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit. The study also seeks to investigate the mediating influence of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit.

2.6.4 Antecedents of intention to quit

According to Boshoff *et al.* (2002) determining the antecedents of intention to leave (quit) the organisation is important. Pearson (1995) postulates that high turnover has significant direct and indirect costs for organisations, relating to the recruiting, selecting, inducting, training and development of employees to replace those who have left the organisation, either voluntary or involuntary. A large number of studies have been conducted on the antecedents of intention to quit (Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Brown, 1996). Moreover, numerous researchers (Bluedorn, 1982; Saks, 1996; Kramer, McGraw, & Schuler, 1997; Kalliath & Beck, 2001) have investigated possible antecedents of employees' intention to quit, thereby offering possible reasons as to why people quit their jobs.

Firth, Mellor, Moore and Loquet (2004) argue that there has been little consistency in findings on the antecedents of employees' intention to quit. However, the authors suggest that despite these limitations, intention to quit has been found to be consistently related to:

- The experience of job-related stress (job stress);
- The range of factors that lead to job-related stress (stressors);
- Lack of organisational commitment; and
- Job dissatisfaction (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992; Leong, Furnham & Cooper, 1996; Lum, Kervin, Rahim & Psenicka, 1996).

In his study, Moore (2001) found that job stressors and job dissatisfaction are major factors that contribute to people's intention to quit their jobs. Moreover, internal locus of control has been found to mediate the relationship between job stressors and the intention to leave a job (Rahim & Psenicka, 1996). Additionally, internal locus of control has been found to be significantly related to job satisfaction (Sujan, 1986). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment have consistently been found to be significant in the continuity of employment. Firth *et al.* (2004) suggest that the relationships between job satisfaction and organisation commitment with intention to quit have been found to be consistently significant. For example, Wunder, Dougherty and Welsh (1982) cited by Firth *et al.* (2004) found that job stressors had a direct, negative effect on job satisfaction, which led to a reduced commitment to the organisation and to intention to quit and actual quitting behaviour.

Demographic characteristics such as age, gender, tenure, educational qualifications, and marital status have also been found to be significantly related to intention to quit (Werbel & Bedeian, 1989; Wandera, 2011; Jonathan, Thibeli & Darroux, 2013).

2.7 Theoretical Framework

2.7.1 Introduction

The theoretical foundation of the current study is based on the social exchange theory (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964), the human capital theory (Becker, 1962) and the two-factor (motivation & hygiene) theory (Herzberg, 1966). A few prior studies (Tarique & Schuler, 2010) have suggested linking talent management to the human capital theory, and using the framework to conceptualise talent management (McDonnell, 2009). The social exchange theory has been utilised to provide the conceptual foundation of research on work attitudes and behaviours (Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). Existing studies have frequently used Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory to study job satisfaction and thus the theory has also provided the theoretical foundation for the current study. The present study drew insight from these three theories to explore the direct and indirect (mediated) link between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and the effects on employees' intention to quit.

2.7.2 The human capital theory

The human capital theory (Becker, 1962) has been utilised in numerous studies to investigate the relationship between human resources management practices and work outcomes. Existing literature suggests that talent management practices focused on the development of talent could be theoretically explained by the human capital theory (Dickmann, Sparrow &

Brewster, 2008; McDonnell, 2009; Tarique & Schuler, 2010). This theory seeks to rationally explain key decisions made by either a firm or an individual (Renaud, Morin, Saulquin & Abraham, 2015). The authors suggest that, grounded on the human capital theory, economic incentives and costs versus benefits comparisons have an effect on the decision to invest resources (Renaud *et al.*, 2015).

According to Tarique and Schuler (2010), the human capital theory can be used to explain the decisions organisations make in managing talent in order to meet the global talent management challenges. The authors posit that, based on this theory, talent can be viewed in terms of capital. This means that costs related to attracting, retaining, and developing talent can be viewed as investments in the human capital of the firm (Tarique & Schuler, 2010).

The human capital theory, in its initial conception, was developed to explain the investments people make in themselves, through education and training, based on the cost-benefit analysis of this investment/disinvestment (Becker, 1962). The theory has been extensively developed by Becker (1962) based on the work of Schultz (1961, 1971). Schultz (1961) argued that labour contributes more to output and production capacity than all other forms of wealth combined. The underlying premise of the human capital theory is that education and training creates assets in the form of knowledge and skills, which leads to increased productivity of highly skilled and talented employees (Becker, 1995).

The human capital theory seeks to explain the benefits of education and training as a form of investment in talent (Aliaga, 2001). Moreover, the human capital theory suggests that the knowledge and skills that people acquire through education and training are a form of capital, and this capital is a product of deliberate investment that yields returns (Shultz, 1971). Numerous studies (Becker 1993, Benhabib & Spiegel, 1994; Hendricks, 2002; Engelbrecht,

2003) concur with this viewpoint and consider people/human resources a form of capital for development.

Over the years, there have been a number of divergent views regarding what human capital actually is and how it should be defined (Ployhart, Nyberg, Reilly & Maltarich, 2014). This may be due to a number of reasons, chief among them being the fact that the human capital theory has been researched from many different disciplines, such as economics, strategic management, human resources management and psychology. Ployhart *et al.* (2014) define human capital as a unit-level resource that emerges from the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics of individual employees. Ehrenberg and Smith (1997) regard human capital as a theory that conceptualises workers as embodying a set of skills which can be rented out to employers. In contrast, Gratton and Ghoshal (2003) consider human capital to be made up of intellectual, social and emotional capital. Baron and Armstrong (2007) define human capital as the knowledge, skills, abilities and capacity to develop and innovate possessed by people in an organisation.

Prior researchers have made a distinction between different types of human capital (Florin & Schultze, 2000). According to Baron and Armstrong (2007) it is one of the three main elements of intellectual capital. This reasoning is consistent with Gratton and Ghoshal's (2003) and Scarbrough and Elias's (2002) views of human capital. Gratton and Ghoshal (2003) suggest that human capital consists of three kinds of resources: Intellectual, social and emotional capitals of individuals and organisations.

The model (Figure 2.2) shown below explains the relationships between these three elements.

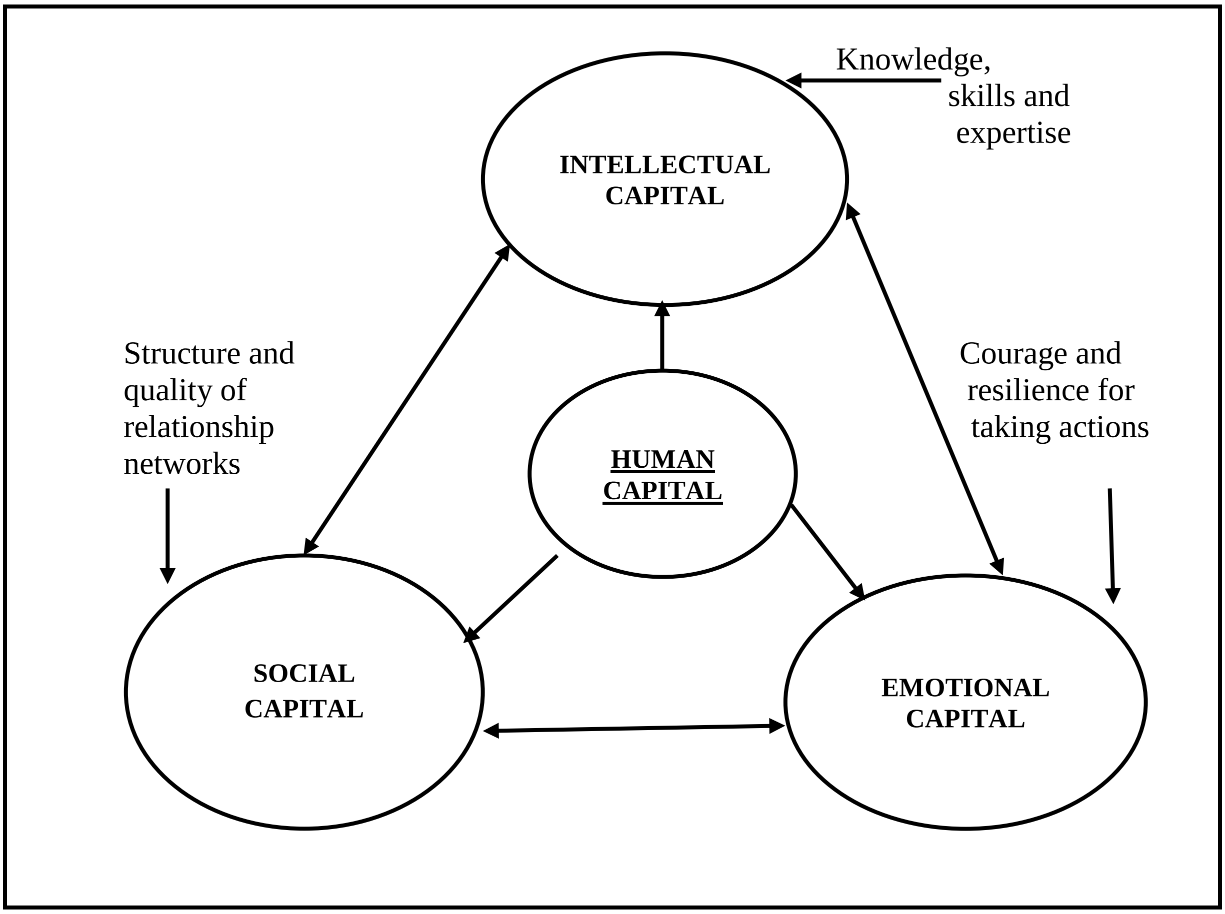


Figure 2.2: Human capital consists of the intellectual, social and emotional capital of individuals and organisations

Source: Gratton and Ghoshal (2003, p. 2).

According to Gratton and Ghoshal (2003) intellectual capital refers to important individual traits such as reasoning and the ability to acquire tacit and explicit knowledge, including the skills and expertise an individual develops gradually. Social capital, on the other hand is about who one knows, and how well one knows them. The authors posit that the anchors for developing and maintaining a network of relationships are sociability and trustworthiness, which provide access to resources from networking members (Gratton & Ghoshal, 2003).

Schoemaker and Jonker (2005) suggest that the employer and the talented employee become inter-dependent because organisations need talented and skilled employees, while employees need organisations to develop and use their talents. The human capital theory explains both the organisation and employee's actions (Becker, 1962). However, the theory does not explicitly consider that there is an interaction between these two actors. To better understand the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit, it is essential to utilise a theory that is based on a two-way exchange process. The social exchange theory can provide us with a significant contribution (Homans, 1958). Moreover, like the human capital theory, the social exchange theory is based on a cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives. However, in contrast to the human capital theory, the social exchange theory posits that there is a reciprocal relationship between the employer and the employee.

2.7.3 The social exchange theory

Numerous studies (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964; Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Settoon *et al.*, 1996; Wayne *et al.*, 1997) suggest that the social exchange theory may explain the relationship between human resource practices (talent management practices) and organisational commitment. The social exchange theory views the employment relationship as consisting of social or economic exchanges (Aryee, Budhwar & Chen, 2002; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to Dawley, Andrews and Bucklew (2008), the social exchange theory has often been used to better understand the reciprocal relationship that develops between employees and the organisation. The employee's reciprocal act can include higher organisational commitment which results in decreased intention to quit the organisation (Hutchinson, 1997; Allen *et al.*, 2003).

It should be noted that the current study again used the social exchange theory to explain the employees' commitment and engagement to the organisation. Meyer and Smith (2000) argue that unless employees believe they have been treated fairly, they will not be committed to the organisation. The social exchange theory's view of organisational commitment and employee engagement suggests that individuals attach themselves to their organisations in return for certain rewards. Moreover, the social exchange theory suggests that employees respond to perceived favourable working conditions by behaving in ways that benefit the organisation and or other employees. Equally, employees retaliate against dissatisfying conditions by engaging in negative work attitudes such as absenteeism and intention to leave the organisation (Haar, 2006; Crede, Chernyshenko, Stark, Dalal, & Bashshur, 2007).

2.7.4 Hertzberg's two factor theory

According to Herzberg (1966), satisfaction and dissatisfaction are driven by different factors – motivation and hygiene factors, respectively. Moreover, Herzberg (1966) maintains that if the motivational factors are met, the employee becomes motivated and hence performs better. Factors that truly motivate employees to perform and inspire them to remain in organisations are aspects of the job that are considered intrinsic and they include achievement, recognition of good performance, advancement and career growth opportunities. Employees are not particularly motivated by factors which Herzberg considered to be extrinsic (hygiene) to the job but these factors must be present in the organisation to make employees happy. These factors include interpersonal relationships, work conditions, company policies, management style, and pay. Lack of these hygiene factors can cause dissatisfaction in employees and may lead to employees' intention to quit and actual turnover.

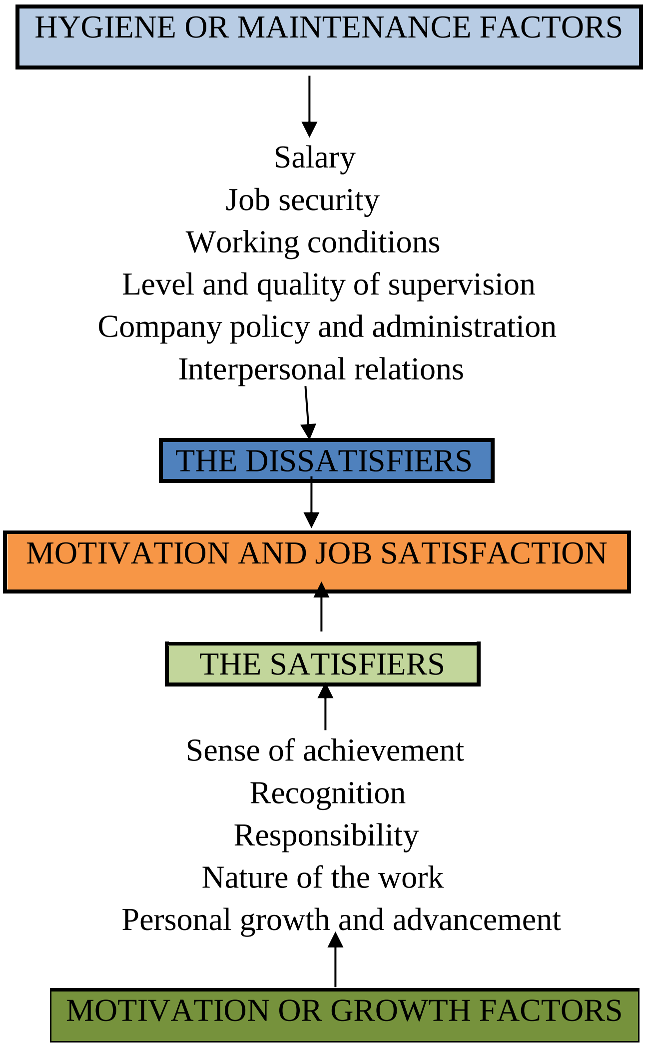


Figure 2.3: Representation of Herzberg's two-factor theory

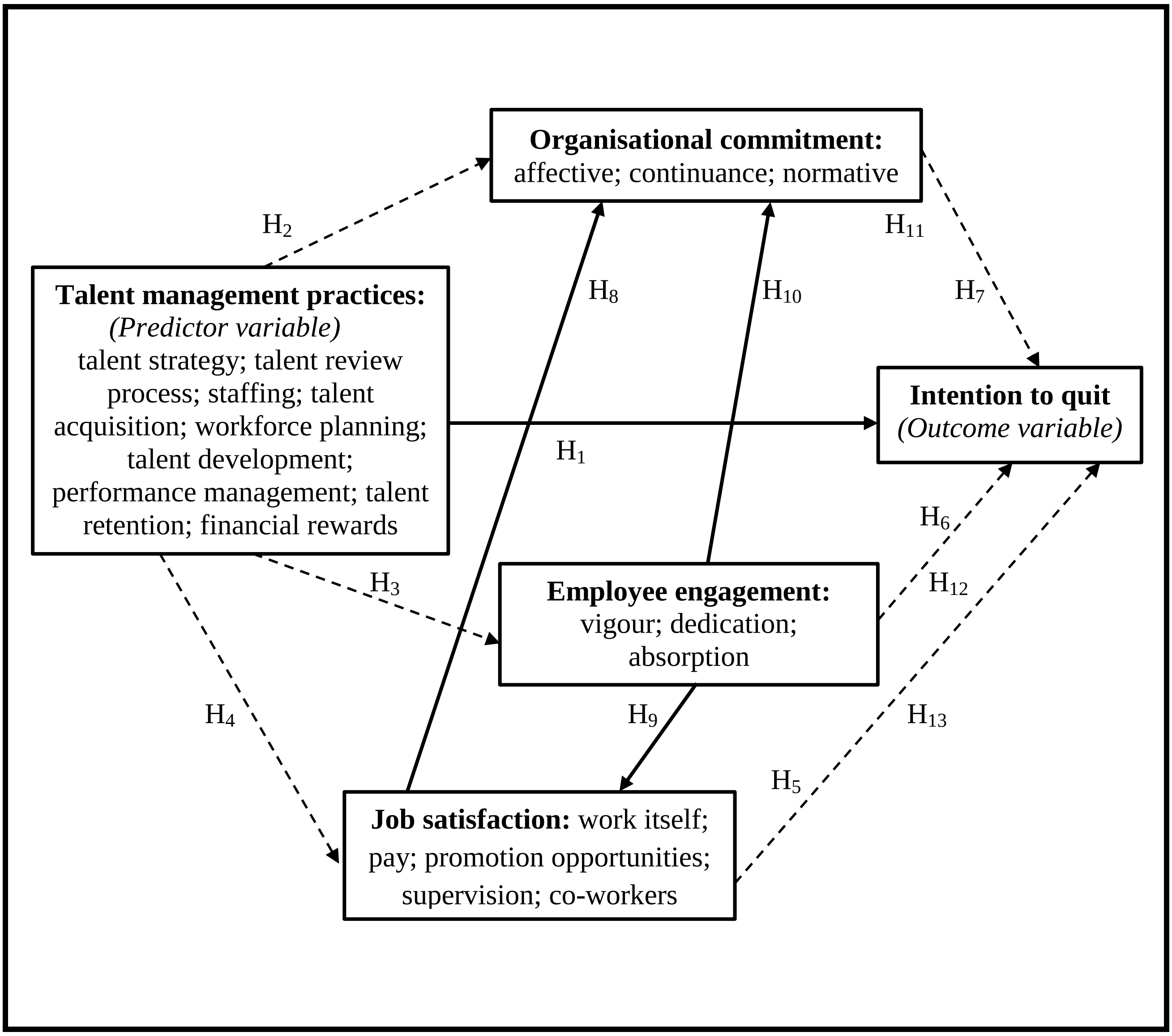
Source: Adapted from Mullins (2010, p. 266)

The hygiene or maintenance factors (salary, job security, working conditions, interpersonal relations and the like) address issues that are external to the job. The motivators or growth factors address issues that are bound up with the job (for example, recognition, possibilities for growth and advancement). The current study drew insights from this theory (Herzberg's two-factor theory) and the other two theories (the human capacity and the social exchange theories) in determining the direct and indirect relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit

2.8. Relationship between the Constructs

2.8.1 Hypothetical model of the study

The following hypothetical model of the study is proposed. The hypothetical model will essentially demonstrate the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit. The hypothetical model of the tested relationships is illustrated in Figure 2.4 below.



Source: Researcher's own construction

Figure 2.4: The hypothetical model of the study

According to this model, the direct and indirect (or mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit are tested. Moreover, the mediating role of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction (mediator variables) on the relationship between talent management practices (predictor/independent variable) and employees' intention to quit (outcome/dependent variable) is also tested in this research.

The following section reviews literature linked to the hypothesised relationships between the five constructs under study (talent management practice, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction & intention to quit).

2.8.2 Talent management practices and intention to quit

In the present "war for talent", labour turnover has become a critical issue as organisations are confronted with the predicament of losing their most talented and skilled employees (Boshoff *et al.*, 2002; Taplin & Winterton, 2007; Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). To compete in a knowledge-based and hyper connected global economy organisations have to attract, develop and retain talent (Boninelli & Meyer, 2004). Fitz-enz and Phillips (1998) argue that the retention of key employees is probably the biggest challenge in human capital management today.

Studies have consistently shown that employees who are deemed to be talented and of high potential to the organisation are more productive (Becker, Huselid, Pickus & Spratt, 1997), committed to the organisation (Anand, Vidyarthi, Liden & Rousseau, 2010; Hornung, Rousseau, Glaser, Angerer, & Weigl, 2010), and are satisfied with their jobs, and a have lower intention to quit (Dyer & Reeves, 1995). However, Gelens, Dries, Hofmans, and Pepermans (2013) argue that existing studies focus more on high potentials rather than non-high potentials that are not targeted by talent management practices. The authors suggest that non-high potential employees, unlike high ones, may not show similar positive reactions such as high commitment and low turnover intentions (Gelens *et al.*, 2013).

Darvish *et al.* (2012) conducted an empirical study on the relationship between talent management competencies and intention to quit. The findings of this study showed a significant inverse relationship between talent management competencies and intention to quit. The authors concluded that organisations could make use of talent management competencies to reduce employees' intention to leave the organisation (Darvish *et al.*, 2012).

Oehley's (2007) study showed that talent management competencies of attracting and recruiting talent have a significant effect on employees' intention to quit the organisation. Du Plessis's (2010) study on the other hand, showed a medium, significant negative relationship between employees' perception of the organisation's talent management practices and their intention to quit the organisation. The author suggests that high levels of perception of the application of talent management practices results in low levels of employee's intention to quit the organisation (Du Plessis, 2010).

Based on a review of previous research and findings on talent management practices and intention to quit, the following hypothesis was formulated:

> **Hypothesis 1 (H_1):** *There is a significant negative relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*

2.8.3 Talent management practices and organisational commitment

Meyer and Smith (2000) examined the relationship between human resource management practices (talent management) and employee commitment. The authors looked at the quality of human resource management (talent management) practices in relation to affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organisation. Furthermore, they looked at performance appraisal, benefits, training, and career development, procedural justice and organisational support. Using structural equation modelling analysis, the findings revealed that affective and normative commitment correlate significantly with all of the human resource management (talent management) practices, however, continuance commitment did not correlate significantly with any of the other variables (Meyer & Smith, 2000). The authors noted that these relations, however, were not direct or unconditional but mediated by the perception of organisational support (Meyer & Smith, 2000). The authors concluded that the findings were consistent with previous studies (Ogilvie, 1986; Koys, 1988; Gaertner & Nollen, 1989) in establishing relationships between organisational human resource management practices (talent management) and employees' affective commitment.

Roodt and Kotze (2005) conducted a study on the factors affecting the retention of managerial and specialist staff in South Africa. The findings of this study showed that organisational commitment, employer of choice perceptions, organisational climate and employee wellbeing are major factors affecting retention (Roodt & Kotze, 2005). The authors argue that a lack of clear direction from management will drive employees to leave the organisation. In contrast, Oehley's (2007) study showed that talent management competencies do not directly influence affective commitment. Moreover, the identified talent management competencies such as "develops others", "builds and maintains" and "manages work-life balance" did not have a significant effect on affective commitment (Oehley, 2007: 121). The author's findings suggest that affective commitment is totally unaffected by the competencies and behaviours of human resources managers and line managers in particular. Collings and Mellahi (2009) posit that effective talent management will have an indirect positive relationship with organisational performance, mediated by work motivation, organisational commitment, and extra-role behaviour, all acting separately or in combination with one another.

Based on a review of existing literature on talent management practices and organisational commitment, the following hypothesis was formulated:

> **Hypothesis 2 (H_1):** *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment.*

2.8.4 Talent management practices and employee engagement

Employee engagement has become an important topic as labour turnover increases as a result of high demand and a lack of talented employees. Thus, employee engagement plays a critical role in the retention of talent (Glen, 2006). According to Smythe (2007) organisations with highly engaged employees perform better in terms of performance, talent retention and more importantly, in generating revenue. Moreover, organisations no longer seek compliant employees', they want employees who engage their creativity in the workplace thereby enhancing the organisation's talent offering (Smythe, 2007). The author argues that employee engagement is a management philosophy based on the premise of ensuring that the right people (talent) are deployed in the right place, at the right time and in the right way. Forman (2005) concurs with Smythe (2007) and states that talent deployment depends on the ability to ensure that the right people, with the right skills and knowledge, are employed in the right jobs at the right time. Hewitt (2011) suggests that employee engagement promotes a relationship between the employee and the organisation and this relationship assists talent retention.

Srivastava and Bhatnagar (2008) researched talent acquisition and its relationship to levels of employee engagement. The authors noted that organisations should develop effective talent management strategies that will not only attract talent but also enhance employee engagement and talent retention (Srivastava & Bhatnagar, 2008). Barkhuizen *et al*. (2014) conducted a study on the relationship between talent management, work engagement, and service quality orientation of support staff in a South African higher education institution. Their findings showed a positive significant relationship between some of the talent management practices and work engagement. Moreover, the results highlighted the importance of work engagement as a key variable in the attraction, growth and retention of talent in organisations.

In another study, Bhatnagar (2007) used a mixed method research design to investigate employee engagement and its possible relationship to talent retention. The findings of this study showed that employee engagement has a significant effect on employee productivity and talent retention. The author concluded that talent management strategies are crucial in ensuring that talented employees are recruited and retained in order to add value to the organisation (Bhatnagar, 2007).

Talent management strategies should not only contribute to the effective recruitment and retention of employees, but also enhance employee engagement (Christensen Hughes & Rog, 2008). The authors looked at the impact of talent management on employee recruitment, retention and engagement, as well as to ascertain the factors that are critical to the effective implementation of talent management strategies. They maintain that effective talent management strategies result in enhanced employee recruitment, retention and employee engagement. Furthermore, Christensen Hughes and Rog (2008) suggest that the consequences of effective talent management strategies and practices are linked to increased performance.

Based on a review of existing research literature and findings on talent management practices and employee engagement, the following hypothesis was formulated:

> **Hypothesis 3 (H_1):** *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement.*

2.8.5 Talent management practices and job satisfaction

Job satisfaction plays a vital role in enhancing both organisational and individual performance and productivity. Deery (2008) argues that existing literature relating to talent retention focuses more on traditional causes such as the lack of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Tymon Jr *et al*. (2010) developed and tested a model of talent management across 28 Indian firms involving 4811 professional-level employees. The authors investigated four antecedents of intrinsic rewards: Performance management, pride in the organisation, manager support and the social responsibility of the employer. The study showed that intrinsic rewards play a critical role in employee retention, satisfaction with the organisation, and career success (Tymon Jr *et al.*, 2010).

Deery (2008) conducted a study on talent management, work-life balance and retention strategies. The study focused more on job attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment. In another study conducted by Bethke-Langenegger *et al.* (2011), talent management practices focusing on retaining and developing talents had a significant positive impact on human resource outcomes such as job satisfaction, motivation and commitment.

Based on a review of existing literature on talent management practices and job satisfaction, the following hypothesis was formulated:

> **Hypothesis 4 (H_1):** *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.*

2.8.6 Job satisfaction and intention to quit

A number of researchers have attempted to establish the reasons for employees' intention to leave an organisation by examining possible antecedents of employees' intention to quit (Kramer, McGraw & Schuler, 1997; Kalliath & Beck, 2001). Steers (1977) maintains that there is a lack of consensus on the direct relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit, and on whether this relationship is mediated by organisational commitment. The author postulates that high levels of dissatisfaction could influence employees to leave or consider quitting their current jobs. Moore (2000) regards job satisfaction to be a major factor that influences employees' intention to quit. It is typically considered, to be negatively related to intention to quit (Trevor, 2001). A number of researchers (Netemeyer, Johnston & Burton, 1990) have argued that job satisfaction is directly correlated to intention to quit or indirectly correlated to intention to quit (Brown & Peterson, 1994).

Sutherland and Jordaan (2004) conducted a study on the factors affecting the retention of knowledge workers in South Africa. Their findings showed that job satisfaction correlates significantly with intention to quit. Moreover, the authors identified promotion opportunities and the nature of the work as major components of job satisfaction that correlated strongly with intention to quit (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004). In another South African study, Pienaar *et al.* (2007) found a strong negative correlation between job satisfaction and intention to quit. The authors argued that in terms of the negative association between job satisfaction and turnover intention, their findings are consistent with that of prior studies (Tzeng, 2002; Van Dick, Christ, Stellmacher, Wagner, Ahlswede, Grubba & Tissington, 2014).

According to Lok Wang, Westwood and Crawford, (2007) the major factors of job satisfaction that influence intention to quit are management support, remuneration and motivation. In a study conducted by Seston, Hassell, Ferguson and Hann (2009) to explore the relationship between job satisfaction, intention to quit, and actual quitting, job satisfaction was found to affect employees' intention to quit. However, the authors noted that only a relatively small number of employees who expressed an intention to quit seemed to have done so indicating that intention may not have turned into action among the employees under study.

Purani and Sahadev (2008) conducted a study in India to examine the effect of job satisfaction on sales employees' intention to quit. The authors' findings showed that experienced employees, with a long tenure in the organisation, were satisfied with their jobs and not inclined to quit. Spector (1997) indicates a strong relationship between job dissatisfaction and intention to leave an organisation. Shields and Ward (2001) concurs with Spector (1997) and argue that job dissatisfaction is a significant predictor of employees' intention to quit.

Intention to quit is mostly affected by job dissatisfaction and a lack of commitment (Firth *et al.*, 2004). Lok and Crawford (2004) argue that if employees are dissatisfied with their jobs, they will become less committed and will look for opportunities to quit. Robyn and Du Preez (2013) maintain that job satisfaction is significantly negatively related to intention to quit. The authors suggest that the more satisfied employees are with their jobs, the lower their intention to quit (Robyn & Du Preez, 2013).

Based on a review of existing research literature and findings on the link between job satisfaction and intention to quit, the following hypothesis was formulated:

> **Hypothesis 5 (H_1):** *There is a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.*

2.8.7 Employee engagement and intention to quit

A number of researchers have suggested that a relationship exists between employee engagement and intention to quit. Shuck and Wollard (2010) allude to the fact that employees who are more productive and engaged are less likely to be absent from work or leave the organisation. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) support this point and argue that engaged employees are likely to have a greater attachment to their organisations and a lower tendency to leave them. Moreover, employee engagement has been found to be positively related to organisational commitment and negatively related to intention to quit (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003).

Robyn and Du Preez (2013) investigated intention to quit amongst Generation Y academics in South Africa. The results of this study showed that employee engagement and job satisfaction, amongst other factors, correlates significantly to intention to quit. The authors posit that employee engagement is negatively associated with intention to quit. This suggests that an engaged employee is less likely to quit their current job (Robyn & Du Preez, 2013). Gubman (2004) also reported that disengaged employees are likely to actively seek alternative employment and leave their current job.

Du Plooy and Roodt (2010) carried out a study to determine whether work engagement is a predictor of turnover intentions. According to the authors, the findings of the study suggested that work engagement mediated by burnout is significantly negatively related to turnover intentions. Saks (2006) conducted a study on the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. The results of the study indicated that job and organisational engagement serves to predict the relationship between antecedents such as job characteristics, perceived organisational support, perceived supervisor support, rewards and recognition, procedural justice, and distributive justice, and the outcome of employees' intention to quit (Saks, 2006).

Takawira, Coetzee and Schreuder's (2014) study revealed significant correlations between work engagement and turnover intention. The authors suggest that a moderate negative significant relationship was observed between work engagement and turnover intention. In another study conducted by Mendes and Stander (2011), using regression analysis to determine if engagement and its three sub-scales predict intention to leave, employee engagement was found to predict employees' intention to leave.

Based on a literature review of existing studies on the relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit, the following hypothesis was formulated:

> **Hypothesis 6 (H_1):** *There is a significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit.*

2.8.8 Organisational commitment and intention to quit

According to Allen and Meyer (1997) commitment has long been shown to help predict intention to quit. A number of studies have consistently indicated the influence of both job satisfaction and organisational commitment on turnover intentions. Prior studies suggest that organisational commitment and intention to quit are significant predictors of employee turnover (Mobley *et al.*, 1979; Griffeth & Hom, 1995; Griffeth *et al.*, 2000; Allen *et al.*, 2003). Moreover, Allen and Meyer (1997) support this view and maintain that organisational commitment is related to intention to quit an organisation. Allen and Meyer (1990) identified a relationship between organisational commitment and employee turnover, and concluded that employees who were strongly committed to the organisation were less likely to leave it. A further argument suggested by Neale and Northcraft (1991) is that high levels of organisational commitment are associated with low turnover.

Existing literature has found a significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit (Law, 1995; Lum, Kervin, Clark, Reid & Sirola, 1998). For example, in a study done by Miller, Haskell and Thatcher (2002) organisational commitment and intention to quit were found to be significantly negatively related. The authors noted that higher levels of organisational commitment result in lower levels of intention to quit (Miller *et al.*, 2002). The findings of Miller *et al.* (2002) correspond with an earlier study conducted by Dunham, Grube and Castaneda (1994) suggesting that if an employee has a high intention to quit, they would be less committed to the organisation.

Empirically, researchers (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Whitener & Walz, 1993) have consistently found significant negative correlations between affective and normative commitment with intention to quit. However, continuance commitment has been found to be insignificant to intention to quit. Oehley (2007) established significant links between affective commitment and intention to quit. In a study conducted by Meyer *et al.* (1993) affective and normative commitment were found to be significantly negatively associated with intention to quit, while continuance commitment had no significant effect on intent to quit. The findings of Meyer *et al.* (1993) correspond with similar prior studies (Whitener & Walz, 1993; Somers, 1995).

Based on a literature review of prior studies on organisational commitment and intention to quit, the following hypothesis was formulated:

> **Hypothesis 7 (H_1):** *There is a significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit.*

2.8.9 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment have received significant interest from researchers (Lok & Crawford, 2004). The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has yielded inconsistent and contradictory findings, with a number of researchers finding a causal relationship (Bagozzi, 1980; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Reichers, 1985; Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Brown & Peterson, 1994), a correlational relationship (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and non-existent relationship (Curry, Wakefield, Price & Mueller, 1986) between the two variables.

Job satisfaction is considered to be directly correlated to organisational commitment (Brown & Peterson, 1994). According to Mathieu and Zajac (1990) the influence of job satisfaction and its components has become one of the most thoroughly investigated topics in the organisational commitment literature. The authors posit a positive correlation between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Moreover, strong positive relationships have been observed between organisational commitment and desirable work outcomes such as performance, adaptability and job satisfaction (Mowday *et al.*, 1974; Angle & Perry 1981; Hunt, Chonko & Wood, 1985). Shore and Martin (1989) concur with this point and suggest that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are associated variables that influence organisational outcomes and have been shown to be negatively related to turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and turnover intention (Glison & Durick, 1988), and positively related to performance (Benkhoff, 1997).

A number of authors have established a strong correlation between job satisfaction, employee commitment and retention (Roland, Rust, Stewart & Pielack, 1996; Roodt & Kotze, 2005). In addition, recent studies found significant relationships between organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Lok *et al.*, 2007; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Humayoun, 2011). For example, Martin and Roodt (2008) posit that there is a significant positive correlation between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Humayoun (2011) conducted a study on the antecedents of the two and found significant correlation between job satisfaction and all three components of organisational commitment. In addition, Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane and Ferreira (2011) carried out a cross-sectional study that showed a significant relationship between the job satisfaction and affective and normative commitment variables.

The authors argued that the results correspond with findings reported by Spector (2008) that job satisfaction relates most strongly to affective commitment. Moreover, Lumley *et al.* (2011) concur with the findings of Irving, Coleman and Cooper (1997). The authors found positive correlations between job satisfaction and affective and normative commitment. However, job satisfaction was negatively correlated with continuance commitment (Irving *et al.*, 1997).

The findings of Tella, Ayeni and Popoola's (2007) study revealed that job satisfaction correlates with commitment. Their findings correspond with Tang and Kim (1999) who reported that a relationship exists between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Similarly, Biggs (2003) finds that organisational commitment is significantly related to job satisfaction. Testa (2001) argues that increased job satisfaction results in increased organisational commitment and, in turn, service effort. Lok and Crawford's (2004) study suggested that commitment and job satisfaction have the strongest correlations.

Based on a review of existing literature on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the following hypothesis was formulated:

> **Hypothesis 8 (H_1):** *There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.*

2.8.10 Employee engagement and job satisfaction

The driving force behind the popularity of employee engagement in academic and practitioner research is that it has positive consequences for organisations (Saks, 2006). Moreover, employee engagement and job satisfaction are desirable outcomes needed by organisations in order to reduce turnover intention. Several researchers regard employee engagement as a satisfaction-related concept (Fleming & Asplund, 2007; Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003; Wagner & Harter, 2006). In addition, existing literature suggests that engaged employees play a critical role in increasing customer satisfaction levels (Vance, 2006; Wagner & Harter, 2006) and generating more revenues (Czarnowsky, 2008; Ketter, 2008). Maslach *et al.* (2001) propose that engagement, like burnout, should be related to outcomes such as increased withdrawal, lower performance, job satisfaction, and commitment. Saks (2006) postulates that job and organisation engagement predicts job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to quit.

Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013) maintain that engaged employees experience a pleasurable emotional state at work, indicating increased job satisfaction levels. Robyn and Du Preez's (2013) study showed that there is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction. The findings of Robyn and Du Preez (2013) correspond with that of Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013) suggesting that the more engaged an employee is, the higher the level of job satisfaction.

Harter *et al.* (2002) carried out a meta-analysis based study on 7,939 business units in 36 organisations. The results of this study showed a high correlation between employee engagement and job satisfaction. The findings of Harter *et al.* (2002) corroborate with recent studies (Saks, 2006; Gill, 2007; Burke, Koyuncu, Jing & Fiksenbaum, 2009; Kamalanabhan, Prakash Sai & Mayuri, 2009) that have consistently found job satisfaction to be an outcome of employee engagement. Furthermore, existing research has constantly found that employee engagement is significantly positively related to job satisfaction.

Based on a review of existing literature on the link between employee engagement and job satisfaction, the following hypothesis was formulated:

> **Hypothesis 9 (H_1) is:** *There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction.*

2.8. 11 Employee engagement and organisational commitment

Kahn (1992) cited by Saks (2006) proposed that engagement predicts both individual outcomes (i.e. quality of people's work and their own experiences of doing that work), as well as organisational-level outcomes (i.e. the growth and productivity of organisations). Maslach *et al.*'s (2001) model regards engagement as a mediating variable for the relationship between the six work conditions and work various outcomes. The authors argue that like burnout, employee engagement should be related to outcomes such as commitment. There are a number of reasons to expect engagement to be related to work outcomes (Saks, 2006).

According to Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005), based on the social exchange theory, if the employer and the employee abide by the exchange rules, the outcome will be a more trusting relationship based on loyalty and mutual commitment. Saks (2006) supports this viewpoint, suggesting that engaged employees are likely to be in more trusting and high-quality relationships with their employer and will, therefore, be more likely to be committed to the organisation.

Empirical research (Sonnentag, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) has found engagement to be positively related to organisational commitment and negatively related to intention to quit. Gruman and Saks (2011) posit that a significant relationship exists between engagement and a set of consequences/outcomes including commitment, health, turnover intentions and performance. Shuck *et al.*'s (2011) study showed that employee engagement is significantly related to job fit, affective commitment and psychological climate. Furthermore, the authors argued that employee engagement was also significantly related to both discretionary effort and intention to turnover (Shuck *et al.*, 2011).

Field and Buitendach (2011) conducted a study to determine the relationship between happiness, work engagement and organisational commitment of support staff at a South African tertiary education institution. The results of this study showed that a significant positive relationship exists between affective organisational commitment and work engagement as well as with happiness. Similarly, Field and Buitendach (2011) found that work engagement and happiness are positively related. The authors concluded that happiness and work engagement have predictive value for affective organisational commitment (Field & Buitendach, 2011).

Ibrahim and Al Falasi (2014) carried out a study to investigate the relationship between organisational commitment and its two components namely, affective commitment and continuance commitment with employee engagement. The findings of this study indicated that organisational commitment is significantly related to engagement. Moreover, affective commitment was found to be more significant to employees' engagement than continuance commitment (Ibrahim & Al Falasi, 2014). The results of this study correspond with similar studies that have found a significant relationship between organisational commitment and employee engagement (Sonnentag, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Saks, 2006). Buys and Rothmann (2010) reported a positive relation between organisational commitment and work engagement. The authors concluded that engaged employees had better social functioning and affective commitment.

Based on a review of existing literature on the link between employee engagement and organisational commitment, the following hypothesis was formulated:

> **Hypothesis 10 (H_1):** *There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment.*

2.8.12 Mediating role of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction

The final hypothesised relationships (hypotheses 11, 12, & 13) of the proposed hypothetical model (see Figure 2.4), seek to investigate the mediating effects of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. This section of the research is arguably the least understood of all the relationships hypothesised in the hypothetical model. Existing studies over the past few years have tried to explore the linkages between the variables under study (talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, & employees' intention to quit) (Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004; Lockwood, 2006; Bhatnagar, 2007; Oehley, 2007; Deery, 2008; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Darvish *et al.*, 2012; Barkhuizen *et al.*, 2014). However, a paucity of empirical research exists investigating the indirect (mediated) influence of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit.

Commitment and engagement has been found to partially mediate the relationship between human resource practices and turnover intention (Juhdi, Pa'wan & Hansaram, 2013). Recent studies on talent management and intention to quit have looked at the mediating effects of affective commitment (Oehley, 2007), burnout and organisational citizenship behaviour (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010), perceived organisational support, and perceived supervisor support (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008; Du Plessis, 2010). The present study seeks to explore the indirect or mediated influence of organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and employee engagement on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. The researcher adopted Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation in order to ascertain the indirect (mediated) effects of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit. A detailed account of Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation process is given in the following chapter (chapter three).

Based on a review of existing literature on talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- **Hypothesis 11 (H_1):** *Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
- **Hypothesis 12 (H_1):** *Employee engagement mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
- **Hypothesis 13 (H_1):** *Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*

2.9 Summary of Chapter

This chapter presented a detailed literature review which provided the foundation for this research paper. In this section of the study, the literature that relates to the concepts of talent and talent management was reviewed. After this, the talent management practices relating to the attraction, development and retention of talent were identified and discussed. Literature that relates to organisational commitment was then reviewed, with Allen and Meyer's three component model (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1991) adopted for the construct of commitment. Literature on employee engagement was reviewed, with the concept of employee engagement and its antecedents and consequences briefly discussed.

This chapter also reviewed the job satisfaction construct and looked at the concept of job satisfaction and its dimensions, antecedents and consequences. The literature relating to intention to quit was reviewed. Moreover, the theoretical foundation of the present study was discussed, with more emphasis placed on the social exchange theory (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964), the human capital theory (Becker, 1962) and the two-factor (motivation & hygiene) theory (Herzberg, 1966), which provided the theoretical frame on which this study is based. The final section of the literature review examined the direct and indirect (mediated) relationships between the five constructs under study (talent management practice, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction & intention to quit), from which the hypothetical model of the study representing the research process was derived.

The following chapter will outline the processes and procedures undertaken in the study as these relate to the research methodology and design. Moreover, chapter 3 will consist of a detailed description and discussion of the design and methodology for the research in this study. Furthermore, the following chapter will give a step by step breakdown of the design and procedures which were followed.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 provided a detailed review of literature that related to talent management, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and intention to quit. The aim of this research study is to examine the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship among the variables under investigation. This aim is represented in terms of the main research questions, outlined in chapter one, "are there any direct relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit?" and "to what extent do employee engagement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit?"

This chapter focuses on the research methodology followed in order to test the proposition discussed in the previous chapters. Research is defined as a systematic process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting information (data) in order to increase our understanding of a phenomenon about which we are interested or concerned (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010) the research methodology is the general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research project; to some extent, this approach dictates the particular tools the researcher selects.

The purpose of this section of the study is to understand the parameters that guided the research. This will begin with a description and explanation of the research paradigm chosen including its implications on the current research. Moreover, this chapter presents the main methods and techniques that were applied to obtain the findings which are presented in the next chapter. Research issues, such as the research design, population, sample size, sampling methods and procedures, research questionnaire, and statistical analysis, are presented. Thereafter, a summary of the chapter is given.

3.2 Placement of the Research within Research Paradigms

The relationship between data and theory is an issue that has been greatly debated on by philosophers for many centuries (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe, 2002). Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006, p. 6), view paradigms as "all-encompassing systems of interrelated practice and thinking that define, for researchers, the nature of their enquiry along three dimensions: ontology, epistemology, and methodology". According to Burrell and Morgan (1979, p. 1), all "social scientists approach their subject via explicit or implicit assumptions about the nature of the social world and the way in which it may be investigated". The authors identified assumptions related to *ontology*, which concerns the very essence of the phenomena under investigation; *epistemology*, which relates to assumptions about the grounds of knowledge; *human* nature, which looks at the relationship between human beings and the environment; and *methodological* assumptions relating to attempts to investigate and obtain knowledge about the social world (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The different ontologies, epistemologies, and models of human nature outlined above are likely to have direct implications on social scientists, inclining them towards different methodologies.

The purpose of the research design philosophy in the present study is to consider the philosophical positions underlying the management research designs and also to place the research within research paradigms (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2002). Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2002, p. 27) suggested three reasons why it is imperative for researchers to understand philosophical issues. Firstly, it can help to clarify research designs by gathering, interpreting, considering evidence required, and elucidating research questions being investigated in the research. Secondly, knowledge of philosophy can assist the researcher in determining the designs that will work and indicating the limitations of different approaches (Easterly-Smith *et al.*, 2002, p. 27). The third reason is that knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher identify designs that may be outside their experience.

Burrell and Morgan (1979) conceptualised four research paradigms which can be utilised to analyse a wide range of social theories. The authors labelled the identified paradigms as 'radical humanist', 'radical structuralist', 'interpretive' and 'functionalist' (Burrell & Morgan, 1979, p. 23). Burrell and Morgan (1979, p. 23) argue that "the four paradigms define fundamentally different perspectives for the analysis of social phenomena". This study has been conducted according to the typology of paradigms of Burrell and Morgan (1979). Burrell and Morgan (1979, p. 23) define a paradigm as a "commonality of perspective which binds the work of a group of theorists together". "To be located in a particular paradigm", Burrell and Morgan (1979, p. 24) argue, is "to view the world in a particular way".

Blanche *et al.* (2006) identified three philosophical schools of thought; positivist, interpretive, and constructionist paradigms. According to Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2002, p. 27), "the key idea of positivism is that the social world exists externally and that its properties should be measured through objective methods rather than being inferred subjectively through sensation or intuition". In contrast to the deductive positivist paradigm, Blanche *et al.* (2006, p. 7) suggest that interpretive and constructionist research paradigms typically prefer an inductive approach. Here, the researcher starts with a set of vague speculations about a research question and tries to make sense of the phenomenon by observing a set of particular instances (Blanche *et al.*, 2006, p. 7).

The research paradigm for the present study is routed in positivism (see Table 3.1). Hence, the study adopted a positivist approach, utilising a survey-based quantitative research technique to capture, analyse and interpret the data collected. The decision to utilise the quantitative or deductive method was influenced by the purpose of the study, to examine the direct and indirect (or mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit.

Table 3.1: Positivist, interpretive, and constructionist paradigms

	Ontology	Epistemology	Methodology
Positivist	• Stable external reality • Law-like	• Objective • Detached observer	• Experimental • Quantitative • Hypothesis testing
Interpretive	• Internal reality of subjective experience	• Empathetic • Observer subjectivity	• Interactional • Interpretation • Qualitative
Constructionist	• Socially constructed reality • Discourse • Power	• Suspicious • Political • Observer constructing versions	• Deconstruction • Textual analysis • Discourse analysis

Source: Blanche *et al.* (2006, p. 6).

This research study would be most closely related with the positivist paradigm. The dimension of the current research is ontological in nature, signifying a stable and unchanging external reality. Reality is taken to be of an objective nature in terms of the assumptions underpinning this research. Hence, an objective and detached epistemological stance of the external reality was adopted. The methodology of the research employed relies on quantitative methods and hypothesis testing. This means that the methodological approach of this research is associated with quantitative techniques using survey questionnaires to collect and analyse data. The research problem tackled in this study is primarily empirical, hence the use of the positivist paradigm. This is because the positivist paradigm is predominantly aligned with quantitative methods of data collection and analysis. Moreover, the purpose of the current study is to test the relevant theory through quantitative research.

3.3 Research Design

A research design serves as a guideline for conducting the study. It is a plan or a blue print of how a researcher intends to conduct a study. Moreover, the research design "provides the overall structure for the procedures the researcher follows, the data the researcher collects, and the data analyses the researcher conducts" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010, p. 85). Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010, p. 54) maintain that a research design is "the overall plan for relating the conceptual research problem to relevant and practicable empirical research". In other words, the research design provides a plan or a framework for data collection and its analysis. The authors also assert that a "research design should be effective in producing the wanted information within the constraints put on the researcher". Such constraints may include limited time, budget, and skills (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010, p. 54).

Research design can be quantitative or qualitative (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010; Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). Similarly, Pellissier (2008) identified two research paradigms - qualitative and quantitative, within which research can be carried out. Qualitative research is "an approach that allows you to examine people's experiences in detail by using a specific set of research methods such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, observations, content analysis, visual methods, and life histories or biographies" (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2010, p. 8). Leedy and Ormrod (2010, p. 95) argue that qualitative researchers "seek a better understanding of complex situations".

Quantitative research, on the other hand, is a methodology which seeks to quantify the data numerically and usually applies a form of statistical analysis to draw conclusions from the research (Malhotra & Peterson, 2006). Quantitative researchers "seek explanations and predictions that will generalise to other persons and places" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010, p. 95). The intention of quantitative researchers is to establish, confirm, or validate relationships and to develop generalisations that contribute to existing theories.

For the present research, a quantitative research methodology was used. This approach was utilised for the study because this research is conducted from an empirical perspective, as the study seeks to answer or elucidate research questions about relationships mentioned in chapter one that can be summarised through statistical analysis. Moreover, the quantitative research design was utilised because of its strength as a logical and critical approach that emphasises testing and verification with generalisable findings and objective data (Blanche *et al.*, 2006; Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). Pellissier (2008) posits that a quantitative research design uses objectively agreed criteria and procedures to achieve results that have statistical reliability. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005, p. 109) argue that a quantitative research design "is more scientific than a qualitative research design". The present study supports the viewpoint of Pellissier (2008, p. 19), that "quantitative research is appropriate for the examination of specific data from large numbers, for testing hypotheses".

According to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010), a research design can be descriptive, exploratory or causal. The present study adopted a cross-sectional survey-based descriptive research design to investigate the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit. This is a survey research design that refers to a method of data collection that utilises questionnaires or interview techniques for recording the verbal behaviour of respondents (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). Groves, Fowler Jr, Couper, Lepkowski, Singer and Tourangeau (2011, p. 2) regard a survey as "a systematic method for gathering information from (a sample of) entities for the purposes of constructing quantitative descriptors of the attributes of the larger population of which the entities are members".

Creswell (2013, p. 155) posits that "a survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population". It should be noted that a survey is an effective tool to get opinions, attitudes and descriptions as well as for capturing cause-and-effect relationships. Creswell (2013, p. 155) suggests that "examining the relationships between and among variables is central to answering questions and hypotheses through surveys".

3.4 Target Population

Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010, p. 140) suggest that a target population is basically, "the universe of units from which the sample is to be selected". Population refers to all the elements (individuals, objects or substances) that meet certain criteria for inclusion in a given universe (Burns & Grove, 2005). The population must include the entire group to which one wishes to extrapolate certain conclusions. Sim and Wright (2000, p. 111) maintain that the target population "is the collection of cases in which the researcher is ultimately interested, and to which he or she wishes to make generalisations". The population "is the larger pool from which our sampling elements are drawn", in which we want to generalise our findings (Blanche *et al.*, 2006, p. 133). The target population of the present research comprised of the highly skilled employees (supervisors, line managers, senior managers, & top management employees & directors) of a multinational FMCG food manufacturing company that has its South African office's headquartered in Johannesburg, with two other plant locations in Springs, and in Mpumalanga. The total number of employees (target population) who were subject to this research study is 267 employees.

3.5 Sample Size

LoBiondo-Wood and Haber (1998) describe a sample as a portion or subset of the research population selected to participate in a study, representing the research population. Leedy and Ormrod (2010) maintain that the size of an adequate sample depends on how homogeneous or heterogeneous the population is - how alike or different its members are with respect to the characteristics of research interest. According to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010) the sample size needed depends on the desired precision from the estimator. Precision is the size of the estimating interval when the problem is one of estimating a population parameter. Moreover, Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010, p. 140) regard a sample as "the segment of the population that is selected for investigation". The authors argue that the method of selecting a sample may be based on a probability or non-probability approach. The purpose of taking samples is to decrease costs and time by letting investigators predict data about the entire population, without having to inspect each member. From sample results, Creswell (2013) argues that the researcher can generalise or draw inferences to the population under study. Blanche *et al.* (2006) suggest that a sample constitutes those units or elements that are included into a study. The total (sample size) number of employees that were sampled from the target population for the present study is 151 employees.

The profiles of the respondents sampled included:

- C Band employees: Representing the skilled employees such as: Supervisors, line managers, and above.
- D Band employees: Representing the professional/management employees such as department managers, senior managers, and other senior management employees of the FMCG food manufacturing company under study.

3.5.1 Determining the sample size

The size needed for an adequate sample depends on the "desired precision from the estimator" (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010, p. 144). Precision is the size of the estimating interval when the problem is one of estimating a population parameter. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010, p. 214) to some extent, "the size of an adequate sample depends on how homogeneous or heterogeneous the population is - how alike or different its members are with respect to the characteristics of the research interest". Leedy and Ormrod (2010, p. 144) furthermore, state that "if the population is markedly heterogeneous, a larger sample will be necessary than if the population is fairly homogeneous". Important too, is the degree of precision with which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions or make predictions about the population under study.

Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010, p. 145) suggest that the concept of standard error (of the mean) is central to sampling theory and to determining the size of the sample. The formula for the standard error (SE) is: SE = $SD/\sqrt{N}$, where SD = standard deviation (of mean) and n = sample size. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010, p. 145) further assert that when determining sample size, the degree of confidence associated with the estimate also needs to be taken into account. Moreover, there is a trade-off between degree of confidence and of precision with a sample of a fixed size. In addition, budgetary constraints must often also be taken into consideration (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010, p. 145).

For the determination of the sample size, Raosoft statistical software was used to calculate the sample size (Raosoft.com, 2015). Raosoft takes into consideration the margin of error, the confidence level, the population, and the response distribution in determining sample size. Using Raosoft sample size calculator, with a margin of error of 5%, a confidence level of 95%, an official target population size of 267, and a response distribution of 30%, the minimum recommended sample size was calculated to be 147 people. Based on this, with a required response rate of 30%, a sample size of 151 was deemed sufficient.

3.6 Sampling Procedure

According to Blanche *et al.* (2006) a sampling procedure is the technique used in research to select a subset of respondents from the population into the sample. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010) assert that when the research problem is specified, and an appropriate research design and data collection instrument developed, the next step in the research process is to select those elements from which the information will be collected. For quantitative studies, in particular, sampling is extremely important. The best way is to collect information from a portion of the population is by taking a sample of elements from the larger group and, on this basis, infer something about that group.

Sampling procedures can be divided into two broad categories – probability and non-probability samples (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). In probability sampling, "the researcher can specify in advance that each segment of the population will be represented in the sample" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010, p. 205). The idea behind this type is random selection. More specifically, each sample from the population of interest has a known probability of selection under a given sampling scheme. However, Leedy and Ormrod (2010, p. 211) argue that in non-probability sampling, "the researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample". Blanche *et al.* (2006, p. 139) define non-probability sampling as "any kind of sampling where the selection of elements is not determined by the statistical principle of randomness". As mentioned in chapter 1, the non-probability sampling procedure was used for the current research.

In contrast to a probability sample, a non-probability sample is one that has not been selected using a random selection method. This implies that some units in the population are more likely to be selected than others (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). The three most common forms of non-probability sampling, identified by Leedy and Ormrod (2010), include convenience, purposive and snowball sampling. Convenience sampling is the non-probability sampling technique used for this study.

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010) convenience sampling (also known as accidental sampling) makes no pretence of identifying a representative subset of a population. Moreover, it takes people or other units that are readily available, for instance, those that arrive on the scene by mere happenstance. In the present research, respondents (supervisors, line managers, senior managers, & top management employees) of the FMCG food manufacturing company under study, who were available and willing to participate in the voluntary survey, were selected. This method of non-probability sampling was utilised because of time and monetary restraints and also because of a lack of a sampling frame.

3.7 Data Collection

This section of the methodology focuses on the data collection process undertaken below. The ethical considerations relating to the study are discussed. The research questionnaire used to collect primary data is also discussed and the instrument outlined in terms of its design, reliability and validity.

Hungler and Polit (1999) define data as information obtained during the course of a research process. According to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010, p. 103), “in business studies the majority of researchers need to collect some primary data to answer their research questions”. Moreover, Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010) argue that once the researcher has decided to collect information/data through primary sources, they have to decide what kind of data collection method to use. Examples of primary data include observations, experiments, surveys (questionnaires), and interviews. The present study used a survey questionnaire to collect primary data needed for analysis.

Two methods of administering the questionnaire were utilised for the present research. Firstly, the computer-based, electronic method was used to administer the questionnaire through e-mails sent to respondents under study using the survey tool ‘Google Forms’ (https://www.google.com/forms/about/). An online survey questionnaire using Google Forms was designed, and with the assistance of the Senior Human Resources Business Partner of the FMCG food manufacturing company under study, emailed to the 267 highly skilled and talented employees (supervisors, line managers, department managers, senior managers, & other top level management employees) who constituted the target population. The email was sent to the participants with a link to the online survey questionnaire and was accompanied by a cover letter addressed to the participants. The letter clearly stated what the research was about, that participation was completely anonymous and voluntary, and also that the information provided was to be treated with utmost confidentiality. A total of 121 participants, from the emails sent to 267 employees (target population), responded to the online survey questionnaire.

The second method of administering the questionnaire was through printed hard copies, with approximately 50 self-administered survey questionnaires distributed to the employees of the FMCG food manufacturing company under study, who were available and willing to participate in the survey. Thirty of these completed questionnaires were suitable for use in the analysis collected. This primary data collection process took three weeks, and thereafter, collected questionnaires were coded into Windows 8, Microsoft Excel 2010.

Additionally, secondary data sources directly relating to the research topic were utilised to help answer the research questions in the present study. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010) state that secondary data is useful, not only to find information to solve the research problem, but also to better understand and explain it. This research utilised earlier studies on and around the five constructs under study (talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, & intention to quit). The majority of the secondary data was collected from books, journal articles, and online data sources which were directly related to the research problem under study.

3.7.1 Ethical considerations

Ethics has become a cornerstone for conducting effective and meaningful research. As such, the ethical behaviour of individual researchers is under unprecedented scrutiny (Behrman & Field, 2004; Best & Kahn, 2006; Trimble & Fisher, 2006). According to Leedy and Ormrod

(2010), most ethical issues in research fall into one of four categories: Protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy, and honesty with professional colleagues. Blanche *et al.* (2006, p. 61) contend that “research ethics should be a fundamental concern of all researchers in the planning, designing, implementing, and reporting research with human participants”.

As such, the researcher looked closely at the ethical implications of the present study. Prior to implementing this research, approval for the project was obtained from the Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical) of the University of the Witwatersrand. Thereafter, the process for data collection could begin. Respondents were asked to sign a written consent form before completing their questionnaires. However, no names of the respondents were captured, thus preserving and guaranteeing the anonymity of the participants and the confidentiality of their responses. Moreover, as mentioned previously, the voluntary quantitative survey questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter which clearly stated that the questionnaire was completely anonymous and the information provided was to be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Given the topic under study and the anonymity provided to the respondents, there was little risk for harm to participants in the study. As mentioned previously, they were informed that anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed by not having to enter their names on the questionnaire, and by assurances that the questionnaires would be destroyed after the survey was completed and the University requirements met. The consent form and the cover letter utilised in the research are illustrated in Appendix A.

3.7.2 The research questionnaire

In terms of the questionnaire used in the present study, the following are considered below: The different instruments utilised, the design of the instruments; reliability; and validity. The most appropriate primary data collection instrument for this research was a quantitative survey questionnaire. Blanche *et al.* (2006, p. 484) define a questionnaire as "a group of written questions used to gather information from respondents". Respondents filled out the voluntary questionnaire (Appendix A), with each respondent receiving a booklet consisting of a cover sheet explaining the purpose of the study, the participant's rights, and the name and contact details of the researcher for those who might have any concerns or require further information regarding the study or its results, as well as the instruments described in this section (see below).

3.7.3 The measuring instruments

The scales used in this research were derived from previous research. The instruments utilised to measure the constructs under study include: The Human Capital Index adapted from the Human Capital Institute (2008) to measure the talent management practices, the Utrecht work engagement scale (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003) to measure employee engagement, the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (Weiss *et al.*, 1967) to measure job satisfaction, Allen and Meyer's (1990) organisational commitment questionnaire, and Arnold and Feldman's (1982) intention to quit scale.

3.7.4 The design of the instrument

All the closed questions were constructed using a Likert scale. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2002, p. 133) suggest that "the strength of closed questions is that they are quick to complete and analyse". The format of the questionnaire consisted of six sections that the participants were required to answer. These six sections are as follows:

3.7.4.1 Section A: Biographical characteristics

The first section of the questionnaire consisted of a number of close-ended questions on the biographical information of the respondents. These questions included such things as the respondents' age, gender, level of education attained and tenure/experience working at the organisation under study. The purpose of section A was to gather the necessary biographical data which was used in the descriptive section of the statistical analysis.

The following independent biographical variables were utilised in the present study:

- Gender (1 = Female; 2 = Male).
- Age (1 = 18 - 20 years; 2 = 21 - 30 years; 3 = 31 - 40 years; 4 = 41- 50 years; 5 = 51 or older).
- Education (1 = Grade 11 or lower; 2 = Grade 12 (Matric); 3 = Diploma/Certificate; 4 = Bachelor's degree; 5 = Post-Graduate degree).
- Tenure/Experience (1 = Less than 1 year; 2 = 1 - 3 years; 3 = +3 - 5 years; 4 = +5 - 7 years; 5 = 7+ years).

3.7.4.2 Section B: Talent management practices

This section of the questionnaire focused on the talent management practices which were adapted from the Human Capital Institute (2008). The Human Capital Index (Human Capital Institute, 2008) was used to measure the talent management practices. The Human Capital Index measured nine talent management practices: Strategy, talent review process, staffing, talent acquisition, workforce planning, talent development, performance management, talent retention and financial rewards. Respondents were required to indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each statement on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from, “Strongly disagree” (1), to “Disagree” (2), to “Neutral” (3), to “Agree” (4), to “Strongly agree” (5).

Previous studies carried out in South Africa (Barkhuizen & Stanz, 2010; Magolego *et al.*, 2013; Mpofu & Barkhuizen, 2013; Mtila *et al.*, 2013; Barkhuizen *et al.*, 2014) have validated the instrument and found acceptable Cronbach Alpha estimates of internal consistencies for the talent management practices index, ranging from 0.73 to 0.87.

Some examples of questions which were included in the talent management practices section of the self-administered questionnaire are as follows:

Please indicate your response by placing an (x) in the appropriate boxes below:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The organisation is very good at implementing and executing strategy.					
2. Communication to employees is frequent and meaningful.					
3. The organisation has a competitive pay package (i.e. basic salary plus benefits and allowances).					

3.7.4.3 Section C: Employee engagement

The purpose of section C of the questionnaire was to ask respondents about employee engagement. The shorter version of the Utrecht work engagement scale developed by Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) was utilised to measure employee engagement. The Utrecht work engagement scale consisted of 9 items (UWES-9), which measured the three underlying dimensions of employee engagement: Vigour (3 items), dedication (3 items), and absorption (3 items). The internal consistency of the Utrecht work engagement scale is good, with existing studies showing Cronbach Alpha estimates of internal consistencies for the scales that range between 0.80 and 0.90 (Montgomery, Peeters, Schaufeli & Ouden, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003; Slåtten & Mehmetoglu, 2011). Moreover, the instrument has been widely used by a number of researchers showing acceptable internal consistencies in several South African studies (Barkhuizen & Rothmann, 2006; Bell & Barkhuizen, 2011; Barkhuizen *et al.*, 2014).

Some of the examples of questions which were asked in the self-administered questionnaire are as follows:

- At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.
- When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.
- I am enthusiastic about my job.

All items in section C of the questionnaire on employee engagement were presented in a seven-point Likert-type response format ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (always).

3.7.4.4 Section D: Organisational commitment

This section of the questionnaire focused on organisational commitment. An adapted version of Allen and Meyer's (1990) organisational commitment questionnaire was utilised to measure organisational commitment. Allen and Meyer (1997) highlight that the scale is intended to measure three components of organisational commitment: Affective, continuance and normative commitment. Several measures of organisational commitment have been developed but none has been subjected to the rigorous psychometric testing that the organisational commitment questionnaire has (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Moreover, the organisations commitment questionnaire is the most frequently used instrument for the measurement of organisational commitment, and has been used in numerous recent studies with Cronbach Alpha estimates of internal consistencies for the three dimensions of organisational commitment scales that range between 0.82 and 0.93 (Subramaniam, McManus & Mia, 2002). These findings indicate a high reliability of the scale in both international and local studies. In South Africa, Bagraim (2003), for example, conducted a study on commitment among South African knowledge workers that produced satisfactory Cronbach Alphas of between 0.75 and 0.93.

Some of the examples of questions which were asked in the self-administered questionnaire are as follows:

- I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.
- I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organisation.
- One of the major reasons I continue to work in this organisation is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.

These questions were measured using a five-point Likert scale with "strongly disagree" as 1 and "strongly agree" as 5.

3.7.4.5 Section E: Job satisfaction

The purpose of section E (job satisfaction) of the questionnaire was to determine how satisfied the employees were with different aspects of their jobs, and what things they are satisfied with and what they are not. It should be noted that numerous scales have been developed to measure job satisfaction. For example, the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire, (Weiss *et al.*, 1967), and the job descriptive index (Smith, 1969). However, for this section of the questionnaire on job satisfaction, the researcher adapted from the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (Weiss *et al.*, 1967). The five-point Likert-type scale was utilised for the research. The Likert scale type of questionnaire contains response categories such as "very dissatisfied", "dissatisfied", "neutral", "satisfied and "very satisfied".

Some examples of questions which were included in the job satisfaction section of the self-administered questionnaire are as follows:

Please indicate your response by placing an (x) in the appropriate boxes below: **In my present job, this is how I feel about . . .**	**Not Satisfied**	**Slightly Satisfied**	**Satisfied**	**Very Satisfied**	**Extremely Satisfied**
1. The recognition for the work I do.					
2. Relationship with co-workers.					
3. The working conditions.					

3.7.4.6 Section F: Intention to quit

The purpose of section F of the questionnaire was to determine respondents' intention to leave the organisation in the near future. Arnold and Feldman's (1982) intention to quit scale was utilised to measure this. The intention to quit scale has been used by a number of researchers in South Africa (Oehley, 2007; Robyn & Du Preez, 2013) with reported Cronbach Alpha Coefficient above 0.70 and thus deemed acceptable for use in the present study. Respondents were required to answer questions on a five-point Likert-type scale. The Likert scale type of questionnaire contain response categories such as "strongly disagree", "disagree", "neutral", "agree" and "strongly agree".

Some of the examples of questions which were asked in the self-administered questionnaire on intention to quit are as follows:

Please indicate your response by placing an (x) in the appropriate boxes below:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I think a lot about leaving this organisation.					
2. I am currently searching for employment outside this organisation.					
3. When possible I will leave this organisation.					

3.7.5 Reliability and validity

To test for reliability, Cronbach's Alphas were used in the current study to judge the internal consistency of the variables and a factor analysis was also carried out to test the validity of the questionnaire.

3.7.5.1 Reliability

The validity and reliability of a measurement instrument influences the extent to which something can be learned about the phenomenon being studied, the probability that statistical significance will be obtained in the data analysis, and the extent to which a meaningful conclusion can be drawn from your data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010, p. 28). According to Sekaran (2003), reliability refers to whether an instrument is consistent, stable and free from error despite fluctuations in test taker, administrator or conditions under which the test is administered. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010, p. 79) suggest that "reliability refers to the stability of a measure". Zikmund (2003, p. 305) broadly defines reliability as "the degree to which measures are free from error and therefore yield consistent results".

Similarly, Leedy and Ormrod (2010) regard reliability as the consistence with which a measuring instrument yields a certain result when the entity being measured has not changed. Reliability is measured by repeatedly measuring the variables or constructs in question.

According to Malhotra and Peterson (2006), the higher the association between the scores derived through this procedure, the more reliable the scale. Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (α) is a tool used to assess and calculate the reliability of the measuring instrument.

To test for reliability, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were used to judge the internal consistency of the scales utilised under study. Pre-testing of Cronbach's Alpha was done during piloting in order to support the decision to use the scales adapted and the results were all within the acceptable lower limit of .70 margin.

- **Pre-testing of the measuring instrument (pilot study)**

A pilot study was conducted on the measuring instrument (questionnaire) where 20 participants (N = 20) under study where asked to complete the questionnaire and to evaluate and highlight any problems they might find. The purpose of the pilot study was to pre-test the Cronbach's Alpha in order to support the decision to use the scales adapted and the results were all above the acceptable 0.70 margin.

A summary of the Cronbach's Alphas for the pilot study conducted (pre-test) follows:

Table 3.2: Scale reliability analysis - talent management practices (pilot study)

Construct	Scale Items	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Talent Management Practices	TMP1 Talent Strategy1	.561	.877
	TMP2 Talent Strategy2	.354	.882
	TMP3 Talent Strategy3	.530	.878
	TMP4 Talent Review Process1	.500	.878
	TMP5 Talent Review Process2	.703	.872
	TMP6 Talent Review Process3	-.017	**.891**
	TMP7 Staffing1	-.045	**.888**
	TMP8 Staffing2	.381	.881
	TMP9 Staffing3	.155	**.885**
	TMP10 Talent Acquisition1	.265	**.883**
	TMP11 Talent Acquisition2	.403	.880
	TMP12 Talent Acquisition3	.459	.879
	TMP13 Workforce Planning1	.578	.876
	TMP14 Workforce Planning2	.586	.876
	TMP15 Workforce Planning3	.506	.878
	TMP16 Talent Development1	.452	.879
	TMP17 Talent Development2	.846	.868
	TMP18 Talent Development3	.756	.871
	TMP19 Performance Management1	.506	.878
	TMP20 Performance Management2	.378	.881
	TMP21 Performance Management3	.694	.873
	TMP22 Talent Retention1	.554	.877
	TMP23 Talent Retention2	.206	**.884**
	TMP24 Talent Retention3	.706	.872
	TMP25 Financial Rewards1	.269	.883
	TMP26 Financial Rewards2	-.139	**.889**
	TMP27 Financial Rewards3	.273	.883
	Total Cronbach's Alpha	**.884**	

*Note: TMP = talent management practices; * Scale: 1- Strongly Disagree; 2- Disagree; 3-Neutral; 4-Agree; 5- Strongly Agree; n = 20*

Table 3.3: Scale reliability analysis - employee engagement (pilot study)

Construct	Sub-Constructs	Scale Items	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Total Cronbach's Alpha
Employee Engagement	Vigour	Vigour1	.865	.661	**.841**
		Vigoor2	.685	.809	
		Vigour3	.612	**.872**	
	Dedication	Dedication1	.897	.852	**.925**
		Dedication2	.935	.820	
		Dedication3	.758	**.969**	
	Absorption	Absorption1	.865	.641	**.850**
		Absorption2	.775	.736	
		Absorption3	.541	**.948**	

*Note: *Scale:1- Never; 2- Almost Never; 3- Rarely; 4- Sometimes; 5- Often; 6-Very Often; 7- Always; n = 20*

Table 3.4: Scale reliability analysis - intention to quit (pilot study)

Construct	Scale Items	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Total Cronbach's Alpha
Intention to Quit	ITQ1	.710	**.924**	**.897**
	ITQ2	.859	.803	
	ITQ3	.831	.824	

*Note: ITQ = intention to quit; * Scale: 1- Strongly Disagree; 2- Disagree; 3 –Neutral; 4-Agree; 5- Strongly Agree; n = 20*

Table 3.5: Scale reliability analysis - organisational commitment (pilot study)

Construct	Sub-Constructs	Scale Items	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Total Cronbach's Alpha
Organisational Commitment	Affective Commitment	Affective Commitment1	.791	**.925**	**.921**
		Affective Commitment2	.935	.805	
		Affective Commitment3	.802	.917	
	Continuance Commitment	Continuance Commitment1	.627	.574	**.739**
		Continuance Commitment2	.586	.664	
		Continuance Commitment3	.526	.715	
	Normative Commitment	Normative Commitment1	.570	.640	**.716**
		Normative Commitment2	.588	.706	
		Normative Commitment3	.622	.633	

*Note: * Scale: 1 - Strongly Disagree; 2 - Disagree; 3 – Neutral; 4 - Agree; 5 - Strongly Agree; n = 20*

Table 3.6: Scale reliability analysis - job satisfaction (pilot study)

Construct	Scale Items	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Total Cronbach's Alpha
Job Satisfaction	JS1	.800	.752	**.815**
	JS2	.464	.803	
	JS3	.286	**.819**	
	JS4	-.170	**.873**	
	JS5	.519	.800	
	JS6	.612	.786	
	JS7	.633	.780	
	JS8	.797	.758	
	JS9	.798	.753	

*Note: JS = job satisfaction; * Scale: 1- Not Satisfied; 2- Slightly Satisfied; 3- Satisfied; 4-Very Satisfied 5-Extremely Satisfied; n = 20*

Based on the results of the pilot study above, it can be noted that the scales used in the study were deemed to be reliable as the Cronbach's Alphas for the constructs under study (talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, & intention to quit) had Cronbach Coefficient Alphas above the 0.70 margin.

Table 3.7: A comparison of Cronbach's Alpha scores between the pilot study and the current study (large sample)

Constructs	Sub- Constructs	Pilot Study Total Cronbach Alphas	Large Study Total Cronbach Alphas
Talent Management Practices		**.884**	**.936**
Employee Engagement	Vigour	**.841**	**.832**
	Dedication	**.925**	**.901**
	Absorption	**.850**	**.720**
Intention to Quit		**.897**	**.912**
Organisational Commitment	Affective Commitment	**.921**	**.862**
	Continuance Commitment	**.739**	**.761**
	Normative Commitment	**.716**	**.735**
Job Satisfaction		**.815**	**.888**

Note: Pilot study- n = 20; large study- n = 151

3.7.5.1 Validity

According to Litwin (1995), besides determining a scale's reliability, you must assess its validity, or how well it measures what it sets out to measure. Leedy and Ormrod (2010) argue that validity is the extent to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure. Similarly, Blanche *et al.* (2006, p. 147) maintain that a more accurate way to define validity is "the degree to which a measure does what it is intended to measure". Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2002, p. 134) regard validity to be "a question of how far we can be sure that a test or instrument measures the attribute that it is supposed to measure". A test of validity is whether the measure of a concept measures what we really intended to measure (Zikmund, 2003).

The validity of measures is divided into two categories – internal and external validity. In research methodology literature, the measure of validity is often considered under either internal or external validity (Yin, 1994; Gill & Johnson, 2010). Internal validity refers to the extent to which we can infer that a causal relationship exists between two or more variables (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). According to Amaratunga, Baldry, Sarshar & Newton (2002) internal validity is the issue of establishing theoretical territory that goes with the defined construct, and ensuring consistency between it and other recognised constructs. In terms of the present study, internal validity was measured to ensure internal consistency of the measuring instrument. External validity, in contrast, relates to what extent the findings can be generalised to particular persons, settings and times as well as across types of persons, settings and times (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). External validity was achieved from theoretical relationships between the constructs under study.

A number of researchers (Zikmund, 2003; Blanche *et al.*, 2006; Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010), have identified three basic approaches of measurement validity: Criterion-related validity; content validity; and construct validity.

- **Content-related validity**

Content-related validation relates to “the subjective agreement among professionals that a scale logically appears to be accurately reflecting what it purports to measure” (Zikmund, 2003, p. 308). Leedy and Ormrod (2010) regard content validity as the extent to which a measurement instrument is a representative sample of the content area (domain) being measured. Blanche *et al.* (2006, p. 149) suggest that a researcher should work towards content validation of the measure by (1) specifying the content area covered by the phenomenon when developing the construct definition, (2) writing questionnaire or scale items that are relevant to each of the content areas, and (3) developing a measure of the construct that includes the best items from each content area. The present study derived content validity for the measurement scales by using the extensive literature review theory relating to the constructs under study (talent management practice, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, & intention to quit).

- **Construct-related validity**

Zaltman, Pinson & Angelmar (1977, p. 44) cited by Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010, p. 81) define construct validity as "the extent to which an operationalisation measures the concept which it purports to measure". Construct validity is established by the degree to which the measure confirms a network of related hypotheses generated from a theory based on the concepts (Zikmund. 2003, p. 309). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010, p. 92), construct validity "is the extent to which an instrument measures a characteristic that cannot be directly observed but is assumed to exist based on patterns in people's behaviour" (such a characteristic is a construct).

Construct validation involves firstly, specifying a set of theoretical relationships between the constructs. Secondly, testing these hypotheses empirically, and thirdly, interpreting the pattern of relationships in terms of how they clarify the construct validity of the measure (Blanche *et al.*, 2006). Moreover, "establishing a measure's convergent and discriminant validity will show whether it has adequate construct validity (Blanche *et al.*, 2006, p. 151). Since establishing the construct validity of a measure involves both theoretical and empirical research, the present study maintained construct validity through the anchoring of the constructs under study to the relevant theory derived from existing literature. Additionally, exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation was utilised to determine the construct validity of the measuring instrument (see chapter four).

- **Criterion-related validity**

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010, p. 92), criterion validity is “the extent to which the results of an assessment correlate with another, presumably related measure” (the latter measure is, in this case, the criterion). Similarly, Zikmund (2003) regards criterion validation as attempt by the researcher to elucidate whether or not the measure correlates with other measures of the same construct (Zikmund, 2003). There are two types of criterion-related validity−predictive validity and concurrent validity. Predicted validity can be established by correlating the future criterion measure related to the constructs (Blanche *et al.*, 2006). Concurrent validity refers to the degree to which the measure is related to pre-existing measures of the construct. While face and content validity is subjective, Zikmund (2003) suggests that criterion based validity provides more rigorous empirical test. The variables under study exhibited the criterion related validity with regard to significant correlations. However, the present study concedes that no assertions were made regarding concurrent or predicted validity.

3.8 Delimitation of the Study

The purpose of demarcating a study is to make it more manageable and to this end, the present research was limited to only the highly skilled and high ranking employees (talented employees & employees with high potential) who work for the FMCG food manufacturing company under study, at the company headquarters in Johannesburg and in the other two plant locations across South Africa. Moreover, time and budgetary/monetary constraints which were in place necessitated the use of an online-survey questionnaire as well as a self-administered survey questionnaires that were distributed to the employees of the company under study (target population), who were available and willing to participate in the survey.

3.9 Hypotheses Testing

The proposed hypotheses to be tested are reiterated below.

Table 3.2: Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1	***The null hypothesis 1 (H_0) is:*** *There is no significant negative relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.* ***The alternative hypothesis 1 (H_1) is:*** *There is a significant negative relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
Hypothesis 2	***The null hypothesis 2 (H_0) is:*** *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment.* ***The alternative hypothesis 2 (H_1) is:*** *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment.*
Hypothesis 3	***The null hypothesis 3 (H_0) is:*** *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement.* ***The alternative hypothesis 3 (H_1) is:*** *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement.*
Hypothesis 4	***The null hypothesis 4 (H_0) is:*** *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.* ***The alternative hypothesis 4 (H_1) is:*** *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.*
Hypothesis 5	***The null hypothesis 5 (H_0) is:*** *There is no significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.* ***The alternative hypothesis 5 (H_1) is:*** *There is a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.*
Hypothesis 6	***The null hypothesis 6 (H_0) is:*** *There is no significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit.* ***The alternative hypothesis 6 (H_1) is:*** *There is a significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit.*

Hypothesis 7	***The null hypothesis 7 (H_0) is:*** *There is no significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit.* ***The alternative hypothesis 7 (H_1) is:*** *There is a significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit.*
Hypothesis 8	***The null hypothesis 8 (H_0) is:*** *There is no significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.* ***The alternative hypothesis 8 (H_1) is:*** *There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.*
Hypothesis 9	***The null hypothesis 9 (H_0) is:*** *There is no significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction.* ***The alternative hypothesis 9 (H_1) is:*** *There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction.*
Hypothesis 10	***The null hypothesis 10 (H_0) is:*** *There is no significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment.* ***The alternative hypothesis 10 (H_1) is:*** *There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment.*
Hypothesis 11 **(mediating effect of organisational commitment)**	***The null hypothesis 11 (H_0) is:*** *Organisational commitment does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.* ***The alternative hypothesis 11 (H_1) is:*** *Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
Hypothesis 12 **(mediating effect of employee engagement)**	***The null hypothesis 12 (H_0) is:*** *Employee engagement does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.* ***The alternative hypothesis 12 (H_1) is:*** *Employee engagement mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
Hypothesis 13 **(mediating effect of job satisfaction)**	***The null hypothesis 13 (H_0) is:*** *Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.* ***The alternative hypothesis 13 (H_1) is:*** *Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*

3.10 Data Analysis

Data analysis is the application of reasoning to understand and interpret the data that has been collected (Zikmund, 2003). Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005) define data analysis as the process of systematically applying statistical and logical techniques to describe, summarise and compare data. This gives meaning to the raw data and also allows for easy interpretation. The authors posit that after data has been coded and prepared for processing it is ready for analysis (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). Blanche *et al*. (2006, p. 52) posit that the objective of data analysis is to transform information (data) into a meaningful form in order to answer the original research question(s). Questionnaires returned from the participants and data collected was coded and entered into a computer statistical package, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS Statistics) version 23, and Windows 8 Microsoft excel 2010 to carry out the data analysis.

3.10.1 Statistical techniques

The statistical techniques utilised in the present research to analyse data collected include descriptive techniques using frequency distribution, measures of central tendency (mean), and dispersions (standard deviation) of dependent and independent variables. To test for reliability, Cronbach's Alphas were used to judge the internal consistency of the variables and exploratory factor analyses, orthological rotation on the different scales using principlal component analysis, utilised to determine the construct validity of the measuring instrument, and to test the validity of the measuring instruments (questionnaire).

Having determined the reliability and validity of the measurement scales in this study, the next step was to explore the direct and indirect (mediated) relationships between the constructs. The researcher used multiple linear regression analyses as it allows two or more independent variables to explain/predict the dependent variable (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). Multiple regression analysis was utilised, with forced entry adopted to determine the significance of the variables under study (talent management practices, intention to quit, organisational commitment, employee engagement & job satisfaction).

3.10.1.1 Level of significance

In terms of testing the null hypotheses for the significance of the hypotheses under study, a significance level of 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$) that relates to a confidence level of 0.95 was decided upon.

3.10.1.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics enable the researcher to summarise and organise data in an effective and meaningful way (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). The descriptive statistics discussed in the following chapter all aim to summarise and represent features of scores (data) on a variable. The descriptive statistics which have been utilised in the next chapter include such measures as:

- Frequency distribution: Indicates how the data is distributed. It includes the frequency tables and percentages for the distribution of respondents' gender, age, education and tenure/experience. It also shows the frequency distribution of the scale responses.
- Measures of central tendency: The mean is the central measure of tendency utilised to reflect the central or typical value for a probability distribution of the question responses.
- Measures of dispersion: The standard deviation is the measure of dispersion utilised in the present study.

3.10.1.3 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics are used to make inferences by interpreting patterns (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). Leedy and Ormrod (2010) maintain that inferential statistics allow us to make inferences about large populations from a relatively small sample. Talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and intention to quit are the constructs that were tested in the current study. Multiple linear regression analysis is the statistical method used in the present research to test the proposed hypotheses.

- **The control variables:**

Gender, age, education, and tenure/experience are the control variables which the present study utilised to more accurately reflect the variance added by the predictor variable(s) and to test the relative impact of independent variables. The control variables are given below:

- Gender (1 = Female; 2 = Male).
- Age (1 = 18- 20 years; 2 = 21 - 30 years; 3 = 31 - 40 years; 4 = 41 - 50 years; 5 = 51 or older).
- Education (1 = Grade 11 or lower; 2 = Grade 12 (Matric); 3 = Diploma/Certificate; 4 = Bachelor's degree; 5 = Post-Graduate degree).
- Tenure/Experience (1 = Less than 1 year; 2 = 1 - 3 years; 3 = +3 - 5 years; 4 = +5 - 7 years; 5 = 7+ years).

- **Regression analysis**

Regression analysis is used to determine the functional relationship between a dependent variable (i.e. the variable to be explained) and a host of predictors (one or more independent variables). Leedy and Ormrod (2010, p. 282) also assert that regression analysis is used to examine how effectively one or more variables allow you to predict the value of another (dependent) variable. Field (2009, p. 198) argues that regression analysis is an inferential statistical procedure used to predict an outcome variable from one predictor variable (simple regression) or several predictor variables (multiple regression analyses). This study used regression analyses to test hypotheses 1 - 13. The level of significance which was chosen for this research was the 0.05 level. Field (2009, p. 198) suggests that in multiple regression analyses, the outcome variable Y is predicted using the equation of a straight line given below:

$$Yi = (b_0+b_1X_{1i}+b_2X_{2i}+\ldots+b_nX_{ni}) +\varepsilon i$$

Y is the outcome variable, b_1 is the coefficient of the first predictor (X_1), b_2 is the coefficient of the second predictor (X_2), b_n is the coefficient of the *n*th predictor (X_n), and ε_i is the difference between the predicted and the observed value of Y for the *i*th participant (Field, 2009: 210).

According to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010), regression analysis is based upon certain assumptions including: *normality*, *homoscedasticity*, and *non-autocorrelation*. The assumption of normality and homoscedasticity can be checked by looking at the normal probability plot (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). The Durbin-Watson (D-W) test is used to check whether there is autocorrelation between residuals. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010, p. 181) suggest that an appropriate test for autocorrelation is 1, and if the D-W statistic is close to 2, there is no danger of autocorrelation. The authors argue that if it is closer to 0, there may be positive autocorrelation. However, if it is closer to 4, there may be negative autocorrelation occurring (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010: 181). Similarly, Field (2013, p. 311) argues that the D-W test statistic can vary between 0 and 4, with a value of 2 meaning that the residuals are uncorrelated. The author posits that a value greater than 2 indicates a negative correlation between adjacent residuals, whereas a value below 2 indicates a positive correlation (Field, 2013, p. 311).

Below are assumptions of regression analysis adapted from Field (2013, p. 311):

- Independent errors: For any two observations the residual terms should be uncorrelated (i.e., independent).

- Homoscedasticity: At each level of the predictor variable(s), the variance of the residual terms should be constant.
- Normally distributed errors: It is assumed that the residuals in the model are random, normally distributed variables with a mean of 0.
- Predictors are uncorrelated with external variables: This assumption means that there should be no external variables that correlate with any of the variables included in the regression model.
- No perfect multicollinearity: There should be no perfect linear relationship between two or more of the predictors if your model has more than one predictor.
- Non-zero variance: The predictors should have some variation in value.
- Variable types: All predictor variables must be quantitative or categorical and the outcome variable must be quantitative, continuous and unbounded.

- **Testing for mediation**

The objective of the present study is also to examine the mediating influences of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit. As such, Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation was adopted in order to assess the impact of mediating variables (organisational commitment, employee engagement, & job satisfaction) on the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit. According to Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1176), psychologists have long recognised the importance of mediating variables. They posit that "a variable may be said to function as a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176). This simply means that the mediator variable explains the relation between a predictor variable and an outcome/predicted variable.

Based on Baron and Kenny's (1986, p. 1176) approach to mediation, a model is assumed to be tested in a three-variable system. The authors explain that in such a model, there are two causal paths feeding into the outcome variable: The direct impact of the independent variable (Path c) and the impact of the mediator (Path b). Moreover, there is also a path from the independent variable to the mediator (Path a) (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176). As such, the mediating influence of organisational commitment, employee engagement and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit was tested using three regression models as recommended by Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation.

A summary of Baron and Kenny's (1986, p. 1176) mediation approach is given below. The authors argue that a variable functions as a mediator when it meets the following conditions:

- Variations in levels of the independent variable significantly account for variations in the presumed mediator (i.e., Path c),
- Variations in the mediator significantly account for variations in the dependent variable (i.e., Path b*)*; and
- When Paths a and b are controlled, a previously significant relation between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant, with the strongest demonstration of mediation occurring when Path c is zero.

In order to test for mediation in the present study, using Baron and Kenny's (1986) three models approach, the first model (model one), regressed the mediator against the predictor, with the mediator shown as an outcome variable. In the second model (model two), the outcome variable was regressed against the predictor variable, and in model three, the outcome variable was regressed against both the mediator and predictor variables. However, to ensure the realisation of full mediation, in the third model (model three), the effect of the predictor variable on the outcome variable has to be less than in the second model. Baron and Kenny (1986) posit that in order for full mediation to have occurred, the independent variable should have no significant effect when the mediator is controlled.

3.11 Summary of Chapter

The research methodology and design have been outlined in this chapter. The methods and procedures used to collect and analyse the data were discussed. This chapter looked at the research design, the sampling procedure, the data collection methods, data analysis techniques, and the tests for validity and reliability were also mentioned. The next chapter, chapter 4 will present the empirical results for this research. The chapter includes the overall statistical research results and discussion.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the research design and methodology underlying the present study. The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss the results of the hypotheses testing process outlined and reported in the previous chapters. This section of the study provides a comprehensive analysis and discussion of the research findings. As mentioned in the previous chapters, the researcher utilised SPSS to analyse the data. The data was firstly coded and entered into Windows 8, Microsoft Excel spreadsheet for cleaning before being imported into a computer statistical package IBM SPSS Statistics, version 23 to carry out the data analysis of the research findings and to examine the proposed hypotheses.

The first section of the chapter presents the results of the descriptive statistics undertaken in the study, with measures of frequency distribution (frequency tables & percentages), cross-tabulation, measures of central tendency (mean), and dispersions (standard deviation) of dependent and independent variables and testing for normality (skewness & kurtosis). Cronbach's Alpha and factor analysis were performed to illustrate the internal reliability and validity of the scales. Thereafter, the hypotheses testing process, which was to examine the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit, was explored using multiple linear regression analyses after checking the assumptions of normality.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics enable the researcher to summarise and organise data in an effective and meaningful way (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). Calculating the averages, the frequency distributions and the percentage distributions of the collected data are the most common methods. The descriptive statistics for the tested demographic characteristics of the sample are reported below.

4.2.1 Gender

Key to gender:

0 = Female

1 = Male

Table 4.1: Results of gender distribution of the respondents

Gender

		Frequency	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Valid	0	**63**	41.4	**41.7**	41.7
	1	**88**	57.9	**58.3**	100
	Total	151	99.3	100	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100		

In terms of gender, Table 4.1 shows that 63 (41.7%) of the respondents were females while 88 (58.3%) were males. This clearly shows that the number of males who have positions of authority (supervisors, line managers, senior managers, & top management employees & directors) at the FMCG food manufacturing company under study is considerably (16.6%) higher than that of females.

4.2.2 Age

Key to age: 1 = 18 - 20 years; 2 = 21 - 30 years; 3 = 31 - 40 years; 4 = 41 - 50 years; 5 = 51 or older.

Table 4.2: Results of age distribution of the respondents

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2	22	14.5	14.6	14.6
	3	**47**	30.9	**31.1**	45.7
	4	**49**	32.2	**32.5**	78.1
	5	**33**	21.7	**21.9**	100
	Total	151	99.3	100	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100		

From Table 4.2, it can be seen that the dominant age groups are the 31 to 40 age group (31.1%), and the 41 - 50 age group (32.5%) which account for a combined 63.6% and a collective frequency of 96 of the total sample size (*n = 151)*. The third highest is the 51 or older age group which is 21.9% and a frequency of 33. There were no participants under the age of 21 years.

From an analysis of the above, it can be noted that the highly skilled and talented employees, in positions of authority in the company under study, are between the ages of 31 years and 50 years. However, the 51 and older age group is the third highest which is not surprising at all as senior employees with positions of authority tend to be older.

Table 4.3 provides a cross-tabulation of age and gender. A Chi-square analysis showed no significant relationship between the two (age & gender) at the 5% (0.05) level of confidence (X^2 = 6.588; p = 0.086).

Table 4.3: Cross-tabulation of age and gender

Age * Gender Cross-tabulation

		Gender		Total
		Female	**Male**	
Age	**2 = 21- 30**	6.0%	8.6%	14.6%
	3 = 31- 40	**17.2%**	13.9%	31.1%
	4 = 41- 50	12.6%	**19.9%**	32.5%
	5 = 51+	6.0%	**15.9%**	21.9%
Total		100%	100%	100%

The distributions are not quite proportionate, with a higher representation of females in the 31 - 40 years category (17.2%), as compared to a higher male representation in the 41 - 50 years category (19.9%), and the 51 and older age category (15.9%).

4.2.3 Education

Key to education: 1 = Grade 11 or lower; 2 = Grade 12 (Matric); 3 = Diploma/Certificate; 4 = Bachelor's degree; 5 = Post-Graduate degree.

Table 4.4: Results of education distribution of the respondents

Education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	10	6.6	6.6	6.6
	2	11	7.2	7.3	13.9
	3	**53**	34.9	**35.1**	49.0
	4	**43**	28.3	**28.5**	77.5
	5	**34**	22.4	**22.5**	100
	Total	151	99.3	100	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100		

From Table 4.4, it can be noted that the majority of respondents had completed at least a diploma or certificate, with education group 3 (frequency = 53; 35.1%), education group 4 (frequency = 43; 28.5%), and education group 5 (frequency = 34; 22.5%) all contributing 86.1% and a frequency of 130 to the total sample size (*n = 151*).

A cross-tabulation of the level of education attained and gender reflects the following:

Table 4.5: Cross-tabulation of education and gender

	Education					
	Grade 11 or lower	**Grade 12 (Matric)**	**Diploma/ Certificate**	**Bachelor's degree**	**Post-Grad degree**	**Total**
Female	0.0%	2.6%	**15.2%**	13.2%	10.6%	41.7%
Gender Male	6.6%	4.6%	**19.9%**	15.2%	11.9%	58.3%
Total	6.6%	7.3%	35.1%	28.5%	22.5%	100%

The level of education attained by the participants was proportionally distributed among the females and males. However, what is clear from the cross-tabulation is that males are slightly better educated than their female counterparts although the difference is not very large. For example, there are 19.9% males with a diploma/certificate compared to 15.2% females, and 15.2% males with a bachelor's degree compared to 13.2% females.

A Chi-square analysis showed no significant relationship between the two (education & gender) at the 5% (0.05) level of confidence ($X^2 = 8.154$; $p = 0.086$).

A further cross-tabulation was carried out between age and the level of education attained (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: Cross-tabulation of age and level of education

		Education					
		Grade 11 or lower	**Grade 12 (Matric)**	**Diploma/ Certificate**	**Bachelor's degree**	**Post-Grad degree**	**Total**
Age	**21- 30**	**0.0%**	**0.0%**	1.3%	4.0%	**9.3%**	14.6%
	31- 40	0.0%	0.7%	7.9%	**15.2%**	7.3%	31.1%
	41- 50	1.3%	4.0%	**13.9%**	8.6%	4.6%	32.5%
	51+	5.3%	2.6%	**11.9%**	0.7%	1.3%	21.9%
	Total	6.6%	7.3%	35.1%	28.5%	22.5%	100%

From the analysis of Table 4.6, some interesting patterns emerged. For the age group 21 - 30 years, a post-graduate degree proved to be the most common form of education (9.3%). Moreover, an emerging trend in this age group (21 - 30) is that there were no participants without a matric, with most participants having attained a bachelor's degree or post-graduate degree. This shows that the younger generation (Generation Y) is highly educated or tends to attain higher levels of education. This may be due to a number of reasons, chief among them being the scarcity of jobs and a competitive labour market which drives the younger generation to achieve the higher educational qualifications that they believe will give them the edge in a highly competitive global labour market. The age group 31 - 40 years had a majority of participants with a bachelor's degree (15.2%).

Another interesting finding is that the majority of the older generations only had a diploma or certificate, with age group 41 - 50 years contributing 13.9% and 51+ years contributing 11.9%, and both accounting for a combined 25.8% of respondents with only a diploma or certificate. Moreover, the most intriguing finding about age groups 41 - 50 years and 51+ years is that there a is a significant number of respondents with just a matric or less, with a combined total of 13.2%. A possible reason for this is that the older generations entered the labour market with no more than a secondary education. However, what can be noted is that they do occupy positions of authority and responsibility in organisations as a result of experience and long years of service.

A Chi-square analysis showed a significant relationship between the two (age & education) at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels of confidence (X^2 = 72.880; p = 0.000). This means that there is a significant relationship between age and education.

4.2.4 Tenure

Key to tenure: 1 = Less than 1 year; 2 = 1 - 3 years; 3 = +3 - 5 years; 4 = +5 - 7 years; 5 = 7+ years.

Table 4.7: Results of tenure distribution of the respondents

Tenure

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	7	4.6	4.6	4.6
	2	37	24.3	24.5	29.1
	3	27	17.8	17.9	47.0
	4	17	11.2	11.3	58.3
	5	**63**	41.4	**41.7**	100
	Total	151	99.3	100	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100		

The majority of respondents fall into the last tenure category (category 5), namely 7+ years. This is represented by a frequency of 63 and a percentage of 41.7% of respondents from the total sample size (*n = 151*). This is not surprising at all, as it shows that the majority of highly skilled and talented employees in positions of authority and responsibility have served the organisation under study for more than seven years.

A cross-tabulation between gender and tenure was carried out (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8: Cross-tabulation of gender and tenure

		Tenure					
		Less than 1 year	**1 - 3 years**	**+3 - 5 years**	**+5 - 7 years**	**7+ years**	**Total**
Gender	**Female**	1.3%	9.9%	9.3%	4.6%	**16.6%**	41.7%
	Male	3.3%	14.6%	8.6%	6.6%	**25.2%**	58.3%
	Total	4.6%	24.5%	17.9%	11.3%	**41.7%**	100%

From Table 4.8 above cross-tabulation analysis, it can be noted that the majority of respondents have more than seven years' experience working at the company under study. There were 16.6% female respondents who indicated 7+ years of tenure and a slightly higher percentage of males (25.2%) with more than seven years of employment. Both genders with a tenure of more than seven years accounted for a combined 41.7% of the total sample size (n =151). This is not surprising at all as the target population of the present study was highly skilled and talented employees who are in positions of authority and responsibility (supervisors, line managers, senior managers, & top management employees & directors).

A Chi-square analysis showed no relationship between gender and tenure at the 5% (0.05) level of confidence (X2 = 1.768; p = 0.778).

A further cross-tabulation was carried out between age and tenure (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9: Cross-tabulation of age and tenure

		Tenure					
		Less than 1 year	1 - 3 years	+3 - 5 years	+5 - 7 years	7+ years	Total
	21- 30	0.7%	**11.3%**	2.6%	0.0%	0.0%	14.6%
	31- 40	0.7%	8.6%	9.3%	2.0%	**10.6%**	31.1%
Age	41- 50	3.3%	4.0%	6.0%	7.3%	**11.9%**	32.5%
	51+	0.0%	0.7%	0.0%	2.0%	**19.2%**	21.9%
	Total	4.6%	24.5%	17.9%	11.3%	**41.7%**	100%

From Table 4.9 above–cross-tabulation analyses, it can be noted that age group 51+ years has a higher number of respondents with more than 7+ years of service to the organisation under study. Similarly age group 41 - 50 years and age group 31 - 40 years contribute 11.9% and 10.6% of respondents with 7+ years of tenure respectively. However, age group 21 - 30 years seems to contribute more respondents with one– three years of employment in the organisation under study. The findings are not surprising at all as it was mentioned in earlier analyses that the target population of the study was highly skilled and talented employees who are in positions of authority and responsibility (supervisors, line managers, senior managers, & top management employees & directors). Hence, older generations tend to be highly experienced and have long service in organisations, while the new generation (Generation Y) is starting to emerge in positions of authority and responsibility.

A Chi-square analysis showed a significant relationship between the two (age & tenure) at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels of confidence (X^2 = 85.530; p = 0.000). This means that age is significantly associated with tenure.

A cross-tabulation was also carried out between tenure and education (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10: Cross-tabulation of tenure and education

Tenure	Education					
	Grade 11 or lower	Grade 12 (Matric	Diploma/ Certificate	Bachelor's degree	Post-Grad degree	Total
>1 year	0.0%	0.0%	2.0%	0.7%	2.0%	4.6%
1 - 3 years	0.0%	1.3%	6.0%	6.0%	**11.3%**	24.5%
+3 - 5 years	0.0%	0.0%	2.6%	**9.3%**	6.0%	17.9%
+5 - 7 years	0.0%	0.7%	4.0%	4.6%	2.0%	11.3%
7+ years	6.6%	5.3%	**20.5%**	7.9%	1.3%	41.7%
Total	6.6%	7.3%	**35.1%**	28.5%	22.5%	100%

From the cross-tabulation Table 4.10, it can be noted that the majority of respondents who have more than seven years working in the organisation under study have a diploma or certificate (20.5%) as alluded to earlier. Respondents with tenure of between three - five years indicated that they have a bachelor's degree. However, what is interesting to note is that employees with between one and three years have a post-graduate degree. This corresponds and supports the researcher's earlier findings and suggestions that the new generations tend to enter the job market with higher educational qualifications (with at least bachelor's or post-graduate degree).

A Chi-square analysis showed a significant relationship between the educational level attained and tenure at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels of confidence (X^2 = 58.472; p = 0.000). This means that there is a significant association between tenure and education.

The next section looks at the assumptions of normality and the frequency distribution of the scales.

4.3 Testing for Normality and Frequency Distribution of the Scales

In the previous section, the demographic variables of the sample (gender, age, education, & tenure) were described using frequency distributions and percentages. Moreover, the researcher utilised cross-tabulation to further analyse the demographic variables (two variables simultaneously) and relationships considered using Chi-square analysis.

In this section, quantitative data was used to test whether it comes from a certain distribution (usually the normal distribution). Pallant (2007) argues that the assumption of normality is a prerequisite for many inferential statistical techniques. This suggests that the distribution of data determines whether or not a parametric or a non-parametric test is used. The aim of testing for normality is to test if data is normally distributed or not through using frequency distributions or histograms and normal probability Q-Q plots (Field, 2009).

Another way of solving this problem is to look at the values of skewness and kurtosis to check whether or not the distribution scores are approximately normal. According to Field (2009, p. 139), positive values of skewness indicate too many low scores in the distribution, whereas negative values indicate a build-up of high scores. The author further argues that positive values of kurtosis indicate a pointy and heavy-tailed distribution (leptokurtic distribution), whereas negative values indicate a flat and light-tailed distribution (platykurtic distribution) (Field, 2009, p. 139). The further the value is from zero, the more likely it is that the data is not normally distributed. In a normal distribution, Field (2009, p. 19) maintains that the values of skew and kurtosis are 0 (that is, the tails of the distribution are as they should be). Moreover, the author argues that if a distribution has values of skew or kurtosis above or below 0, then this indicates a deviation from normal (Field, 2009, p. 19).

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (S-K) test is another test for normality that can be used to test whether a distribution is normal. Field (2009) posits that the S-K test compares the scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation. The author argues that if the test is non-significant ($p > .05$), then the distribution of the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution. In contrast, if the test is significant ($p < .05$) then the distribution in question is significantly different from a normal distribution (Field, 2009, p. 144). However, Field (2009) cautions on the limitations of the S-K test as it is easy to get significant results (especially from large samples) from small deviations from normality, and hence a significant test does not necessarily tell us whether or not a small deviation from normality is enough to influence the statistical procedures that we apply to the data (Field, 2009). Moreover, available literature suggests that the S-K test should no longer be used owing to its lack of power (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012).

4.3.1 Overview and frequency distribution of the scales

The purpose of this section is to provide an overview of the different scales utilised in the study using descriptive statistics (frequency distribution of responses in %), and to determine the distribution of the data using measures of central tendency (mean), dispersion (standard deviation), and to check whether the data is normally distributed (skewness, & kurtosis).

4.3.1.1 Scale items relating to talent management practices

The descriptive statistics pertaining to the talent management practices scale are reflected below (see Tables 4.11 & 4.12).

Table 4.11: Scale item frequencies for the talent management practices construct

Talent Management Practices	Frequency Distribution of Responses (%)					
Scale Items	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**	**Total %**
5.1 The organisation is very good at implementing and executing strategy.	0.0	17.9	22.5	53.0	6.6	100
5.2 Strategic goals are effectively communicated to all employees.	0.0	17.2	25.2	43.0	14.6	100
5.3 The organisation's business and human capital strategies are aligned.	0.0	13.9	35.8	40.4	9.9	100
5.4 The organisation knows who the best performers are.	6.6	19.9	19.9	37.1	16.6	100
5.5 Rewards and opportunities are provided to employees based on their contribution.	4.6	23.2	24.5	35.1	12.6	100
5.6 The majority of talent is developed internally as opposed to externally hired.	2.6	21.2	21.9	33.1	21.2	100
5.7 The company's workforce is diverse and includes people from different backgrounds, perspectives and experiences.	2.6	14.6	21.9	49.7	11.3	100
5.8 Diversity is properly represented in senior management and executive levels.	6.6	**35.8**	33.1	21.2	3.3	100
5.9 The most critical jobs are given priority when hiring.	0.7	6.6	27.8	56.3	8.6	100
5.10 The organisation can attract top talent.	0.0	7.9	17.2	49.7	25.2	100
5.11 Newly hired employees get off to a fast and productive start.	2.0	13.9	47.0	30.5	6.6	100
5.12 The hiring process is efficient, effective and focuses on "quality of hire".	0.7	18.5	41.7	31.8	7.3	100

5.13 Our organisation has the right people with right skills in the right places.	2.6	23.8	27.2	35.1	11.3	100
5.14 Workforce planning in our organisation is long-term focused.	3.3	24.5	19.9	40.4	11.9	100
5.15 Our organisation conducts workforce planning broadly across all divisions and business units.	1.3	22.5	29.1	37.7	9.3	100
6.1 Top performers are challenged to improve their skills and take the next step in their careers.	0.7	21.9	15.2	41.7	20.5	100
6.2 Coaching and mentoring are primary development approaches.	3.3	21.2	37.7	33.1	4.6	100
6.3 Communication to employees is frequent and meaningful.	4.0	28.5	32.5	30.5	4.6	100
6.4 There is a "line of sight" between employee's jobs and the company's strategic goals.	0.7	17.9	34.8	40.4	2.6	100
6.5 Top performers are paid more for the value they provide.	4.6	25.2	26.5	35.1	8.6	100
6.6 Nonfinancial rewards are effectively used to reinforce excellent performance.	6.0	29.1	39.7	23.2	2.0	100
6.7 The organisation can retain the best performers.	0.7	**37.1**	16.6	27.2	18.5	100
6.8 Turnover is tracked across divisions, locations, talent levels and managers.	1.3	9.9	33.8	35.1	19.9	100
6.9 Managers hold retention conversations with employees frequently.	4.0	30.5	33.8	23.2	8.6	100
6.10 The organisation has a competitive pay package (i.e. basic salary plus benefits and allowances).	4.0	12.6	29.1	50.3	4.0	100
6.11 The organisation provides medical aid, retirement and pension benefits for its employees.	1.3	0.7	11.3	61.6	25.2	100
6.12 The organisation provides incentive bonuses for its employees.	4.6	4.6	19.2	58.3	13.2	100

Looking at the results in Table 4.11, on the frequency distribution of the talent management practices scale items, the majority of respondents were in the affirmative in terms of their perceptions of the company's current application of talent management practices, with an average of 60% of the participants either agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statements on talent management practices. However, the respondents identified some current practices that need to be improved. For example, question 5.8 "Diversity is properly represented in senior management and executive levels", 35.8% of the participants disagreed with this statement and 33.1% were neutral. Moreover, the organisation needs to improve their talent retention strategies as 37.1% of the respondents indicated that they disagreed with the statement (question 6.7) that "The organisation can retain our best performers"

With South Africa currently facing skills shortages and difficulties in finding and retaining highly skilled and talented employees (Du Preez, 2002; Bakos, 2007; Contogiannis, 2007; Oehley, 2007), the organisation under study can benefit from developing and implementing effective talent management strategies and practices that will help them to attract, develop and retain highly skilled employees from diverse backgrounds and cultures.

What is evident from Table 4.12, on the descriptive statistics for the talent management practices scale, is that the mean scores for the scale items were evenly distributed, for example, the standard deviations for questions on talent strategy (questions 5.1, 5.2, & 5.3), and talent review processes (questions 5.4, 5.5, & 5.6), indicate highest agreements among the respondents. Other than a few questions (questions 5.8, 5.12, & 6.9), the majority of the scale items have a negatively skewed distribution with a negative kurtosis, indicating a flat and light-tailed distribution (platykurtic distribution) (Field, 2009). Although the values of skew and kurtosis are very close to zero (which is very good) and kurtosis is a little negative except for a few scale items, the researcher cannot make claims of normal distribution. However, it should be noted that the skewness and kurtosis values were closer to zero and also within an acceptable range of -2 and 2, even with the distribution being slightly platykurtic.

Table 4.12: Descriptive statistics for the talent management practices construct items

Talent Management Practices	Descriptive Statistics			
Scale Items	**Mean**	**Std Deviation**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
5.1 The organisation is very good at implementing and executing strategy.	3.48	0.863	-0.484	-0.669
5.2 Strategic goals are effectively communicated to all employees.	3.55	0.943	-0.242	-0.837
5.3 The organisation's business and human capital strategies are aligned.	3.46	0.854	-0.080	-0.622
5.4 The organisation knows who the best performers are.	3.37	1.169	-0.380	-0.810
5.5 Rewards and opportunities are provided to employees based on their contribution.	3.27	1.096	-0.204	-0.835
5.6 The majority of talent is developed internally as opposed to externally hired.	3.49	1.124	-0.260	-0.966
5.7 The company's workforce is diverse and includes people from different backgrounds, perspectives and experiences.	3.52	0.964	-0.630	0.118
5.8 Diversity is properly represented in senior management and executive levels.	2.78	0.963	0.211	-0.549
5.9 The most critical jobs are given priority when hiring.	3.65	0.757	-0.635	0.652
5.10 The organisation can attract top talent.	3.92	0.860	-0.609	-0.104
5.11 Newly hired employees get off to a fast and productive start.	3.25	0.852	-0.066	.057
5.12 The hiring process is efficient, effective and focuses on "quality of hire".	3.27	0.869	0.073	-0.487
5.13 Our organisation has the right people with right skills in the right places.	3.29	1.035	-0.121	-0.836
5.14 Workforce planning in our organisation is long-term focused.	3.33	1.075	-0.270	-0.902

5.15 Our organisation conducts workforce planning broadly across all divisions and business units.	3.31	0.967	-0.124	-0.805
6.1 Top performers are challenged to improve their skills and take the next steps in their careers.	3.60	1.065	-0.372	-0.992
6.2 Coaching and mentoring are primary development approaches.	3.15	0.919	-0.190	-0.434
6.3 Communication to employees is frequent and meaningful.	3.03	0.969	-0.022	-0.727
6.4 There is a “line of sight” between employee’s jobs and the company’s strategic goals.	3.27	0.805	-0.287	-0.596
6.5 Top performers are paid more for the value they provide.	3.18	1.052	-0.156	-0.809
6.6 Nonfinancial rewards are effectively used to reinforce excellent performance.	2.86	0.909	-0.043	-0.487
6.7 The organisation can retain the best performers.	3.26	1.163	0.177	-1.406
6.8 Turnover is tracked across divisions, locations, talent levels and managers.	3.62	0.957	-0.240	-0.457
6.9 Managers hold retention conversations with employees frequently.	3.02	1.022	0.225	-0.641
6.10 The organisation has a competitive pay package (i.e. basic salary plus benefits and allowances).	3.38	0.899	-0.822	0.261
6.11 The organisation provides medical aid, retirement and pension benefits for its employees.	4.09	0.711	-1.140	3.732
6.12 The organisation provides incentive bonuses for its employees.	3.71	0.920	-1.204	1.765

4.3.1.2 Scale items relating to employee engagement

Tables 4.13 and 4.14, reflect descriptive statistics pertaining to the employee engagement scale, including the three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption).

Table 4.13: Scale item frequencies for the employee engagement construct

Employee Engagement	Frequency distribution of responses (%)							
Scale Items	Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always	Total %
7.1 At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0.7	1.3	4.0	39.1	30.5	19.9	4.6	1oo
7.2 At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	2.0	1.3	7.3	22.5	35.1	21.9	9.9	100
7.3 When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	2.0	0.0	6.6	25.2	32.5	23.8	9.9	100
7.4 I am enthusiastic about my job.	0.7	0.0	3.3	15.9	25.2	33.1	21.9	100
7.5 My job inspires me.	0.7	2.6	4.6	18.5	23.2	20.5	29.8	100
7.6 When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0.0	0.0	.7	8.6	23.2	23.8	43.7	100
7.7 I am immersed in my work.	0.0	0.0	3.3	14.6	35.1	34.4	12.6	100
7.8 I get carried away when I am working.	0.0	0.0	11.3	17.9	31.1	27.2	12.6	100
7.9 I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0.0	0.0	2.6	19.2	33.1	28.5	16.6	100

Looking at the results of Table 4.13, on the frequency distribution of the employee engagement scale items pertaining to how employees felt at work about their jobs, the majority of respondents indicated that they felt ‘often’ or ‘very often’ regarding the statements on the three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption). For example, an average of 54% of participants indicated so on questions 7.1, 7.2, and 7.3 which asked questions pertaining to vigour. This is shown by the negatively skewed responses on all the item scales. At the same time, for question 7.7, respondents indicated that they always felt like going to work when they got up in the morning.

Table 4.14: Descriptive statistics for the employee engagement construct items

Employee Engagement	Descriptive Statistics			
Scale Items	**Mean**	**Std Deviation**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
7.1 At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	4.75	1.0518	-0.086	0.569
7.2 At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	4.92	1.2549	-0.558	0.739
7.3 When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	4.97	1.2163	-0.512	0.828
7.4 I am enthusiastic about my job.	5.51	1.1596	-0.639	0.427
7.5 My job inspires me.	5.41	1.3969	-0.601	-0.209
7.6 When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	6.01	1.0391	-0.641	-0.708
7.7 I am immersed in my work.	5.38	0.9924	-0.254	-0.339
7.8 I get carried away when I am working.	5.11	1.1828	-0.185	-0.765
7.9 I feel happy when I am working intensely.	5.37	1.0559	-0.068	-0.758

Looking at Table 4.14, on the descriptive statistics for the employee engagement scale, the mean scores for the questions on vigour (questions 7.1, 7.2, & 7.3), absorption (questions 7.7, 7.8, & 7.9) and dedication (questions 7.4, 7.5, & 7.6), were fairly evenly distributed. The employee engagement scale items have a negatively skewed distribution although questions 7.1 and 7.9 suggest a relatively normal distribution. The values of skew and kurtosis are very close to zero (which is very good) and kurtosis is positive for questions 7.1 to 7.4 while for questions 7.5 to 7.9, the kurtosis is a little negative.

4.3.1.3 Scale items relating to organisational commitment

Tables 4.15 and 4.16 below reflect descriptive statistics pertaining to the organisational commitment scale, including the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment).

Table 4.15: Scale item frequencies for the organisational commitment construct

Organisational Commitment	Frequency distribution of responses (%)					
Scale Items	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**	**Total %**
8.1 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	11.9	27.8	31.8	22.5	6.0	100
8.2 I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.	12.6	26.5	28.5	23.8	8.6	100
8.3 I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organisation.	1.3	31.1	28.5	22.5	16.6	100
8.4 Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	11.3	26.5	36.4	21.2	4.6	100
8.5 I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organisation.	28.5	25.2	18.5	19.2	8.6	100
8.6 One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	8.6	19.9	30.5	21.2	19.9	100
8.7 I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	12.6	13.9	34.4	30.5	8.6	100
8.8 I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation.	.7	11.9	40.4	29.8	17.2	100
8.9 One of the major reasons I continue to work in this organisation is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	19.2	25.8	28.5	18.5	7.9	100

Looking at the results of Table 4.15, on the frequency distribution of the organisational commitment scale items, a significant number of respondents showed their neutrality when asked to rate their agreement or disagreement on statements regarding the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment). However, there is a fairly even distribution of mean scores for the scale items in Table 4.16. Moreover, the skew value for questions 8.1, 8.2, 8.4, 8.6, and 8.8 are very close to zero, which according to Field (2009) is very good. This suggests that the data is normally distributed. The further the value is from zero the more likely that the data is not normally distributed (Field, 2009, p. 139). The standard deviations for the scale items indicate a high degree of agreement around the mean by the respondents. The values for kurtosis are negative, indicating a flat and light tailed distribution. However, the values are closer to zero and are within the acceptable range of -2 and 2.

Table 4.16: Descriptive statistics for the organisational commitment construct items

Organisational Commitment	Descriptive Statistics			
Scale Items	**Mean**	**Std Deviation**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
8.1 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	2.82	1.094	0.070	-0.710
8.2 I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.	2.89	1.161	0.054	-0.850
8.3 I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organisation.	3.21	1.100	0.254	-1.093
8.4 Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	2.81	1.041	0.021	-0.559
8.5 I feel that I have very few options to consider leaving this organisation.	2.54	1.315	0.360	-1.084
8.6 One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	3.23	1.225	-0.093	-0.920
8.7 I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	3.08	1.136	-0.336	-0.587
8.8 I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation.	3.51	0.937	0.045	-0.649
8.9 One of the major reasons I continue to work in this organisation is that I believe loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.	2.70	1.204	0.199	-0.861

4.3.1.4 Scale items relating to job satisfaction

Tables 4.17 and 4.18 reflect descriptive statistics pertaining to the job satisfaction scale. The purpose of this section was to ask respondents to say how they feel about their present jobs and to indicate how satisfied they are with different aspects of those jobs.

Table 4.17: Scale item frequencies for the job satisfaction construct

Job Satisfaction	**Frequency distribution of responses (%)**					
Scale Items	**Not Satisfied**	**Slightly Satisfied**	**Satisfied**	**Very Satisfied**	**Extremely Satisfied**	**Total %**
9.1 The recognition for the work I do.	9.9	23.8	40.4	23.2	2.6	100
9.2 Relationship with co-workers.	1.3	8.6	30.5	35.1	24.5	100
9.3 The working conditions.	3.3	21.2	43.0	25.8	6.6	100
9.4 The way my supervisor and I understand each other.	4.6	19.9	41.1	23.8	10.6	100
9.5 The amount of pay for the work I do.	15.2	27.8	39.7	16.6	0.7	100
9.6 The opportunities for advancement on this job.	21.9	23.8	34.4	15.2	4.6	100
9.7 Company policies and the way in which they are administered.	9.3	37.1	32.5	19.2	2.0	100
9.8 The responsibility of my job.	4.0	13.9	31.1	39.1	11.9	100
9.9 The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	4.6	15.2	35.8	31.1	13.2	100

The majority of the respondents indicated that they were either satisfied or very satisfied with the different aspects pertaining to their jobs in the company under study, with an average of 65.2% of respondents indicating so. This is represented by mean scores that are fairly distributed. However, a fairly significant number of respondents noted that they were slightly satisfied with statements in questions 9.5, 9.6, and 9.7 pertaining to advancement opportunities, company policies and also the amount of pay they received.

In Table 4.18, the skew value for questions 9.3 and 9.4 are very close to zero, which suggests that the data is normally distributed. Moreover, the values for the other scale items are also closer to zero and are within the acceptable range of -2 and 2. The kurtosis values are within an acceptable range, with the distribution being slightly platykurtic.

Table 4.18: Descriptive statistics for the job satisfaction construct items

Job Satisfaction	**Descriptive Statistics**			
Scale Items	**Mean**	**Std Deviation**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
9.1 The recognition for the work I do.	2.84	0.978	-0.165	-0.476
9.2 Relationship with co-workers.	3.72	0.972	-0.356	-0.448
9.3 The working conditions.	3.11	0.927	0.027	-0.253
9.4 The way my supervisor and I understand each other.	3.16	1.013	0.025	-0.381
9.5 The amount of pay for the work I do.	2.59	0.960	-0.117	-0.723
9.6 The opportunities for advancement on this job.	2.57	1.128	0.177	-0.723
9.7 Company policies and the way in which they are administered.	2.67	0.956	0.183	-0.574
9.8 The responsibility of my job.	3.41	1.001	-0.416	-0.243
9.9 The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.	3.33	1.037	-0.229	-0.401

4.3.1.5 Scale items relating to intention to quit

Tables 4.19 and 4.20 below reflect descriptive statistics pertaining to employees' intention to quit. This section asked respondents to reflect on their intentions to leave the organisation in the near future by indicating the degree of their agreement or disagreement with statements pertaining to this.

Table 4.19: Scale item frequencies for the intention to quit construct

Intention to Quit	Frequency distribution of responses (%)					
Scale Items	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**	**Total %**
10.1 I think a lot about leaving this organisation.	17.2	29.1	19.2	27.2	7.3	100
10.2 I am currently searching for employment outside this organisation.	16.6	39.1	13.9	20.5	9.9	100
10.3 When possible I will leave this organisation.	11.9	29.1	26.5	20.5	11.9	100

Looking at the results of Table 4.19, the frequency distribution of the respondents for the intention to quit scale items is evenly distributed. However, a significant number of respondents disagreed with the statements, with 39.1% disagreeing with question 10.2 which asked them whether or not they were currently searching for employment outside their current organisation. The mean scores were evenly distributed, with standard deviations for the three questions indicating the greatest agreement amongst respondents. The skew value for question 10.1 is very close to zero, which suggests that the data is normally distributed. The kurtosis values are negative but within the acceptable range, with the distribution being slightly platykurtic.

Table 4.20: Descriptive statistics for the intention to quit construct items

Intention to Quit	Descriptive Statistics			
Scale Items	**Mean**	**Std Deviation**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
10.1 I think a lot about leaving this organisation.	2.78	1.227	0.097	-1.116
10.2 I am currently searching for employment outside this organisation.	2.68	1.251	0.417	-0.965
10.3 When possible I will leave this organisation.	2.91	1.205	0.167	-0.903

4.4 Testing the Reliability and Validity of the Scales

The previous section provided descriptive statistics (frequency distribution) for the different scales utilised in the study and also checked whether the data is normally distributed (skewness, & kurtosis). Before proceeding with the testing of the proposed hypotheses, an examination of the internal consistency and construct validity of the measuring scales is provided in this section.

4.4.1 Reliability of the measuring instrument

Prior to the testing of the different hypotheses under study, a reliability analysis was conducted on all five scales utilised to measure talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and intention to quit.. According to Blanche *et al*. (2006), the most common calculation of reliability information relates to the internal consistency of a scale. The authors suggest that the reliability statistics range from 0 to 1, and recommend that the internal consistency scales must have Cronbach's Alpha greater than 0.70 (Blanche *et al.*, 2006). Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010, p. 81) argue that Cronbach's Alpha can be conceived as "a measure of the intercorrelations between the various indicators used to capture the underlying constructs". As such, the reliability of the different scales utilised was investigated using a Cronbach's Alpha, with 0.70 considered to be reliable.

Below is a summary of the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for the different scales used in the questionnaire, with original Alphas (before adjustment) utilised and, where appropriate, adjusted Cronbach's Alphas (after adjustment) used for the different scales provided.

Table 4.21: Scale reliability analysis − talent management practices

		Before adjustment		After adjustment	
Construct	**Scale Items**	**Corrected Item-Total Correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted**	**Corrected Item-Total Correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted**
Talent Management Practices	TMP1 Talent Strategy1	.535	.921	.504	.935
	TMP2 Talent Strategy2	.430	.922	.449	.936
	TMP3 Talent Strategy3	.464	.922	.488	.935
	TMP4 Talent Review Process1	.620	.919	.644	.933
	TMP5 Talent Review Process2	.739	.917	.716	.931
	TMP6 Talent Review Process3	.499	.921	.532	.935
	TMP7 Staffing1	-.053	.929	-	-
	TMP8 Staffing2	.383	.923	-	-
	TMP9 Staffing3	.557	.921	.547	.934
	TMP10 Talent Acquisition1	.517	.921	.526	.935
	TMP11 Talent Acquisition2	.303	.924	-	-
	TMP12 Talent Acquisition3	.504	.921	.465	.935
	TMP13 Workforce Planning1	.705	.918	.724	.931
	TMP14 Workforce Planning2	.727	.917	.722	.931

	TMP15 Workforce Planning3	.742	.917	.762	.931
	TMP16 Talent Development1	.640	.919	.692	.932
	TMP17 Talent Development2	.699	.918	.650	.933
	TMP18 Talent Development3	.760	.917	.757	.931
	TMP19 Performance Management1	.526	.921	.507	.935
	TMP20 Performance Management2	.611	.919	.647	.933
	TMP21 Performance Management3	.643	.919	.663	.933
	TMP22 Talent Retention1	.660	.918	.727	.931
	TMP23 Talent Retention2	.570	.920	.612	.933
	TMP24 Talent Retention3	.621	.919	.656	.933
	TMP25 Financial Rewards1	.483	.921	.425	.936
	TMP26 Financial Rewards2	.038	.926	-	-
	TMP27 Financial Rewards3	.370	.923	-	-
Total Cronbach's Alpha		**.922**		**.936**	

*Note: Items which have been deleted are replaced by a dash (-); TMP= talent management practices; * Scale: 1- Strongly Disagree; 2- Disagree; 3- Neutral; 4-Agree; 5-Strongly Agree; n = 151*

In analysing the reliability of the talent management practices scale in Table 4.21, prior to adjustment, the scale was considered reliable with all Cronbach's Alphas for the scale items above the 0.70 margin. However, adjustment was done after deleting scale items with less than 0.40 Cronbach's Alphas, and with Cronbach Alphas greater than their total if the items were deleted. The 0.30 cut-off point are generally acceptable (Pallant, 2007), however, 0.40 is preferable (Field, 2013). According to Field (2009, p. 681), the Cronbach's Alpha, if items are deleted, tells you whether removing an item will improve the overall reliability. The author posits that values greater than the overall reliability indicate that removing that item will improve the overall reliability of the scale (Field, 2009). After adjustment, the overall reliability of the talent management practices scale increased, with the total Cronbach's Alpha increasing from 0.922 to 0.936.

Table 4.22 below examines the Cronbach's Alphas related to the employee engagement scale.

Table 4.22: Scale reliability analysis - employee engagement

Construct	Sub-Constructs	Scale Items	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Total Cronbach's Alpha
Employee Engagement	Vigour	EE1 Vigour1	.804	.675	**.832**
		EE2 Vigour2	.684	.780	
		EE3 Vigour3	.611	.829	
	Dedication	EE4 Dedication1	.847	.824	**.901**
		EE5 Dedication2	.825	.859	
		EE6 Dedication3	.780	.888	
	Absorption	EE7 Absorption1	.690	.460	**.720**
		EE8 Absorption2	.581	.581	
		EE9 Absorption3	.591	.568	

*Note: EE = employee engagement; *Scale: 1- Never; 2 - Almost Never; 3 - Rarely; 4 - Sometimes; 5 - Often; 6 - Very Often; 7- Always; n = 151*

The three dimensions of employee engagement all had high reliabilities; all Cronbach's Alphas are above 0.70. Vigour has a Cronbach's Alpha of .832, dedication *a* = .901, and absorption *a* = .720 (see Table 4.22).

Table 4.23: Scale reliability analysis - intention to quit

Construct	Scale Items	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Total Cronbach's Alpha
Intention to Quit	ITQ1	.771	.915	**.912**
	ITQ2	.852	.848	
	ITQ3	.846	.854	

*Note: ITQ = intention to quit; * Scale: 1- Strongly Disagree; 2 - Disagree; 3 – Neutral; 4 - Agree; 5 - Strongly Agree; n = 151*

From Table 4.23 it can be concluded that the reliability of the intention to quit scale is acceptable, with a Cronbach's Alpha of .912.

Table 4.24: Scale reliability analysis - organisational commitment

Construct	Sub-Constructs	Scale Items	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Total Cronbach's Alpha
Organisational Commitment	Affective Commitment	Affective Commitment1	.721	.821	**.862**
		Affective Commitment2	.756	.790	
		Affective Commitment3	.737	.807	
	Continuance Commitment	Continuance Commitment1	.554	.723	**.761**
		Continuance Commitment2	.579	.695	
		Continuance Commitment3	.645	.620	
	Normative Commitment	Normative Commitmen1	.598	.638	**.735**
		Normative Commitmen2	.538	.587	
		Normative Commitmen3	.627	.681	

*Note: * Scale: 1- Strongly Disagree; 2 - Disagree; 3 –Neutral; 4 - Agree; 5 - Strongly Agree; n = 151*

Reflecting on Table 4.24, we can also conclude that the organisational commitment scale is reliable, with the construct sub-scales (affective, continuance, & normative commitment) having very good total Cronbach's Alphas, indicating the overall reliability of the construct.

Table 4.25: Scale reliability analysis - job satisfaction

		Before Adjustment		After Adjustment	
Construct	**Scale Items**	**Corrected Item-Total Correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted**	**Corrected Item-Total Correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted**
Job Satisfaction	JS1	.611	.867	.647	.875
	JS2	.611	.867	.610	.879
	JS3	.632	.865	.598	.880
	JS4	.359	.888	- -	- -
	JS5	.563	.871	.557	.884
	JS6	.692	.860	.726	.868
	JS7	.714	.858	.696	.871
	JS8	.718	.857	.724	.868
	JS9	.722	.857	.724	.868
Total Cronbach's Alpha		**.879**		**.888**	

*Note: Items which have been deleted are replaced by a dash (-); JS = job satisfaction; *Scale: 1- Not Satisfied; 2 - Slightly Satisfied; 3 - Satisfied; 4 - Very Satisfied 5 - Extremely Satisfied; n = 151*

In examining the Cronbach's Alphas for the job satisfaction scale in Table 4.25, prior to adjustment, all constructs were considered reliable as all had total α's above seven. However, JS4 had a value greater than the overall total reliability, meaning that its deletion would significantly increase the total Cronbach's Alpha. As a result, adjustments were done, with the total Cronbach's Alpha increasing from .879 before adjustment to .888 after adjustment.

The next section looks at the validity of the measuring instruments.

4.4.2 Factor analysis

In order to further validate the scales, factor analysis was utilised to test the validity of the measuring instruments. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010, p. 282), the purpose of a factor analysis is "to examine the correlations among a number of variables and identify clusters of highly interrelated variables that reflect underlying themes, or factors, within the data". Blanche *et al*. (2006, p. 248) identified three underlying steps involving factor analysis: (1) computing the intercorrelations between the variables, (2) extracting initial factors, and (3) rotating the factors to obtain a clearer picture of the factor content.

Factor analysis can be distinguished into two uses: Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (Cramer, 2003). The author suggests that confirmatory factor analysis compares the solution found against a hypothetical one. In contrast, exploratory factor analysis ensures that "the relationships between various variables are examined without determining the extent to which the results fit a particular model" (Bryman & Cramer, 2011, p. 319). The researcher in the present study performed exploratory factor analyses on the different scales using principal component analysis. The principal components analysis is the most common method of factor extraction. As such, a principal component analysis was conducted on the items with orthological (varimax) rotation.

4.4.2.1 Factor analysis for the talent management practices scale

The construct validity of the talent management practices scale was tested using exploratory factor analysis, with principal component analysis carried out on the 22 scale items which remained after it was adjusted for reliability, using orthogonal (varimax) rotation, with Kaizer normalisation. The correlation matrix was used to check the pattern of the relationships. The correlation matrix showed that a significant majority of the coefficients were greater than

0.30. However, the correlation matrix also reflected several coefficients under 0.30. Moreover, the correlation matrix showed significant relationships. The determinant of the correlation matrix was also checked. The results showed that the determinant of the matrix, (0.0008663) is greater than the necessary value of 0.00001. There were no correlation coefficients greater than 0.90, indicating that there was no problem of multicollinearity in the data (see Field, 2009). Field (2009) argues that in an exploratory factor analysis, multicollinearity is not considered to be problematic. Based on this, no further adjustments were made to the data.

The KMO was used to measure the sampling adequacy. According to Kaizer (1974), 0.5 is the bare minimum, and values between 0.5 and 0.7 are considered mediocre while values between 0.7 and 0.8 are good, values between 0.8 and 0.9 are great and values above 0.9 are superb (Field, 2009, p. 659). For this data, the KMO value is 0.896, which falls into the great values, and exceeds the minimum recommended value of 0.5 (Kaizer, 1974). This indicates that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis. Bartlett's (1954) test of sphericity (X^2 = 1979.862; $p<0.001$) revealed that the correlations between items were large enough for a principal component analysis, further demonstrating the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Before extraction, the SPSS output identified 22 linear components within the data set. However, after extraction, the Principal components analysis revealed five factors with eigenvalues above one explaining, 67.541% of the variance (see Table 4.26).

Table 4.26: Total variance explained for the Talent management practices scale

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	**Total**	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**	**Total**	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**
1	9.554	43.429	43.429	9.554	43.429	43.429
2	1.633	7.423	50.851	1.633	7.423	50.851
3	1.347	6.122	56.974	1.347	6.122	56.974
4	1.288	5.854	62.827	1.288	5.854	62.827
5	1.037	4.714	**67.541**	1.037	4.714	**67.541**
6	.928	4.219	71.760			
7	.737	3.352	75.112			
8	.731	3.322	78.435			
9	.638	2.900	81.334			
10	.565	2.569	83.903			
11	.495	2.249	86.152			
12	.452	2.054	88.207			
13	.415	1.885	90.092			
14	.376	1.710	91.801			
15	.323	1.468	93.269			
16	.288	1.307	94.576			
17	.265	1.207	95.783			
18	.230	1.044	96.827			
19	.212	.964	97.791			
20	.193	.876	98.668			
21	.164	.744	99.412			
22	.129	.588	100.000			

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Table 4.27 shows the rotated components matrix (also called the rotated factor matrix in factor analysis), which is a matrix of the factor loadings for each variable onto each other. Based on the recommendations of Field (2009), factor loadings less than 0.4 were suppressed and thus are not displayed. Moreover, the variables are listed in the order of the size of their factor loadings.

Table 4.27: Rotated components matrix for the talent management practices scale

Talent Management Practices	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Q21	.794				
Q19	.755		.438		
Q20	.721				
Q12	.681	.433			
Q18	.614				
Q11	.548	.489			
Q9		.800			
Q14		.646		.418	
Q10	.420	.599			
Q15		.522			.478
Q8			.773		
Q6	.458		.587		
Q7		.474	.547		
Q13	.404		.538		
Q17			.514	.425	
Q22				.778	
Q16				.687	
Q5				.656	
Q4				.454	
Q1					.799
Q2					.775
Q3					.592

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaizer normalisation.

a. Rotation converged in seven iterations.

Looking at the rotated components matrix above, there are five factors that were extracted, meaning that the talent management practices construct has five sub-scales. The questions that load highly on factor 1 relate to the retention of talented employees. Therefore we might label this factor *talent retention*. The questions that load highly on factor 2 relate to the development of talented employees; therefore we might label this factor *talent development*. The questions that load highly on factor 3 seem to relate to the attraction of talented employees; therefore we might label this factor *talent attraction*. Factor 4 contains components that relate to *talent review processes*. Finally, the questions that load highly on factor 5 all contain components that relate to *talent strategy*. The rotated components matrix shows that these five sub-constructs are sub-components of talent management practices.

4.4.2.2 Factor analysis for the employee engagement scale

A principal component analysis was once again carried out on the nine items with orthogonal (varimax) rotation. The KMO measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis. Prior to running the factor analysis, the suitability of the data in the scale for factoring was assessed.

Table 4.28: Correlation matrix for the employee engagement scale

		V1	V2	V3	D1	D2	D3	A1	A2	A3
Correlation	**V1**	1.000	.749	.646	.657	.655	.558	.442	.265	.479
	V2	.749	1.000	.510	.608	.580	.543	.526	.383	.544
	V3	.646	.510	1.000	.733	.744	.623	.412	.327	.511
	D1	.657	.608	.733	1.000	.813	.758	.435	.334	.376
	D2	.655	.580	.744	.813	1.000	.731	.432	.305	.315
	D3	.558	.543	.623	.758	.731	1.000	.570	.454	.403
	A1	.442	.526	.412	.435	.432	.570	1.000	.688	.410
	A2	.365	.383	.327	.334	.305	.454	.688	1.000	.301
	A3	.479	.544	.511	.376	.315	.403	.410	.301	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	**V1**		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	V2	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	V3	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	D1	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	D2	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	D3	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	A1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	A2	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	A3	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

The correlation matrix (Table 4.28) indicates that all the coefficients are greater than 0.30, with the determinant of the matrix, (0.002) larger than the necessary value of 0.00001. The KMO verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis with KMO= 0.855 which is greater than the minimum recommended value of 0.5 (Kaizer, 1974).

Bartlett's (1954) test of sphericity (X^2 = 929.045; p<0.001) revealed that the correlations between items were large enough for a principal component analysis, further demonstrating the factorability of the correlation matrix.

The principal components analysis revealed two factors with eigenvalues above one explaining, 71.264% of the variance (see Table 4.29 below).

Table 4.29: Total variance explained for the employee engagement scale

	Initial Eigenvalues			**Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings**		
Component	Total	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**	**Total**	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**
1	5.259	58.433	58.433	5.259	58.433	58.433
2	1.155	12.831	**71.264**	1.155	12.831	**71.264**
3	.842	9.351	80.615			
4	.546	6.069	86.684			
5	.359	3.984	90.667			
6	.290	3.218	93.885			
7	.218	2.421	96.307			
8	.178	1.977	98.283			
9	.155	1.717	100.000			

Table 4.30: Rotated components matrix for the employee engagement scale

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

Employee Engagement	Component	
	1	2
D2	.880	
D1	.878	
V3	.832	
V1	.812	
D3	.724	.413
V2	.682	.413
A3	.465	.421
A2		.900
A1		.853

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaizer normalisation.

a. Rotation converged in three iterations

.

The rotated components matrix above, extracted two factors. The employee engagement scale was intended to have three sub-scales (vigour, dedication & absorption). However, the rotated components matrix shows two factors, with questions relating to dedication and vigour loading highly on factor 1. This means that the questions in this scale measured the same thing. The questions that load highly on factor 2 relate to absorption. The rotated component matrix shows that the three dimensions of employee engagement actually measure two things.

4.4.2.3 Factor analysis for the organisational commitment scale

Principal components analysis was carried out on the nine items of the organisational commitment scale, using orthogonal (varimax) rotation. The suitability of the data for factoring was once again assessed. The correlation matrix for the organisational commitment scale showed that a significant majority of the correlations were greater than 0.30. However, the correlation matrix also reflected several coefficients under 0.30. Moreover, it showed significant relationships. The determinant of the matrix of 0.044 is also larger than the necessary value of 0.00001, suggesting that there is no problematic multicollinearity.

For this data, the KMO value is 0.70, which falls into the good values, and exceeds the minimum recommended value of 0.5 (Kaizer, 1974). This indicates that the sample size is adequate for factor analysis. Moreover, Bartlett's (1954) test of sphericity (X^2 = 448.760; p<0.001) revealed that the correlations between items were large enough for a principal component analysis, further demonstrating the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Before extraction, the SPSS output identified nine linear components within the data set. However, after extraction, the principal components analysis revealed three factors with eigenvalues above one explaining, 69.955% of the variance (see Table 4.31 below).

Table 4.31: Total variance explained for the organisational commitment scale

	Initial Eigenvalues			**Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings**		
Component	**Total**	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**	**Total**	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**
1	3.025	33.613	33.613	3.025	33.613	33.613
2	1.976	21.959	55.572	1.976	21.959	55.572
3	1.294	14.383	**69.955**	1.294	14.383	**69.955**
4	.644	7.154	77.109			
5	.577	6.412	83.521			
6	.549	6.096	89.617			
7	.379	4.216	93.834			
8	.330	3.662	97.495			
9	.225	2.505	100.000			

Table 4.32: Rotated components matrix for the organisational commitment scale

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

Organisational Commitment	Component		
	1	2	3
AC3	.889		
AC2	.859		
AC1	.843		
CC3		.857	
CC2		.817	
CC1		.790	
NC3			.822
NC2			.770
NC1			.710

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaizer normalisation.

a. Rotation converged in four iterations.

Looking at the rotated components matrix above, there are three factors that were extracted meaning that the organisational commitment construct has three sub-scales. The questions that load highly on factor 1 relate to affective commitment. Therefore we will label this factor *affective commitment*. The questions that load highly on factor 2 relate to continuance commitment; therefore will label this factor *continuance commitment*. Finally, the questions that load highly on factor 3 all contain components that relate to *normative commitment)*. The rotated components matrix shows the three dimensions of organisational commitment which measure three different things, hence the three factors indicating that these three sub-scales are sub-components of organisational commitment.

4.4.2.4 Factor analysis for the job satisfaction scale

Principal component analysis was also carried out on the eight remaining items of the job satisfaction scale after reliability adjustment. The suitability of the data in the scale was also assessed for factorability analysis. The correlation matrix showed that all of the coefficients were greater than 0.30. Moreover, the correlation matrix showed significant relationships.

The determinant of the correlation matrix was also checked. The results showed that the determinant of the matrix, (0.015) is greater than the necessary value of 0.00001. There were no correlation coefficients greater than 0.9, indicating that there was no problem of multicollinearity in the data (Field, 2009).

The KMO was also used to measure the sampling adequacy, with the KMO of 0.844 exceeding the minimum recommended value of 0.5 (Kaizer, 1974). In addition, Bartlett's (1954) test of sphericity ($X^2 = 617.610$; $p<0.001$) revealed the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Table 4.33: Correlation matrix for the job satisfaction scale

Correlation Matrix[a]

Job Satisfaction		JS1	JS2	JS3	JS5	JS6	JS7	JS8	JS9
Correlation	JS1	1.000	.398	.342	.459	.677	.574	.404	.543
	JS2	.398	1.000	.559	.317	.464	.478	.546	.493
	JS3	.342	.559	1.000	.426	.340	.508	.567	.474
	JS5	.459	.317	.426	1.000	.577	.408	.388	.403
	JS6	.677	.464	.340	.577	1.000	.593	.547	.590
	JS7	.574	.478	.508	.408	.593	1.000	.572	.519
	JS8	.404	.546	.567	.388	.547	.572	1.000	.754
	JS9	.543	.493	.474	.403	.590	.519	.754	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	JS1		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	JS2	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	JS3	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	JS5	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	JS6	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	JS7	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	JS8	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	JS9	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

a. Determinant = .015

The principal components analysis showed one factor with an eigenvalue above one explaining 56.264% of the variance (see Table 4.34 below).

Table 4.34: Total variance explained for the job satisfaction scale

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.501	56.264	**56.264**	4.501	**56.264**	**56.264**
2	.938	11.721	67.985			
3	.678	8.470	76.455			
4	.575	7.190	83.645			
5	.481	6.018	89.663			
6	.382	4.775	94.438			
7	.249	3.113	97.551			
8	.196	2.449	100.000			

Extraction method: principal component analysis.

Table 4.35: Components matrix for the job satisfaction scale

Component Matrix[a]

Job Satisfaction	Component
	1
JS9	.807
JS8	.806
JS6	.804
JS7	.781
JS1	.735
JS2	.706
JS3	.694
JS5	.650

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

a. One component extracted

The components matrix above, extracted one factor meaning that all the questions measured one thing. All the questions with loadings in factor 1 relate to *job satisfaction*. The reason why a components matrix is extracted instead of the rotated components matrix is because only one component was extracted so the solution could not be rotated.

4.4.2.5 Factor analysis for the intention to quit scale

The construct validity of the intention to quit scale was tested using exploratory factor analysis, with principal components analysis carried out on the three scale items, using orthogonal (varimax) rotation, with Kaizer normalisation. The correlation matrix was used to check the pattern of the relationships. The correlation matrix showed that all the correlations were greater than 0.30. Moreover, it showed significant relationships. There were no correlation coefficients greater than 0.9, indicating that there was no problem of multicollinearity in the data. The KMO was used to measure the sampling adequacy, and the KMO value of 0.740 exceeds the minimum recommended value of 0.5. In addition, determinant of the correlation matrix was also checked, with the results showing that the determinant of the matrix, 0.117 is greater than the necessary value of 0.00001. Bartlett's (1954) test of sphericity (X^2 = 318.396; p<0.001) revealed the factorability of the correlation.

Table 4.36: Correlation matrix for the intention to quit scale

Correlation Matrix[a]

		ITQ1	ITQ2	ITQ3
Correlation	ITQ1	1.000	.745	.736
	ITQ2	.745	1.000	.844
	ITQ3	.736	.844	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	ITQ1		.000	.000
	ITQ2	.000		.000
	ITQ3	.000	.000	

a. Determinant = .117

The principal components analysis showed one factor with an eigenvalue above one explaining 85.026% of the variance (see Table 4.37).

Table 4.37: Total variance explained for the intention to quit scale

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.551	85.026	**85.026**	2.551	**85.026**	**85.026**
2	.293	9.781	94.807			
3	.156	5.193	100.000			

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Table 4.38: Components matrix for the intention to quit scale

Component Matrix[a]

Intention to quit	Component
	1
ITQ2	.938
ITQ3	.934
ITQ1	.894

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

a. One component extracted.

The component matrix above, extracted one factor meaning that all the questions measured one thing. All the questions with loadings in factor 1 relate to *intention to quit*. The reason why a components matrix is extracted instead of the rotated components matrix is because only one component was extracted so the solution could not be rotated.

4.4.2.6 Factor analysis for the overall questionnaire instrument

A final principal components analysis was conducted on the 51 items of the overall questionnaire instrument, with orthogonal rotation (varimax). The KMO measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = 0.821 ('great' according to Field, 2009), which is well above the acceptable limit 0.5. Bartlett's (1954) test of sphericity (X^2 = 5805.904; $p<0.001$), indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for principal components analysis. Twelve components had eigenvalues values over Kaizer's criterion of one and in combination explained 73.537% of the variances (see Table 4.39).

Table 4.39: Total variance explained for the overall questionnaire instrument

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	14.968	29.349	29.349	14.968	29.349	29.349
2	5.225	10.245	39.594	5.225	10.245	39.594
3	2.857	5.602	45.196	2.857	5.602	45.196
4	2.387	4.681	49.877	2.387	4.681	49.877
5	2.269	4.448	54.325	2.269	4.448	54.325
6	1.906	3.736	58.062	1.906	3.736	58.062
7	1.623	3.182	61.244	1.623	3.182	61.244
8	1.487	2.916	64.160	1.487	2.916	64.160
9	1.419	2.783	66.944	1.419	2.783	66.944
10	1.196	2.344	69.288	1.196	2.344	69.288
11	1.099	2.155	71.443	1.099	2.155	71.443
12	1.068	2.094	**73.537**	1.068	2.094	**73.537**
13	.973	1.909	75.445			
14	.871	1.708	77.153			
15	.814	1.596	78.750			
16	.790	1.550	80.300			
17	.752	1.474	81.773			
18	.692	1.358	83.131			
19	.603	1.183	84.314			
20	.592	1.161	85.475			
21	.532	1.043	86.518			
22	.517	1.013	87.531			
23	.496	.972	88.503			
24	.453	.888	89.391			
25	.448	.878	90.269			
26	.419	.822	91.091			
27	.377	.740	91.831			
28	.354	.693	92.524			
29	.316	.620	93.144			
30	.312	.611	93.756			
31	.292	.572	94.328			
32	.270	.530	94.857			
33	.266	.521	95.379			

34	.244	.478	95.857			
35	.224	.439	96.296			
36	.214	.420	96.716			
37	.195	.383	97.098			
38	.188	.369	97.467			
39	.174	.342	97.809			
40	.154	.302	98.110			
41	.141	.277	98.388			
42	.126	.247	98.635			
43	.121	.238	98.872			
44	.102	.201	99.073			
45	.092	.180	99.253			
46	.090	.176	99.429			
47	.080	.158	99.587			
48	.070	.136	99.723			
49	.053	.104	99.828			
50	.050	.098	99.925			
51	.038	.075	100.000			

The Table (Table 4.40) shows the rotated components matrix (also called the rotated factor matrix in factor analysis), which is a matrix of the factor loadings for each variable onto one another. Based on the recommendations of Field (2009), factor loadings less than 0.4 were suppressed and thus are not displayed. Moreover, the variables are listed in the order of the size of their factor loadings.

Table 4.40: Rotated components matrix for the overall questionnaire instrument

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

Questionnaire items	Component											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
TMP22 Talent Retention1	.867											
TMP24 Talent Retention3	.807											
TMP23 Talent Retention2	.743											
TMP15 Workforce Planning3	.727											
TMP14 Workforce Planning2	.657			.455								
TMP6 Talent Review Process3	.601											
TMP13 Workforce Planning1	.585			.517								
TMP21 Performance Management3	.570					.471						
TMP16 Talent Development1	.536									.415		
TMP20 Performance Management2	.475					.433				.456		
EE4 Dedication1		.823										
EE3 Vigour3		.787										
EE1 Vigour1		.782										
EE2 Vigour2		.756										
EE5 Dedication2		.753										
EE6 Dedication3		.708										
EE9 Absorption3		.646										
JS8			.737									
JS9		.469	.663									
JS6	.405		.662									
JS5			.652									
JS7			.561	.413								
JS2			.516									
JS1			.509									
JS3			.476									
TMP12 Talent Acquisition3				.680								
TMP17 Talent Development2				.640								
TMP18 Talent Development3	.458			.533								
ITQ2					-.864							
ITQ3					-.857							
ITQ1					-.728							
TMP19 Performance Management1						.663						
TMP4 Talent Review Process1						.569						
TMP5 Talent Review Process2	.438					.471						
TMP25 Financial Rewards1						.414						
OC2 Affective Commitment2							.872					
OC3 Affective Commitment3							.851					
OC1 Affective Commitment1							.822					

OC6 Continuance Commitment3								.852				
OC5 Continuance Commitment2								.812				
OC4 Continuance Commitment1								.762				
OC9 Normative Commitment3									.821			
OC8 Normative Commitment2									.712			
OC7 Normative Commitment1									.650			
TMP10 Talent Acquisition1										.650		
TMP9 Staffing3				.456						.563		
EE8 Absorption2											.790	
EE7 Absorption1		.475									.670	
TMP2 Talent Strategy2												.657
TMP1 Talent Strategy1												.466
TMP3 Talent Strategy3												.442

Extraction method: Principal component analysis.

Rotation method: Varimax with Kaizer normalisation.

a. Rotation converged in 16 iterations.

Looking at the rotated components matrix (Table 4.40), there are 12 factors that were extracted after rotation meaning that the research instrument measured 12 things. The questions that load highly on factor 1 relate to the talent management practices construct. The questions looked at talent management practices such as talent retention, workforce planning, and performance management. The questions that load highly on factor 2 relate to employee engagement, with items that asked about the dimensions of employee engagement: Vigour, and dedication. The questions that load highly on factor 3 seem to relate to job satisfaction. Factor 4 contains components that relate to talent development. The questions that load highly on factor 5 all contain components that relate to employees' intention to quit. Factor 6 contains components that relate to talent review processes. The questions that load highly on factors 7, 8 and 9 contain the sub-components of organisational commitment, with questions that load highly on factor 7 relating to affective commitment, factor 8 relating to continuance commitment, and questions loading highly on factor 9 relating to normative commitment. Questions on the talent management practices - staffing and talent acquisition, loaded highly on factor 10. Factor 11 has questions with higher loadings related to absorption, the third dimension of employee engagement (sub-scale). The questions that load highly on factor 12 contain components that relate to talent strategy.

4.5 The Results of Hypotheses Testing

The hypotheses proposed in the previous chapters are tested here, with the results of the testing of the proposed hypotheses reported in the following sections. The purpose of the present study is to investigate the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction and employees' intention to quit. Multiple linear regression analysis is the inferential statistical technique utilised to test the hypotheses.

In order to test the proposed hypotheses, multiple linear regression analyses using forced entry, were carried out to predict the direct and indirect (mediated) relationships between the independent/predictor variable(s) and the dependent/outcome variable (s). According to Field (2009, p. 212), forced entry is a method in which all predictors are forced into the model simultaneously. Researchers (Studenmund, 2011), regard forced entry as the only appropriate method for theory testing because stepwise techniques are influenced by random variation in the data.

The following control variables were included in the regression models:

- Gender (1 = Female; 2 = Male).
- Age (1 = 18 - 20 years; 2 = 21 - 30 years; 3 = 31 - 40 years; 4 = 41 - 50 years; 5 = 51 or older).
- Education (1 = Grade 11 or lower; 2 = Grade 12 (Matric); 3 = Diploma/Certificate; 4 = Bachelor's degree; 5 = Post-Graduate degree).
- Tenure/Experience (1 = Less than 1 year; 2 = 1 - 3 years; 3 = +3 - 5 years; 4 = +5 - 7 years; 5 = 7+ years).

The following multiple regressions were obtained using SPSS Statistics, version 23 for the analysis of the proposed hypotheses.

4.5.1 Hypothesis 1: Talent management practices and intention to quit

The first regression analysis is testing the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. The null and alternative hypotheses are found below.

H_0: $\beta = 0$

H_1: $\beta \neq 0$

$\alpha = 0.05$

The first hypothesis is thus stated as:

The null hypothesis 1 (H_0) is: *There is no significant negative relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*

The alternative hypothesis 1 (H_1) is: *There is a significant negative relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*

In order to test this hypothesis, multiple linear regression analysis, using forced entry, was carried out to predict the relationship between talent management practices (independent/predictor variable) and intention to quit (dependent/outcome variable). To test this relationship, a two-step regression was run, with the biographical variables of gender, age, education, and tenure/experience included in the first step of the regression model as control variables. Talent management practices are included in the second step of the regression model in order to account for the added variance beyond the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure/experience).

Table 4.41 reflects the descriptive statistics (mean, & standard deviation) and the correlation coefficients (intercorrelations) for the various variables in the regression.

Table 4.41: Descriptive statistics and correlations for hypothesis 1

Variables		Mean	SD					
Pearson Correlation and Sig. (1-tailed)	Intention to Quit	2.79	1.131					
	Gender	0.58	0.494	-.013				
	Age	3.62	0.985	-.409***	.148*			
	Education	3.53	1.118	.135*	-.176*	-.582***		
	Tenure	3.61	1.361	-.034	.004	.563***	-.507***	
	Talent Management Practices	3.35	0.639	-.459***	.021	.101	.078	-.063

*Notes: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; n= 151*

Reflecting on the correlations in Table 4.41, they seem to indicate that talent management practices are significantly and negatively related to intention to quit at the 0.001 level.

The different assumptions related to the regression were examined:

Multicollinearity: There is no evidence of multicollinearity in the data, with correlations falling way below 0.80 or 0.90 (see Field, 2009). Moreover, the Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) and the tolerance statistics were found to be at acceptable levels, with no VIF values above ten, and with no tolerance values below 0.1 for the different variables under study. The results indicate that there are no problems of multicollinearity in the regression model for hypothesis one (see Table 4.42).

Autocorrelation: The D-W test was used to check whether there is autocorrelation between residuals and the D-W value of 2.054 is very close to two suggesting that there is no danger of autocorrelation in the model (see Table 4.43).

Normality, outliers, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of residuals: The scatter plot was used to check for any possible outliers, with Tabachnick and Fidell’s (2007) definition of outliers adopted. There were no outliers beyond the cut-off points +3.3/ -3.3 for the standardised residual cases (see Figure 4.1).

Table 4.42: Coefficients of the regression model (hypothesis 1)

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	4.695	.668		7.024	.000	3.374	6.016					
Gender	.147	.170	.064	.863	.390	-.190	.484	-.013	.071	.063	0.949	1.054
Age	-.707	.112	-.615	-6.337	.000	-.927	-.486	-.409	-.464	-.460	0.558	1.791
Education	-.073	.095	-.073	-.776	.439	-.261	.114	.135	-.064	-.056	0.601	1.663
Tenure	.229	.076	.275	2.995	.003	.078	.380	-.034	.241	.217	0.623	1.604
2 (Constant)	6.488	.676		9.601	.000	5.152	7.823					
Gender	.158	.154	.069	1.026	.307	-.146	.461	-.013	.085	.067	0.949	1.054
Age	-.583	.103	-.508	-5.672	.000	-.786	-.380	-.409	-.426	-.371	0.535	1.870
Education	-.004	.086	-.004	-.046	.963	-.174	.166	.135	-.004	-.003	0.590	1.695
Tenure	.187	.069	.224	2.692	.008	.050	.324	-.034	.218	.176	0.617	1.622
Talent Management Practices	-.698	.119	-.394	-5.872	.000	-.932	-.463	-.459	-.438	-.384	0.950	1.052

a. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

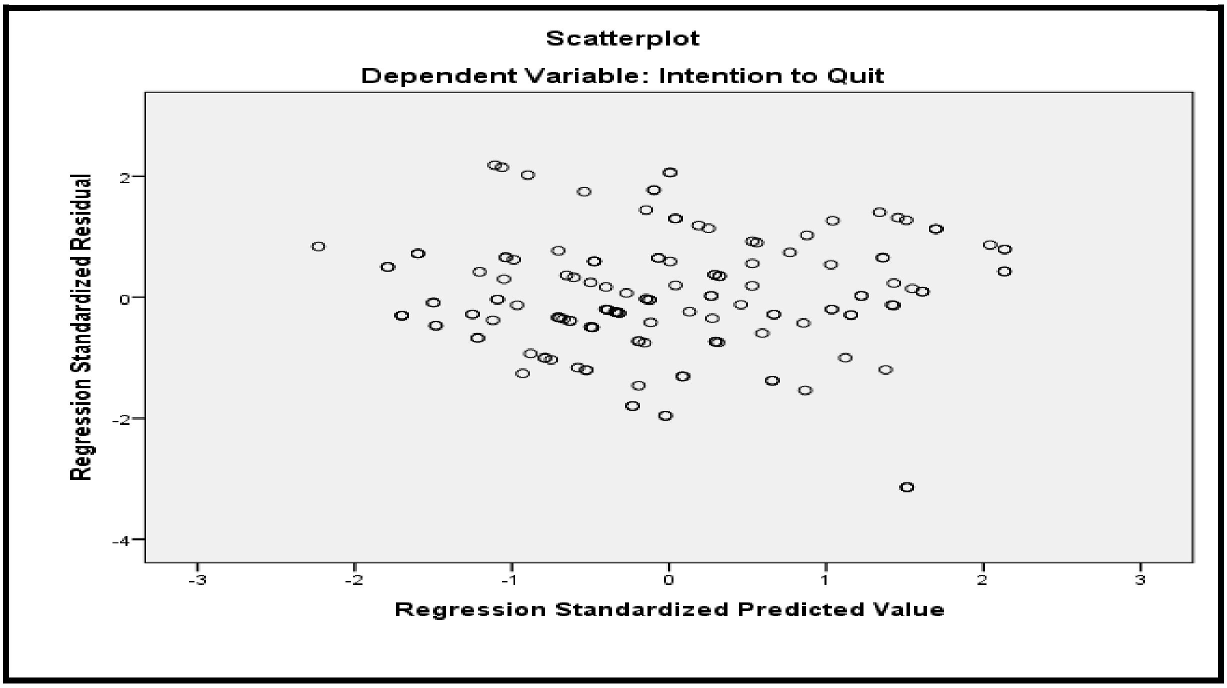


Figure 4.1: Scatterplot for hypothesis 1

Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010) suggest that normality can be checked by looking at the normal probability plot. Normality was assessed by using a histogram (Figure 4.2) and P-P plot (Figure 4.3), both of which indicate that the data is normally distributed.

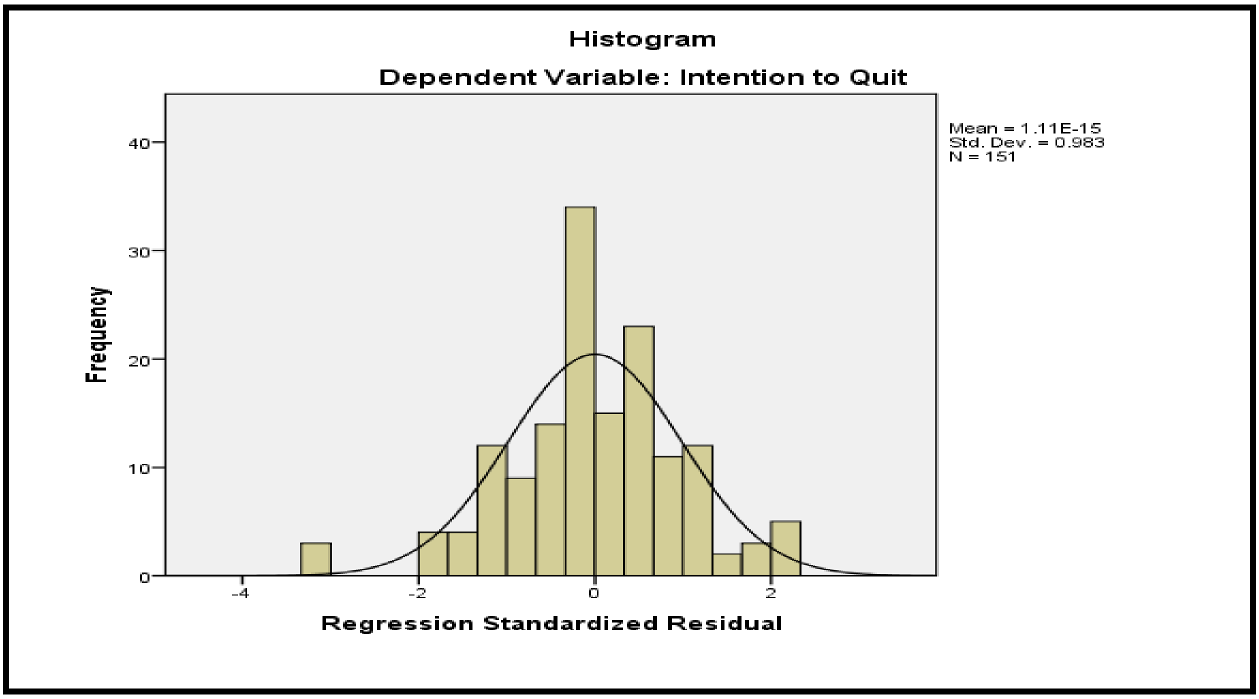


Figure 4.2: Histogram for hypothesis 1

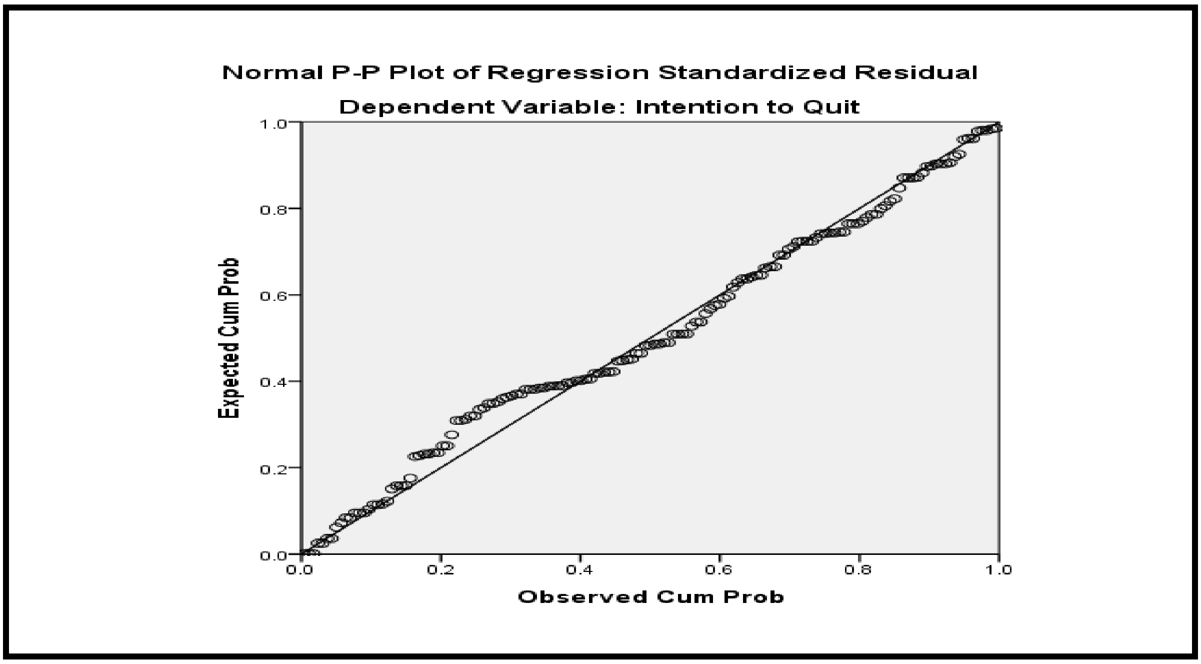


Figure 4.3: Normal P-P plot for hypothesis 1

The results of the two step multiple regression model for hypothesis 1 are summarised in Table 4.43, with intention to quit as the dependent or outcome variable, and talent management practices, gender, age, education, and tenure as the independent or predictor variables.

In the first step of the regression, the control variables (gender, age, education, & tenure) were entered as predictors of intention to quit. The model is statistically significant ($R = .481^a$; $p < .001$.), with the $R^2 = .231$ indicating that the model explains 23% of the variance in employees' intention to quit. This means that 23% of the variance in employees' intention to quit the organisation was accounted for by the control variables.

In step 2, after the entry of talent management practices, the total variance explained by the model increased from ($R = .481^a$; $p < .001$.) to ($R = .616^b$; $p < .001$.), $R^2 = .379$ meaning that talent management practices contributed and explained another 15% of total variance. Talent management practices is also significantly and negatively correlated to employees' intention to quit ($\beta = -0.394$; $p < 0.001$). In both instances, the model in steps 1 and 2 is highly significant: Step 1 ($F = 10.987$; $p < 0.001$); and step 2 ($F = 17.703$; $p < 0.001$). Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis. This means that support was found for hypothesis 1 that talent management is significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit.

In discussing the first hypothesis, what can be noted is a significant inverse relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. Existing studies (Fitz-enz & Phillips, 1998; Boninelli & Meyer, 2004; Vaiman *et al*, 2012) suggest that in a knowledge-based and hyper-connected global economy, organisations have to attract, develop and retain the highly skilled and talented employees they need. The findings of the present research corroborate with Darvish *et al.*'s (2012) study. Similarly, Du Plessis (2010) is of the view that the higher the levels of perception of an organisation's talent management practices, the lower the levels of employees' intention to quit. Based on this premise, the organisation under study can effectively utilise talent management practices, which in turn may result in reduced employees' intention to quit the organisation.

Table 4.43: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 1

Predictors	**Intention to quit**
Step 1	
Gender	.064
Age	-.615***
Education	-.073
Tenure	.275*
R	.481[a]
R^2	.231
F-Value	10.987***
Step 2	
Gender	.069
Age	-.508***
Education	-.004
Tenure	.224
Talent Management Practices	-.394***
R	.616[b]
R^2	.379
F-Value	17.703***
D-W Value	2.054

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, talent management practices

c. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

4.5.2 Hypothesis 2: Talent management practices and organisational commitment

The second regression analysis is testing the relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment). The null and alternative hypotheses are as follows.

H_0: $\beta = 0$

H_1: $\beta \neq 0$

$\alpha = 0.05$

The null hypothesis 2 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment.*

The alternative hypothesis 2 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 2.a: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and affective commitment.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 2.a: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and affective commitment.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 2.b: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and continuance commitment.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 2.b: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and continuance commitment.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 2.c: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and normative commitment.*

- Alternative sub-hypothesis *2.c*: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and normative commitment.*

In order to test this hypothesis, multiple linear regression analysis, using forced entry, was also carried out to predict the relationship between talent management practices (independent/predictor variable) and the three dimensions of organisational commitment: Affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (dependent/outcome variable(s). To test this relationship, a two-step regression was once again run, with the biographical variables of gender, age, education, and tenure/experience included in the first step of the regression model as control variables. Talent management practices are included in the second step of the regression model in order to account for the added variance beyond the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure/experience).

The different assumptions related to this regression were checked. The results showed that there was no multicollinearity, with correlations falling way below 0.80 or 0.90. Moreover, as there were no VIF values above ten and tolerance statistics below 0.1, the VIF and tolerance statistics were deemed to be at acceptable levels. In terms of the assumptions of normality, outliers, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of residuals, there was no evidence of outliers, with standardised residual cases not exceeding +3.3/ -3.3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Normality was assessed by using histograms and P-P plots for the three dimensions of organisational commitment, which indicated that the data is normally distributed. All the D-W tests have values very close to two, suggesting that there is no danger of autocorrelation in the model (see Table 4.44).

Results of the regression are summarised in Table 4.44.

Table 4.44: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 2

Predictors	Dimensions of Organisational Commitment		
	Affective	**Continuance**	**Normative**
Step 1			
Gender	.058	.124	.041
Age	.151	.111	.103
Education	.184	.170	.136
Tenure	-.025	.088	.084
R	.166	.187	.138
R^2	.028	.035	.019
F-Value	1.036	1.316	.706
Step 2			
Gender	.056	.122	.040
Age	.099	.072	.067
Education	.151	.146	.113
Tenure	-.001	.106	.101
Talent Management Practices	.188	.143	.130
R	.247	.233	.187
R^2	.061	.054	.035
F-Value	1.890	1.658	1.056
D-W Value	1.998	2.090	1.835

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

Table 4.44 shows the results of the two step multiple linear regression model, with organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment) as the dependent/outcome variable(s), and talent management practices as independent variables, with control variables for added variance. The results of the regression model is statistically insignificant for both instances, in step 1 for the control variables and step 2, after entering talent management practices. This means that the contribution of talent management practices on affective commitment, continuance commitment, as well as normative commitment is not significant at all. Based on this, we fail to reject the null hypotheses in all the three sub-hypotheses of organisational commitment. We fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between talent management practices and affective commitment. We fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between talent management practices and continuance commitment. We also fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between talent management practices and normative commitment.

In analysis of this hypothesis, there is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment). Oehley (2007) carried out a study on talent management competencies and affective commitment. The results of Oehley's study showed that talent management competencies do not directly influence affective commitment. The findings of the present study indicate that the three dimensions of organisational commitment are unaffected by talent management practices at the organisation under study.

4.5.3 Hypothesis 3: Talent management practices and employee engagement

The third regression analysis is testing the relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption). The null and alternative hypotheses are found below.

H_0: $\beta = 0$

H_1: $\beta \neq 0$

$\alpha = 0.05$

The null hypothesis 3 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement.*

The alternative hypothesis 3 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 3.a: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and vigour.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 3.a: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and vigour.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 3.b: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and dedication.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 3.b: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and dedication.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 3.c: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and absorption.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 3.c: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and absorption.*

In order to test this hypothesis, multiple linear regression analysis, using forced entry, was also carried out to predict the relationship between talent management practices (independent/predictor variable) and the three dimensions of employee engagement: Vigour, dedication, and absorption (dependent/outcome variable(s)). To test this relationship, a two-step regression was run, with the biographical variables of gender, age, education, and tenure/experience included in the first step of the regression model as control variables. Talent management practices are included in the second step of the regression model in order to account for the added variance beyond the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure/experience).

The initial correlations for hypothesis 3 showed that talent management practices are significantly positively related to the three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption).

The different assumptions related to the regression model were checked, with no evidence of multicollinearity found. Moreover, the VIF (below ten) and tolerance statistics (above 0.1) were found to be at acceptable levels for both step 1 and step 2 of the regression.

In terms of checking for normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, independence of residuals, and outliers, the scatter plots for the three dimensions of employee engagement showed no evidence of outliers with standardised residuals falling within Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) acceptable range of +3.3/ -3.3. The histograms and the P-P plots showed that the data is normally distributed.

Autocorrelation: All the D-W test values are close to two indicating that there is no problem of autocorrelation in the model (see Table 4.45).

Table 4.45 summarises the results of the regression model for hypothesis 3, testing the relationship between talent management practices and the three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption).

Table 4.45: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 3

Predictors	Dimensions of Employee Engagement		
	Vigour	**Dedication**	**Absorption**
Step 1			
Gender	.195*	.079	.146
Age	.217*	.396***	.124
Education	-.146	-.118	-.010
Tenure	-.045	-.208*	.054
R	.387	.412	.235
R^2	.150	.170	.055
F-Value	6.443***	7.451***	2.136*
Step 2			
Gender	.191*	.073	.144
Age	.116	.259**	.076
Education	-.210*	-.205*	-.040
Tenure	.003	-.143	.076
Talent Management Practices	.371***	.501***	.173*
R	.530	.639	.289
R^2	.281	.408	.084
F-Value	11.310***	20.003***	2.651*
D-W Value	1.800	1.757	1.688

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

Table 4.45 shows the results of the multiple linear regression investigating the relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption). In step 1 of the regression model, the control variables accounted for a significantly positive (R = .387; p< .001.) R^2 = .150 for vigour; (R = .412; p< .001.) R^2 = .170 for dedication; and (R = .235; p< .05.) R^2 = .055 for absorption, indicating that the control variables explained 15% of the variance in vigour, 17% of the variance in dedication, and 6% variance in absorption respectively.

However, after the entry of talent management practices (step 2), the total variance explained by the model is $R^2 = .281$ for vigour; .408 for dedication; and .084 for absorption, indicating that talent management practices explain 13% of variation in vigour, 24% variation in dedication, and 2% variation in absorption, over and above the control set of variables entered initially. Moreover, the contribution of vigour and dedication is positively significant at all levels of significance ($R = .530$; $p < 0.001$ for vigour), ($R = .639$; $p < 0.001$ for dedication), while absorption is significantly positive at the 5% level of significance ($R = .289$; $p < 0.05$). Additionally, in all the three dimensions of employee engagement, the model is significant (vigour – $F = 11.310$; $p < 0.001$; dedication – $F = 20.003$; $p<0.001$; absorption – $F = 2.651$; $p < 0.05$).

Based on the results stated above, the null hypotheses that there is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement is rejected in favour of the alternative. This means that talent management practices are significantly and positively related to the three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour $-\beta = .371$; $p < 0.001$; dedication $-\beta = .501$; $p < 0.001$; & absorption $-\beta = .173$; $p < 0.05$), confirming Barkhuizen *et al*'s (2014) findings. The organisation under study should develop and implement effective talent management practices that will not only attract highly skilled and talented employees, but also enhance employees' engagement.

4.5.4 Hypothesis 4: Talent management practices and job satisfaction

The fourth regression analysis is testing the relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction. The null and alternative hypotheses are show below.

H_0: $\beta = 0$

H_1: $\beta \neq 0$

$\alpha = 0.05$

The null hypothesis 4 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.*

The alternative hypothesis 4 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.*

In order to test this hypothesis, multiple linear regression analysis using forced entry, was also carried out to predict the relationship between talent management practices (independent/predictor variable) and job satisfaction (dependent/outcome variable). To test this relationship, a two-step regression was run, with the biographical variables of gender, age, education, and tenure/experience included in the first step of the regression model as control variables. Talent management practices are included in the second step of the regression model in order to account for the added variance beyond the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure/experience).

The researcher firstly looked at the correlations between the variables under study, and initial support is provided for hypothesis 4, with talent management practices being significantly and positively related to job satisfaction.

Again, different assumptions related to the regression were examined, and there was no evidence of multicollinearity, the VIF and tolerance statistics were at acceptable levels (below ten, & above 0.1 respectively). Moreover, there was no evidence of outliers after checking the scatter plot. Additionally, the histogram and normal probability plot reflected a normal distribution.

Autocorrelation: The D-W test value was also close to two (1.593) indicating that there is no problem of autocorrelation in the model.

The results of the multiple regression for hypothesis 4 are summarised below in Table 4.46. The R^2 of .120 for step 1 of the regression model suggest that the control variables (gender, age, education, & tenure) explained 12% of variance in employees' job satisfaction in the company under study. The introduction of talent management practices in step 2 accounted for a further 31% of total variance (R^2 = .426). Talent management practices are also significantly and positively correlated to employees' job satisfaction in step 2 of the regression model (β = .568, $p<0.001$). Moreover, the model was significant in both instances (step 1 – F = 4.972; $p < 0.01$; step 2 – F = 21.538; $p<0.001$). Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis, in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

Based on the results discussed above, support was found for hypothesis 4 such that talent management practices are significantly and positively related to employees' job satisfaction. The alternative hypothesis is accordingly accepted (see Table 4.46). The findings of the present study support similar studies that have been carried out elsewhere (Deery, 2008; Tymon Jr *et al.*, 2010; Bethke-Langenegger *et al.*, 2011). The organisation under study can increase employees' job satisfaction and ensure that employees are satisfied with their present jobs by implementing and utilising effective talent management practices and strategies.

Table 4.46: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 4

Predictors	**Job Satisfaction**
Step 1	
Gender	.026
Age	.427***
Education	.037
Tenure	-.209*
R	.346[a]
R^2	.120
F-Value	4.972**
Step 2	
Gender	.019
Age	.272*
Education	-.062
Tenure	-.136
Talent Management Practices	.568***
R	.653[b]
R^2	.426
F-Value	21.538***
D-W Value	1.593

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, talent management practices

c. Dependent variable: Job satisfaction

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

4.5.5 Hypothesis 5: Job satisfaction and intention to quit

The fifth regression analysis is testing the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit. The null and alternative hypotheses and listed below.

H_0: $\beta = 0$

H_1: $\beta \neq 0$

$\alpha = 0.05$

The null hypothesis 5 (H_0) is: *There is no significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.*

The alternative hypothesis 5 (H_1) is: *There is a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.*

In order to test this hypothesis, multiple linear regression analysis, using forced entry, was carried out to predict the relationship between job satisfaction (independent/predictor variable) and intention to quit (dependent/outcome variable). To test this relationship, a two-step regression was run, with the biographical variables of gender, age, education, and tenure/experience included in the first step of the regression model as control variables. Job satisfaction is included in the second step of the regression model in order to account for the added variance beyond the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure/experience).

An initial reflection of the correlations between the variables showed that job satisfaction is significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit. The different assumptions of the regression were examined and the results showed no problems of multicollinearity, the VIF and tolerance statistics were at acceptable levels. There were no outliers in the model, and the histogram and P-P plot showed that the data is normally distributed. The D-W statistic is close to two indicating that errors in the regression model are independent and there is no problem of autocorrelation.

Table 4.47: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 5

Predictors	**Intention to Quit**
Step 1	
Gender	.064
Age	-.615***
Education	-.073
Tenure	.275**
R	.481[a]
R^2	.231
F-Value	10.987***
Step 2	
Gender	.075
Age	-.430***
Education	-.057
Tenure	.185*
Job Satisfaction	-.434***
R	.630[b]
R^2	.397
F-Value	19.085***
D-W Value	2.003

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, job satisfaction

c. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

The results of the multiple regression model for hypothesis 5 are summarised in Table 4.47. The R^2 of .231 for step 1 in the model implied that 23% of variance in employees' intention to quit was accounted for by the different control variables (gender, age, education, & tenure). The R^2 of .397 for step 2 of the model suggests that job satisfaction accounted for a further 17% of total variance in employees' intention to quit. Moreover, job satisfaction was significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit the organisation in step 2 of the model (β = -.434, $p<0.001$). The model was found to be significant (step 1 – F = 10.987; $p< 0.001$; step 2 – F = 19.085; $p<0.001$).

Based on the results above, the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. Therefore, support was found for hypothesis 5 such that employees' job satisfaction is significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit. The alternative hypothesis is therefore accepted. The results of the present study suggest that if employees are satisfied with their jobs it will result in lower employees' intention to quit the organisation. The results of this study concur with the findings of Pienaar *et al.* (2007). The authors also found a negative correlation between job satisfaction and intention to quit.

4.5.6 Hypothesis 6: Employee engagement and intention to quit

The sixth regression analysis is testing the relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit. The null and alternative hypotheses are listed below.

H_0: $\beta = 0$

H_1: $\beta \neq 0$

$\alpha = 0.05$

The null hypothesis 6 (H_0) is: *There is no significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit.*

The alternative hypothesis 6 (H_1) is: *There is a significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 6.a: *There is no significant negative relationship between vigour and intention to quit.*

- Alternative sub-hypothesis 6.a: *There is a significant negative relationship between vigour and intention to quit.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 6.b: *There is no significant negative relationship between dedication and intention to quit.*
- Alternative sub-*hypothesis 6.b: There is a significant negative relationship between dedication and intention to quit.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 6.c: *There is no significant negative relationship between absorption and intention to quit.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 6.c: *There is a significant negative relationship between absorption and intention to quit.*

In order to test this hypothesis and the sub-hypotheses, multiple linear regression analysis, using forced entry, was also carried out to predict the relationship between the three dimensions of employee engagement: Vigour, dedication, and absorption (independent/ predictor variables) and intention to quit (dependent/outcome variable). To test this relationship, two-step regressions were run, with the biographical variables of gender, age, education, and tenure/experience included in the first step of the regression model as control variables. The three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption) are included in the second steps of the regression model in order to account for the added variance beyond the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure/experience).

The relationship between the three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption) and employees' intention to quit is investigated below.

4.5.6.1 Sub-hypothesis 6a: Vigour and intention to quit

Table 4.49 provides the results of the multiple regression model for sub-hypothesis 6a, which examines the relationship between vigour (predictor variable) and intention to quit (outcome variable).

The different assumptions related to the model were checked and there was no problem of multicollinearity, the VIF and tolerance statistics were at acceptable levels, the scatterplot showed no evidence of outliers, and normality was checked by looking at the histogram and the normal probability plot, which showed that the data for hypothesis 6a was normally distributed. Moreover, there was no problem of autocorrelation, with the D-W statistic close to two (2.045).

Table 4.48 below summarises the results of the regression for sub-hypothesis 6a. The R^2 of .231 for step 1 of the regression model suggests that 23% of the variance in employees' intention to quit is accounted for by the different control variables (gender, age, education, & tenure). After the entry of vigour in step 2, the R^2 for the second step ($R^2 = .325$) implied that vigour accounted for a further 10% of total variance. Moreover, vigour is significantly and negatively correlated to employees' intention to quit in the second step ($\beta = -.332$, $p< 0.001$). Furthermore, the regression model for hypothesis 6a is significant (step one – $F = 10.987$; $p< 0.001$; step two – $F = 13.959$; $p< 0.001$). Based on these results, support is found for hypothesis 6a. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis in four of the alternatives. This means that vigour is significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit.

Table 4.48: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 6a

Predictors	**Intention to Quit**
Step 1	
Gender	.064
Age	-.615***
Education	-.073
Tenure	.275**
R	.481[a]
R^2	.231
F-Value	10.987***
Step 2	
Gender	.129
Age	-.543***
Education	-.121
Tenure	.260**
Vigour	-.332***
R	.570[b]
R^2	.325
F-Value	13.959***
D-W Value	2.045

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, vigour

c. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

4.5.6.2 Sub-hypothesis 6b: Dedication and intention to quit

Table 4.49 below presents the results of the multiple regression model for sub-hypothesis 6b, which investigates the relationship between the second dimension of employee engagement– dedication (as a predictor/independent variable) and intention to quit (as an outcome/ dependent variable).

In this instance, the different assumptions pertaining to the regression were examined and there were no multicollinearity problems. The VIF and tolerance statistics were at acceptable levels (below ten, & above 0.1 respectively). Moreover, the model fit was checked. In terms of outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals−the scatter plot was analysed for outliers based on Tabachnick and Fidell’s (2001) definition of outliers, and there were no standardised residuals cases beyond the cut-off points of +3.3/-3.3. The histogram and the P-P plot indicated that the data is normally distributed. There was no problem of autocorrelation (D-W = 2.039).

Looking at the results of the multiple regression model for hypothesis 6b below (Table 4.49), in the first step of the regression, the control variables (gender, age, education, & tenure were entered. This model is statistically significant ($R = .481^a$; $p< 0.001$.) $R^2 = .231$ indicating that the control variables explain 23% of the variance in employees’ intention to quit. After the entry of dedication in step 2 of the regression, the total variance explained by the model as a whole increased ($R^2 = .339$), indicating that dedication explains a further 11% of variation in employees’ intention to quit. Moreover, the model was found to be significant for both step 1 and step 2 (step one – $F = 10.987$; $p < 0.001$; step two – $F = 14.857$; $p<0.001$). Once again, we reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative. Support has also been found for hypothesis 6b such that the second dimension of employee engagement − dedication is significantly and negatively ($\beta = -.360$; $p< 0.001$) correlated to employees’ intention to quit.

Table 4.49: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 6b

Predictors	Intention to Quit
Step 1	
Gender	.064
Age	-.615***
Education	-.073
Tenure	.275**
R	.481[a]
R^2	.231
F-Value	10.987***
Step 2	
Gender	.093
Age	-.473***
Education	-.115
Tenure	.200*
Dedication	-.360***
R	.582[b]
R^2	.339
F-Value	14.857***
D-W Value	2.039

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant),tenure, gender, education, age, dedication

c. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

The following regression (Table 4.50) investigates the relationship between absorption, the last dimension of employee engagement and employees' intention to quit.

4.5.6.3 Sub-hypothesis 6c: Absorption and intention to quit

Table 4.50 presents the results of the multiple regression model for sub-hypothesis 6c, which investigates the relationship between the third dimension of employee engagement – absorption (predictor) and intention to quit (outcome variable).

Again the different assumptions related to the regression were examined and there was no problematic multicollinearity. The VIF and tolerance statistics were at acceptable levels. In terms of testing for autocorrelation, the D-W statistic of 2.005 (see Table 4.50 below) indicated that autocorrelation was not a problem for this model. Normality, outliers, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals in the model were examined. There were no visible outliers beyond +3.3/ -3.3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Moreover, the data seemed to be normally distributed after checking the histogram and normal probability plot.

Table 4.50 summarises the results of the two-step multiple regression model for hypothesis 6c. The R^2 of .231 for step 1 of the regression model, as in the previous two models, suggests that 23% of the variance in employees' intention to quit is accounted for by the different control variables. However, after entering absorption in step 2, the R^2 for the second step (R^2 = .269) implied that absorption accounted for a slight 4% of variance in employees' intention to quit. Absorption is also significantly and negatively correlated to employees' intention to quit in the second step (β = -.199, $p< 0.01$). Based on this, we can conclude that absorption is significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis (see Table 4.50).

Table 4.50: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 6c

Predictors	**Intention to Quit**
Step 1	
Gender	.064
Age	-.615***
Education	-.073
Tenure	.275**
R	.481[a]
R^2	.231
F-Value	10.987***
Step 2	
Gender	.093
Age	-.591***
Education	-.075
Tenure	.286**
Absorption	-.199**
R	.518[b]
R^2	.269
F-Value	10.660***
D-W Value	2.005

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, absorption

c. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

The findings of hypothesis 6 and its sub-hypothesised relationships between the three dimensions of employee engagement and employees intention to quit, suggest that the three sub-scales of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption) are all significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit. The results correspond to similar studies who all alluded to the fact that higher levels of engagement result in lower levels of employees' turnover intention (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Shuck & Wollard, 2010; Robyn & Du Preez, 2013). Similarly, Mendes and Stander (2011) conducted a study on the three dimensions of employee engagement and intention to quit. The results of this study showed that employee engagement and its three sub-scales (vigour, dedication, & absorption) predict intention to leave.

4.5.7 Hypothesis 7: Organisational commitment and intention to quit

The seventh regression analysis is testing the relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit. The null and alternative hypotheses are listed below.

H_0: $\beta = 0$

H_1: $\beta \neq 0$

$\alpha = 0.05$

The null hypothesis 7 (H_0) is: *There is no significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit.*

The alternative hypothesis 7 (H_1) is: *There is a significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 7.a: *There is no significant negative relationship between affective commitment and intention to quit.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 7.a: *There is a significant negative relationship between affective commitment and intention to quit.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 7.b: *There is no significant negative relationship between continuance commitment and intention to quit.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 7.b: *There is a significant negative relationship between continuance commitment and intention to quit.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 7.c: *There is no significant negative relationship between normative commitment and intention to quit.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 7.c: *There is a significant negative relationship between normative commitment and intention to quit.*

In order to test hypothesis 7, multiple linear regression analysis, using forced entry, was also carried out to predict the relationship between the three dimensions of organisational commitment: Affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (independent/predictor variables) and intention to quit (dependent/outcome variable). To test this relationship, three different two-step regressions were run, with the biographical variables of gender, age, education, and tenure/experience included in the first steps of the regression models as control variables. The three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment) are tested separately and included in the second steps of the regression models in order to account for the added variance beyond the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure/experience).

Three different multiple regression models are presented below in order to examine the relationship between the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment) and employees' intention to quit. In all three instances, sub-hypotheses 7a, 7b, & 7c, the assumptions related to the regressions were checked. No evidence of multicollinearity was found. Moreover, the VIF and tolerance statistics were at acceptable levels (with no VIF above ten and no tolerance statistic below 0.1). Outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were investigated. The scatterplots presented were analysed for any possible outliers. Using Tabachnick and Fidell's (2001) definition of outliers, as cases with standardised residuals of more than +3.3 and less than -3.3, there were no possible outliers for the three regression models testing the relationship between affective, continuance, and normative commitment, with employees' intention to quit. The D-W statistics were also interpreted and in all instances indicated that autocorrelation was not a serious problem for the three models.

4.5.7.1 Hypothesis 7a: Affective commitment and intention to quit

The first regression model in hypothesis 7 (sub-hypothesis 7a) examines the relationship between the first dimension of organisational commitment - affective commitment (independent variable) and intention to quit (dependent variable) (see Table 4.51).

Table 4.51: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 7a

Predictors	Intention to Quit
Step 1	
Gender	.064
Age	-.615***
Education	-.073
Tenure	.275**
R	.481[a]
R^2	.231
F-Value	10.987***
Step 2	
Gender	.061
Age	-.617***
Education	-.076
Tenure	.276**
Affective Commitment	.014
R	.481[b]
R^2	.232
F-Value	8.740***
D-W Value	2.039

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, affective commitment

c. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

Looking at the results for hypothesis 7a in Table 4.51, in the first step of the regression, this model is statistically significant (R = .481[a]; p< .001.), R^2 = .231 indicating that the control variables accounted for a 23% of variance in employees' intention to quit. However, after the entry of affective commitment in step 2, the total variance explained by the model overall increased slightly (R^2 = .232), suggesting that affective commitment explains less than 1% variation in employees' intention to quit. Moreover, the model is statistically not significant at all. Based on this, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant negative relationship between affective commitment and employees' intention to quit.

4.5.7.2 Hypothesis 7b: Continuance commitment and intention to quit

Table 4.52 presents the overall regression model statistics for hypothesis 7b, with continuance commitment (predictor), and intention to quit (dependent variable).

In the first step of the regression model, the control variables were entered as predictors of intention to quit. This model is again statistically significant (R = .481[a]; p< .001.) R^2 = .231 indicating that the model explains 23% of the variance in employees' intention to quit. After entry of continuance commitment, the total variance explained by the model as a whole remains unchanged, (R = .481[b]: p<.001). R^2 = .232) meaning that continuance commitment does not contribute any variation in employees' intention to quit in this model. Therefore, we also fail to reject the null hypothesis that continuance commitment is not significantly related to employees' intention to quit.

Table 4.52: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 7b

Predictors	**Intention to Quit**
Step 1	
Gender	.064
Age	-.615***
Education	-.073
Tenure	.275**
R	.481[a]
R^2	.231
F-Value	10.987***
Step 2	
Gender	.062
Age	-.618***
Education	-.076
Tenure	.274**
Continuance Commitment	.020
R	.481[b]
R^2	.232
F-Value	8.748***
D-W Value	2.035

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, continuance commitment

c. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

4.5.7.3 Hypothesis 7c: Normative commitment and intention to quit

Table 4.53 examines the relationship between the third dimension of organisational commitment - normative commitment (independent variable) and intention to quit (dependent variable).

Looking at the results in Table 4.53, the model is significant overall (step one – $F = 10.987$; $p < 0.001$; step two – $F = 8.736$; $p<0.001$). However, looking at the results for step 2 after the entry of normative commitment, the results are not significant at all, suggesting that normative commitment does not contribute to employees' intention to quit. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that says that normative commitment is not significantly related to employees' intention to quit.

Table 4.53: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 7c

Predictors	Intention to Quit
Step 1	
Gender	.064
Age	-.615***
Education	-.073
Tenure	.275**
R	.481[a]
R^2	.231
F-Value	10.987***
Step 2	
Gender	.065
Age	-.614***
Education	-.071
Tenure	.276**
Normative Commitment	-.011
R	.481[b]
R^2	.231
F-Value	8.736***
D-W Value	2.037

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, normative commitment

c. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

In analysis of hypothesis 7 and its sub-hypotheses, organisational commitment and its sub-scales (affective, continuance, & normative commitment) seem to be insignificant in relation to employees' intention to quit. The results of this study are somewhat surprising and contradictory to similar studies, given that researchers have consistently found affective and normative commitment to have a significant and negative relationship with employees' intention to quit, while continuance commitment has been found to be insignificant (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Whitener & Walz, 1993). In contrast, Allen and Meyer (1997) support the viewpoint that organisational commitment is a significant predictor of employees' intentions to quit an organisation.

4.5.8 Hypothesis 8: Job satisfaction and organisational commitment

The eighth regression analysis is testing the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The null and alternative hypotheses are listed below.

H_0: $\beta = 0$

H_1: $\beta \neq 0$

$\alpha = 0.05$

The null hypothesis 8 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.*

The alternative hypothesis 8 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 8.a: *There is no significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 8.a: *There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 8.b: *There is no significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 8.b: *There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 8.c: *There is no significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 8.c: *There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment.*

In order to test this hypothesis, multiple linear regression analysis, using forced entry, was also carried out to predict the relationship between job satisfaction (independent/predictor variable) and the three dimensions of organisational commitment: Affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (dependent/outcome variables). To test this relationship, a two-step regression was run, with the biographical variables of gender, age, education, and tenure/experience included in the first step of the regression model as control variables. Job satisfaction was included in the second step of the regression model in order to account for the added variance beyond the control set of variables.

The different assumptions related to the regression for hypothesis 8 were examined:
There was no evidence of multicollinearity found for all the models (with all correlations below one). Moreover, VIFs and tolerance statistics were at acceptable levels, with VIF values below ten and tolerance statistics above 0.1 respectively.
In terms of normality, outliers, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals: There were no visible outliers in all the models for hypothesis 8 and its sub-hypotheses. The histograms and the P-P plots suggested that the data was fairly normally distributed. In addition, the D-W - statistics (hypothesis 8a D-W - 1.933; hypothesis 8b D-W - 2.046; hypothesis 8c D-W - 1.833) indicate that autocorrelation was not a serious problem for the three models (see Table 4.54).

Table 4.54: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 8

Predictors	Dimensions of Organisational Commitment		
	Affective	**Continuance**	**Normative**
Step 1			
Gender	.058	.124	.041
Age	.151	.111	.103
Education	.184	.170	.136
Tenure	-.025	.088	.084
R	.166[a]	.187[a]	.138[a]
R^2	.028	.035	.019
F-Value	1.036	1.316	.706
Step 2			
Gender	.055	.120	.039
Age	.087	.047	.073
Education	.179	.165	.134
Tenure	.006	.119	.098
Job Satisfaction	.150	.149	.069
R	.218[b]	.233[b]	.152[b]
R^2	.047	.054	.023
F-Value	1.445	1.664	.689
D-W Value	1.933	2.046	1.833

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, job satisfaction

c. Dependent variable: Organisational commitment

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

Table 4.54 summarises the results of the regression for hypothesis 8 investigating the relationship between job satisfaction and the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment). In all instances, in the first step of the regression, four predictors were entered as control variables (gender, age, education, &

tenure). The model explained (R^2 = 028), (R^2 = .035), (R^2 = .019) 3%, 4%, and 2% of the variances in affective, continuance, and normative commitment respectively. However, after the entry of job satisfaction, the variance added did not change considerably in all three instances indicating that the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment) did not significantly contribute to employees' job satisfaction.

Based on these results, we fail to reject the null hypotheses in all three instances (hypotheses 8a, 8b, & 8c). We fail to reject the null hypothesis that job satisfaction is not significantly and positively related to affective commitment. We again fail to reject the null hypothesis that job satisfaction is not significantly and positively related to continuance commitment. We also fail to reject the null hypothesis that job satisfaction is not significantly and positively related to normative commitment. Overall, it can be concluded that job satisfaction is not significantly and positively related to organisational commitment and its three sub-scales (affective, continuance, & normative commitment.

In reflection of the findings for hypothesis 8 and its sub-hypotheses, on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment and its sub-scales, existing studies have found inconsistent and contradictory findings, with a number of researchers finding a causal relationship (Bagozzi, 1980; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Reichers, 1985; Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Brown & Peterson, 1994), a correlational relationship (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and an insignificant relationship (Curry *et al.*, 1986) between the two variables. However, recent studies seem to suggest a significant and positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Lok *et al.*, 2007; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Humayoun, 2011).

4.5.9 Hypothesis 9: Employee engagement and job satisfaction

The ninth regression analysis is testing the relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction. The null and alternative hypotheses are listed below.

H_0: $\beta = 0$

H_1: $\beta \neq 0$

$\alpha = 0.05$

The null hypothesis 9 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction.*

The alternative hypothesis 9 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 9.a: *There is no significant positive relationship between vigour and job satisfaction.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 9.a: *There is a significant positive relationship between vigour and job satisfaction.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 9.b: *There is no significant positive relationship between dedication and job satisfaction.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 9.b: *There is a significant positive relationship between dedication and job satisfaction.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 9.c: *There is no significant positive relationship between absorption and job satisfaction.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 9.c: *There is a significant positive relationship between absorption and job satisfaction.*

In order to test this hypothesis, multiple linear regression analysis, using forced entry, was also carried out to predict the relationship between the three dimensions of employee engagement: Vigour, dedication, and absorption (independent/predictor variables) and job satisfaction (dependent/outcome variable). To test this relationship, three different two-step regressions were run, with the biographical variables of gender, age, education, and tenure/experience included in the first steps of the regression models as control variables. The three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption) were included separately in the second steps of the regression models in order to account for the added variance beyond the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure/experience).

The different assumptions related to the regressions for sub-hypotheses 9a, 9b, and 9c were examined:

Multicollinearity: There was no evidence of multicollinearity in all three instances for the three dimensions of employee engagement. Moreover, the VIF and tolerance statistics were at acceptable levels in the three models (with no VIF above ten and no tolerance statistic below 0.1).

Normality, outliers, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals: The scatterplots were analysed for any possible outliers. Utilising Tabachnick and Fidell's (2001) definition of outliers as cases with standardised residuals of more than +3.3 and less than -3.3, there were no visible outliers in all the models for hypothesis 9. The histograms and the normal probability plots suggested that the data was fairly normally distributed.

In terms of testing for autocorrelation, the D-W statistics (hypothesis 9a D-W – 1.925; hypothesis 9b D-W – 1.853; hypothesis 9c D-W–1.812) indicate that autocorrelation was not a serious problem for the three models.

Tables 4.55, 4.56, and 4.57 present the results of the relationship between the three dimensions of employee engagement and job satisfaction, tested separately with job satisfaction as the dependent variable.

4.5.9.1 Hypothesis 9a: Vigour and job satisfaction

Table 4.55 presents the results of the regression, with vigour as the independent variable, and job satisfaction as the dependent variable.

Table 4.55: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 9a

Predictors	**Job Satisfaction**
Step 1	
Gender	.026
Age	.427***
Education	.037
Tenure	-.209*
R	.346[a]
R^2	.120
F-Value	4.972***
Step 2	
Gender	-.075
Age	.315***
Education	.112
Tenure	-.185*
Vigour	.516***
R	.589[b]
R^2	.347
F-Value	15.378***
D-W Value	1.925

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, vigour

c. Dependent variable: Job satisfaction

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

Table 4.55 summarises the results of the regression model for sub-hypothesis 9a investigating the relationship between the first dimension of employee engagement – vigour and job satisfaction.

The R^2 of .120 for step 1 suggests that 12% of the variance in employees' job satisfaction was accounted for by the control variables (gender, age, education, & tenure). After the entry of vigour ($R = .589^b$), the R^2 of .347 for step 2 implied that vigour accounted for a further 23% of total variance in employees' job satisfaction. Vigour was also found to be significantly and positively correlated to employees' job satisfaction ($\beta = .516$, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, the model was found to be significant (step one – $F = 4.972$; $p < 0.001$; step two – $F = 15.378$; $p<0.001$).

Based on the results above, support was found for hypothesis 9a, such that vigour was significantly and positively related to employees' job satisfaction. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

4.5.9.2 Hypothesis 9b: Dedication and job satisfaction

Table 4.56 presents the results of the regression, with dedication as the independent or predictor variable, and job satisfaction as the dependent or outcome variable.

Table 4.56: Results of multiple regression model for Hypothesis 9b

Predictors	Job Satisfaction
Step 1	
Gender	.026
Age	.427***
Education	.037
Tenure	-.209*
R	.346[a]
R^2	.120
F-Value	4.972***
Step 2	
Gender	-.026
Age	.169*
Education	.114
Tenure	-.073
Dedication	.652***
R	.687[b]
R^2	.473
F-Value	25.990***
D-W Value	1.853

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, dedication

c. Dependent variable: Job satisfaction

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

In the first step of the e regression shown (Table 4.56), the control variables were once again entered as predictors. This model was statistically significant (R = .346[a]; p< .001.) R^2 = .120 indicating that the model explained 12% of the variance in job satisfaction. After entry of dedication (the second dimension of employee engagement), the total variance explained by the model increased drastically to R^2 = .473 indicating that dedication accounted for a further 35% of variance in job satisfaction after controlling for gender, age, education, and tenure. The model is significant in both the steps (step 1 F = 4.972; p< 0.001; step 2–F = 25.990; p<

0.001). Based on this, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between dedication and job satisfaction is thus rejected in favour of the alternative. Therefore, support was again found for hypothesis 9b such that dedication is significantly and positively ($\beta = .652$, $p < 0.001$) related to employees' job satisfaction. It can be concluded that the second dimension of employee engagement (dedication) is significantly and positively correlated to job satisfaction.

4.5.9.3 Hypothesis 9c: Absorption and job satisfaction

Table 4.57: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 9c

Predictors	**Job Satisfaction**
Step 1	
Gender	.026
Age	.427***
Education	.037
Tenure	-.209*
R	.346[a]
R^2	.120
F-Value	4.972***
Step 2	
Gender	-.034
Age	.376***
Education	.041
Tenure	-.231*
Absorption	.411***
R	.529[b]
R^2	.279
F-Value	11.248***
D-W Value	1.812

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age
b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, absorption
c. Dependent variable: Job satisfaction
*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

Table 4.57 presents the results of the regression, with absorption as the predictor variable, and job satisfaction as the outcome variable. The R^2 of 0.120 for step 1 suggests that the different control variables accounted for 12% of variance in employees' job satisfaction. However, after the entry of absorption, the R^2 of 0.279 for step 2 suggests that absorption contributed a further 16% variance in employees' job satisfaction. In both instances, the model is significant (step one – $F = 4.972$; $p< 0.001$; step two – $F = 11.248$; $p<0.001$). Based on this, a significant and positive relationship was also found between absorption and employees' job satisfaction ($\beta = .411$; $p< 0.001$). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. Support was found for hypothesis 9c such that absorption is positively related to job satisfaction.

In reflection of hypothesis 9 and its sub-scales, it can be concluded that employee engagement, including its sub-scales (vigour, dedication, & absorption) is significantly and positively related to employees' job satisfaction. This indicates that the more engaged an employee is, the higher the level of satisfaction with their jobs. The results of this study are consisted with existing literature (Harter *et al.*, 2002; Saks, 2006; Gill, 2007; Robyn & Du Preez, 2013) which found employee engagement to be significantly and positively correlated to job satisfaction.

4.5.10 Hypothesis 10: Employee engagement and organisational commitment

The tenth regression analysis is testing the relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment. The null and alternative hypotheses are listed below.

H_0: $\beta = 0$

H_1: $\beta \neq 0$

$\alpha = 0.05$

The null hypothesis 10 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment.*

The alternative hypothesis 10 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 10.a: *There is no significant positive relationship between vigour and the three dimensions of organisational commitment.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 10.a: *There is a significant positive relationship between vigour and the three dimensions of organisational commitment.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 10.b: *There is no significant positive relationship between dedication and the three dimensions of organisational commitment.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 10.b: *There is a significant positive relationship between dedication and the three dimensions of organisational commitment.*

- Null sub-hypothesis 10.c: *There is no significant positive relationship between absorption and the three dimensions of organisational commitment.*
- Alternative sub-hypothesis 10.c: *There is a significant positive relationship between absorption and the three dimensions of organisational commitment.*

In order to test hypothesis 10, three multiple regressions, using forced entry, were carried out to predict the relationship between the three dimensions of employee engagement: Vigour, dedication, and absorption (independent/predictor variables) and the three dimensions of organisational commitment: Affective, continuance, and normative commitment (dependent/outcome variables). To test this relationship, three separate two-step regressions were run, with the biographical variables of gender, age, education, and tenure/experience included in the first steps of the regression models as control variables. The three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption) were included separately in the second steps of the regression models in order to account for the added variance beyond the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure/experience).

The results of the regression models are provided, with the first regression model (Table 4.58) testing the relationship between the first dimension of employee engagement - vigour (predictor) and the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment) as dependent variables, performed separately. The same process was performed to test the relationships between the other two dimensions of employee engagement as predictors (dedication - Table 4.59; absorption - Table 4.60) with the three dimensions of organisational commitment.

The assumptions related to the regression models were checked. The results showed no evidence of multicollinearity for the regressions. The VIFs and the tolerance statistics were also found to be at acceptable levels (with no VIF above ten and no tolerance statistic below 0.1 respectively). In terms of checking for outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals the scatter plots seemed to show no evidence of possible outliers based on Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) range of +3.3 to -3.3 for all the regressions accordingly. Moreover, normality was checked by looking at the histograms and the normal probability plots which seemed to suggest that the data was normally distributed. In addition, autocorrelation was tested by looking at the values of the D–W statistics (see Tables 4.58, 4.59, and 4.60), which are very close to two, suggesting that autocorrelation was not a serious problem for the models.

Tables 4.58, 4.59, and 4.60 below present the results of the relationship between the three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, and absorption) and the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment), tested separately as the dependent variable(s).

The first, Table 4.58 for sub-hypothesis 10a, investigates the relationship between the first dimension of employee engagement−vigour (independent/predictor variable) and the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment).

Table 4.58: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 10a

Predictors	Dimensions of Organisational Commitment		
	Affective	Continuance	Normative
Step 1			
Gender	.058	.124	.041
Age	.151	.111	.103
Education	.184	.170	.136
Tenure	-.025	.088	.084
R	.166[a]	.187[a]	.138[a]
R^2	.028	.035	.019
F-Value	1.036*	1.316*	.706*
Step 2			
Gender	.019	.094	.025
Age	.106	.077	.085
Education	.214*	.193	.148
Tenure	-.016	.094	.088
Vigour	.205*	.153	.083
R	.252[b]	.234[b]	.158[b]
R^2	.063	.055	.025
F-Value	1.958*	1.675	.741
D-W Value	1.936	2.072	1.847

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, vigour

c. Dependent variable: Organisational commitment

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

In the first step of the regression model (Table 4.58), the control variables were entered. This model was statistically significant ($R = .166^a$; $p < .05$.) $R^2 = .028$ indicating that the model explained 3% of the variance in affective commitment. In the second step, after the entry of vigour (a dimension of employee engagement) the total variance explained by the model as a whole was .063 indicating that vigour accounted for an additional 3% of variance in affective commitment ($F = 1.958$; $p < .05$). The result is significant at the 5% level of significance. This means that vigour is significantly and positively related to affective commitment ($\beta = .205$; $p < 0.05$).

The same process was performed for the other two dimensions of organisational commitment (continuance, & normative commitment). However, the introduction of vigour (predictor) in the second step of the regression slightly improved the models, although it showed insignificant results at all levels of significance. This basically means that vigour is not significantly related to continuance or normative commitment.

Based on these results, sub-hypothesis 10a is partially accepted such that vigour is significantly and positively related to affective commitment at the 5% level of significance. However, the results also reflect that vigour is not related to continuance commitment or normative commitment at all levels of significance.

Table 4.59 presents the results of the multiple regression models for sub-hypothesis 10b, investigating the relationship between the second dimension of employee engagement - dedication (predictor variable) and the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment).

Table 4.59: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 10b

Predictors	Dimensions of Organisational Commitment		
	Affective	**Continuance**	**Normative**
Step 1			
Gender	.058	.124	.041
Age	.151	.111	.103
Education	.184	.170	.136
Tenure	-.025	.088	.084
R	.166[a]	.187[a]	.138[a]
R^2	.028	.035	.019
F-Value	1.036	1.316	.706
Step 2			
Gender	.045	.112	.034
Age	.084	.053	.069
Education	.204	.187	.146
Tenure	.010	.118	.102
Dedication	.169	.144	.086
R	.226[b]	.228[b]	.158[b]
R^2	.051	.052	.025
F-Value	1.566	1.591	.746
D-W Value	1.935	2.062	1.840

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age

b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, dedication

c. Dependent variable: Organisational commitment

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

Table 4.59 provides the results of the multiple regressions, with the dimensions of organisational commitment as the dependent variable(s), and dedication, gender, age, education, and tenure as independent variables. The same process as in Table 4.58 was performed here. However, the results show that dedication is not significantly related to all the three dimensions of organisational commitment at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels of significance. Based on this, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that dedication is not related to organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment).

Table 4.60 presents the results of the regression models, with absorption as the independent or predictor variable, and the three dimensions of organisational commitment as the dependent or outcome variable(s). The control variables are included for added variance.

Table 4.60: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 10c

Predictors	**Dimensions of Organisational Commitment**		
	Affective	**Continuance**	**Normative**
Step 1			
Gender	.058	.124	.041
Age	.151	.111	.103
Education	.184	.170	.136
Tenure	-.025	.088	.084
R	.166[a]	.187[a]	.138[a]
R^2	.028	.035	.019
F-Value	1.036	1.316	.706
Step 2			
Gender	.052	.112	.032
Age	.145	.100	.095
Education	.185	.171	.137
Tenure	-.028	.083	.080
Absorption	.045	.084	.064
R	.172[b]	.204[b]	.151[b]
R^2	.030	.041	.023
F-Value	.883	1.253	.678
D-W Value	1.889	2.001	1.825

a. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age
b. Predictors: (Constant), tenure, gender, education, age, absorption
c. Dependent variable: Organisational commitment
*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

Table 4.60 shows the results of the multiple regression models for hypothesis 10c. Affective commitment was regressed against absorption (the last dimension of employee engagement), after controlling for gender, age, education and tenure. The results again show that absorption is not significantly related to affective commitment at all levels of significance.

The same process was done with the other dimensions of organisational commitment (continuance, & normative commitment), with control variables included in the first and the second steps for added variance in absorption. In both instances, the results again proved to be insignificant. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that absorption is not significantly related to the three dimensions of organisational commitment. It can be concluded that absorption is not significantly related to organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment).

In reflection of hypothesis 10 and its sub-hypotheses, the results indicate that employee engagement is not significantly related to organisational commitment. The findings showed that one dimension of employee engagement (vigour) was found to be significantly and positively correlated to affective commitment at the 5% level of significance. However, all the other models for hypothesis 10 revealed insignificant results between employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption) and organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment). The findings of this study are somewhat inconsistent and contradictory to existing literature (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Field & Buitendach, 2011; Gruman & Saks, 2011) which found employee engagement to be significantly related to organisational commitment.

The next section of the study seeks to investigate the indirect (or mediated) relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. Organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction are the mediating variables that are being tested accordingly.

4.6 Mediation Analysis (Testing for Mediation)

In order to ascertain the indirect effects of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit, mediation was utilised. As such, Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation was adopted to determine the mediating influences of organisational commitment, employee engagement and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. A detailed account of the mediation process based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) conceptualisation of mediation was given in chapter three. The authors postulated that "a variable may be said to function as a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1176).

Based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation, three step regression analyses were run for hypotheses 11, 12 and 13 respectively, in order to investigate the influence of the mediator variables (organisational commitment, employee engagement, & job satisfaction) on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. In step 1, the mediator variable is regressed on the predictor variable, such that the mediator variable is treated as the outcome variable. In the second step, the outcome variable is regressed on the predictor variable. In the final step (step 3), in order to ensure full mediation, the outcome variable is regressed on the predictor variable and the mediator (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The control variables used in previous regression analyses were included accordingly:

- Gender (1 = Female; 2 = Male).
- Age (1 = 18- 20 years; 2 = 21 - 30 years; 3 = 31 - 40 years; 4 = 41 - 50 years; 5 = 51 or older).
- Education (1 = Grade 11 or lower; 2 = Grade 12 (Matric); 3 = Diploma/Certificate; 4 = Bachelor's degree; 5 = Post-Graduate degree).
- Tenure/Experience (1 = Less than 1 year; 2 = 1 - 3 years; 3 = +3 - 5 years; 4 = +5 - 7 years; 5 = 7+ years).

The following hypotheses are thus stated, to test the triple effects of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit (see Table 4.61).

Table 4.61: The mediating influences of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction

Hypothesis 11 **(mediating effect of organisational commitment)**	**The null hypothesis 11 (H_0) is:** *Organisational commitment does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.* **The alternative hypothesis 11 (H_1) is:** *Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
Hypothesis 12 **(mediating effect of employee engagement)**	**The null hypothesis 12 (H_0) is:** *Employee engagement does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.* **The alternative hypothesis 12 (H_1) is:** *Employee engagement mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
Hypothesis 13 **(mediating effect of job satisfaction)**	**The null hypothesis 13 (H_0) is:** *Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.* **The alternative hypothesis 13 (H_1) is:** *Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*

4.6.1 The mediating influence of organisational commitment on the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.

The eleventh regression analysis is testing the mediating influence of organisational commitment on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. Based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation, a three-step regression analysis was run for hypothesis 11 in order to investigate the influence of the mediator variable (organisational commitment) on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. In step 1, the mediator variable (organisational commitment), was regressed on the predictor variable (talent management practices) such that the mediator variable was treated as the outcome variable. In the second step, the outcome variable (intention to quit) was regressed on the predictor variable (talent management practices). In the final step (step 3), in order to ensure full mediation, the outcome variable (intention to quit) was regressed on the predictor variable (talent management practices) and the mediator variable (organisational commitment). The control variables: Gender, age, education, and tenure/experience were also included in the regression analysis.

Descriptive statistics and correlations reflected in the regression for step 1 of hypothesis 11 are shown in Table 4.62.

Table 4.62: Descriptive statistics and correlations for hypothesis 11 (step 1)

Variables		Mean	SD					
Pearson Correlation & Sig. (1-tailed	**Organisational Commitment**	3.24	0.854					
	Gender	0.58	0.495	.077				
	Age	3.61	0.985	.075	.148*			
	Education	3.53	1.118	.065	-.176	-.582***		
	Tenure	3.60	1.361	.039	.004	.563***	-.507***	
	Talent Management Practices	3.35	0.639	.199*	.021	.101	.078	-.063

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; n = 151*

In reflection on the correlations for hypothesis 11, step 1 (Table 4.62), an initial significant relationship between the mediator (organisational commitment) as an outcome/predicted variable, and the predictor/independent variable (talent management practices) is found at the 5% level of significance.

The different assumptions related to the regression were examined:

There was no evidence of multicollinearity found in Table 4.62 (with all correlations below one). Moreover, VIFs and tolerance statistics were at acceptable levels, with VIF values below ten and tolerance statistics above 0.1 respectively (see Table 4.63).

Table 4.63: Coefficients of the regression model (hypothesis 11) (step 1)

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	1.439	.626		2.298	.023	.201	2.677					
Gender	.150	.142	.087	1.055	.293	-.131	.432	.077	.087	.085	.949	1.054
Age	.081	.095	.093	.849	.397	-.107	.269	.075	.070	.068	.535	1.870
Education	.123	.080	.161	1.540	.126	-.035	.281	.065	.127	.124	.590	1.695
Tenure	.050	.064	.080	.779	.437	-.077	.177	.039	.065	.063	.617	1.622
Talent Management Practices	.241	.110	.181	2.190	.030	.024	.459	.199	.179	.176	.950	1.052

a. Dependent variable: organisational commitment

Outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals: The scatter plot was used to check for any possible outliers, with Tabachnick and Fidell’s (2007) definition of outliers adopted. There were no outliers beyond the cut-off points +3.3/ -3.3 for the standardised residual cases (see Figure 4.4).

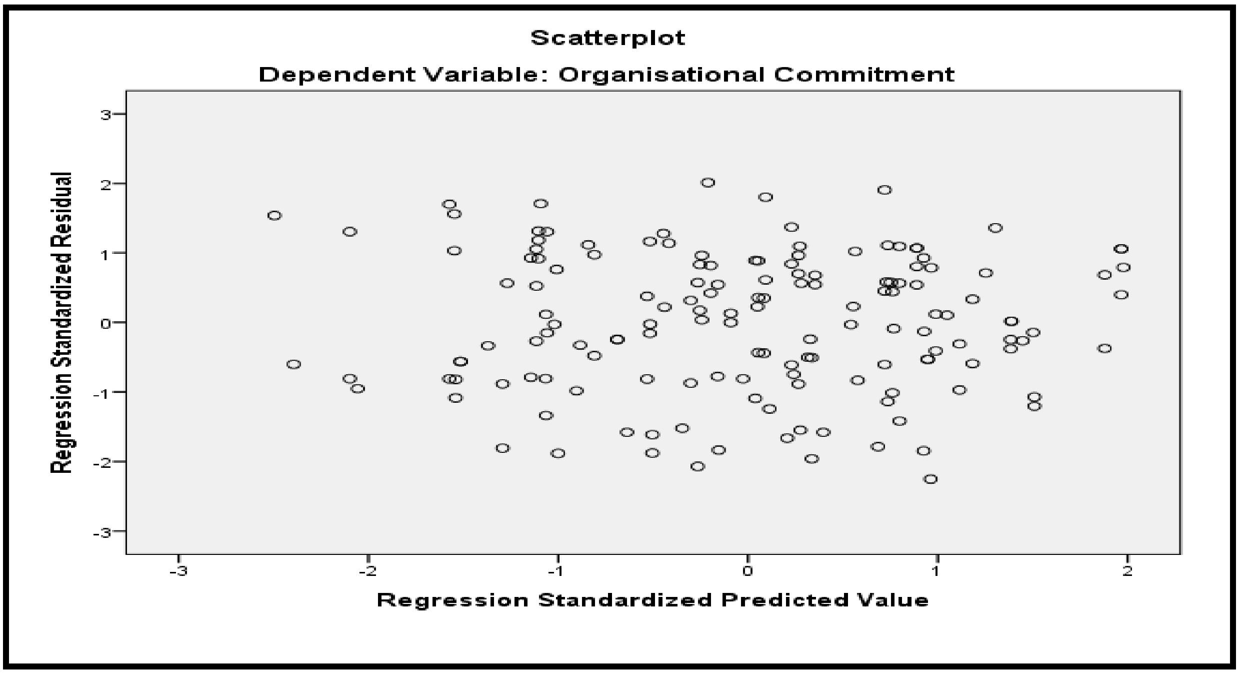


Figure 4.4: Scatterplot for hypothesis 11 (step 1)

According to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010) normality can be checked by looking at the normal probability plot. In this case, normality was assessed by using a histogram (Figure 4.5) and P-P plot (Figure 4.6), which both indicate that the data is normally distributed.

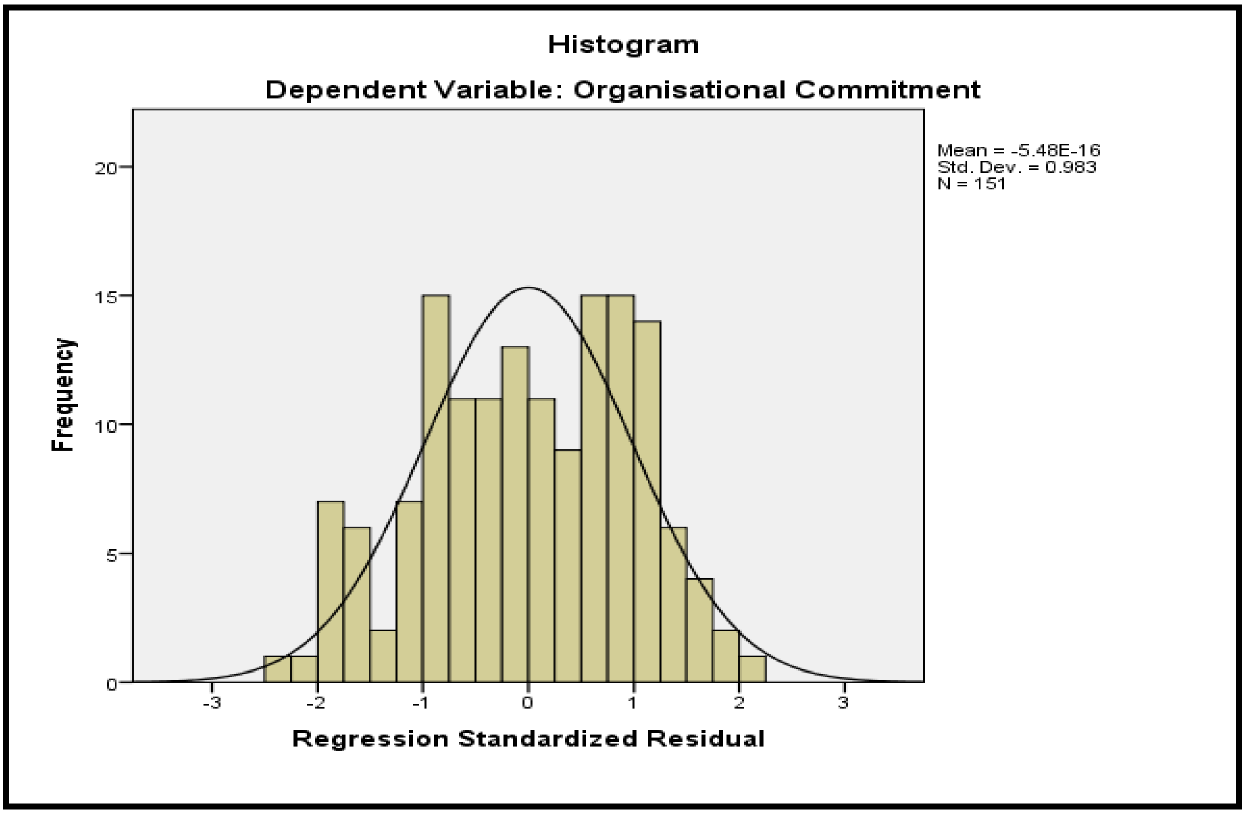


Figure 4.5: Histogram for hypothesis 11 (step 1)

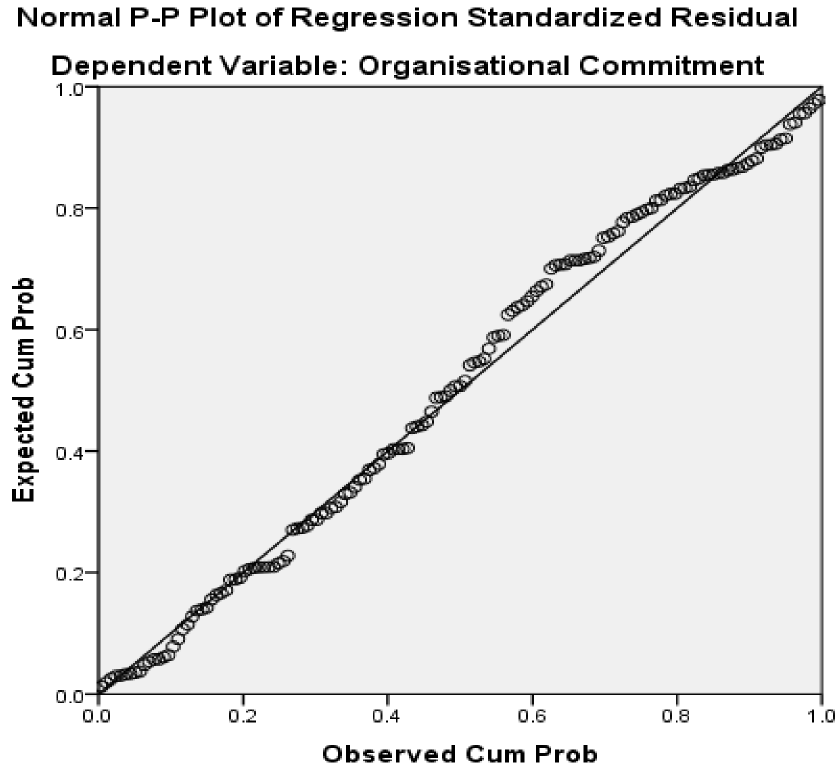


Figure 4.6: Normal P-P plot for hypothesis 11 (step 1)

The descriptive statistics and correlations for steps 2 and 3 of the regression are reflected in Table 4.64, with intention to quit as the dependent/outcome variable.

Table 4.64: Descriptive statistics and correlations for hypothesis 11 (steps 2 & 3)

Variables		Mean	SD						
Pearson Correlation and Sig. (1-tailed)	**Intention to Quit**	2.79	1.131						
	Gender	.583	0.494	- .013					
	Age	3.62	0.985	-.409***	.148*				
	Education	3.53	1.118	.135*	-.176*	-.582***			
	Tenure	3.61	1.361	-.034	.004	.563***	-.507***		
	Talent Management Practices	3.35	0.639	-.459***	.021	.101	.078	-.063	
	Organisational Commitment	3.24	0.854	-.026	.077	.075	.065	.039	.199*

*Notes: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; n = 151*

An initial significant relationship is found in Table 4.64, between the predictor variable, talent management practices, and the outcome variable, intention to quit. However, the mediator (organisational commitment) seemed to be insignificant in relation to intention to quit.

A brief summary of the assumptions of the regression are provided:

Table 4.64 shows no evidence of multicollinearity in the data. Moreover, the VIF and the tolerance statistics were found to be at acceptable levels, with no VIF values above ten, and with no tolerance values below 0.1 for the different variables under study (see Table 4.65).

Table 4.65: Coefficients for the regression model (hypothesis 11) (steps 2 & 3)

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	6.488	.676		9.601	.000	5.152	7.823					
Gender	.158	.154	.069	1.026	.307	-.146	.461	-.013	.085	.067	.949	1.054
Age	-.583	.103	-.508	-5.672	.000	-.786	-.380	-.409	-.426	-.371	.535	1.870
Education	-.004	.086	-.004	-.046	.963	-.174	.166	.135	-.004	-.003	.590	1.695
Tenure	.187	.069	.224	2.692	.008	.050	.324	-.034	.218	.176	.617	1.622
Talent Management Practices	-.698	.119	-.394	-5.872	.000	-.932	-.463	-.459	-.438	-.384	.950	1.052
2 (Constant)	6.331	.687		9.218	.000	4.973	7.688					
Gender	.141	.154	.062	.917	.360	-.163	.446	-.013	.076	.060	.942	1.062
Age	-.592	.103	-.515	-5.753	.000	-.795	-.388	-.409	-.432	-.376	.532	1.879
Education	-.017	.087	-.017	-.200	.842	-.189	.154	.135	-.017	-.013	.581	1.723
Tenure	.181	.069	.218	2.612	.010	.044	.318	-.034	.213	.171	.614	1.629
Talent Management Practices	-.724	.121	-.409	-6.006	.000	-.962	-.486	-.459	-.448	-.392	.920	1.087
Organisational Commitment	.109	.089	.082	1.219	.225	-.068	.286	-.026	.101	.080	.937	1.068

a. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

Assumptions of normality, outliers, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of residuals: The scatter plot was used to check for any possible outliers, with Tabachnick and

Fidell's (2007) definition of outliers adopted. There were no outliers beyond the cut-off points +3.3/ -3.3 for the standardised residuals cases (see Figure 4.7).

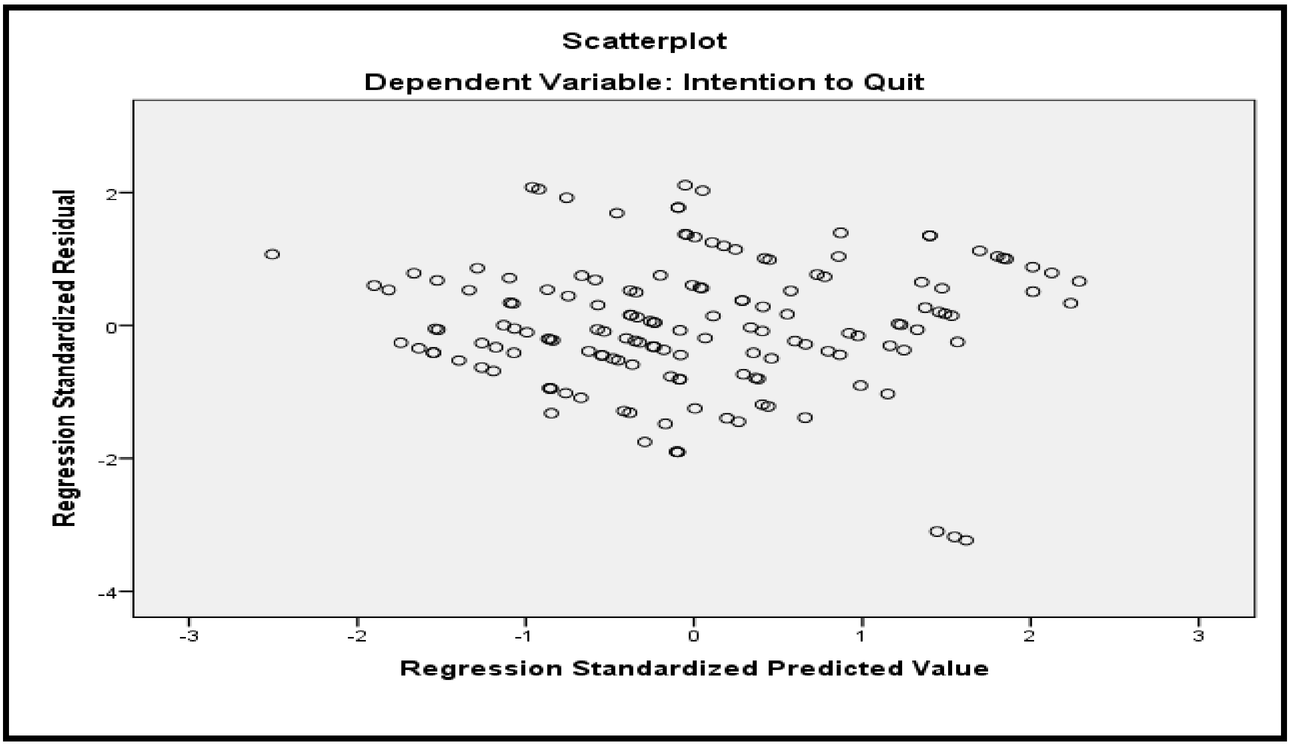


Figure 4.7: Scatterplot for hypothesis 11 (steps 2 & 3)

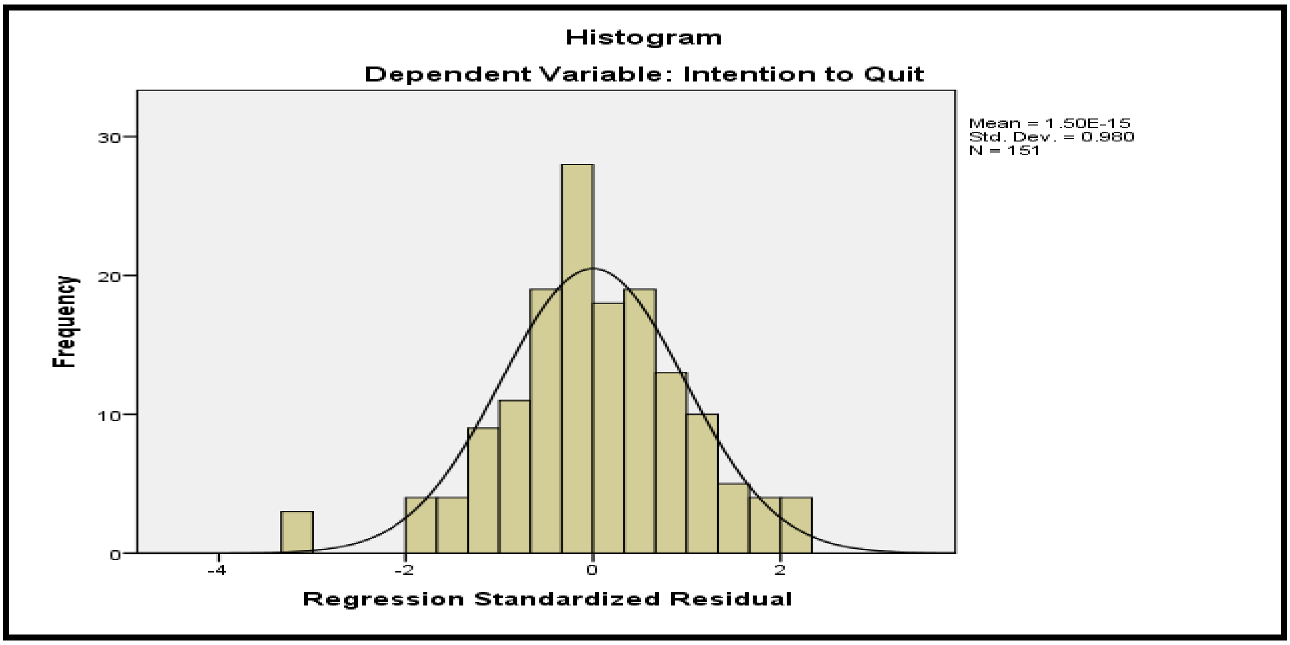


Figure 4.8: Histogram for hypothesis 11 (steps 2 & 3)

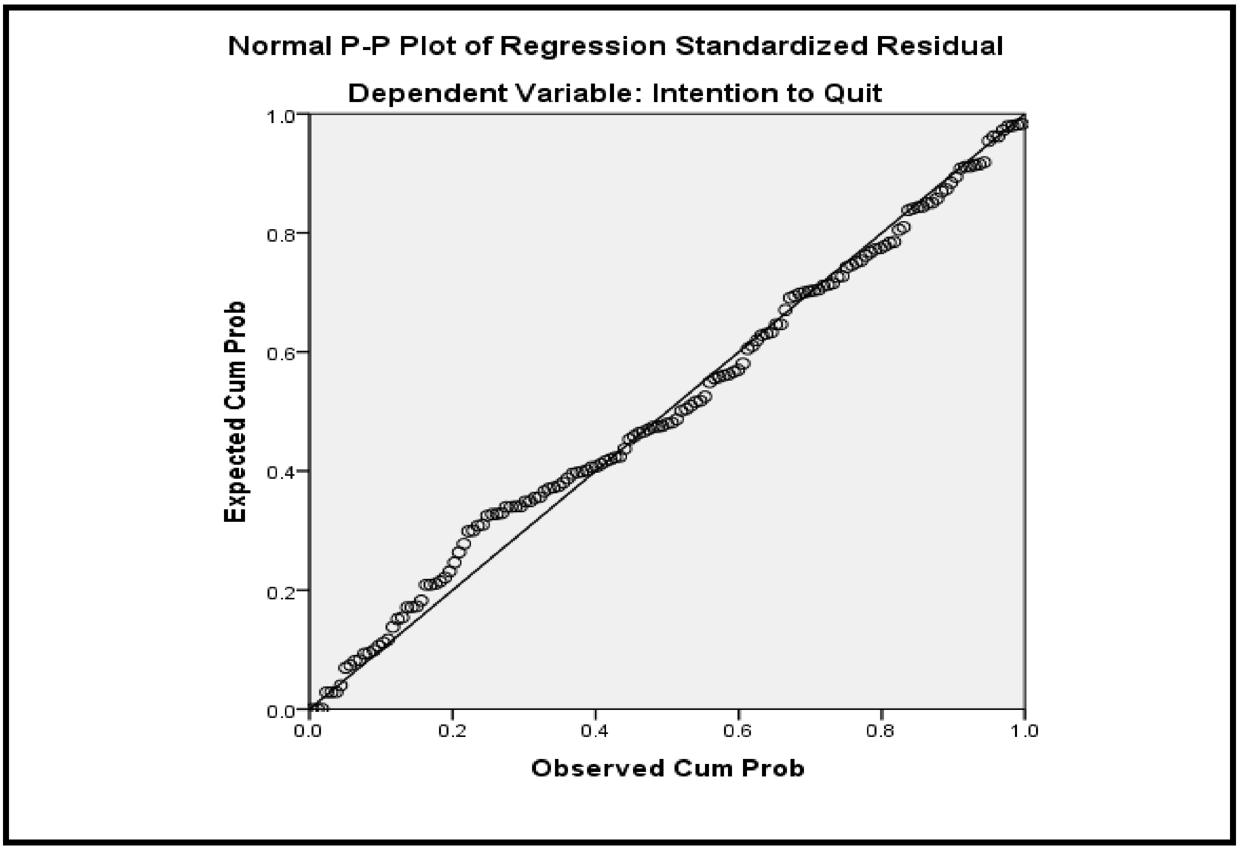


Figure 4.9: Normal P-P plot for hypothesis 11 (steps 2 & 3)

Normality for steps 2 and 3 of hypothesis 11 was assessed by means of a histogram (Figure 4.8) and P-P plot (Figure 4.9) based on Ghauri and Gronhaug's (2010) recommendations, which both indicate that the data was fairly normally distributed.

Autocorrelation: Autocorrelation for hypothesis 11 was also not a serious problem for the models–step 1, and steps 2 and 3 (see Table 4.66).

The results of the mediation analysis for hypothesis 11 are illustrated in Table 4.66.

All models are significant (step 1 – F = 1.962; $p<0.05$; step 2 – F = 17.703; $p<0.001$; step 2 – F = 15.050; $p<0.001$). In order to establish mediation, the three conditions proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) must be met. Therefore in step 1, the predictor variable (talent management practices) must affect the mediator (outcome) variable (organisational commitment). The results for step 1 showed that talent management practices was significantly and positively related to organisational commitment accordingly ($\beta = .181$; $p < 0.05$).

In step two, based on Baron and Kenny's conceptualisation, the predictor variable (talent management practices) in the second regression must affect the outcome variable (intention to quit). Therefore, step 2 indicates that talent management practices is significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit ($\beta = -.394$; $p<0.001$), this condition was also met. In step 3, in order to ensure full mediation, the mediator variable, (organisational commitment) must impact the outcome variable (intention to quit) in the third regression, while the predictor variable (talent management practices) has no effect.

Looking at the results in step 3 of the regression, the condition was not met as talent management practices remained strongly and significantly related to employees' intention to quit ($\beta = -.409$; $p<0.001$). However, what is surprising about the results is that in step 3 of the regression model, organisational commitment is now insignificant in relation to employees' intention to quit at all levels of significance. Based on this, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that organisational commitment does not mediate the relationship between talent management and employees' intention to quit.

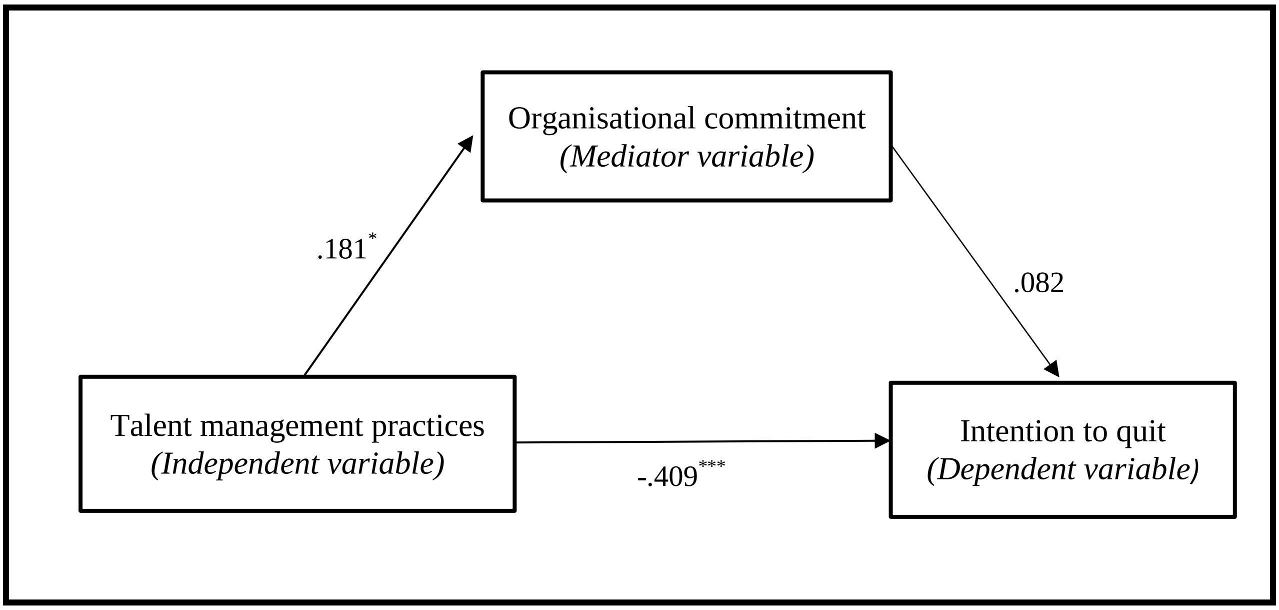
In reflection of hypothesis 11, no support was found for hypothesis 11 because organisational commitment did not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. As such, we can conclude that talent management has a direct significant relationship with employees' intention to quit. This basically means that the higher the perception of the current talent management practices by employees, the lower the levels of employees' intention to quit the organisation. In other words, talent management practices have a direct significant inverse relationship with employees' intention to quit the organisation.

Table 4.66: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 11

Step 1	**Organisational Commitment**
Gender	.087
Age	.093
Education	.161
Tenure	.080
Talent Management Practices	.181*
R	.252
R^2	.063
F-Value	1.962*
D-W Value	2.082
Step 2	**Intention to Quit**
Gender	.069
Age	-.508***
Education	-.004
Tenure	.224**
Talent Management Practices	-.394***
R	.616
R^2	.379
F-Value	17.703***
Step 3	**Intention to Quit**
Gender	.062
Age	-.515***
Education	-.017
Tenure	.218*
Talent Management Practices	-.409***
Organisation Commitment	.082
R	.621
R^2	.385
F-Value	15.050***
D-W Value	2.074

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

The final mediation model for hypothesis 11 is illustrated in Figure 4.10.



*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in the model are standardised beta coefficients*

Figure 4.10: Final mediation model (hypothesis 11)

4.6.2 The mediating influence of employee engagement on the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.

In order to investigate the influence of employee engagement (mediator) on the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit, a three-step regression analysis was once again run for hypothesis 12, based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation, as in the previous instance. In step 1, employee engagement (mediator variable), was regressed on talent management practices (predictor variable), such that the mediator variable was treated as the outcome variable. In the second step, the outcome variable (intention to quit) was regressed on the predictor variable (talent management practices). In the final step (step 3), the outcome variable (intention to quit) was again regressed on the predictor variable (talent management practices) and the mediator variable (employee engagement). The control variables: Gender, age, education, and tenure were also included in the regression analysis accordingly.

Descriptive statistics and correlations reflected in the regression for step 1 of hypothesis 12 are once again shown in Table 4.67.

Table 4.67: Descriptive statistics and correlations for hypothesis 12 (step 1)

Variables		Mean	SD					
Pearson Correlation & Sig. (1-tailed	**Employee Engagement**	5.27	0.875					
	Gender	0.58	0.495	.219**				
	Age	3.62	0.985	.329***	.148*			
	Education	3.53	1.118	-.263**	-.176*	-.582***		
	Tenure	3.61	1.361	.133	.004	.563***	-.507***	
	Talent Management Practices	3.35	0.639	.421***	.021	.101	.078	-.063

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; n = 151*

An initial reflection of the correlations in Table 4.67 for hypothesis 12 (step 1) above, seem to show a significant relationship between the predictor variable (talent management practices), and the mediator variable (employee engagement) as an outcome variable.

The different assumptions related to the regression were examined accordingly:

Multicollinearity: There is no evidence of multicollinearity in the data, with correlations falling way below 0.80 or 0.90 (Field, 2009). Moreover, the VIF and the tolerance statistics were found to be at acceptable levels, with no VIF values above ten, and with no tolerance values below 0.1 for the different variables under study. The results indicate that there are no problems of multicollinearity in the regression model for hypothesis 12, step 1 (see Table 4.68).

Autocorrelation: Testing for autocorrelation was also undertaken, and the D–W statistic of 1.722 for step 1 (see Table 4.71) suggests that autocorrelation was not a serious problem in the model considering that the value is very close to two.

Table 4.68: Coefficients of the regression model (hypothesis 12) (step 1)

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	3.235	.552		5.863	.000	2.144	4.325					
Gender	.269	.125	.152	2.145	.034	.021	.517	.219	.175	.148	.949	1.054
Age	.159	.084	.179	1.896	.060	-.007	.325	.329	.156	.131	.535	1.870
Education	-.142	.070	-.181	-2.014	.046	-.281	-.003	-.263	-.165	-.139	.590	1.695
Tenure	-.022	.057	-.034	-.387	.699	-.134	.090	.133	-.032	-.027	.617	1.622
Talent Management Practices	.563	.097	.411	5.805	.000	.371	.755	.421	.434	.401	.950	1.052

a. Dependent variable: Employee engagement

In terms of the assumptions of normality, outliers, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of residuals: There were no outliers beyond the cut-off points +3.3/ -3.3 for the standardised residual cases (see the scatterplot in Figure 4.11).

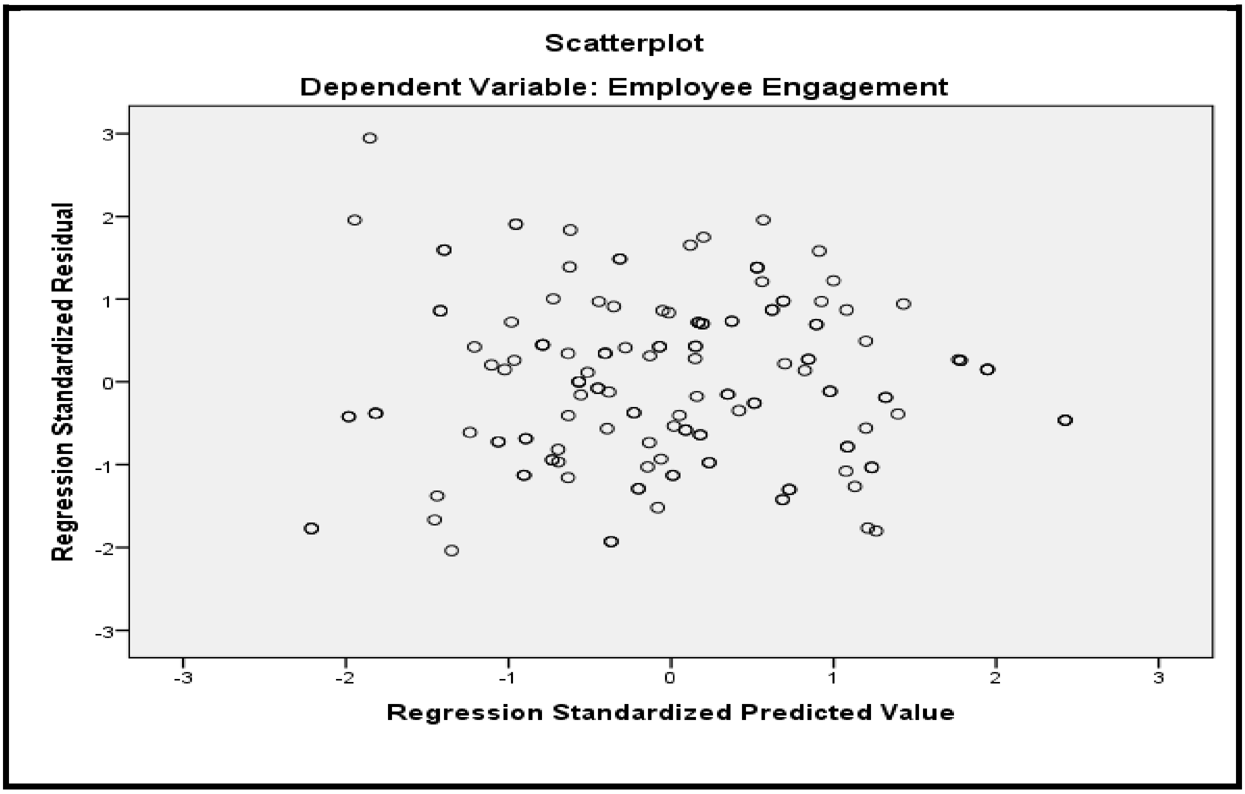


Figure 4.11: Scatterplot for hypothesis 12 (step 1)

Ghauri and Gronhaug (2010) suggest that normality can be checked by looking at the normal probability plot. In this case, the histogram (Figure 4.12) and the P-P plot (Figure 4.13), both suggest that the data is fairly normally distributed

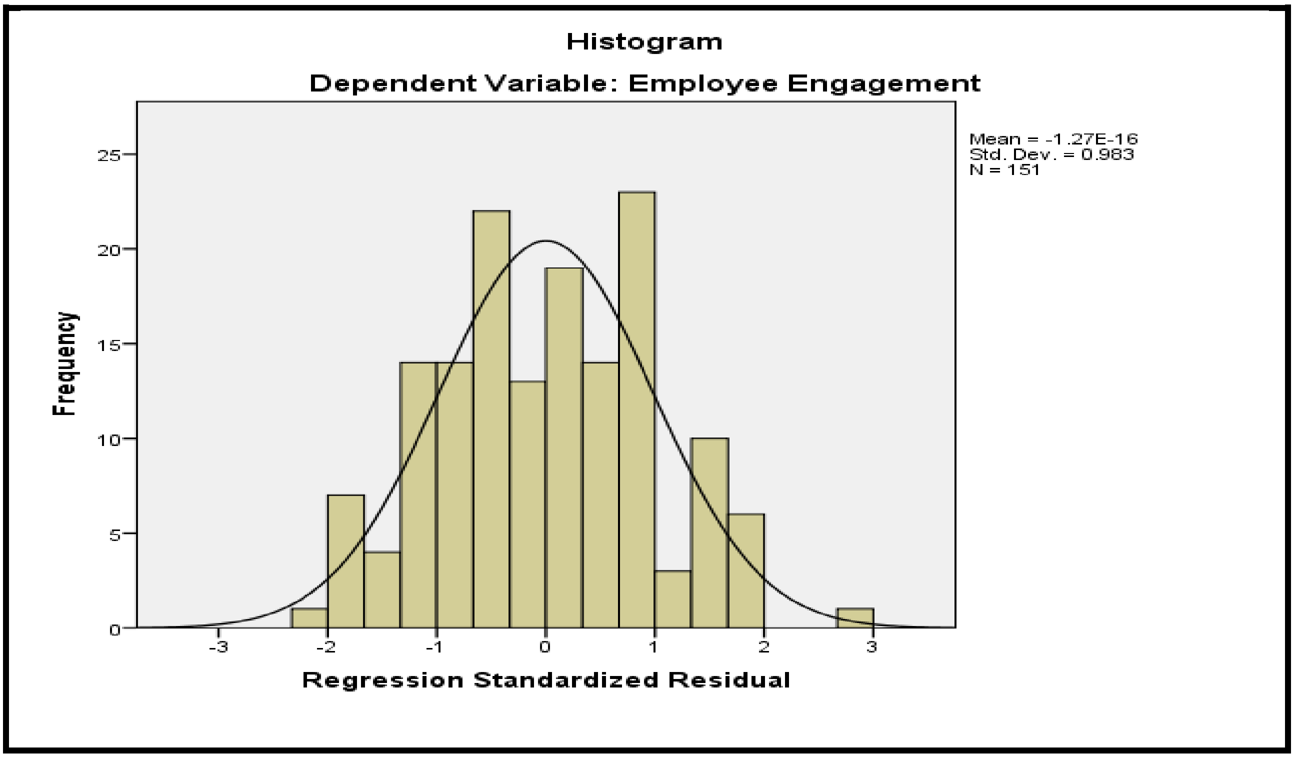


Figure 4.12: Histogram for hypothesis 12 (step 1)

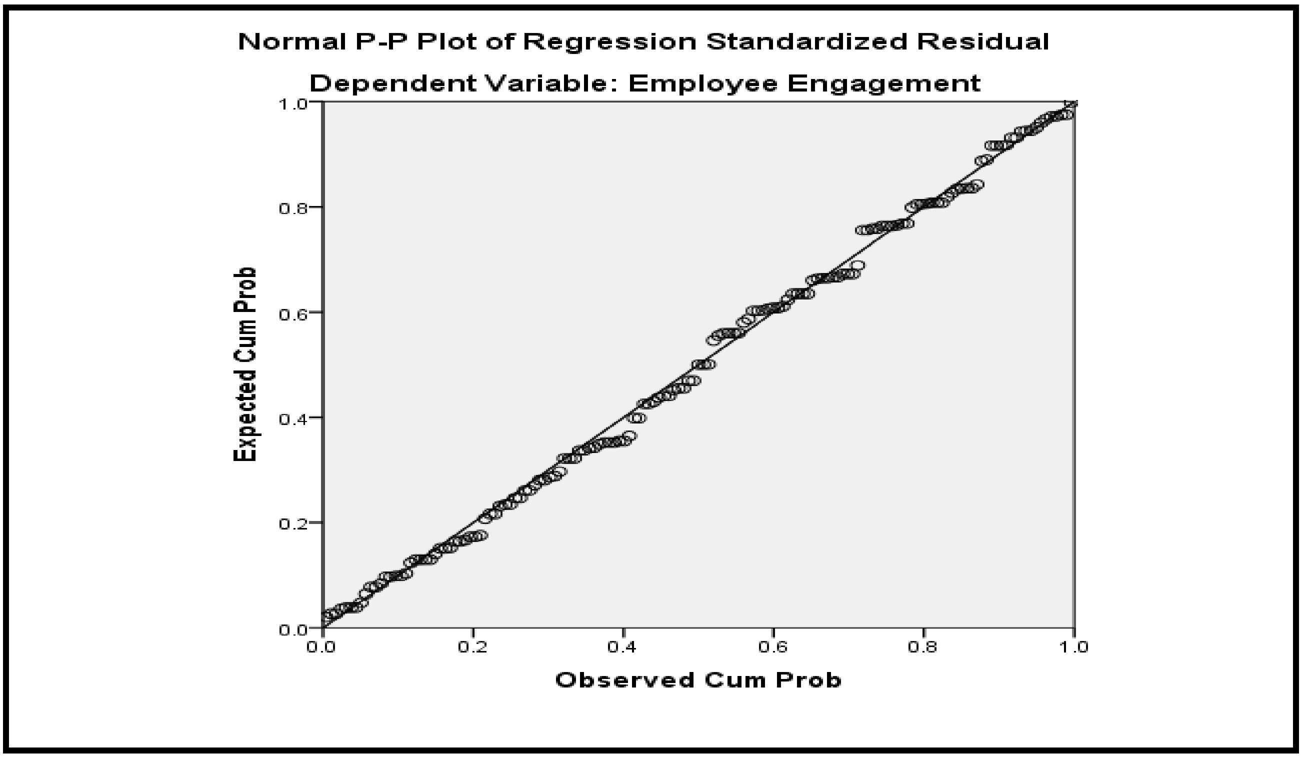


Figure 4.13: Normal P-P plot for hypothesis 12 (step 1)

Descriptive statistics and correlations for steps 2 and 3, using employees' intention to quit as the outcome variable, are shown in Table 4.69.

Table 4.69: Descriptive statistics and correlations for hypothesis 12 (steps 2 & 3)

Variables		Mean	SD						
Pearson Correlation and Sig. (1-tailed)	**Intention to Quit**	2.79	1.132						
	Gender	0.58	0.495	-.013					
	Age	3.62	0.985	-.409***	.148*				
	Education	3.53	1.118	.135*	-.176*	-.582***			
	Tenure	3.61	1.361	-.034	.004	.563***	-.507***		
	Talent Management Practices	3.35	0.639	-.459***	.021	.101	.078	-.063	
	Employee Engagement	5.28	0.875	-.430***	.219**	.329***	-.263**	.133	.421***

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; n = 151*

Taking into consideration the correlations in Table 4.69 for hypothesis 12 (steps 2 & 3), an initial significant relationship is identified between the predictor variable (talent management practices), the mediator variable (employee engagement), and the outcome variable (intention to quit).

An overview of the different assumptions relating to the regression analysis is provided:

Based on the results in Table 4.69, no evidence of multicollinearity is reflected, given that the correlations are way below one. The VIFs and tolerance statistics are below ten and above 0.1 respectively, thus they are found to be at an acceptable level (see Table 4.70). The results indicate that there are no problems of multicollinearity in the regression model for hypothesis 12 (steps 2 & 3). Moreover, testing for autocorrelation was also undertaken, and the D-W statistic of 2.051 for steps 2 and 3 was found (see Table 4.71), which represents a value very close to two. This indicates that autocorrelation was not a serious consideration in the model.

Table 4.70: Coefficients for the regression model (hypothesis 12) (steps 2 & 3)

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	6.488	.676		9.601	.000	5.152	7.823					
	Gender	.158	.154	.069	1.026	.307	-.146	.461	-.013	.085	.067	.949	1.054
	Age	-.583	.103	-.508	-5.672	.000	-.786	-.380	-.409	-.426	-.371	.535	1.870
	Education	-.004	.086	-.004	-.046	.963	-.174	.166	.135	-.004	-.003	.590	1.695
	Tenure	.187	.069	.224	2.692	.008	.050	.324	-.034	.218	.176	.617	1.622
	Talent Management Practices	-.698	.119	-.394	-5.872	.000	-.932	-.463	-.459	-.438	-.384	.950	1.052
2	(Constant)	7.350	.736		9.985	.000	5.895	8.805					
	Gender	.229	.153	.100	1.501	.136	-.073	.532	-.013	.124	.096	.920	1.087
	Age	-.540	.102	-.471	-5.305	.000	-.742	-.339	-.409	-.404	-.340	.522	1.916
	Education	-.042	.086	-.041	-.488	.627	-.211	.127	.135	-.041	-.031	.574	1.742
	Tenure	.181	.068	.217	2.662	.009	.047	.315	-.034	.217	.171	.616	1.624
	Talent Management Practices	-.548	.129	-.309	-4.239	.000	-.803	-.292	-.459	-.333	-.272	.771	1.297
	Employee Engagement	-.267	.100	-.206	-2.676	.008	-.463	-.070	-.430	-.218	-.172	.692	1.446

a. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

Normality, outliers, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of residuals:

The scatter plot was used to check for any possible outliers, with Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) definition of outliers adopted. There were no outliers beyond the cut-off points +3.3/ -3.3 for the standardised residuals cases (see Figure 4.14).

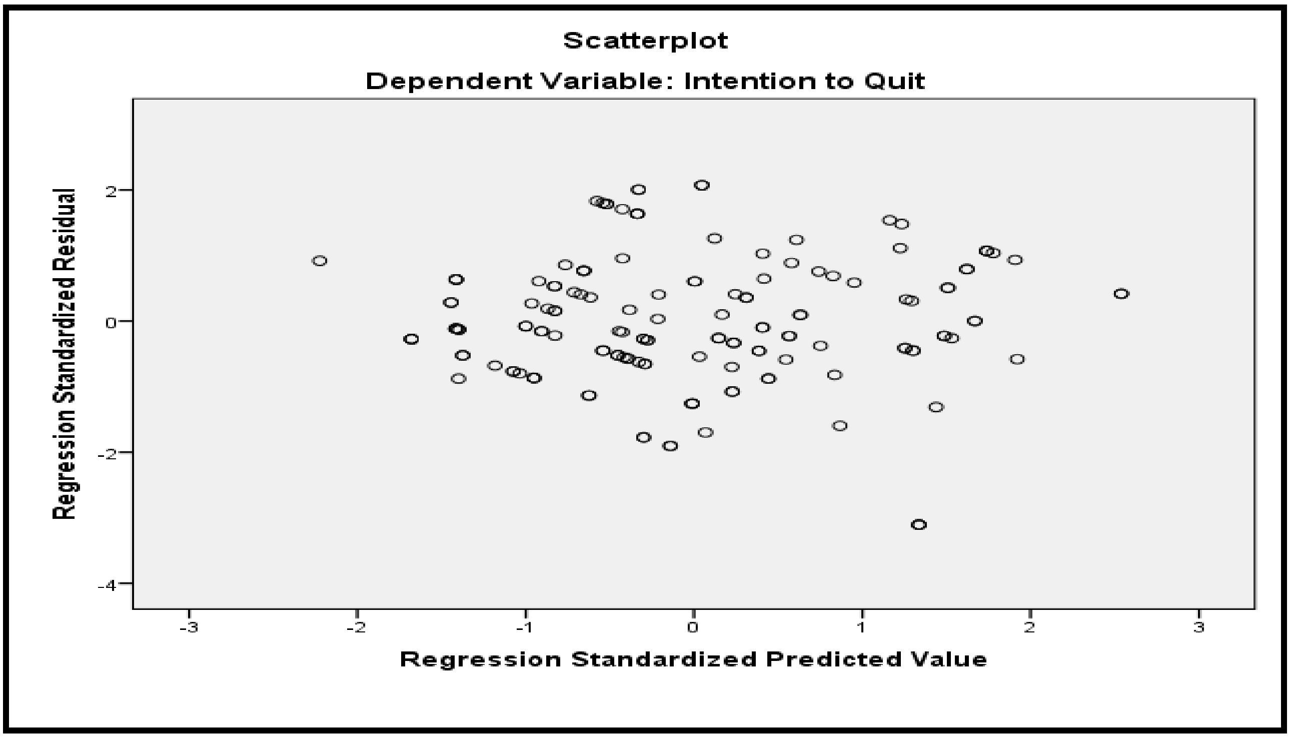


Figure 4.14: Scatterplot for hypothesis 12 (steps 2 & 3)

Normality was assessed by using a histogram (Figure 4.15) and P-P plot (Figure 4.16), which both suggest that the data was fairly normally distributed.

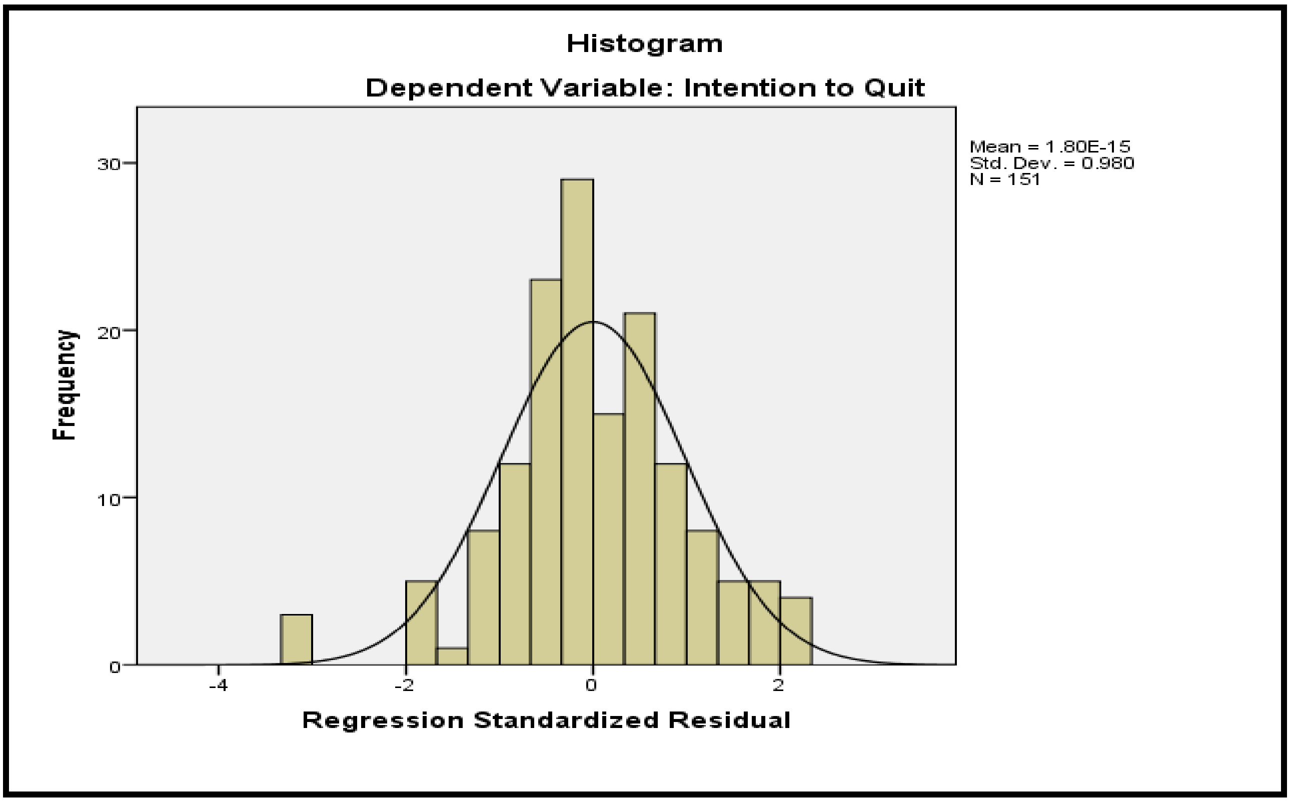


Figure 4.15: Histogram for hypothesis 11 (steps 2 & 3)

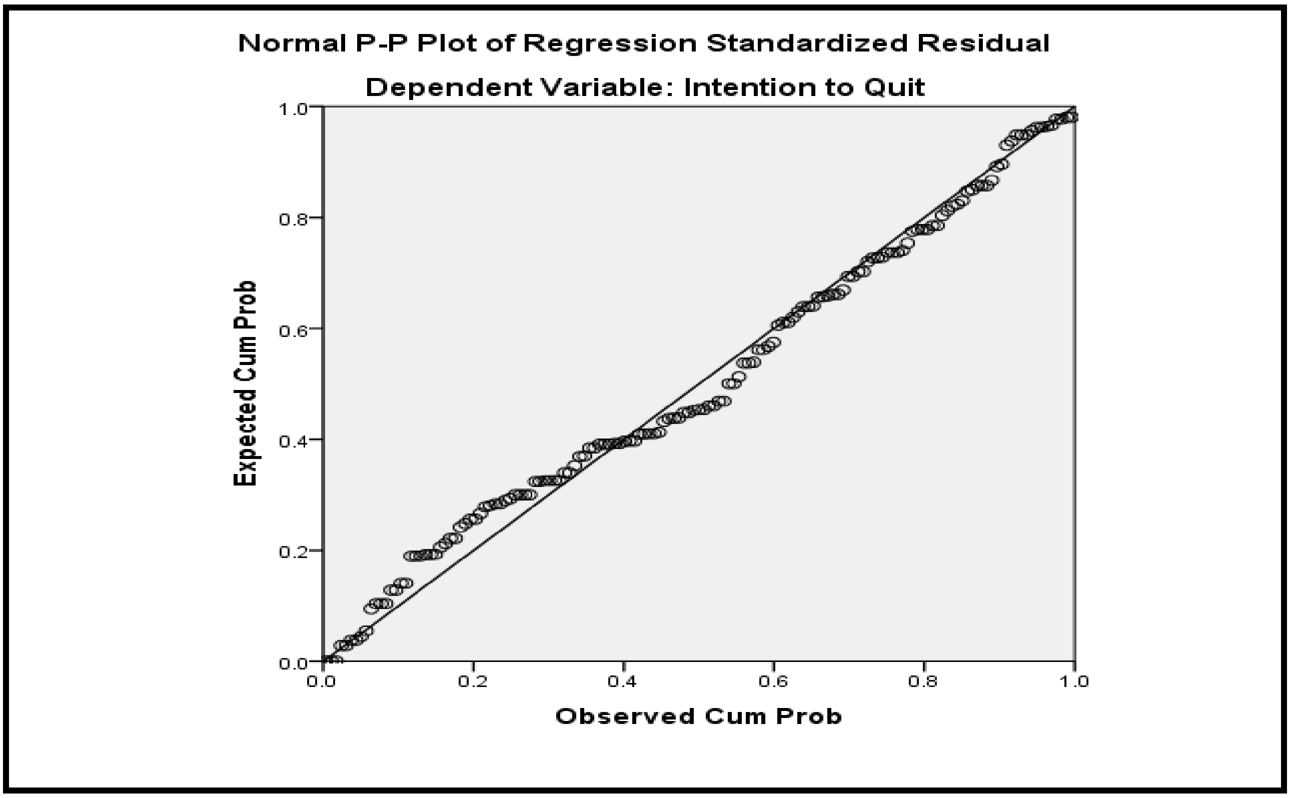


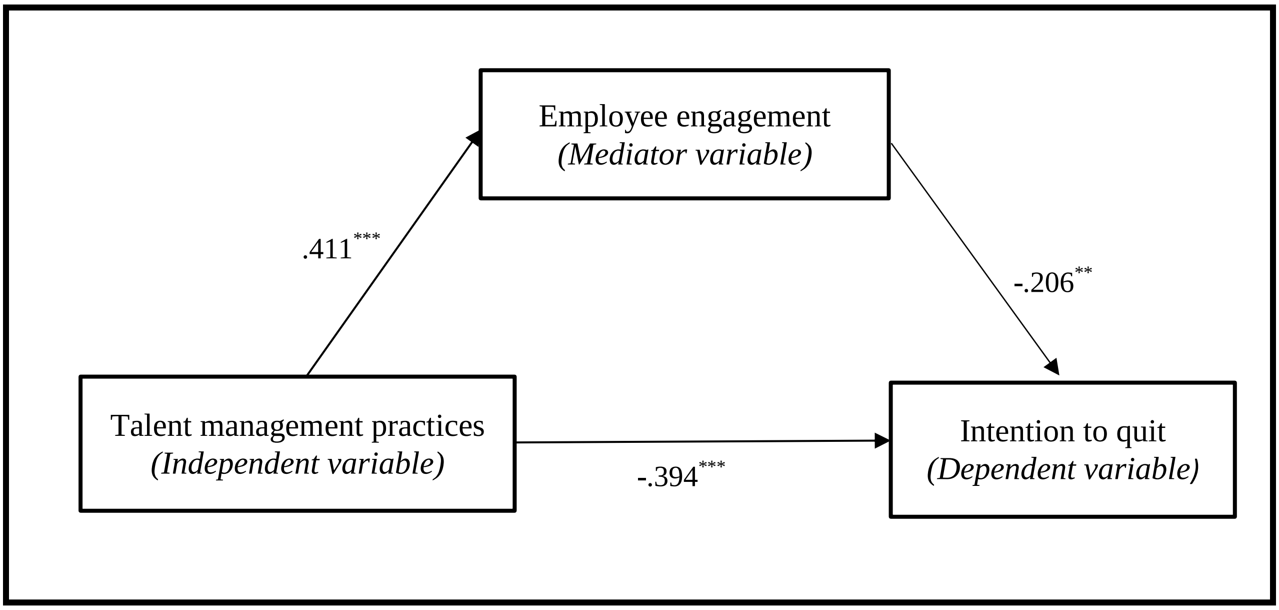
Figure 4.16: Normal P-P plot for hypothesis 12 (steps 2 & 3)

The results of the mediation analysis for hypothesis 12 are shown in Table 4.71. All models are significant (step 1 – F = 12.923; p< 0.001; step 2 – F = 17.703; p< 0.001; step 3 – F = 16.573; p< 0.01). To establish mediation, as in the previous hypothesis, the three conditions recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) must be met. Therefore, in step 1, talent management practices (predictor variable) must affect the mediator (employee engagement) as an outcome variable. Talent management practices was significantly and positively related to employee engagement accordingly (β = .411; p<0.001).

In step 2, based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) proposition, the predictor variable (talent management practices) in the second regression must affect the outcome variable (intention to quit). As talent management practices was significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit (β = -.394; p< 0.001), this condition was also satisfied. In step 3, the mediator variable (employee engagement) must impact the outcome variable (intention to quit), while the predictor variable (talent management practices) has no effect.

In reflection on the results in step 3, only one of these conditions was met as employee engagement (the mediator) is significantly and negatively related to intention to quit (β = -.206; $p< 0.01$). However, talent management practices also remains strongly and significantly related to employees' intention to quit (β = -.309; $p< 0.001$). Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that employee engagement does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. As such, no support was found for hypothesis 12, the alternative hypothesis is therefore rejected.

The final mediation model for hypothesis 12 is illustrated in Figure 4.17.



*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in the model are standardised beta coefficients*

Figure 4.17: Final mediation model (hypothesis 12)

A summary of the results of the mediation analysis for hypothesis 12, with talent management practices as the predictor variable, employee engagement as the mediator variable, and employees' intention to quit the organisation as the outcome variable is given in Table 4.71.

Table 4.71: Results of multiple regression model for hypothesis 12

Step 1	**Employee Engagement**
Gender	.152*
Age	.179
Education	-.181*
Tenure	-.034
Talent Management Practices	.411***
R	.555
R^2	.308
F-Value	12.923***
D-W Value	1.722
Step 2	**Intention to Quit**
Gender	.069
Age	-.508***
Education	-.004
Tenure	.224**
Talent Management Practices	-.394***
R	.616
R^2	.379
F-Value	17.703***
Step 3	**Intention to Quit**
Gender	.100
Age	-.471***
Education	-.041
Tenure	.217**
Talent Management Practices	-.309***
Employee Engagement	-.206**
R	.639
R^2	.408
F-Value	16.573**
D-W Value	2.051

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

4.6.3 The mediating influence of job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.

A final three-step regression analysis was run for hypothesis 13, also based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation, in order to investigate the influence of the mediator variable (job satisfaction) on the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit. In step 1, the mediator variable (job satisfaction), was regressed on the predictor variable (talent management practices), such that the mediator variable was treated as the outcome variable. In the second step, the outcome variable (intention to quit), was regressed on the predictor variable (talent management practices). In the final step (step 3), in order to ensure full mediation, the outcome variable (intention to quit), was regressed on the predictor variable (talent management practices), and the mediator variable (job satisfaction). As in the previous instances, the control variables (gender, age, education, & tenure) were also included in the regression analysis respectively.

Table 4.72 reflects the descriptive statistics (mean, & standard deviation) and the correlation coefficients (intercorrelations) for the various variables in the regression for hypothesis 13 (step 1), with job satisfaction (mediator variable) as the dependent variable.

Table 4.72: Descriptive statistics and correlations for hypothesis 13 (step 1)

Variables		Mean	SD					
Pearson Correlation & Sig. (1-tailed	Job Satisfaction	3.03	0.746					
	Gender	0.58	0.494	.081				
	Age	3.61	0.985	.292***	.148*			
	Education	3.53	1.118	-.110	-.176*	-.582***		
	Tenure	3.60	1.361	.013	.004	.563***	-.507***	
	Talent Management Practices	3.35	0.639	.599***	.021	.101	.078	-.063

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; n = 151*

An initial reflection of the correlations between the variables shows that talent management practices (predictor variable) is significantly and positively related to the mediator variable (job satisfaction), as an outcome variable.

Different assumptions related to the regression are accordingly examined:

Multicollinearity: There is no evidence of multicollinearity in the data (see Table 4.72). Moreover, the VIF and the tolerance statistics were found to be at acceptable levels, with no VIF values above ten, and with no tolerance values below 0.1 respectively (see Table 4.73). The D-W statistic was used to check whether there is autocorrelation between residuals and that the D-W value of 1.593 is sufficiently close to two suggesting that there is no danger of autocorrelation in the regression for hypothesis 13–step 1 (see Table 4.76).

Normality, outliers, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of residuals: There were no outliers in the model (see Figure 18), and the histogram (see Figure 4.19) and the P-P plot (see Figure 4.20) showed that the data is fairly normally distributed.

Table 4.73: Coefficients for the regression model (hypothesis 13) (step 1)

Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.465	.429		1.084	.280	-.382	1.312					
Gender	.029	.097	.019	.293	.770	-.164	.221	.081	.024	.018	.949	1.054
Age	.206	.065	.272	3.160	.002	.077	.335	.292	.254	.199	.535	1.870
Education	-.041	.055	-.062	-.758	.450	-.150	.067	-.110	-.063	-.048	.590	1.695
Tenure	-.074	.044	-.136	-1.691	.093	-.161	.013	.013	-.139	-.106	.617	1.622
Talent Management Practices	.663	.075	.568	8.797	.000	.514	.812	.599	.590	.553	.950	1.052

a. Dependent variable: Job satisfaction

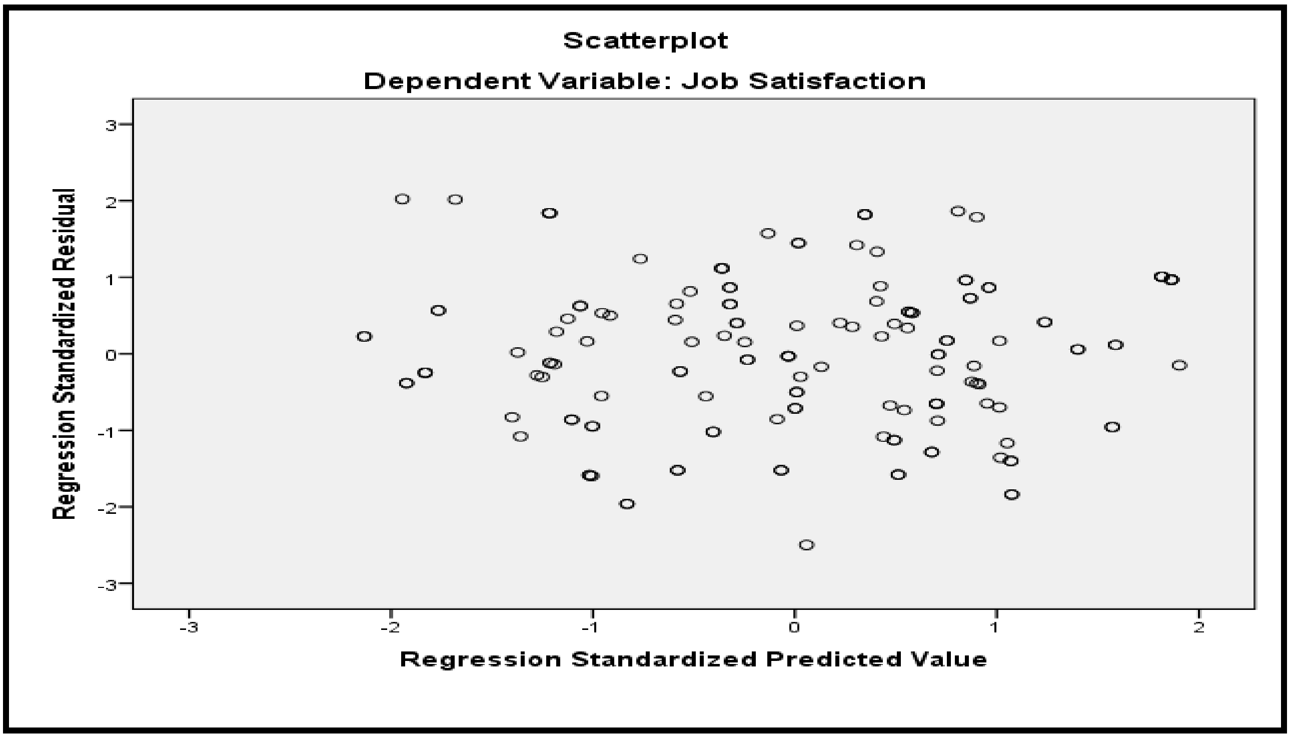


Figure 4.18: Scatterplot for hypothesis 13 (step 1)

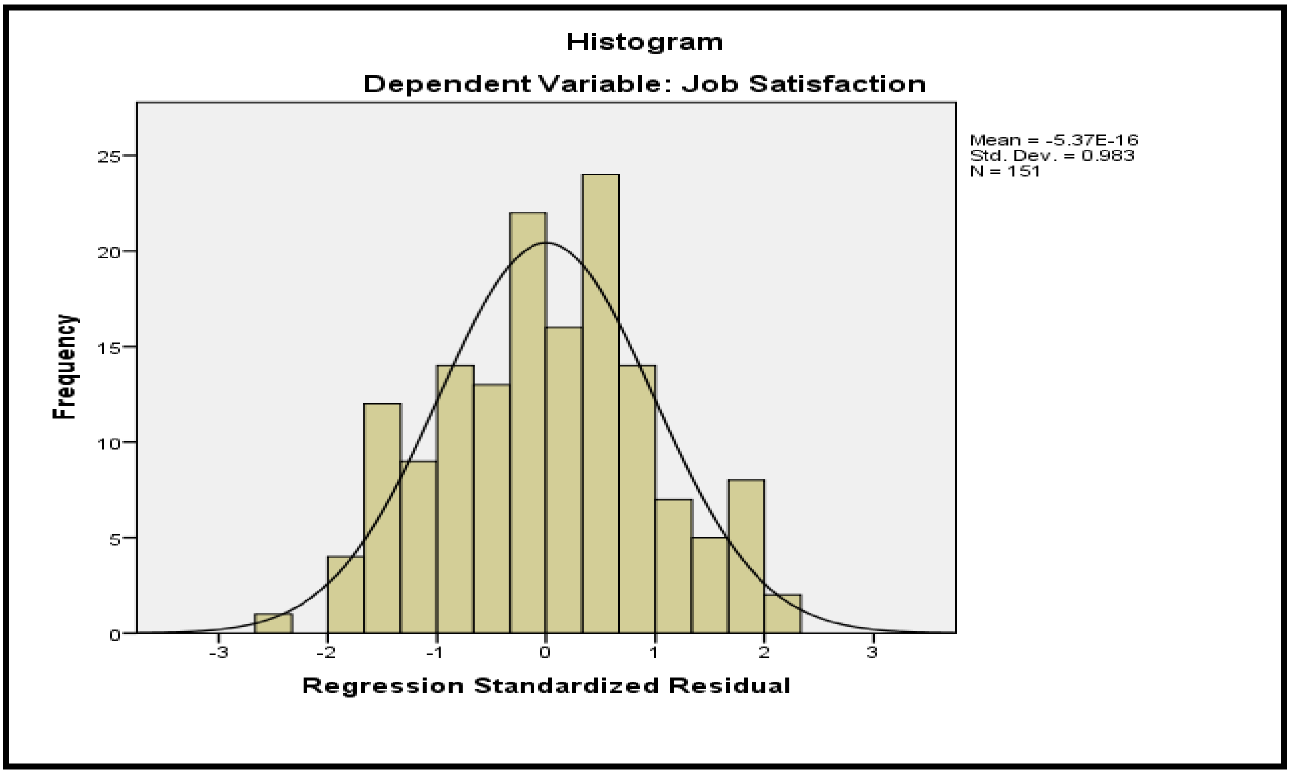


Figure 4.19: Histogram for hypothesis 13 (step 1)

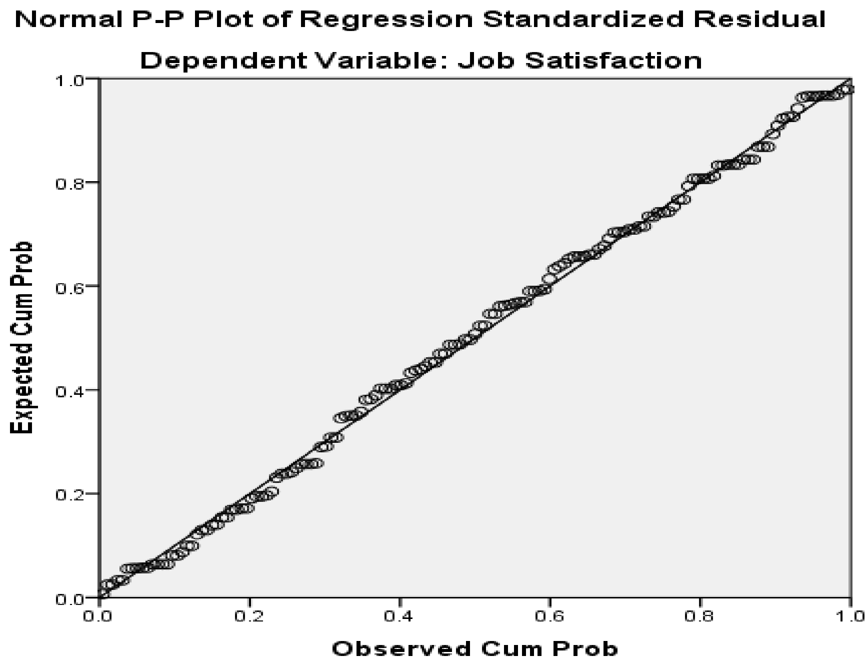


Figure 4.20: Normal P-P plot for hypothesis 13 (step 1)

The descriptive statistics and correlations for hypothesis 13 (steps 2 & 3), using intention to quit as the dependent variable are reflected in Table 4.74.

Table 4.74: Descriptive statistics and correlations for hypothesis 13 (steps 2 & 3)

Variables		Mean	SD						
Pearson Correlation and Sig. (1-tailed)	Intention to Quit	2.79	1.132						
	Gender	0.58	0.495	-.013					
	Age	3.62	0.986	-.409***	.148*				
	Education	3.53	1.118	.135*	-.176*	-.582***			
	Tenure	3.61	1.361	-.034	.004	.563***	-.507***		
	Talent Management Practices	3.35	0.639	-.459***	.021	.101	.078	-.063	
	Job Satisfaction	3.03	0.746	-.544***	.081	.292***	-.110	.013	.599***

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; n = 151*

Reflecting on the correlation results above (Table 4.74), initial significant relationships are ascertained between talent management practices (the predictor), job satisfaction (the mediator), and intention to quit (the outcome).

The different assumptions related to the regression are summarised:

Multicollinearity: There was no evidence of multicollinearity, with all correlations less than 1 (see Table 4.74). Moreover, the VIFs and tolerance statistic results indicate that multicollinearity was not problematic in the regression for hypothesis 13−steps 2 and 3, with no VIFs above ten and no tolerance statistics below 0.1 respectively (see Table 4.75 below).

Normality, outliers, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals: The scatterplot was analysed for any possible outliers based on Tabachnick and Fidell's (2001) definition of outliers, as cases with standardised residuals of more than +3.3 and less than -3.3. There were no visible outliers in the scatter plot for hypothesis 13− steps 2 and 3 (see Figure 4.21). Normality was assessed by checking the histogram (Figure 4.22) and the normal probability plot (Figure 4.23), which both indicate that the data was fairly normally distributed.

Autocorrelation: Testing for autocorrelation was undertaken, and the D-W statistic of 2.048 (see Table 4.76), which represents a value close to two, indicates that autocorrelation was not a problem.

Table 4.75: Coefficients for the regression model (hypothesis 13) (steps 2 & 3)

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	6.488	.676		9.601	.000	5.152	7.823					
	Gender	.158	.154	.069	1.026	.307	-.146	.461	-.013	.085	.067	.949	1.054
	Age	-.583	.103	-.508	-5.672	.000	-.786	-.380	-.409	-.426	-.371	.535	1.870
	Education	-.004	.086	-.004	-.046	.963	-.174	.166	.135	-.004	-.003	.590	1.695
	Tenure	.187	.069	.224	2.692	.008	.050	.324	-.034	.218	.176	.617	1.622
	Talent Management Practices	-.698	.119	-.394	-5.872	.000	-.932	-.463	-.459	-.438	-.384	.950	1.052
2	(Constant)	6.695	.653		10.253	.000	5.405	7.986					
	Gender	.170	.148	.075	1.152	.251	-.122	.463	-.013	.096	.073	.948	1.055
	Age	-.491	.102	-.427	-4.801	.000	-.693	-.289	-.409	-.371	-.302	.500	1.999
	Education	-.022	.083	-.022	-.270	.788	-.187	.142	.135	-.022	-.017	.588	1.702
	Tenure	.153	.067	.184	2.278	.024	.020	.287	-.034	.186	.143	.605	1.654
	Talent Management Practices	-.402	.142	-.227	-2.837	.005	-.682	-.122	-.459	-.230	-.179	.620	1.614
	Job Satisfaction	-.446	.126	-.295	-3.542	.001	-.695	-.197	-.544	-.283	-.223	.574	1.743

a. Dependent variable: Intention to quit

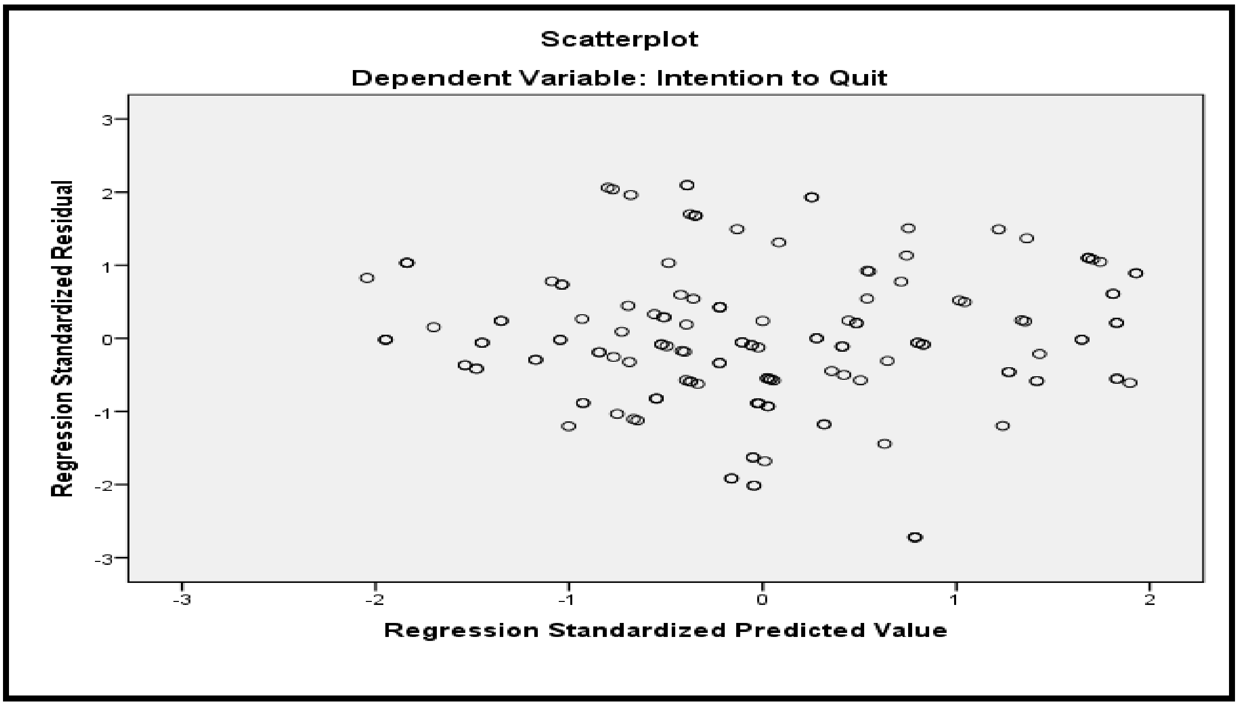


Figure 4.21: Scatterplot for hypothesis 13 (steps 2 & 3)

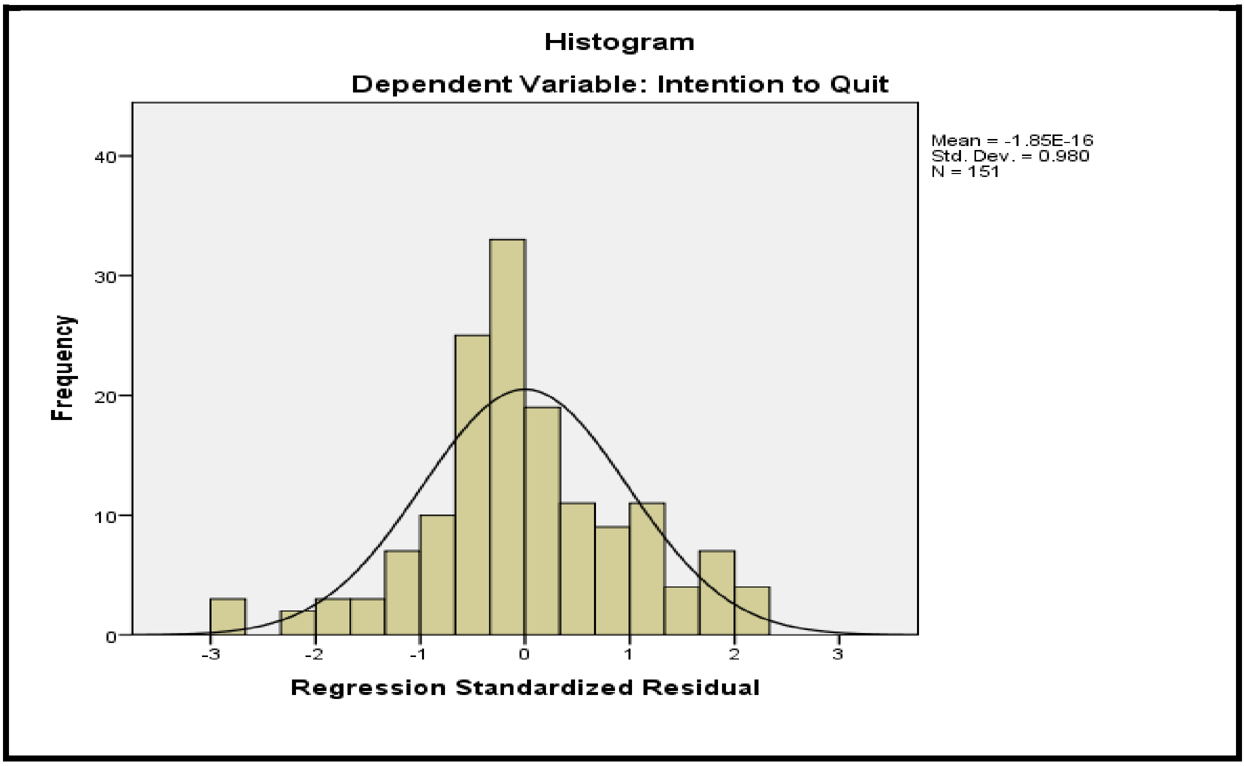


Figure 4.22: Histogram for hypothesis 13 (steps 2 & 3)

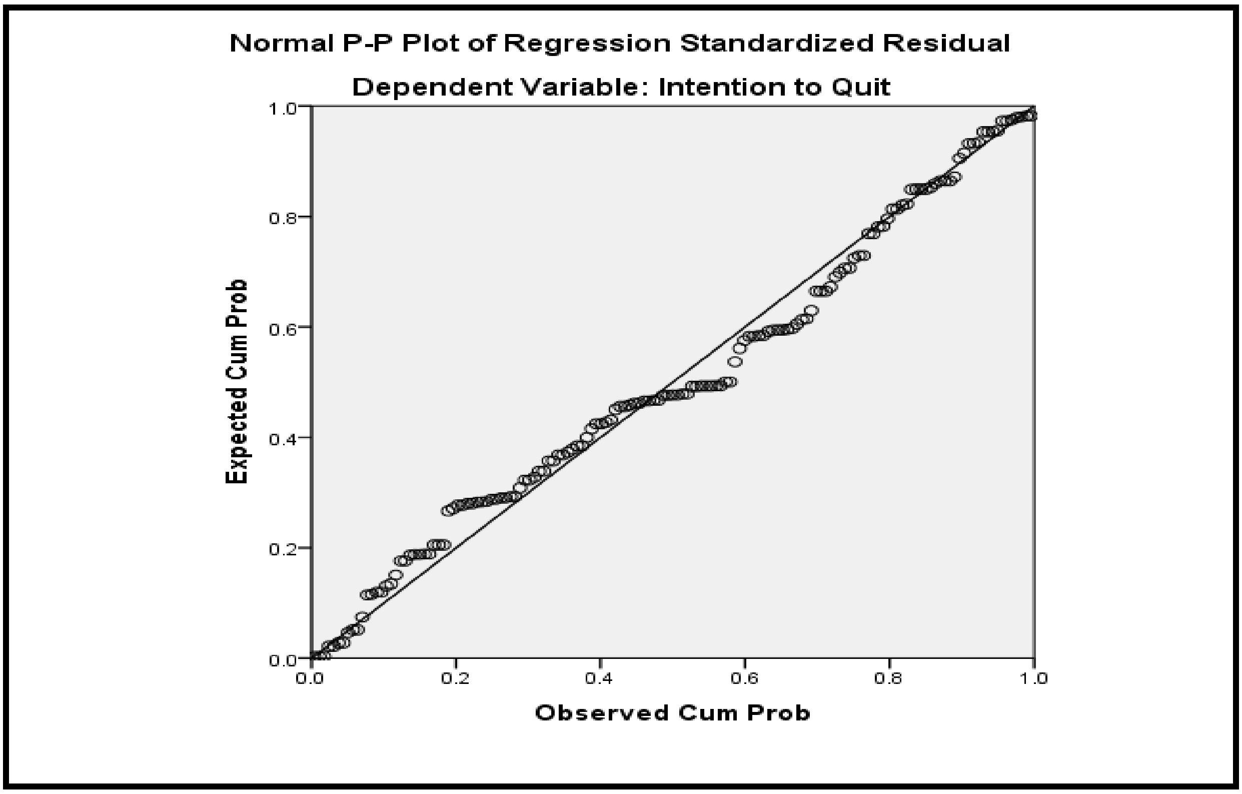


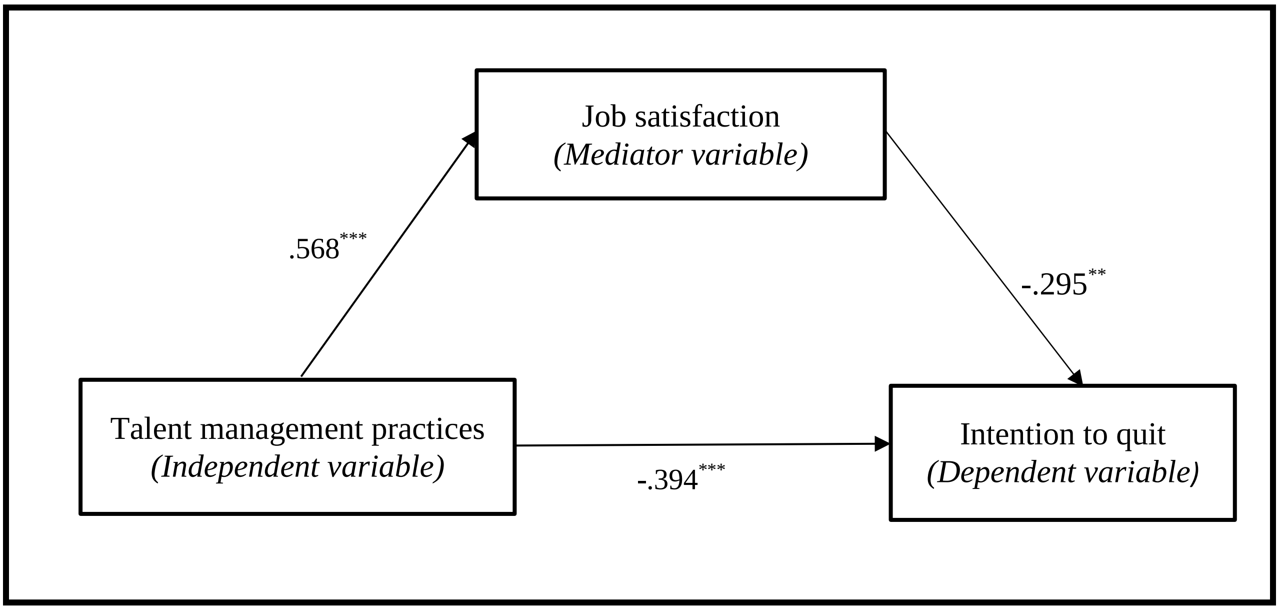
Figure 4.23: Normal P-P plot for hypothesis 13 (steps 2 & 3)

Table 4.76 presents the results of the mediation process (hypothesis 13), with talent management practices as the independent or predictor variable, job satisfaction as the mediator variable, and intention to quit as the dependent or outcome variable.

All models in Table 4.76 are significant (step 1 – F = 21.538; p< 0.001; step 2 – F = 17.703; p< 0.001; step 3 – F = 18.019; p< 0.001). According Baron and Kenny (1986), three conditions must be satisfied in order to ensure mediation. In the first step, the predictor variable (talent management practices) must affect the mediator variable (job satisfaction), with the mediator regressed as an outcome/predicted variable. The first condition was met as talent management practices was significantly and positively related to job satisfaction (β = .568; p< 0.001). In step 2, Baron and Kenny (1986) posit that the predictor variable (talent management practices) in the second regression must affect the outcome variable (intention to quit). This condition was met as well, with talent management practices (predictor) significantly and negatively related to intention to quit (outcome) (β = -.394; p<0.001). In step 3, the mediator (job satisfaction) must impact the outcome variable (intention to quit) in the third regression, while the predictor variable (talent management practices) has no effect. This condition was partially met as it became clear that job satisfaction was significantly related to intention to quit (β = -.295; p<0.001). However, talent management practices also remained significantly related to intention to quit (β = -.227; p< 0.001).

Based on the results, no support was found for hypothesis 13. Therefore, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit. As such, the alternative hypothesis is rejected in favor of the null hypothesis.

The final mediation model for hypothesis 13 is illustrated in Figure 4.24.



*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in the model are standardised beta coefficients*
Figure 4.24: Final mediation model (hypothesis 13)

A summary of the results of the mediation analysis for hypothesis 13 is illustrated in Table 4.76, with talent management practices as the predictor variable, job satisfaction as the mediator variable, and employees' intention to quit the organisation as the outcome variable.

Table 4.76: Results of the multiple regression model for hypothesis 13

Step 1	**Job Satisfaction**
Gender	.019
Age	$.272^{*}$
Education	-.062
Tenure	-.136
Talent Management Practices	$.568^{***}$
R	.653
R^2	.426
F-Value	21.538^{***}
D-W Value	1.593
Step 2	**Intention to Quit**
Gender	.069
Age	$-.508^{***}$
Education	-.004
Tenure	$.224^{**}$
Talent Management Practices	$-.394^{***}$
R	.616
R^2	.379
F-Value	17.703^{***}
Step 3	**Intention to Quit**
Gender	.075
Age	$-.427^{***}$
Education	-.022
Tenure	$.184^{*}$
Talent Management Practices	$-.227^{**}$
Job Satisfaction	$-.295^{**}$
R	.655
R^2	.429
F-Value	18.019^{***}
D-W Value	2.048

*Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; values in table are standardised beta coefficients*

4.6.4 Reflecting on the mediating role of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction

The mediating effects of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction were tested. Moreover, specific emphasis was placed upon the extent to which the three influence the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit the organisation. Based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation, hypotheses 11, 12, and 13, organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction were not found to meditate the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit the organisation. The findings suggest a direct significant relationship between the predictor and outcome variable. The results show that talent management practices (predictor variable) have a direct significant inverse relationship with employees' intention to quit (outcome variable). We can conclude that organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction do not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter outlined and explained the statistical tests that were conducted. It included descriptive statistics showing the different frequencies and percentages of the respondents' biographical characteristics (gender, age, education, & tenure). Descriptive statistics for the five scales (talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, & intention to quit) utilised in the study were presented and tested for reliability, showing that all the scales tested were reliable and the Cronbach Alpha coefficients for the five constructs were above the accepted minimum cut-off point of 0.70. Exploratory factor analysis was used to establish the construct validity of the scales and to further validate the scales used in the study.

After the reliability and validity of the scales was proven, then multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to determine the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between the variables under study (talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, & intention to quit). Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation was adopted to investigate the mediating effect of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.

Significant direct relationships were found to exist between some of the variables under study (hypotheses 1 - 10). Talent management practices were found to have a significant inverse relationship with employees' intention to quit, as well as a significant positive relationship with employee engagement, including its sub-scales (vigour, dedication, & absorption) and job satisfaction. Intention to quit, on the other hand, was found to be inversely related to employee engagement, including its sub-scales, and job satisfaction respectively. While significant positive relationships were established between employee engagement, including its sub-scales, and job satisfaction respectively. However, organisational commitment, including its sub-scales (affective, continuance, & normative commitment) appeared to show insignificant results in relation to the other variables. Moreover, organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction (hypotheses 11, 12, & 13) did not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. This suggested a direct inverse relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit the organisation, as alluded to earlier. The practical implications of these findings will be explored in more detail in the following chapter (chapter 5), which also presents the discussion of the main findings, conclusions, recommendations, limitations, and suggestions for future research directions.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The worldwide skills shortages have resulted in the demand for highly skilled and talented employees far exceeding the supply. This has led to the increasing need to institute effective talent management practices that will assist organisations in attracting, developing, and retaining talent across the world and South Africa in particular, which has consistently experienced a brain drain of its highly skilled and experienced workers. Existing studies suggest that effective management of highly skilled and talented employees may result in more productivity (Becker *et al.*, 1997), higher levels of employee engagement (Lockwood, 2006; Bhatnagar, 2007), enhanced commitment to the organisation (Collings, & Mellahi, 2009; Anand *et al.*, 2010; Hornung *et al.*, 2010; Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011), increased job satisfaction, and lower intention to quit (Dyer & Reeves, 1995; Sutherland & Jordaan, 2004; Barkhuizen & Veldman, 2012; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2013).

Based on this premise, the study sought to examine the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit. Multiple linear regression analyses using forced entry were carried out to predict the direct and indirect (mediated) relationships between the independent/predictor variable(s) and the dependent/outcome variable(s). Particular emphasis was placed on the mediating effect of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction on the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit, using the mediation approach recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986).

The previous chapter (chapter 4) presented the results and discussion of the research findings. This chapter now provides a brief synopsis of the findings reported and analysed in the previous chapter, and from the interpretation of the results of the hypotheses tested, discusses the resultant implications and understandings that have emerged from the analysis of the different findings. The chapter will conclude by discussing the possibilities for further research and make recommendations and give conclusions of the research dissertation.

5.2 Review of the Study

In this section, the objectives of the research are reiterated. After this, the results of the hypotheses testing process and empirical findings of the study are summarised.

The following research objectives were formulated in order to provide a guide for the study.

5.2.1 Summary of the research objectives

The study was conducted to achieve the following objectives:

- To identify the talent management practices required by managers in order to address the strategic talent plan and value chain relative to the attraction, retention, and growth of talent in an organisation.

- To determine the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit.

- To determine how companies can attract, engage and optimise talent within the broader context and limitations, given the current and future supply and demand of talent.

- To add value to the body of knowledge within the domain of talent management and human resources.

5.2.1.1 Achievement of research objectives

This section demonstrates how the stated objectives of the study were achieved:

Objective one, which was aimed at identifying the talent management practices required by managers in order to address the strategic talent plan and value chain relative to the attraction, retention, and growth of talent in an organisation, was achieved through an extensive review of existing literature. Based on this comprehensive literature review, talent strategy, the talent review process, staffing, talent acquisition, workforce planning, talent development, performance management, talent retention, and financial rewards were the variables identified as talent management practices that are required by managers in order to attract, develop, and retain highly skilled and talented employees.

The second objective of the study, as mentioned above, was to determine the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between the identified talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit. This objective was achieved by utilising an inferential statistical technique, multiple linear regression analyses using forced entry to test the hypotheses. The results of this process are demonstrated in chapter 4 of the study and are also briefly revisited below (see section 5.22). The third objective of the study was to determine how companies can attract, engage and optimise talent within the broader context and limitations given the current and future supply and demand of talent. This objective was achieved after reviewing existing literature relating to the constructs under study (talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, & employees' intention to quit). Based on the reviewed literature relating to the current research, and the results of the hypotheses testing process, it is hoped that this study achieved objective four, which was to add value to the body of knowledge within the domain of talent management and human resources.

5.2.2 Summary of the hypotheses testing process

The study was conducted to test the following derived null and alternative hypotheses:

- The null hypothesis 1 (H_0) is: *There is no significant negative relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
- The alternative hypothesis 1 (H_1) is: *There is a significant negative relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
- The null hypothesis 2 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment.*
- The alternative hypothesis 2 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment.*
- The null hypothesis 3 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement.*
- The alternative hypothesis 3 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement.*
- The null hypothesis 4 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.*
- The alternative hypothesis 4 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.*
- The null hypothesis 5 (H_0) is: *There is no significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.*
- The alternative hypothesis 5 (H_1) is: *There is a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.*
- The null hypothesis 6 (H_0) is: *There is no significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit.*

- The alternative hypothesis 6 (H_1) is: *There is a significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit.*
- The null hypothesis 7 (H_0) is: *There is no significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit.*
- The alternative hypothesis 7 (H_1) is: *There is a significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit.*
- The null hypothesis 8 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.*
- The alternative hypothesis 8 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.*
- The null hypothesis 9 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction.*
- The alternative hypothesis 9 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction.*
- The null hypothesis 10 (H_0) is: *There is no significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment.*
- The alternative hypothesis 10 (H_1) is: *There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment.*
- The null hypothesis 11 (H_0) is: *Organisational commitment does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
- The alternative hypothesis 11 (H_1) is: *Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
- The null hypothesis 12 (H_0) is: *Employee engagement does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*

- The alternative hypothesis 12 (H_1) is: *Employee engagement mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
- The null hypothesis 13 (H_0) is: *Job satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*
- The alternative hypothesis 13 (H_1) is: *Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*

The hypotheses were broken down into sub-hypotheses and these were also tested. Based on the results of the testing of the sub-hypotheses, the null hypotheses and the alternative hypotheses were rejected and accepted for the different hypotheses tested, with significant and insignificant relationships discovered, providing us with insight to address the research questions. A summary of the empirical findings of the study follows.

5.2.3 Summary of the empirical findings

Table 5.1 summarises the results below. Thereafter, without repeating the analysis on the findings carried out in the previous chapter, the research propositions are briefly revisited and discussed.

Table 5.1: Summary of results

Hypotheses		Results
Hypothesis 1	*There is a significant negative relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit*	**Accepted**
Hypothesis 2	*There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment.*	**Rejected**
	2.a There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and affective commitment.	**Rejected**
	2.b There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and continuance commitment.	**Rejected**
	2.c There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and normative commitment.	**Rejected**
	There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement.	**Accepted**

Hypothesis 3	*3.a There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and vigour.*	**Accepted**
	3.b There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and dedication.	**Accepted**
	3.c There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and absorption.	**Accepted**
Hypothesis 4	*There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.*	**Accepted**
Hypothesis 5	*There is a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.*	**Accepted**
Hypothesis 6	*There is a significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit.*	**Accepted**
	6.a There is a significant negative relationship between vigour and intention to quit.	**Accepted**
	6.b There is a significant negative relationship between dedication and intention to quit.	**Accepted**
	6.c There is a significant negative relationship between absorption and intention to quit.	**Accepted**
Hypothesis 7	*There is a significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit.*	**Rejected**
	7.a There is a significant negative relationship between affective commitment and intention to quit.	**Rejected**
	7.b There is a significant negative relationship between continuance commitment and intention to quit.	**Rejected**
	7.c: There is a significant negative relationship between normative commitment and intention to quit.	**Rejected**
Hypothesis 8	*There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.*	**Rejected**
	8.a There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment.	**Rejected**
	8.b There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment.	**Rejected**
	8.c There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment.	**Rejected**
Hypothesis 9	*There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction.*	**Accepted**
	9.a There is a significant positive relationship vigour and job satisfaction.	**Accepted**
	9.b There is a significant positive relationship between dedication and job satisfaction.	**Accepted**

	9.c There is a significant positive relationship between absorption and job satisfaction.	**Accepted**
Hypothesis 10	*There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment.*	**Rejected**
Hypotheses 11, 12, & 13 (mediating effect of OC, EE, & JS)	*Organisational commitment mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*	**Rejected**
	Employee engagement mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.	**Rejected**
	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.	**Rejected**

The results of these hypotheses testing processes are discussed in terms of the research propositions, which are briefly revisited as follows:

Hypothesis 1: *There is a significant negative relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit.*

A regression analysis was carried out to examine the direct relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit the organisation. After controlling for gender, age, education, and tenure (control variables), talent management practices (predictor variable) contributed and explained 15% of variance in employees' intention to quit the organisation (outcome variable) over and above the control set of variables. This result affirmed this proposition, with talent management practices significantly and inversely related to employees' intention to quit the organisation, thereby confirming Darvish *et al.* (2012) and Theron *et al.*'s (2014) findings. Moreover, the results of the present study indicate that a higher perception of the organisation's talent management practices, such as talent strategy, talent review processes, staffing, talent acquisition, workforce planning, talent development, performance management, talent retention, and financial rewards, will result in decreased employees' turnover intentions.

Allen *et al.*'s (2003) study showed that perceptions of human resource practices (i.e. talent management practices) were negatively correlated with turnover intentions. In another related study, Du Plessis (2010) investigated the relationship between perceived talent management practices and intention to quit amongst Generation Y employees of a recruitment firm in a South African context. The results of this study suggested that perceived talent management practices are significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit the organisation. Similarly, Oehley's (2007) study showed a significant relationship between talent management practices of attracting and recruiting talent and employees' intention to quit the organisation. The present study supports these findings as employees' perceptions of the organisation's talent management practices were significantly and inversely related to their intention to quit the organisation.

Hypothesis 2: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and organisational commitment.*

Regression analysis was carried out on the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative). After controlling for gender, age, and tenure, the regression analysis results indicated no significant relationship between employees' perceptions of the current talent management practices and the three dimensions of organisational commitment. The results of the present study are somehow contradictory to existing literature (Meyer & Smith, 2000). The authors conducted a study to examine the relationship between human resource management practices (i.e. talent management practices) and the three dimensions of organisational commitment. The results of this study showed that affective and normative commitment correlate significantly with all of the human resource management (talent management) practices. However, continuance commitment to the organisation revealed insignificant results (Meyer & Smith, 2000). Similarly, Roodt and Kotze's (2005) study showed that organisational commitment factors affect talent retention. In contrast, Collings and Mellahi (2009) posit an indirect positive relationship between effective talent management and affective commitment to an organisation. Oehley (2007) also suggests that affective commitment is totally unaffected by the perceived talent management competencies.

Hypothesis 3: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employee engagement.*

Regression analysis was carried out to investigate the relationship between the perceived talent management practices and the three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication & absorption). After entering the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure), talent management practices contributed and explained an increased variation in the three dimensions of employee engagement respectively (13% - vigour; 24% - dedication; 2% - absorption). The results further showed a practically significant and positive relationship between employees' perceptions of the organisation's talent management practices and the three dimensions of employee engagement. This indicates that an increased conviction of the organisation's effectiveness in implementing and application of talent management practices, such as talent strategy, talent review processes, staffing, talent acquisition, workforce planning, talent development, performance management, talent retention, and financial rewards, can be associated with enhanced employee engagement. These findings confirm Barkhuizen *et al*.'s (2014) research that talent management practices are significantly and positively related to the three dimensions of employee engagement. Moreover, in the present study, regression analysis results are consistent with Christensen Hughes and Rog's (2008) study. Srivastava and Bhatnagar's (2008) research suggest that organisations should develop and implement effective talent management strategies and practices that will not only attract talent but also enhance employee engagement and talent retention.

Hypothesis 4: *There is a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and job satisfaction.*

A regression analysis was also carried out to investigate the relationship between the perceived talent management practices and employees' job satisfaction. After controlling for gender, age, education and tenure, talent management practices contributed and explained a further 31% of added variance in employees' job satisfaction. The multiple regression analysis results also showed a practically significant and positive relationship between talent management practices and employees' job satisfaction, where high levels of employees' perceptions of the organisation's current talent management practices are associated with increased employees' job satisfaction. This confirms research carried out by Bethke-Langenegger *et al.* (2011), which found a significant positive relationship between talent management practices and employees' job satisfaction. It can therefore be deduced that effective talent management practices play an essential role in employees' job satisfaction which, in turn, may result in reduced employees' intention to quit the organisation and actual turnover.

Hypothesis 5: *There is a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to quit.*

After controlling for gender, age, education, and tenure, the introduction of employees' job satisfaction contributed and explained a further 17% in employees' intention to quit the organisation. Moreover, the results of the multiple regression analysis affirmed this proposition by demonstrating a practically significant inverse relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their intention to quit the organisation. The findings of the present study suggest that high levels of employees' job satisfaction lead to low levels of employees' intention to quit the organisation. This affirms Pienaar *et al.*'s (2007) findings that job satisfaction is significant and strongly negatively correlated to intention to quit.

Similarly, Robyn and Du Preez (2013) conducted a study to investigate intention to quit amongst Generation Y academics in higher education institutions in a South African context and the results suggested that the higher the levels of employees' job satisfaction, the lower their intention to quit the organisation. The present study supports these findings as employees' job satisfaction was significantly and inversely related to their intention to quit the organisation.

Hypothesis 6: *There is a significant negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit.*

Regression analysis was again carried out to investigate the relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit. After the control set of variables (gender, age, education, & tenure), the entry of the three dimensions of employee engagement resulted in a significant increase in the explained percentage of variance in employees' intention to quit the organisation (vigour - 10%; dedication - 11%; absorption - 4% accordingly). As a result, one can conclude that the three sub-scales of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption) are all significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit the organisation. The results of the present study concur with findings of numerous other studies that established a significant and negative relationship between employee engagement and intention to quit (Sonnentag, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Shuck & Wollard, 2010; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Robyn & Du Preez, 2013; Takawira *et al.*, 2014). The findings of this study suggest that highly engaged employees are less inclined to leave the organisation while disengaged employees are likely to actively seek alternative employment and leave their current job and organisation.

Hypothesis 7: *There is a significant negative relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit.*

The results of the multiple regression analysis failed to demonstrate a significant relationship between organisational commitment and intention to quit. The results indicate that affective, continuance, and normative commitment are not significantly related to employees' intention to quit the organisation. These findings contradict Allen and Meyer's (1997) study which confirmed that organisational commitment is related to intention to quit an organisation. The authors postulated that employees who were strongly committed to the organisation were less likely to leave it (Allen & Meyer, 1997). Moreover, similar existing studies have consistently found organisational commitment to be significantly and negatively related to employees' intention to quit (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer *et al.*, 1993; Whitener & Walz, 1993; Miller *et al.*, 2002). This suggests that if employees are committed to their jobs, they are less likely to quit.

Hypothesis 8: *There is a significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.*

Regression analysis was carried out to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and the three dimensions of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, & normative commitment). In all instances, the results of the multiple regression analysis demonstrated insignificant results regarding job satisfaction and the three sub-scales of organisational commitment. The null hypothesis that there is no significant positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment could not be rejected. A number of researchers over the past few decades have found a causal relationship, a correlational relationship, and an insignificant relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Bagozzi, 1980; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Reichers, 1985; Curry *et al.*, 1986; Mathieu & Hamel, 1989; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Brown & Peterson, 1994). In contrast, the findings of this study are somewhat inconsistent to recent studies, which suggest a significant and positive correlation between job satisfaction and intention to quit (Lok *et al.*, 2007; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Humayoun, 2011).

Hypothesis 9: *There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and job satisfaction.*

In the present study, after controlling for gender, age, education, and tenure, the three dimensions of employee engagement (vigour, dedication, & absorption) resulted in a significant increase in the explained percentage of variance in employees' job satisfaction. Moreover, the regression analysis results suggest that employee engagement, including its sub-scales (vigour, dedication, & absorption), is significantly and positively related to job satisfaction. This indicates that high levels of employee engagement may result in increased employees' satisfaction with their jobs. The results of the present study affirm Saks (2006) and Harter *et al.*'s (2002) findings that employee engagement is a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Biswas and Bhatnagar (2013) investigated the association between employee engagement and job satisfaction using data from six Indian organisations and a sample of 246 Indian managers, and the results suggested that the more engaged an employee is, the higher the level of job satisfaction. The present study supports these findings as employee engagement, including its sub-scales - vigour, dedication, and absorption, was significantly and positively related to employees' job satisfaction. Based on the findings of the present study, and the review of prior studies, we can conclude that employee engagement and job satisfaction are desirable outcomes needed by organisations to reduce turnover intentions and actual turnover.

Hypothesis 10: *There is a significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment.*

The results of the regression analysis demonstrated practically insignificant results between employee engagement and organisational commitment. The results of this study did not affirm this proposition. Hence, we fail to reject the null hypothesis that there is no significant positive relationship between employee engagement and organisational commitment. The results of the present study are inconsistent and contradictory to existing studies which found employee engagement to be significantly related to organisational commitment (Sonnentag, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Gruman & Saks, 2011; Shuck *et al.*, 2011). Field and Buitendach (2011) investigated the association between happiness, work engagement and organisational commitment of support staff at a South African tertiary education institution. The results of this study suggested that affective commitment has a significant positive relationship with employee engagement. Moreover, prior studies imply that employee engagement has positive outcomes for organisations, with Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) suggesting that engaged employees are likely to be committed to their organisations and have lower tendencies to quit.

Hypotheses 11, 12, and 13: *Employee engagement, job satisfaction and organisational commitment mediate the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit.*

Regression analyses were carried out to investigate the indirect (or mediated) relationship between talent management practices and employees intention to quit the organisation. Organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction are the mediating variables that were examined. Based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation, three-step regression analyses were run for hypotheses 11, 12 and 13 respectively. The results of the multiple regression analyses demonstrated that organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction do not mediate the relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit the organisation. This is a significant finding because there is no substantial evidence in the relevant literature found to support it. Existing studies on talent management and intention to quit have looked at the mediating effects of perceived organisational support (Meyer & Smith, 2000; Allen *et al.*, 2003), perceived supervisor support (Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008), affective commitment (Oehley, 2007), burnout and organisational citizenship behaviour (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). However, there is a paucity of studies examining the mediating characteristics of organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction to perceived talent management practices.

The results of the present study indicate a direct inverse relationship between talent management practices and employees' intention to quit. The findings of this study indicate that employees' perception of the organisation's current talent management practices has a direct unmediated effect on their intentions to leave or stay with the organisation. Moreover, it can be argued that talent management practices, such as talent strategy, the talent review process, staffing, talent acquisition, workforce planning, talent development, performance management, talent retention, and financial rewards, have a significant effect on employees' intention to quit and actually quitting the organisation.

5.3 Implications Arising from the Research Findings and Issues for Further Research

In reflection of the different research results and analysis, the study has important theoretical and practical implications for researchers, business, and human resource practitioners. From a theoretical perspective, this research contributed to the body of knowledge within the domain of talent management and human resources. The study identified some of the perceived talent management practices (talent strategy, talent review processes, staffing, talent acquisition, workforce planning, talent development, performance management, talent retention, &

financial rewards) required by managers in order to address the strategic talent plan and value chain relative to the attraction, retention, and growth of talent in an organisation. Moreover, the study provided a quantitative method for assessing the perception of these talent management practices in relation to other constructs (organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, & intention to quit). The study also suggested the social exchange theory (Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964), the human capital theory (Becker, 1962), and the two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1966) as the three theories that can be employed to conceptualise and link talent management to the other constructs.

From a practical point of view, the findings of the study provide evidence for management to understand that employees' perception of the organisation's current talent management practices may influence their intention to leave the organisation. Talent management practices play a critical role in the attraction, growth and retention of highly skilled and talented employees. Researchers (Heinen & O'Neill, 2004) suggest that talent management practices result in increased competitive advantages for organisations, which, in turn, can lead to decreased turnover intentions and actual turnover. Based on this premise, more emphasis and effort should be placed on the implementation and application of effective talent management practices as they play a critical role in the attraction, growth and retention of highly skilled and talented employees for organisations. In conclusion, the present study showed that investing in effective talent management practices relating to talent acquisition, workforce planning, talent development, performance management, talent retention, and other practices may result in desirable consequences for the organisation such as enhanced organisational commitment, high levels of employee engagement, increased employee job satisfaction, and reduced turnover intention.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

The findings of the present study offer several practical implications for organisations in South Africa, and the organisation under study in particular. Yet, several methodological limitations that might have had a bearing on this study should be acknowledged as well. First, the design was cross-sectional rather than longitudinal. The use of a cross-sectional research design with this sample does not allow the researcher to establish causality with the research findings. Leedy and Ormrod (2009) suggest that one can begin to establish causality in the results by incorporating longitudinal data into the overall research design.

A second limitation to this study is the lack of generalisability of the results to other populations, settings, and beyond the present study. The study was limited to the employees of a multinational FMCG food manufacturing company in South Africa only. This study was also limited by time and budgetary/monetary constraints which were in place. These factors may have obvious implications on the extent to which findings of the present study can be generalised. Another limitation to this study is the nature of the sample itself. The sample size may not be sufficiently representative of the population. Moreover, the study was conducted using a non-probability sampling procedure. The use of a non-probability sampling procedure (convenience sampling) means that the results of this research are limited in terms of being non-representative to the population.

5.5 Recommendations

Having reflected on the implications and limitations of this study, a number of recommendations for future research are considered.

- It is recommended that future studies on the topic of talent management incorporate post-positivist methodologies, such as qualitative research, by adopting longitudinal data, participant observation, in-depth interviews, and focus group discussions, into the overall research design, in order to seek a better understanding of some of the research questions outlined in the study.

- The present study lacked generalisability of the results to other populations and settings. Hence, it is recommended that future studies focus on different companies in the same industry or in different industries to solve this problem of generalisability.
- It is also recommended that organisations in South Africa and the organisation under study in particular, develop and implement effective talent management practices and strategies to attract and retain highly skilled and talented employees. Moreover, organisations need to address the high turnover intentions of highly skilled and talented employees which, in turn, may result in positive outcomes, thereby gaining a competitive advantage that will have numerous favourable implications for the South African economy.
- Organisations need to also institute and align talent management practices such as workforce planning, talent acquisition, talent development, performance management, talent retention, education and development, talent reviews, and succession planning, with their business strategies.
- Finally, it is recommended that organisations develop effective, practical and holistic talent management practices and strategies that will not only attract talent, but also address organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and the retention of highly skilled and talented employees, thus boosting the productivity and business performance.

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter sought to conclude the results of the research process, and to also provide a discussion of the resultant implications and understanding that emerged from the analysis of the different findings, as well as to provide suggestions for further research.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the direct and indirect (mediated) relationship between talent management practices, organisational commitment, employee engagement, job satisfaction, and employees' intention to quit. A cross-sectional, survey-based descriptive research design using quantitative research technique was adopted to collect information and primary data needed to test this premise. The research findings indicate that employees' perception of the organisation's current talent management practices, such as talent review processes, talent acquisition, workforce planning, talent development, performance management, and talent retention, has a direct (unmediated) and significantly inverse effect on their intention to quit the organisation. Moreover, the study showed that effective application and management of these practices may result in positive outcomes such as increased employee commitment, engagement, job satisfaction, and lower turnover intentions.

In conclusion, the topic of talent management has received a remarkable degree of practitioner and academic interest over the past few years. However, many gaps still exist in the body of knowledge. The findings of this study do not only provide valuable insight into the theory of talent management and its practices and employees' intention to quit the organisation, but also make a significant contribution towards expanding the limited empirical knowledge that currently exists on talent management and desirable consequences, such as organisational commitment, employee engagement, and job satisfaction.

REFERENCES

Abdel-Halim, A. A. (1981). Effects of role stress-job design-technology interaction on employee work satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, *24*(2), 260-273.

Accenture & Tilburg University (2009). How effective are Talent Management practices. Retrieved on 28 August, 2015, From: http://www.accenture.com/nlen/Documents/PDF/Accenture_TMreport_A4Brochure.pdf.

Aliaga, A. O. (2001). Human capital, HRD and the knowledge organization. *Aliaga AO Eds.*

Allen, D. G., Shore, L. M., & Griffeth, R. W. (2003). The role of perceived organisational support and supportive human resource practices in the turnover process. *Journal of management*, *29*(1), 99-118.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of occupational psychology*, *63*(1), 1-18.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Organisational commitment: evidence of career stage effects? *Journal of business research*, *26*(1), 49-61.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *49*(3), 252-276.

Allen, J. P., & Meyer, N. J. (1997). Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research and application. *Thousand Oaks*, CA: Sage.

Amaratunga, D., Baldry, D., Sarshar, M., & Newton, R. (2002). Quantitative and qualitative research in the built environment: application of "mixed" research approach. *Work study*, *51*(1), 17-31.

Anand, S., Vidyarthi, P. R., Liden, R. C., & Rousseau, D. M. (2010). Good citizens in poor-quality relationships: Idiosyncratic deals as a substitute for relationship quality. *Academy of Management Journal*, *53*(5), 970-988.

Andres, L., & Grayson, J. P. (2002). Educational Attainment, Occupational Status and Job Satisfaction: A Ten Year Portrait of Canadian Young Women and Men. In *annual meeting of American Educational Research Association*.

Andriessen, D. (2004). *Making sense of intellectual capital: designing a method for the valuation of intangibles*. Routledge.

Angle, H. L., & Perry, J. L. (1981). An empirical assessment of organisational commitment and organisational effectiveness. *Administrative science quarterly*, 1-14.

Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001). Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analytic review. *British journal of social psychology*, *40*(4), 471-499.

Armstrong, M., & Baron, A. (2000). Performance management. *Human resource management*, 69-84.

Armstrong, M., & Taylor, S. (2014). *Armstrong's handbook of human resource management practice*. Kogan Page Publishers.

Arnold, H. J., & Feldman, D. C. (1982). A multivariate analysis of the determinants of job turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *67*(3), 350.

Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S., & Chen, Z. X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organisational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *Journal of organisational Behavior*, *23*(3), 267-285.

Asag-Gau, L., & van Dierendonck, D. (2011). The impact of servant leadership on organisational commitment among the highly talented: the role of challenging work conditions and psychological empowerment. *European Journal of International Management*, *5*(5), 463-483.

Athey, R. (2004). It’s 2008: Do you know where your talent is? Why acquisition and retention strategies don’t work. *Deloitte Development LLC*.

Axelrod, E. L., Handfield-Jones, H., & Welsh, T. A. (2001). War for talent, Part 2. *The McKinsey Quarterly*, 2: 9-12.

Bagozzi, R. P. (1980). Performance and satisfaction in an industrial sales force: An examination of their antecedents and simultaneity. *The Journal of Marketing*, 65-77.

Bagraim, J. J. (2003). The nature and measurement of multiple commitment foci amongst South African knowledge workers. *Management Dynamics: Journal of the Southern African Institute for Management Scientists*, *12*(2), p-13.

Bakker, A. B. (2011). An evidence-based model of work engagement. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *20*(4), 265-269.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of managerial psychology*, *22*(3), 309-328.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. (2003). Dual processes at work in a call centre: An application of the job demands–resources model. *European Journal of work and organisational psychology*, *12*(4), 393-417.

Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Verbeke, W. (2004). Using the job demands-resources model to predict burnout and performance. *Human resource management*, *43*(1), 83-104.

Bakker, A. B., Schaufeli, W. B., Leiter, M. P., & Taris, T. W. (2008). Work engagement: An emerging concept in occupational health psychology. *Work & Stress*, *22*(3), 187-200.

Bakos, B. (2007). Talent acquisition and retention: issues facing companies. *Management Today*, *23*(4), 59-60.

Barkhuizen, E. N., & Stanz, K. J. (2010, July). Linking organisational energy and individual well-being: The Influence of Leader's Talent Mindset. In *peer reviewed conference proceedings of the 12th Annual Conference of Global Business and Technology Association, Kruger National Park, South Africa* (pp. 5-9).

Barkhuizen, N. (2012). The impact of talent management practices on the retention of employees in an electricity supply company. *International Journal of Psychology* (Vol. 47, pp. 530-531). 27 Church Rd, Hove BN3 2FA, East Sussex, England: Psychology Press.

Barkhuizen, N., Mogwere, P., & Schutte, N. (2014). Talent Management, Work Engagement and Service Quality Orientation of Support Staff in a Higher Education Institution. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *5*(4), 69.

Barkhuizen, N., & Rothmann, S. (2006). Work engagement of academic staff in South African higher education institutions. *Management Dynamics: Journal of the Southern African Institute for Management Scientists*, *15*(1), p-38.

Barkhuizen, N., Welby-Cooke, G., Schutte, N., & Stanz, K. (2014). Talent Management and Leadership Reciprocity: The case of the South African Aviation Industry. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *5*(9), 11.

Baron, A., & Armstrong, M. (2007). Human capital management. *Achieving added value through people. UK: Kogan Page*.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *51*(6), 1173.

Bartlett, M. (1954). A note on the multiplying factors for various chi-square approximations. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society (B)*, 16(2), 296-298.

Baruch, Y., Budhwar, P. S., & Khatri, N. (2007). Brain drain: Inclination to stay abroad after studies. *Journal of World Business*, *42*(1), 99-112.

Basri, E., & Box, S. (2008). *The global competition for talent: Mobility of the highly skilled*. Publications de l'OCDE.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship". *Academy of management Journal*, *26*(4), 587-595.

Bateman, T. S., & Strasser, S. (1984). A longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organisational commitment. *Academy of management journal*, *27*(1), 95-112.

Bates, S. (2004), Getting engaged, *HR Magazine*, Vol. 49 No. 2, 44-51.

Baumruk, R. (2004). The missing link: the role of employee engagement in business success. *Workspan*, *47*(11), 48-52.

Beck, K., & Wilson, C. (2000). Development of affective organisational commitment: A cross-sequential examination of change with tenure. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *56*(1), 114-136.

Becker, B. E., Huselid, M. A., Pickus, P. S., & Spratt, M. F. (1997). HR as a source of shareholder value: Research and recommendations. *Human resource management*, *36*(1), 39-47.

Becker, B.E., Huselid, M.E. & Beatty, R.W. (2009). The Differentiated Workforce: *Transforming Talent into Strategic Impact,* Harvard Business School Press, Boston, MA.

Becker, G. S. (1962). Investment in human capital: A theoretical analysis. *The journal of political economy*, 9-49.

Becker, G. S. (1993). Nobel lecture: The economic way of looking at behavior. *Journal of political economy,* 385-409.

Becker, G. S. (1995). *Human capital and poverty alleviation*. World Bank, Human Resources Development and Operations Policy.

Becker, T. E. (1992). Foci and bases of commitment: are they distinctions worth making? *Academy of management Journal, 35*(1), 232-244.

Bedeian, A. G., & Armenakis, A. A. (1981). A path-analytic study of the consequences of role conflict and ambiguity. *Academy of management journal*, *24*(2), 417-424.

Bedeian, A. G., Ferris, G. R., & Kacmar, K. M. (1992). Age, tenure, and job satisfaction: A tale of two perspectives. *Journal of Vocational behavior*, *40*(1), 33-48.

Beechler, S., & Woodward, I. C. (2009). The global “war for talent”. *Journal of International Management*, *15*(3), 273-285.

Bell, E., & Barkhuizen, N. (2011). The relationship between barriers to change and the work engagement of employees in a South African property management company. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *37*(1), 01-11.

Benhabib, J., & Spiegel, M. M. (1994). The role of human capital in economic development evidence from aggregate cross-country data. *Journal of Monetary economics*, *34*(2), 143-173.

Benkhoff, B. (1997). Ignoring commitment is costly: New approaches establish the missing link between commitment and performance. *Human relations*, *50*(6), 701-726.

Benson, G. S. (2006). Employee development, commitment and intention to turnover: a test of ‘employability’policies in action. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *16*(2), 173-192.

Berman, R. E., & Field, M. J. (2004). *The ethical conduct of clinical research involving children*. National Academies Press.

Best, J.W., & Kahn J.V. (2006). *Research in education*. United States of America: Pearson.

Bethke-Langenegger, P. (2012). The Differentiated Workforce–Effects of Categorisation in Talent Management on Workforce Level. *Unpublished working paper, 18*.

Bethke-Langenegger, P., Mahler, P., & Staffelbach, B. (2011). Effectiveness of talent management strategies. *European Journal of International Management*, *5*(5), 524-539.

Bhatnagar, J. (2007). Talent management strategy of employee engagement in Indian ITES employees: key to retention. *Employee relations*, *29*(6), 640-663.

Bhengu, M. B., & Bussin, M. (2012). The perceived effectiveness of employee share options as a mechanism of talent management in South Africa. *Acta Commercii*, *12*, 85-93.

Biggs, D. M. (2003). *Employment agency workers, their job satisfaction and their influence on permanent workers* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Leicester).

Bion, W. R. (1961). Experiences in Groups New York.

Birt, M., Wallis, T., & Winternitz, G. (2004). Talent retention in a changing workplace: An investigation of variables considered important to South African talent. *South African Journal of Business Management*, *35*(2).

Biswas, S., & Bhatnagar, J. (2013). Mediator analysis of employee engagement: role of perceived organisational support, PO fit, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. *Vikalpa*, *38*(1), 27-40.

Blanche, M. T., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (2006). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*. Juta and Company Ltd.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. Transaction Publishers.

Bluedorn, A. C. (1982). The theories of turnover: Causes, effects, and meaning. *Research in the Sociology of Organizations*, *1*(1), 75-128.

Boninelli, I., & Meyer, T. (2004). *Building human capital: South African perspectives*. Knowres Pub.

Booth, R. (1998). The measurement of intellectual capital. *Management Accounting-London-*, *76*, 26-28.

Boshoff, A. B., Van Wyk, R., Hoole, C., & Owen, J. H. (2002). The prediction of intention to quit by means of biographic variables, work commitment, role strain and psychological climate. *Management Dynamics: Journal of the Southern African Institute for Management Scientists*, *11*(4), p-14.

Bothma, F. C., & Roodt, G. (2012). Work-based identity and work engagement as potential antecedents of task performance and turnover intention: Unravelling a complex relationship. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *38*(1), 27-44.

Boudreau, J. W., & Ramstad, P. M. (2007). Beyond HR. *The new science of human capital, Boston, MA.*

Brass, D. J. (1981). Structural relationships, job characteristics, and worker satisfaction and performance. *Administrative science quarterly*, 331-348.

Brown, M. E. (1969). Identification and some conditions of organisational involvement. *Administrative science quarterly*, 346-355.

Brown, R. B. (1996). Organisational commitment: Clarifying the concept and simplifying the existing construct typology. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *49*(3), 230-251.

Brown, S. P., & Peterson, R. A. (1994). The effect of effort on sales performance and job satisfaction. *The Journal of Marketing*, 70-80.

Bryman, A., & Cramer, D. (2011). *Quantitative data analysis with IBM SPSS 17, 18 and 19*. Routledge.

Buchanan, B. (1974). Building organisational commitment: The socialization of managers in work organizations. *Administrative science quarterly*, 533-546.

Buck, J. M., & Watson, J. L. (2002). Retaining staff employees: The relationship between human resources management strategies and organisational commitment. *Innovative Higher Education*, *26*(3), 175-193.

Buitendach, J., & de Witte H. (2005). Job insecurity, extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment of maintenance workers in a parastatal. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 36, 2, 27-37.

Bull, I. H. F. (2005). *The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment amongst high school teachers in disadvantaged areas in the Western Cape* (Doctoral dissertation, University of the Western Cape).

Burke, M. E. (2005). *2005 Reward Programs and Incentive Compensation: Survey Report*. Society for Human Resource Management.

Burke, R. J., Koyuncu, M., Jing, W., & Fiksenbaum, L. (2009). Work engagement among hotel managers in Beijing, China: potential antecedents and consequences. *Tourism Review*, *64*(3), 4-18.

Burns, N., & Grove, S. K. (2005). Collecting and managing data. *The practice of nursing research: Conduct, critique, and utilization*, *5*, 421-440.

Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis* (Vol. 248). London: Heinemann.

Buys, C., & Rothmann, S. (2010). Burnout and engagement of reformed church ministers. *SA journal of industrial psychology*, *36*(1), 1-11.

Byham, W. C. (2001). Are leaders born or made. *Workspan*, *44*(12), 56-60.

Cappelli, P. (2008). Talent management for the twenty-first century. *Harvard business review*, *86*(3), 74.

Cartwright, S., & Holmes, N. (2006). The meaning of work: The challenge of regaining employee engagement and reducing cynicism. *Human Resource Management Review*, *16*(2), 199-208.

Chambers, E. G., Foulon, M., Handfield-Jones, H., Hankin, S. M., & Michaels, E. G. (1998). The war for talent. *McKinsey Quarterly*, 44-57.

Chatman, J. A., & Barsade, S. G. (1995). Personality, organisational culture, and cooperation: Evidence from a business simulation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 423-443.

Chew, J., Girardi, A., & Entrekin, L. (2005). Retaining Core Staff: The impact of human resource practices on organisational commitment. *Journal of Comparative International Management*, *8*(2).

Chiu, C. (1998). Do professional women have lower job satisfaction than professional men? Lawyers as a case study. *Sex roles*, *38*(7-8), 521-537.

CIPD (2006). *Talent management: Understanding the dimensions.* London: CIPD.

Chowanec, G. D., & Newstrom, C. N. (1991). The strategic management of international human resources. *Business Quarterly*, *56*(2), 65-70.

Clark, A., Oswald, A., & Warr, P. (1996). Is job satisfaction U-shaped in age?. *Journal of occupational and organisational psychology*, *69*(1), 57-81.

Coetzee, M. (2005). *The fairness of affirmative action: An organisational justice perspective* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria).

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis: A computer program*. Routledge.

Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological bulletin*, *112*(1), 155.

Cohn, J. M., Khurana, R., & Reeves, L. (2005). Growing talent as if your business depended on it. *Harvard Business Review*, *83*(10), 62.

Contogiannis, T. (2007). Economic growth, constraints and prospects for the South African economy. *Discourse*, *35*(2), 38-44.

Collings, D. G., & Mellahi, K. (2009). Strategic talent management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, *19*(4), 304-313.

Collings, D. G., Scullion, H., & Vaiman, V. (2011). European perspectives on talent management. *European Journal of International Management, 5*(5), 453-462.

Cook, T.D. & Campbell, D.T., (1979). *Quasi-Experimentation: Design & Analysis Issues for Field Settings*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Cotton, J. L., & Tuttle, J. M. (1986). Employee turnover: A meta-analysis and review with implications for research. *Academy of management Review*, *11*(1), 55-70.

Coyle-Shapiro, J. A., & Kessler, I. (2000). Consequences of the psychological contract for the employment relationship: A large scale survey. *Journal of management studies*, *37*(7), 903-930.

Cramer, D. (2003). *Advanced quantitative data analysis*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Crede, M., Chernyshenko, O. S., Stark, S., Dalal, R. S., & Bashshur, M. (2007). Job satisfaction as mediator: An assessment of job satisfaction's position within the nomological network. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, *80*(3), 515-538.

Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.

Christensen Hughes, J., & Rog, E. (2008). Talent management: A strategy for improving employee recruitment, retention and engagement within hospitality organizations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *20*(7), 743-757.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of management*, *31*(6), 874-900.

Currivan, D. B. (2000). The causal order of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in models of employee turnover. *Human resource management review*, *9*(4), 495-524.

Curry, J. P., Wakefield, D. S., Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1986). On the causal ordering of job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *Academy of Management Journal*, *29*(4), 847-858.

Czarnowsky, M. (2008). Learning’s role in employee engagement: An ASTD research study. *Alexandria, VA: American Society for Training and Development*.

Darvish, H., Najafi, Z., & Zare, R. (2012). Evaluate the Level of Talent Management Competencies and Its Relationship with Intention to Quit the Organization. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, *2*(10), 10068-10076.

Davidson, M. C., Timo, N., & Wang, Y. (2010). How much does labour turnover cost?: A case study of Australian four-and five-star hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *22*(4), 451-466.

Dawley, D. D., Andrews, M. C., & Bucklew, N. S. (2008). Mentoring, supervisor support, and perceived organisational support: what matters most? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *29*(3), 235-247.

Deery, M. (2008). Talent management, work-life balance and retention strategies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *20*(7), 792-806.

Deloitte (2005), *Becoming a Magnet for Talent: Global Talent Pulse Survey Results*, Canadian edition.

Deloitte (2010) *Talent Edge 2020: Blueprints for the New Normal*, New York: Deloitte.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., De Jonge, J., Janssen, P. P., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). Burnout and engagement at work as a function of demands and control. *Scandinavian journal of work, environment & health*, 279-286.

Dewar, R., & Werbel, J. (1979). Universalistic and contingency predictions of employee satisfaction and conflict. *Administrative science quarterly*, 426-448.

Dickmann, M., Sparrow, P., & Brewster, C. (Eds.). (2008). *International human resource management: a European perspective*. Routledge.

Donaldson, S. I., & Ko, I. (2010). Positive organisational psychology, behavior, and scholarship: A review of the emerging literature and evidence base. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *5*(3), 177-191.

Dunham, R. B., Grube, J. A., & Castaneda, M. B. (1994). Organisational commitment: The utility of an integrative definition. *Journal of Applied psychology*, *79*(3), 370.

Du Plessis, L. (2010). The relationship between perceived talent management practices, perceived organisational support (POS), perceived supervisor support (PSS) and intention to quit amongst Generation Y employees in the recruitment sector.

Du Plessis, L., Stanz, K., & Barkhuizen, E.N. (2010). *The relationship between Perceived talent management practices, Perceived Organisational Support POS, Perceived Supervisor Support PSS and Intention to quit amongst Generation Y employees in the Recruitment Sector*. Paper presented at the 3rd Annual People and Organization's Conference, Wharton School, McGill University.

Du Plooy, J., & Roodt, G. (2010). Work engagement, burnout and related constructs as predictors of turnover intentions: original research. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *36*(1), 1-13.

Du Preez, J. (2002). The depletion of the human resources pool in South Africa. *Acta Commercii*, *2*, 80–84.

Dutt, R. (2008). *Organisational Behaviour*. Krishna Prakashan Media.

Dyer, L., & Reeves, T. (1995). Human resource strategies and firm performance: what do we know and where do we need to go?. *International Journal of human resource management*, *6*(3), 656-670.

Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., & Lowe, A. (2002). *Management research: an introduction*, 342.

Economics, O. (2012). Global Talent 2021: How the New Geography of Talent will Transform Human Resources Strategies. Retrieved on 20 June, 2015, From https://www.oxfordeconomics.com/Media/Default/Thought%20Leadership/global-talent- 2021.pdf

Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-LaMastro, V. (1990). Perceived organisational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. *Journal of applied psychology*, *75*(1), 51.

Elangovan, A. R. (2001). Causal ordering of stress, satisfaction and commitment, and intention to quit: a structural equations analysis. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *22*(4), 159-165.

Engelbrecht, H. J. (2003). Human Capital and Economic Growth: Cross-Section Evidence for OECD Countries. *Economic Record*, *79*(Special Issue), S40-S51.

Ehrenberg, R. G., & Smith, R. S. (1997). Modern Labor Economics: Henry and Public.

Erat, S., Erdil, O., Kitapçı, H., & Çömlek, O. (2012). The effect of the perception of organisational trust and organisational support on intention to quit and individual performance: An empirical study of the Turkish state universities. *African Journal of Business Management*, *6*(30), 8853-8861.

Falcone, P. (2006). Preserving restless top performers: keep your top performers engaged so they don't jump ship once job opportunities arise. *HR Magazine*.

Falcone, S. (1991). Self-assessments and job satisfaction in public and private organizations. *Public Productivity & Management Review*, 385-396.

Fegley, S. (2006). Talent management survey report. *SHRM Research*.

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. Sage publications.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. Sage.

Field, L. K., & Buitendach, J. H. (2011). Happiness, work engagement and organisational commitment of support staff at a tertiary education institution in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 37*(1), 01-10.

Firth, L., Mellor, D. J., Moore, K. A., & Loquet, C. (2004). How can managers reduce employee intention to quit?. *Journal of managerial psychology*, *19*(2), 170-187.

Fitz-Enz, J., & Phillips, J. J. (1998). *A new vision for human resources: Defining the human resources function by its results* (Vol. 19). Thomson Crisp Learning.

Fleming, J., & Asplund, J. (2007). Where employee engagement happens. *The Gallup Management Journal*, *3*(1).

Florin, J., & Schultze, W. (2000). Social capital and fundability of high potential new ventures. In *Academy of Management Meetings, Toronto*.

Forman, D.C. (2005). *Principles of human capital management.* White River, V.T.: Human Capital Institute.

Frank, F. D., Finnegan, R. P., & Taylor, C. R. (2004). The race for talent: retaining and engaging workers in the 21st century. *People and Strategy*, *27*(3), 12.

Freud, S. (1922). *Group psychology and the analysis of the ego*. New York: Liveright.

Fullerton, G. (2003). When does commitment lead to loyalty? *Journal of service research*, *5*(4), 333-344.

Gaertner, K. N., & Nollen, S. D. (1989). Career experiences, perceptions of employment practices, and psychological commitment to the organization. *Human relations*, *42*(11), 975-991.

Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Dries, N., & González-Cruz, T. F. (2013). What is the meaning of 'talent' in the world of work? *Human Resource Management Review*, *23*(4), 290-300.

Garrow, V., & Hirsh, W. (2008). Talent management: Issues of focus and fit. *Public Personnel Management, 37*(4), 389-402.

Gelens, J., Dries, N., Hofmans, J., & Pepermans, R. (2013). The role of perceived organisational justice in shaping the outcomes of talent management: A research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, *23*(4), 341-353.

Ghasemi, A., & Zahediasl, S. (2012). Normality tests for statistical analysis: a guide for non-statisticians. *International journal of endocrinology and metabolism, 10*(2), 486.

Ghauri, P. & Gronhaug, K. (2005). *Research Methods in Business Studies; a Practical Guide,* 3rd edition, Harlow: Prentice Hall.

Ghauri, P. & Gronhaug, K. (2010). *Research Methods in Business Studies*. Prentice Hall. 4TH Edition.

Gill, D. S. (2007). *Employee selection and work engagement: do recruitment and selection practices influence work engagement?*. ProQuest.

Gill, J., & Johnson, P. (2010). *Research methods for managers*. Sage.

Glavas, A., & Piderit, S. K. (2009). How Does Doing Good Matter? *Journal of Corporate Citizenship*, *2009*(36), 51-70.

Glen, C. (2006). Key skills retention and motivation: the war for talent still rages and retention is the high ground. *Industrial and commercial training, 38*(1), 37-45.

Glick, W. H., Jenkins, G. D., & Gupta, N. (1986). Method versus substance: how strong are underlying relationships between job characteristics and attitudinal outcomes?. *Academy of Management Journal*, *29*(3), 441-464.

Glisson, C., & Durick, M. (1988). Predictors of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in human service organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 61-81.

Goff, S. (2008). Finding, Developing and Managing Project Talent: In Today's Top Enterprises, Everyone's a Talent Scout. www.ProjectExperts.com

Goffman, E. (1961). *Encounters: Two studies in the sociology of interaction*. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company.

Goldstein, D. K., & Rockart, J. F. (1984). An examination of work-related correlates of job satisfaction in programmer/analysts. *MIS Quarterly*, 103-115.

Goodwin, C. J. (2002). *Research in psychology: Methods and Design*, 3rd edition, New York: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Gratton, L., & Ghoshal, S. (2003). Managing Personal Human Capital:: New Ethos for the 'Volunteer'Employee. *European Management Journal*, *21*(1), 1-10.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of management review*, *10*(1), 76-88.

Griffeth, R. W., & Hom, P. W. (1995). The employee turnover process. *Research in personnel and human resources management*, *13*(3), 245-293.

Griffeth, R. W., Hom, P. W., & Gaertner, S. (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: Update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium. *Journal of management*, *26*(3), 463-488.

Grobler, P. A., & De Bruyn, A. J. (2012). Flexible Work Practices (FWP)-an effective instrument in the retention of talent: a survey of selected JSE-listed companies, South African Journal of Business Management, 42 (4) December 2011: pp. 63-78: errata. *South African Journal of Business Management*.

Grobler, P.A, Warnich, S, Carell, M.R, Elbert, N, F & Hatfield, R.D (2011). *Human Resources Management in South Africa*. (4th Edition). London: Thompson Learning.

Groves, R. M., Fowler Jr, F. J., Couper, M. P., Lepkowski, J. M., Singer, E., & Tourangeau, R. (2011). *Survey methodology* (Vol. 561). John Wiley & Sons.

Gruman, J. A., & Saks, A. M. (2011). Performance management and employee engagement. *Human Resource Management Review*, *21*(2), 123-136.

Gubman, E. (2004). From engagement to passion for work: The search for the missing person. *People and Strategy*, *27*(3), 42.

Guthridge, M., Komm, A. B., & Lawson, E. (2008). Making talent a strategic priority. *McKinsey Quarterly*, *1*, 48.

Haar, J. M. (2006). Challenge and hindrance stressors in New Zealand: Exploring social exchange theory outcomes. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 17*, 1942-1950.

Hackett, R. D., Bycio, P., & Hausdorf, P. A. (1994). Further assessments of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organisational commitment. *Journal of applied Psychology*, *79*(1), 15.

Hall, D. T., Schneider, B., & Nygren, H. T. (1970). Personal factors in organisational identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 176-190.

Harris, S. G., & Mossholder, K. W. (1996). The affective implications of perceived congruence with culture dimensions during organisational transformation. *Journal of management*, *22*(4), 527-547.

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: a meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, *87*(2), 268.

Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Keyes, C. L. (2003). Well-being in the workplace and its relationship to business outcomes: A review of the Gallup studies. *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived*, *2*, 205-224.

Hatum, A. (2010). *Next generation talent management: Talent management to survive turmoil*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Haynes, K. S. (1979). Job satisfaction of mid-management social workers. *Administration in Social Work*, *3*(2), 207-217.

Heinen, J. S., & O'Neill, C. (2004). Managing talent to maximize performance. *Employment Relations Today*, *31*(2), 67-82.

Heintzman, R., & Marson, B. (2005). People, service and trust: is there a public sector service value chain? *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, *71*(4), 549-575.

Hendricks, L. (2002). How important is human capital for development? Evidence from immigrant earnings. *American Economic Review*, 198-219.

Hennink, M., Hutter, I., & Bailey, A. (2010). *Qualitative research methods*. Sage.

Herzberg, F. I. (1966). Work and the nature of man. Cleverland. OH. World Publishing Company.

Hewitt, A. (2011). Trends in global employee engagement. *Consulting talent and organization*.

Hinshaw, A. S., Smeltzer, C. H., & Atwood, J. R. (1987). Innovative retention strategies for nursing staff. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, *17*(6), 8-16.

Holden, N. J., & Tansley, C., (2007). „ "Talent" in European languages: A philological analysis reveals semantic confusions in management discourse‟, A paper presented at the *Critical Management Studies Conference* held at Manchester Business School.

Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American journal of sociology*, 597-606.

Hornung, S., Rousseau, D. M., Glaser, J., Angerer, P., & Weigl, M. (2010). Beyond top-down and bottom-up work redesign: Customizing job content through idiosyncratic deals. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, *31*(2), 187.

Houghton, J., & Sheehan, P. (2000). A primer on the knowledge economy. Victoria: Center for Strategic Economic Studies.

Howard, J. L., & Frink, D. D. (1996). The effects of organisational restructure on employee satisfaction. *Group & Organization Management*, *21*(3), 278-303.

Hrebiniak, L. G., & Alutto, J. A. (1972). Personal and role-related factors in the development of organisational commitment. *Administrative science quarterly*, 555-573.

Hutchinson, S. (1997), “Perceived organisational support: further evidence of construct validity”, *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 57, 1025-34.

Human Capital Institute Africa & Hewitt's Human Capital Consulting. (2008). The State of Talent Management: Today's Challenges, Tomorrow's Opportunities. *Human Capital Leadership Excellence eJournal*

Humayoun, A. A. (2011). Impact of organisational commitment on job satisfaction and employee retention in pharmaceutical industry. *African Journal of Business Management*, *5*(17), 7316-7324.

Hungler, B. P., & Polit, D. F. (1999). Nursing research principles and methods. Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

Hunt, S. D., Chonko, L. B., & Wood, V. R. (1985). Organisational commitment and marketing. *The Journal of Marketing*, 112-126.

Huselid, M. A., Becker, B. E., & Beatty, R. W. (2005). *The workforce scorecard: Managing human capital to execute strategy*. Harvard Business Press.

Huselid, M. A., Beatty, R. W., & Becker, B. E. (2005). ‘A players’ or ‘A positions’?. *Harvard business review*, *83*(12), 110-117.

Iaffaldano, M. T., & Muchinsky, P. M. (1985). Job satisfaction and job performance: A meta analysis. *Psychological bulletin, 97*(2), 251.

Ibrahim, M., & Al Falasi, S. (2014). Employee loyalty and engagement in UAE public sector. *Employee Relations*, *36*(5), 562-582.

Igbaria, M., & Greenhaus, J. H. (1992). Determinants of MIS employees' turnover intentions: a structural equation model. *Communications of the ACM*, *35*(2), 34-49.

Igbaria, M., & Guimaraes, T. (1992, May). Antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction among information center employees. In *Proceedings of the 1992 ACM SIGCPR conference on Computer personnel research* (pp. 352-369). ACM.

Iles, P., Chuai, X., & Preece, D. (2010). Talent Management and HRM in Multinational companies in Beijing: Definitions, differences and drivers. *Journal of World Business*, *45*(2), 179-189.

Irvine, D. M., & Evans, M. G. (1995). Job satisfaction and turnover among nurses: integrating research findings across studies. *Nursing research*, *44*(4), 246-253.

Irving, P. G., Coleman, D. F., & Cooper, C. L. (1997). Further assessments of a three component model of occupational commitment: Generalizability and differences across occupations. *Journal of applied psychology*, *82*(3), 444.

Israelite, L. (2009). *Talent management: Strategies for success from six leading companies*. American Society for Training and Development.

Jackson, L. T., Rothmann, S., & Van de Vijver, F. J. (2006). A model of work-related well being for educators in South Africa. *Stress and health*, *22*(4), 263-274.

Jaros, S. J. (1997). An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organisational commitment and turnover intentions. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *51*(3), 319-337.

Jaros, S. J., Jermier, J. M., Koehler, J. W., & Sincich, T. (1993). Effects of continuance, affective, and moral commitment on the withdrawal process: An evaluation of eight structural equation models. *Academy of management Journal*, *36*(5), 951-995.

Jawahar, I. M., & Hemmasi, P. (2006). Perceived organisational support for women's advancement and turnover intentions: The mediating role of job and employer satisfaction. *Women in Management Review*, *21*(8), 643-661.

Jonathan, H., Thibeli, M., & Darroux, C. (2013). Impact investigation of organisational commitment on intention to leave of public secondary school teachers in Tanzania. *Developing Country Studies*, *3*(11), 78-91.

Joo, B. K. B., & Mclean, G. N. (2006). Best employer studies: a conceptual model from a literature review and a case study. *Human Resource Development Review*, *5*(2), 228-257.

Juhdi, N., Pa'wan, F., & Hansaram, R. M. K. (2013). HR Practices and Turnover intention: The mediating roles of organisational commitment and organisational engagement in a selected region in Malaysia. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(15), 3002-3019.

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). Organisational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity. New York: John Wiley.

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of management journal*, *33*(4), 692-724.

Kahumuza, J., & Schlechter, A. F. (2008). Examining the direct and some mediated relationships between perceived support and intention to quit. *Management Dynamics: Journal of the Southern African Institute for Management Scientists*, *17*(3), 2-19.

Kalliath, T. J., & Beck, A. (2001). Is the path to burnout and turnover paved by a lack of supervisory support? A structural equations test. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*, *30*(2), 72-78.

Kaizer, H. (1970). A second generation little jiffy. *Psychometrika*, 35(4), 401-415.

Kaizer, H. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39(1), 31-36.

Kamalanabhan, T. J., Prakash Sai, L., & Mayuri, D. (2009). Employee Engagement and Job Satisfaction in the Information Technology Industry. *Psychological reports*, *105*(3), 759-770.

Kanter, R. M. (1968). Commitment and social organization: A study of commitment mechanisms in utopian communities. *American sociological review*, 499-517.

Keeney, B. P. (1983). *Aesthetics of change*. New York: Guilford.

Kerr-Phillips, B., & Thomas, A. L. (2009). Macro and micro challenges for talent retention in South Africa: original research. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *7*(1), 1-10.

Kesler, G. C. (2002). Why the leadership bench never gets deeper: Ten insights about executive talent development. *Human Resource Planning*, *25*(1), 32-45.

Ketter, P. (2008). What's the big deal about employee engagement? *T AND D*, *62*(1), 44.

Kinicki, A. J., McKee-Ryan, F. M., Schriesheim, C. A., & Carson, K. P. (2002). Assessing the construct validity of the job descriptive index: a review and meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, *87*(1), 14.

Knights, J. A., & Kennedy, B. J. (2005). Psychological contract violation: Impacts on job satisfaction and organisational commitment among Australian senior public servants. *Applied HRM Research*, *10*(2), 57-72.

Koch, J. L., & Steers, R. M. (1978). Job attachment, satisfaction, and turnover among public sector employees. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *12*(1), 119-128.

Kontoghiorghes, C., & Frangou, K. (2009). The association between talent retention, antecedent factors and consequent organisational performance. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, *74*(1), 29-58.

Koys, D. J. (1988). Human resource management and a culture of Respect: Effects on employees' organisational commitment. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, *1*(1), 57-68.

Kramer, R., McGraw, P., & Schuler, R. S. (1997). *Human Resource Management in Australia*, South Melbourne Australia: Addison Wesley Longman.

Kular, S., Gatenby, M., Rees, C., Soane, E., & Truss, K. (2008). *Employee engagement: a literature review*. Kingston Business School, Kingston University.

Lam, T., & Qiu Zhang, H. (2003). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment in the Hong Kong fast food industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *15*(4), 214-220.

Lambert, E. G. (2001). To stay or quit: A review of the literature on correctional staff turnover. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, *26*(1), 61-76.

Lambert, E. G., Hogan, N. L., & Barton, S. M. (2001). The impact of job satisfaction on turnover intent: a test of a structural measurement model using a national sample of workers. *The Social Science Journal*, *38*(2), 233-250.

Larrabee, J. H., Janney, M. A., Ostrow, C. L., Withrow, M. L., Hobbs, G. R., & Burant, C. (2003). Predicting registered nurse job satisfaction and intent to leave. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, *33*(5), 271-283.

Law, K. S. (1995). Causal relationship between attitudinal antecedents to turnover. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 1995, No. 1, pp. 342-346). Academy of Management.

Lawler, E. E., III. (1971). *Pay and organisational effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lawler, E. E. (2008). Strategic talent management: Lessons from the corporate world. *Madison, WI: Consortium for Policy Research in Education. Retrieved January*, *7*, 2010.

Lawler, J. (2008). Strategic human resource management. *Handbook of Organization Development*, 353.

Lee, S. M. (1971). An empirical analysis of organisational identification. *Academy of Management Journal*, *14*(2), 213-226.

Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. (2010) *Practical Research Planning and Design*, 9th Ed. Pearson: New Jersey

Leiter M.P. & Maslach C. (2004) Areas of worklife: a structured approach to organisational predictors of job burnout. In Research in Occupational Stress and Well Being: Vol. 3. Emotional and Physiological Processes and Positive Intervention Strategies (P. Perrewe´ & D.C. Ganster eds), 91-134, JAI *Press/Elsevier,* Oxford, UK.

Lengnick-Hall, M. L., & Andrade, L. S. (2008). Talent staffing systems for effective knowledge management. *Smart Talent Management-Building Knowledge Assets for Competitive Advantage*, 33-65.

Leong, C. S., Furnham, A., & Cooper, C. L. (1996). The moderating effect of organisational commitment on the occupational stress outcome relationship. *Human relations*, *49*(10), 1345-1363.

Lesabe, R.A., & Nkosi, J. 2007. A qualitative exploration of employees' views on organisational commitment. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management* 5(1): 35-44.

Lewis, R. E., & Heckman, R. J. (2006). Talent management: A critical review. *Human Resource Management Review, 16*(2), 139-154.

Litwin, M. S. (1995). *How to measure survey reliability and validity* (Vol. 7). Sage Publications.

LoBiondo-Wood, G., & Haber, J. (Eds.). (2013). *Nursing research: Methods and critical appraisal for evidence-based practice*. Elsevier Health Sciences.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. *Handbook of industrial and organisational psychology, 1*, 1297-1343.

Lockwood, N. R. (2007). Leveraging employee engagement for competitive advantage. *SHRM Research Quarterly*, 2-11.

Lohr, S. (2010). Global strategy stabilized I.B.M. during the downturn. *The New York Times*, April 20: D1–4.

Loi, R., Hang-Yue, N., & Foley, S. (2006). Linking employees' justice perceptions to organisational commitment and intention to leave: The mediating role of perceived organisational support. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology, 79*(1), 101-120.

Lok, P., & Crawford, J. (2004). The effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment: A cross-national comparison. *Journal of management development*, *23*(4), 321-338.

Lok, P., Wang, P. Z., Westwood, B., & Crawford, J. (2007). Antecedents of job satisfaction and organisational commitment and the mediating role of organisational subculture. *Management Science, 50*(2), 239-252.

Lopez, E. M. (1982). A test of the self-consistency theory of the job performance-job satisfaction relationship. *Academy of Management Journal, 25*(2), 335-348.

Lowery, C. M., Beadles, N. A., & Krilowicz, T. J. (2002). Note on the relationships among job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behavior. *Psychological Reports*, *91*(2), 607-617.

Lum, L., Kervin, J., Clark, K., Reid, F., & Sirola, W. (1998). Explaining nursing turnover intent: job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, or organisational commitment?. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, *19*(3), 305-320.

Lumley, E. J., Coetzee, M., Tladinyane, R., & Ferreira, N. (2011). Exploring the job satisfaction and organisational commitment of employees in the information technology environment. *Southern African Business Review*, *15*(1), 100-118.

Luthans, F., & Peterson, S. J. (2002). Employee engagement and manager self-efficacy. *Journal of management development*, *21*(5), 376-387.

Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and organisational Psychology*, *1*(1), 3-30.

Maertz, C. P., & Campion, M. A. (2004). Profiles in quitting: Integrating process and content turnover theory. *Academy of Management Journal*, *47*(4), 566-582.

Maertz, C. P., Griffeth, R. W., Campbell, N. S., & Allen, D. G. (2007). The effects of perceived organisational support and perceived supervisor support on employee turnover. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, *28*(8), 1059-1075.

Magolego. H., Barkhuizen, E.N. & Lesenyeho, D.L. (2013). Talent Management and Job Performance: The Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction. In S.M. Lee & G. Roodt (Eds.), *30th Pan Pacific Conference, Johannesburg, South Africa* (pp. 132-135), ISBN: 1- 931649-27-3. PPBA

Mahembe, B., & Engelbrecht, A. S. (2013). The relationship between servant leadership, affective team commitment and team effectiveness. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *11*(1), 10-pages.

Malhotra, N., & Peterson, M. (2006). Basic Marketing Research; a decision-making approach. *New Jersey*, *7458*.

Marah, T., & Leigh-Ann, M. (2008). The war for talent: Fact or Fiction. *Retrieved May*, *7*, 2010.

Markova, G., & Ford, C. (2011). Is money the panacea? Rewards for knowledge workers. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, *60*(8), 813-823.

Marsh, R. M., & Mannari, H. (1977). Organisational commitment and turnover: A prediction study. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 57-75.

Martel, L. (2003). Finding and keeping high performers: best practices from 25 best companies. *Employment Relations Today*, *30*(1), 27-43.

Masibigiri, V., & Nienaber, H. (2011). Factors affecting the retention of Generation X public servants: an exploratory study: original research. *SA Journal of human resource management*, *9*(1), 1-11.

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2008). Early predictors of job burnout and engagement. *Journal of applied psychology*, *93*(3), 498.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual review of psychology*, *52*(1), 397-422.

Mathieu, J. E., & Hamel, K. (1989). A causal model of the antecedents of organisational commitment among professionals and nonprofessionals. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *34*(3), 299-317.

Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organisational commitment. *Psychological bulletin*, *108*(2), 171.

May, D. R., Gilson, R. L., & Harter, L. M. (2004). The psychological conditions of meaningfulness, safety and availability and the engagement of the human spirit at work. *Journal of occupational and organisational psychology*, *77*(1), 11-37.

Mayer, R. C., & Schoorman, F. D. (1992). Predicting participation and production outcomes through a two-dimensional model of organisational commitment. *Academy of Management journal*, *35*(3), 671-684.

McCauley, C., & Wakefield, M. (2006). Talent Management in the 21st Century: Help Your Company Find, Develop, and Keep its Strongest Workers. *Journal for quality & participation*, *29*(4).

McDonald, D. J., & Makin, P. J. (2000). The psychological contract, organisational commitment and job satisfaction of temporary staff. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *21*(2), 84-91.

McDonnell, A. (2011). Still fighting the “war for talent”? Bridging the science versus practice gap. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *26*(2), 169-173.

McDonnell, A., Lamare, R., Gunnigle, P. and Lavelle, J. (2010), Developing tomorrow’s leaders – evidence of global talent management in multinational enterprises, *Journal of World Business*, Vol. 45 No. 2, pp. 150-60.

McNeely, R. L. (1984). Occupation, gender, and work satisfaction in a comprehensive human services department. *Administration in Social Work*, *8*(2), 35-47.

Mendes, F., & Stander, M. W. (2011). Positive organisation: The role of leader behaviour in work engagement and retention. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *37*(1), 1-13.

Mercer, S. R. (2005). Best-in-class leadership. *Leadership Excellence*, 22(3), 17.

Merton, R. K. (1957). Social theory and social structure, rev. ed. New York: Free Press.

Metle, M. A. K. (2005). Age-related differences in work attitudes and behavior among Kuwaiti women employees in the public sector. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, *15*(1), 47-67.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1984). Testing the" side-bet theory" of organisational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of applied psychology*, *69*(3), 372.

Meyer, J. P. (1997). Organisational commitment. *Wiley Encyclopedia of Management*.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organisational commitment. *Human resource management review*, *1*(1), 61-89.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of applied psychology*, *78*(4), 538.

Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human resource management review*, *11*(3), 299-326.

Meyer, J. P., & Smith, C. A. (2000). HRM practices and organisational commitment: Test of a mediation model. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue canadienne des sciences de l'administration*, *17*(4), 319-331.

Meyer, M., Bushney, M., Katz, M., Knoke, G., Lategan, A., Ludike, J., *et al*. (2007). *Managing human resource development*: *An outcome based approach*. (3rd ed.). Cape Town: LexisNexis.

Meyers, M. C., Van Woerkom, M., & Dries, N. (2013). Talent—Innate or acquired? Theoretical considerations and their implications for talent management. *Human Resource Management Review*, *23*(4), 305-321.

Michaels, E., Handfield-Jones, H., & Axelrod, B. (2001). *The war for talent*. Harvard Business Press.

Miller, K., Haskell, C., & Thatcher, A. (2002). The relationship between intention to emigrate and organisational commitment. *South African Journal of Psychology*, *32*(3), 16-20.

Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., & Lee, T. W. (2001). How to keep your best employees: Developing an effective retention policy. *The Academy of Management Executive*, *15*(4), 96-108.

Mobley, W. H. (1977). Intermediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover. *Journal of applied psychology*, *62*(2), 237.

Mobley, W. H. (1982). Some unanswered questions in turnover and withdrawal research. *Academy of Management Review*, *7*(1), 111-116.

Mobley, W. H., Griffeth, R. W., Hand, H. H., & Meglino, B. M. (1979). Review and conceptual analysis of the employee turnover process. *Psychological bulletin*, *86*(3), 493.

Montgomery, A. J., Peeters, M. C. W., Schaufeli, W. B., & Ouden, M. D. (2003). Work home interference among newspaper managers: Its relationship with burnout and engagement. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping*, *16*(2), 195-211.

Moore, J. E. (2000). One road to turnover: An examination of work exhaustion in technology professionals. *MIS Quarterly*, 141-168.

Moore, K. A. (2001). Hospital restructuring: impact on nurses mediated by social support and a perception of challenge. *Journal of Health and Human Services Administration*, 490-516.

Morrow, P. C. (1993). *The theory and measurement of work commitment*. Jai Press.

Mottaz, C. J. (1988). Determinants of organisational commitment. *Human relations*, *41*(6), 467-482.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. (1982). Organisational linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Dubin, R. (1974). Unit performance, situational factors, and employee attitudes in spatially separated work units. *Organisational behavior and human performance*, *12*(2), 231-248.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organisational commitment. *Journal of vocational behavior*, *14*(2), 224-247.

Mpofu. L., & Barkhuizen, E.N. (2013). The Impact of Talent Management Practices on Employees in a Government Institution. In S.M. Lee & G. Roodt (Eds.), *30th Pan Pacific Conference, Johannesburg, South Africa* (pp. (129-131) ISBN: 1-931649-27-3. PPBA.

Mtila, J., Barkhuizen, E.N., & Mokgele, R. (2013). Exploring the Application of Talent Management Practices in a Local Government Institution, 30th Pan Pacific Business Association Conference, Johannesburg, South Africa.

Mullins L.J. (2005). *Management and Organisational Behaviour*. 7th edition. Prentice Hall.

Mullins L.J. (2010). *Management and Organisational Behaviour*. 9th edition. Prentice Hall.

Ncube, C. M., & Samuel, M. O. (2014). Revisiting Employee Motivation and Job Satisfaction within the Context of an Emerging Economy: Theoretical Representation and Developing the Model. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, *5*(9), 267.

Neale, M. A., & Northcraft, G. B. (1991). Factors influencing organisational commitment. *Motivation and Work Behavior*, 290-297.

Netemeyer, R. G., Johnston, M. W., & Burton, S. (1990). Analysis of role conflict and role ambiguity in a structural equations framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*(2), 148.

Nijs, S., Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Dries, N., & Sels, L. (2014). A multidisciplinary review into the definition, operationalization, and measurement of talent. *Journal of World Business*, *49*(2), 180-191.

Oehley, A. M. (2007). *The development and evaluation of a partial talent management competency model* (Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch).

Oehley, A. M., & Theron, C. C. (2010). The development and evaluation of a partial talent management structural model. *Management Dynamics: Journal of the Southern African Institute for Management Scientists*, *19*(3), 2-28.

Ogilvie, J. R. (1986). The role of human resource management practices in predicting organisational commitment. *Group & Organization Management*, *11*(4), 335-359.

Okpara, J. O. (2004). Personal characteristics as predictors of job satisfaction: An exploratory study of IT managers in a developing economy. *Information Technology & People*, *17*(3), 327-338.

Opsahl, R. L., & Dunnette, M. D. (1966). Role of financial compensation in industrial motivation. *Psychological bulletin*, *66*(2), 94.

O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organisational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of applied psychology*, *71*(3), 492.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organisational citizenship behavior. *Personnel psychology*, *48*(4), 775-802.

Oshagbemi, T. (2000). Gender differences in the job satisfaction of university teachers. *Women in Management Review*, *15*(7), 331-343.

Paauwe, J. (2007). HRM and performance: in search of balance. : Tilburg university.

Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for windows (version 15)* (3rd ed.). Crows Nest: Allen and Unwin.

Palmisano, S. (2007). The globally integrated enterprise. *Foreign Affairs*, 85: 127–136.

Pascal, C. (2004). *Talent management systems: Best practices in technology solutions for recruitment, retention, and workforce planning*. Canada: Wiley.

Patchen, M. (1970). Participation, achievement, and involvement on the job. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Pearson, C. A. (1995). The turnover process in organizations: An exploration of the role of met-unmet expectations. *Human Relations*, *48*(4), 405-420.

Pellissier, R. (2008). *Business research made easy*. Juta: Cape Town.

Penley, L. E., & Gould, S. (1988). Etzioni's model of organisational involvement: A perspective for understanding commitment to organizations. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, *9*(1), 43-59.

Pienaar, J., Sieberhagen, C.F. & Mostert, K. (2007). Investigating turnover intentions by role overload, job satisfaction and social support moderation. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 33(2): 62-67.

Ployhart, R. E. (2006). Staffing in the 21st century: New challenges and strategic opportunities. *Journal of management*, *32*(6), 868-897.

Ployhart, R. E., Nyberg, A. J., Reilly, G., & Maltarich, M. A. (2014). Human capital is dead; long live human capital resources!. *Journal of Management*, *40*(2), 371-398.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of applied psychology*, *59*(5), 603.

Preece, D., Iles, P., & Chuai, X. (2011). Talent management and management fashion in Chinese enterprises: Exploring case studies in Beijing. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *22*(16), 3413-3428.

Price, J. L., & Mueller, C. W. (1986). *Absenteeism and turnover of hospital employees*. JAI press.

Purani, K., & Sahadev, S. (2008). The moderating role of industrial experience in the job satisfaction, intention to leave relationship: an empirical study among salesmen in India. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, *23*(7), 475-485.

Rahim, M. A., & Psenicka, C. (1996). A structural equations model of stress, locus of control, social support, psychiatric symptoms, and propensity to leave a job. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *136*(1), 69-84.

Rahman, A., Naqvi, S. M. M. R., & Ramay, M. I. (2008). Measuring turnover intention: A study of IT professionals in Pakistan. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, *4*(3), 45-55.

Raosoft. Sample size calculator. Available at http://www.raosoft.com/samplesize. html. Accessed 17 September 2015.

Rayton, B. A. (2006). Examining the interconnection of job satisfaction and organisational commitment: An application of the bivariate probit model. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *17*(1), 139-154.

Ready, D. A., & Conger, J. A. (2007). Make your company a talent factory. *Harvard business review*, *85*(6), 68.

Reichers, A. E. (1985). A review and reconceptualization of organisational commitment. *Academy of management review*, *10*(3), 465-476.

Renaud, S., Morin, L., Saulquin, J. Y., & Abraham, J. (2015). What are the best HRM practices for retaining experts? A longitudinal study in the Canadian information technology sector. *International Journal of Manpower*, *36*(3).

Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. *Academy of management journal*, *53*(3), 617-635.

Richman, A. (2006). Everyone wants an engaged workforce how can you create it. *Workspan*, *49*(1), 36-9.

Robbins, S.P. (1993). *Organisational behaviour, concepts, controversies and applications.* 6th Ed. Englewood Cliffs. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Robbins S.P., Judge T.A., Odendaal A. & Roodt G. (2009). *Organisational Behaviour. Global and Southern African perspectives*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.

Robbins S.P., Odendaal A. & Roodt G. (2003). *Organisational Behaviour. Global and Southern African perspectives*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.

Robinson, D., Perryman, S., & Hayday, S. (2004). The drivers of employment engagement. *Brighton, Institute for Employment Studies, UK: report, 408*.

Robinson, S. L., & Morrison, E. W. (1995). Psychological contracts and OCB: The effect of unfulfilled obligations on civic virtue behavior. *Journal of organisational behavior, 16*(3), 289-298.

Robyn, A., & Du Preez, R. (2013). Intention to quit amongst Generation Y academics in higher education. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 39*(1), 1-14.

Rogers, R. (1991). The effects of educational level on correctional officer job satisfaction. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, *19*(2), 123-137.

Roland, T., Rust, G. L., Stewart, H. M., & Pielack, D. (1996). The satisfaction and retention of front-line employees. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 7*(5), 62-80.

Romans, J., & Lardner, L. (2005). Integrated talent management at BD Japan: How a holistic approach to talent management built a high performance culture. *Strategic HR Review*, *4*(5), 16-19.

Roodt, G., & Bothma, F. C. (1997). Die koste van vrywillige, beheerbare arbeidomset. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *23*(1), 26-30.

Roodt, G., & Kotze, K. (2005). Factors that affect the retention of managerial and specialist staff: An exploratory study of an employee commitment model. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 3*(2), 48-55.

Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *46*(4), 655-684.

Rothmann, S., & Rothmann Jr, S. (2010). Factors associated with employee engagement in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *36*(2), 1-12.

Rothwell, W. J., & Kazanas, H. C. (2003). *The strategic development of talent*. Human Resource Development.

Rumpel, S., & Medcof, J. W. (2006). Total rewards: good fit for tech workers. *Research Technology Management*, *49*(5), 27-35.

Rusbult, C. E., & Farrell, D. (1983). A longitudinal test of the investment model: The impact on job satisfaction, job commitment, and turnover of variations in rewards, costs, alternatives, and investments. *Journal of applied psychology*, *68*(3), 429.

Saks, A. M. (1996). The Relationship Between the Amount and Helpfulness of Entry Thaining and Work Outcomes. *Human Relations*, *49*(4), 429-451.

Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of managerial psychology*, *21*(7), 600-619.

Scarbrough, H., & Elias, J. (2002). *Evaluating human capital*. CIPD Publishing.

Schaufeli, W.B. & Bakker, A.B. (2003). UWES – Utrecht work engagement scale: test manual. *Department of Psychology, Utrecht University*, Utrecht, available at: www.schaufeli.com

Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of organisational Behavior*, *25*(3), 293-315.

Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., González-Romá, V., & Bakker, A. B. (2002). The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness studies*, *3*(1), 71-92.

Scheweyer, A. (2004). Talent management systems: best practices in technology solutions for recruitment, retention and workplace planning.

Schlechter, A., Hung, A., & Bussin, M. (2014). Understanding talent attraction: The influence of financial rewards elements on perceived job attractiveness. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *12*(1), 13-pages.

Schoemaker, M., & Jonker, J. (2005). Managing intangible assets: An essay on organising contemporary organisations based upon identity, competencies and networks. *Journal of Management Development*, *24*(6), 506-518.

Scholl, R. W. (1981). Differentiating organisational commitment from expectancy as a motivating force. *Academy of management Review*, *6*(4), 589-599.

Schuler, R. S., Jackson, S. E., & Tarique, I. (2011). Global talent management and global talent challenges: Strategic opportunities for IHRM. *Journal of World Business*, *46*(4), 506-516.

Schultz, T. W. (1961). Investment in human capital. *The American economic review*, 1-17.

Schultz, T. W. (1971). Investment in Human Capital. The Role of Education and of Research.

Schweyer, A. (2010). *Talent management systems: Best practices in technology solutions for recruitment, retention and workforce planning*. John Wiley & Sons.

Schyns, B., & Croon, M. A. (2006). A model of task demands, social structure, and leader member exchange and their relationship to job satisfaction. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *17*(4), 602-615.

Scullion, H., & Collings, D. G. (Eds.). (2006). *Global staffing*. Routledge.

Scullion, H., Collings, D.G., & Caligiuri, P. (2010), Global talent management, *Journal of World Business*, Vol. 45 No. 2, pp. 105-8.

Sekaran, U. (2003). Research methods for business . Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R., (2010) *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach.* 5th Edition, illustrated. John Wiley & Sons

Sempane, M. E., Rieger, H. S., & Roodt, G (2002). Job satisfaction in relation to organisational culture. *SA Journal of industrial Psychology*, *28*(2), 23-30.

Seston, E., Hassell, K., Ferguson, J., & Hann, M. (2009). Exploring the relationship between pharmacists' job satisfaction, intention to quit the profession, and actual quitting. *Research in Social and Administrative pharmacy*, *5*(2), 121-132.

Settoon, R. P., Bennett, N., & Liden, R. C. (1996). Social exchange in organizations: Perceived organisational support, leader–member exchange, and employee reciprocity. *Journal of applied psychology, 81*(3), 219.

Shader, K., Broome, M. E., Broome, C. D., West, M. E., & Nash, M. (2001). Factors influencing satisfaction and anticipated turnover for nurses in an academic medical center. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, *31*(4), 210-216.

Shaw, K. (2005). An engagement strategy process for communicators. *Strategic Communication Management, 9*(3), 26.

Sheldon, M. E. (1971). Investments and involvements as mechanisms producing commitment to the organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 143-150.

Shields, M. A., & Ward, M. (2001). Improving nurse retention in the National Health Service in England: the impact of job satisfaction on intentions to quit. *Journal of health economics*, *20*(5), 677-701.

Shore, L. M., & Martin, H. J. (1989). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment in relation to work performance and turnover intentions. *Human relations*, *42*(7), 625-638.

Shore, L. M., & Wayne, S. J. (1993). Commitment and employee behavior: comparison of affective commitment and continuance commitment with perceived organisational support. *Journal of applied psychology*, *78*(5), 774.

Shuck, B., Reio Jr, T. G., & Rocco, T. S. (2011). Employee engagement: An examination of antecedent and outcome variables. *Human resource development international*, *14*(4), 427-445.

Shuck, B., & Wollard, K. (2010). Employee engagement and HRD: A seminal review of the foundations. *Human Resource Development Review*, *9*(1), 89-110.

Silva, P. (2006). Effects of disposition on hospitality employee job satisfaction and commitment. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *18*(4), 317-328.

Silzer, R., & Dowell, B. E. (2010). Strategic talent management matters. *Strategy-driven talent management: A leadership imperative*, 3-72.

Sim, J., & Wright, C. (2000). *Research in health care: concepts, designs and methods*. Nelson Thornes.

Simpson, M. R. (2009). Engagement at work: A review of the literature. *International journal of nursing studies*, *46*(7), 1012-1024.

Singh, A. (2010). A study on the perception of work-life balance policies among software professionals. *IUP Journal Of Management Research*, *9*(3), 34.

Slater, P. E. (1966). *Microcosm*. Wiley, New York.

Slåtten, T., & Mehmetoglu, M. (2011). Antecedents and effects of engaged frontline employees: A study from the hospitality industry. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal, 21*(1), 88-107.

Smith, P. C C., Kendall, L. M, & Hulin, C. L. (1969). The measurement of satisfaction in work and retirement: A strategy for the study of attitudes. Chicago: RandMcNally.

Smythe, J. (2007). Employee engagement-its real essence: … and how it helped to transform a top-four UK bank. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, *15*(7), 11-13.

Somers, M. J. (1995). Organisational commitment, turnover and absenteeism: An examination of direct and interaction effects. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, *16*(1), 49-58.

Sonnenberg, M. (2011). Talent–Key ingredients. *Accenture Talent & Organization Performance*.

Sonnentag, S. (2003). Recovery, work engagement, and proactive behavior: a new look at the interface between nonwork and work. *Journal of applied psychology*, *88*(3), 518.

Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the job satisfaction survey. *American journal of community psychology*, *13*(6), 693-713.

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences* (Vol. 3). Sage.

Srivastava, P., & Bhatnagar, J. (2008). Talent acquisition due diligence leading to high employee engagement: case of Motorola India MDB. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, *40*(5), 253-260.

Stadler, K. (2011). Talent reviews: the key to effective succession management. *Business Strategy Series*, *12*(5), 264-271.

Stahl, G. K., Bjorkman, I., Farndale, E., Morris, S. S., Stiles, P., Trevor, J., *et al*. (2007). *Global talent management: How leading multinationals build and sustain their talent pipeline*, Faculty & research working paper. Fontainebleau, France: INSEAD.

Stairs, M., Galpin, M., Page, N., & Linley, A. (2006). Retention on a knife edge: The role of employee engagement in talent management. *Selection and Development Review*, *22*(5), 19.

Stats, S. A. (2015). Quarterly Labour Force Survey: Quarter 3: 2015. *Report, Pretoria: Statistics South Africa*.

Staw, B. M., & Ross, J. (1985). Stability in the midst of change: A dispositional approach to job attitudes. *Journal of Applied psychology*, *70*(3), 469.

Steel, R. P., & Ovalle, N. K. (1984). A review and meta-analysis of research on the relationship between behavioral intentions and employee turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *69*(4), 673.

Steers, R. M. (1977).Antecedents and Outcomes of Organisational Commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 22, 46-56.

Steers, R., & Mowday, R. (1981). Employee turnover and post-decision accommodation processes. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organisational behavior: Vol. 3.* Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Stephenson, E., & Pandit, A. (2008). How companies act on global trends: A McKinsey global survey. *McKinsey, Boston, MA.*

Strack, R., Baier, J., & Fahlander, A. (2008). Managing demographic risk. *Harvard Business Review*, *86*(2), 119-128.

Strack, R., Caye, J. M., Leicht, M., Villis, U., Bohm, H & McDonnell, M. (2007). T*he Future of HR in Europe: Key Challenges through 2015*, Boston Consulting Group and European Association for Personnel Management

Strack, R., Caye, J. M., Von der Linden, C., Quiros, H., & Haen, P. (2012). From Capability to Profitability: Realizing the value of people management. *Bethesda, MD: The Boston Consulting Group*.

Strümpfer, D. J. W. (2003). Resilience and burnout: A stitch that could save nine. *South African Journal of Psychology, 33*(2), 69-79.

Studenmund, A. H. (2011). Using econometrics: A practical guide. New York Addison-Wesley.

Subramaniam, N., McManus, L., & Mia, L. (2002). Enhancing hotel managers' organisational commitment: an investigation of the impact of structure, need for achievement and participative budgeting. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *21*(4), 303-320.

Sujan, H. (1986). Smarter versus harder: An exploratory attributional analysis of salespeople's motivation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 41-49.

Sulu, S., Ceylan, A., & Kaynak, R. (2010). Work alienation as a mediator of the relationship between organisational injustice and organisational commitment: implications for healthcare professionals. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *5*(8), 27.

Suman, S., & Srivastava, A. K. (2012). Antecedents of Organisational Commitment across Hierarchical Levels. *Psychology & Developing Societies*, *24*(1), 61-83.

Sutherland, M. & Jordaan, W (2004). Factors affecting the retention of knowledge workers. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 2(2): 55-64.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). Using multivariate statistics. 4th ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). Multivariate analysis of variance and covariance. *Using multivariate statistics*, *3*, 402-407.

Takase, M. (2010). A concept analysis of turnover intention: Implications for nursing management. *Collegian*, *17*(1), 3-12.

Takawira, N., Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, D. (2014). Job embeddedness, work engagement and turnover intention of staff in a higher education institution: an exploratory study: original research. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *12*(1), 1-10.

Tang, T. L. P., & Kim, J. K. (1999). The meaning of money among mental health workers: The endorsement of Money Ethic as related to organisational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction, and commitment. *Public Personnel Management*, *28*(1), 15-26.

Tansley, C. (2011). What do we mean by the term "talent" in talent management? *Industrial and commercial training*, *43*(5), 266-274.

Tansley, C., Harris, L., Stewart, J., & Turner, P. (2006). Talent management: Understanding the dimensions. Change Agenda. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD).

Tansley, C., Turner, P., Carley, F., Harris, L., Sempik, A., Stewart, J., et al. (2007). *Talent: Strategy, management, measurement.* London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD).

Taplin, I. M., & Winterton, J. (2007). The importance of management style in labour retention. *International journal of sociology and social policy*, *27*(1/2), 5-18.

Tarique, I., & Schuler, R. S. (2010). Global talent management: Literature review, integrative framework, and suggestions for further research. *Journal of world business*, *45*(2), 122-133.

Tella, A., Ayeni, C. O., & Popoola, S. O. (2007). Work motivation, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment of library personnel in academic and research librariesin Oyo State, Nigeria. *Library philosophy and practice*, *9*(2), 13.

Testa, M. R. (2001). Organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and effort in the service environment. *The Journal of Psychology*, *135*(2), 226-236.

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel psychology*, *46*(2), 259-293.

Thedford, J. (2010). *Smart Moves Management: Cultivating World-class People and Profits*. Greenleaf Book Group.

The Economist (2006). Survey: talent. The Economist. Retrieved on 12 August, 2015, From: http://www.economist.com.

The Gallup Organisation (2004) [online] Available at: www.gallup.com. Accessed 10th June 2015.

Theron, M., Barkhuizen, N., & Du Plessis, Y. (2014). Managing the academic talent void: Investigating factors in academic turnover and retention in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *40*(1), 14-pages.

Thunnissen, M., Boselie, P., & Fruytier, B. (2013). Talent management and the relevance of context: Towards a pluralistic approach. *Human Resource Management Review*, *23*(4), 326-336.

Trevor, C. O. (2001). Interactions among actual ease-of-movement determinants and job satisfaction in the prediction of voluntary turnover. *Academy of management journal*, *44*(4), 621-638.

Trimble, J. E. & Fisher, C. B. (2006). *The Handbook of Ethical Research with Ethno cultural Populations and Communities.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tucker, E., Kao, T., & Verma, N. (2005). Next-Generation Talent Management. Business Credit, 107, 20-27.

Turnipseed, D. L., & Rassuli, A. (2005). Performance Perceptions of Organisational Citizenship Behaviours at Work: a Bi-Level Study among Managers and Employees. *British Journal of Management*, *16*(3), 231-244.

Tymon Jr, W. G., Stumpf, S. A., & Doh, J. P. (2010). Exploring talent management in India: The neglected role of intrinsic rewards. *Journal of World Business*, *45*(2), 109-121.

Tzeng, H. M. (2002). The influence of nurses' working motivation and job satisfaction on intention to quit: an empirical investigation in Taiwan. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, *39*(8), 867-878.

Ulrich, D., & Smallwood, N. (2012). What is talent? *Leader to Leader*, *2012*(63), 55-61.

Vaiman, V. (2010). *Talent Management of Knowledge Workers: Embracing the Non-Traditional Workforce*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Vaiman, V., & Holden, N. (2011). Talent management in Central and Eastern Europe. *Global Talent Management*, 178.

Vaiman, V., Scullion, H., & Collings, D. (2012). Talent management decision making. *Management Decision*, *50*(5), 925-941.

Vance, R. J. (2006). *Employee engagement and commitment: A guide to understanding, measuring and increasing engagement in your organization*. SHRM Foundation.

Van Dick, R., Christ, O., Stellmacher, J., Wagner, U., Ahlswede, O., Grubba, C & Tissington, P. A. (2004). Should i stay or should i go? Explaining turnover intentions with organisational identification and job satisfaction*. *British Journal of Management*, *15*(4), 351-360.

Wagner, R., & Harter, J. K. (2006). *12: The elements of great managing* (Vol. 978, No. 1 59992). Gallup Press.

Wandera, H. T. (2011). The effects of short term employment contract on an organization: a case of Kenya Forest Service. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, *1*(21), 184-204.

Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organisational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management journal*, *40*(1), 82-111.

Weisberg, J. (1994). Measuring workers' burnout and intention to leave. *International Journal of Manpower*, *15*(1), 4-14.

Weiss, D. J. , Dawis, R. V., England, G. W. & Lofquist, L. H. (1967), Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. Vol. 22, Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation, Minneapolis*: University of Minnesota, Industrial Relations Center.*

Wellins, R. S., Smith, A. B., & McGee, L. (2006). *The CEO's guide to talent management: building a global leadership pipeline*. Development Dimensions International.

Werbel, J. D., & Bedeian, A. G. (1989). Intended turnover as a function of age and job performance. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, *10*(3), 275-281.

Wiener, Y., & Vardi, Y. (1980). Relationships between job, organization, and career commitments and work outcomes—An integrative approach. *Organisational Behavior and Human Performance, 26*(1), 81-96.

Williams, L. J., & Hazer, J. T. (1986). Antecedents and consequences of satisfaction and commitment in turnover models: A reanalysis using latent variable structural equation methods. *Journal of applied psychology, 71*(2), 219.

Winterton, J. (2004). A conceptual model of labour turnover and retention. *Human Resource Development International*, *7*(3), 371-390.

Whitener, E. M., & Walz, P. M. (1993). Exchange theory determinants of affective and continuance commitment and turnover. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 42*(3), 265-281.

Wollard, K. K., & Shuck, B. (2011). Antecedents to employee engagement a structured review of the Literature. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, *13*(4), 429-446.

Wunder, R. S., Dougherty, T. W., & Welsh, M. A. (1982, August). A Casual Model of Role Stress and Employee Turnover. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 1982, No. 1, pp. 297-301). Academy of Management.

Yang, J. T. (2010). Antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *29*(4), 609-619.

Yeung, A., Warner, M., & Rowley, C. (2008). Guest editors' introduction growth and globalization: Evolution of human resource management practices in Asia. *Human Resource Management*, *47*(1), 1-13.

Yin, R. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods* . Beverly Hills.

Zaltman, G., Pinson, C.R.A. & Angelmar, R. (1977) *Metatheory and Consumer Research*, Ney York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Zeffane, R. (1994). Patterns of organisational commitment and perceived management style: A comparison of public and private sector employees. *Human Relations*, *47*(8), 977-1010.

Zigarmi, D., Nimon, K., Houson, D., Witt, D., & Diehl, J. (2009). Beyond engagement: Toward a framework and operational definition for employee work passion. *Human Resource Development Review*.

Zikmund, W. G (2003). *Business Research Methods*. 7th Edition. USA. Thomson-South Western.

APPENDIX A

A.1. Cover Letter

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Good Day

My name is Chrisbel Mduduzi Ncube. I am a student at the University of the Witwatersrand. As part of completing my course at the University, I need to complete a dissertation in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Masters in the School of Economic and Business Sciences.

The aim of this voluntary survey is to collect feedback from you on the topic of "mediating the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit". Effective talent management is essential in achieving organisational excellence and is a driving force for business success. The research findings will assist organisations in South Africa to develop and implement talent management practices that will not only assist them in attracting, developing, and retaining the skilled workers they need but also enhance employee engagement, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and reduce employees' intention to quit and in turn decrease staff turnover. The data is being collected for academic purposes only.

The study consists of a questionnaire that will be administered to participants. I would very sincerely appreciate it if you could take the time from your busy schedule to complete the questionnaire for me. The questionnaire is completely anonymous and the information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Anonymity and confidentiality are guaranteed by not needing to enter your name on the questionnaire, and by destroying the questionnaires after the survey is completed and the University requirements are met.

Completing the survey questionnaire should take no more than 15 minutes of your time. Your participation is completely voluntary and involves no risk, penalty, or loss of benefits whether or not you participate. You may withdraw from the survey at any stage. There are no wrong or right answers, so please feel free to express your true feelings in your answers, as honestly as you can.

Thank you in advance for taking the time to complete the questionnaire and participating in the survey.

Should you have any concern or require further information regarding the study or the results of the study, do not hesitate to contact me on Email: chrisbel.ncube@students.wits.ac.za or Cell: +2771 587 8865.

In case you have any questions or queries, my supervisors' details are: Prof. MO Samuel, Email: Olorunjuwon.Samuel@wits.ac.za or Phone: +27117178124/ +27796677055.

A.2. Consent Form

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN MASTERS RESEACRH

Mediating the Relationship between Talent Management Practices and Intention to Quit

Please read the following, and sign in the space below should you agree to complete the questionnaire. If you have any questions relating to the consent form, please contact the principal researcher, Chrisbel Mduduzi Ncube, 071 587 8865 chrisbel.ncube@students.wits.ac.za

I have read and understand the contents of the participant information sheet attached to the questionnaire, a copy of which I have received for my own records. I have been encouraged to ask questions and all of my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. By signing this form:

- I agree voluntarily to participate in this study.
- I understand that my responses will be treated as anonymous and confidential at all times and that this signed consent form will be kept separate from the questionnaire I complete.
- I know that I can withdraw from the study at any time.

______________________________ __________________
Signature of participant Date

______________________________ __________________
Signature of person obtaining consent Date

A.3. Questionnaire

Instructions

- Please read each question carefully and complete all the questions.
- This questionnaire will be kept completely confidential, so please answer the questions as honestly as you can.
- The questionnaire consists of six sections:

Section A- Biographical Characteristics

This section of the questionnaire focuses on the biographical information of the respondents.

Please indicate your response by placing a cross in the appropriate boxes below:

1. **Gender** (Please indicate your gender):

1	Male
2	Female

2. **Age** (Please indicate your age, in years):

1	2	3	4	5
18 - 20 years	21 - 30 years	31 - 40 years	41 - 50 years	51 and older

3. **Education** (Please indicate your highest educational qualification completed):

1	2	3	4	5
Grade 11 or lower	Grade 12 (Matric)	Diploma/ Certificate	Bachelor's degree	Post-Graduate degree

4. **Tenure/ Experience** (Please indicate your length of service/duration of employment in the organisation):

1	2	3	4	5
Less than 1 year	1 - +3 years	+3 - 5 years	+5 - 7 years	7+ years

5. Section B- Talent Management Practices *(Human Capital Index)*

To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your organisation's Talent Management Practices?

(Please note that this question continues on to question 6)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
5.1 The organisation is very good at implementing and executing strategy.					
5.2 Strategic goals are effectively communicated to all employees.					
5.3 The organisation's business strategy and human capital strategy are aligned.					
5.4 The organisation knows who the best performers are.					
5.5 Rewards and opportunities are provided to employees based on their contribution.					
5.6 The majority of talent is developed internally as opposed to externally hired.					
5.7 The company's workforce is diverse and includes people from different backgrounds, perspectives and experiences.					
5.8 Diversity is properly represented in senior management and executive levels.					
5.9 The most critical jobs are given priority when hiring.					
5.10. The organisation can attract top talent.					
5.11. Newly hired employees get off to a fast and productive start.					
5.12. The hiring process is efficient, effective and focuses on "quality of hire".					
5.13. Our Organisation has the right people with right skills in the right places.					
5.14 Workforce planning in our organisation is long-term focused.					
5.15 Our Organisation conducts workforce planning broadly across all divisions and business units.					

6. **Section B- Talent Management *(HCI)* (***Continued from question 5)*

To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your organization's Talent Management Practices?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
6.1 Top performers are challenged to improve their skills and take the next steps in their careers.					
6.2 Coaching and mentoring are primary development approaches.					
6.3 Communication to employees is frequent and meaningful.					
6.4 There is a "line of sight" between employees' jobs and the company's strategic goals.					
6.5 Top performers are paid more for the value they provide.					
6.6 Nonfinancial rewards are effectively used to reinforce excellent performance.					
6.7 The organisation can retain our best performers					
6.8 Turnover is tracked across divisions, locations, talent levels and managers					
6.9 Managers hold retention conversations with employees frequently.					
6.10. The organisation has a competitive pay package (i.e. basic salary plus benefits and allowances).					
6.11. The organisation provides medical aid, retirement and pension benefits for its employees.					
6.12. The organisation provides incentive bonuses for its employees.					

7. Section C: Employee Engagement *(Utrecht Work Engagement Scale)*

The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. Indicate how often you felt it by choosing the statement that best describes how frequently you feel that way	**Never**	**Almost Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Often**	**Very Often**	**Always**
7.1 At my work, I feel bursting with energy.							
7.2 At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.							
7.3 I am enthusiastic about my job.							
7.4 My job inspires me.							
7.5 When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.							
7.6 I feel happy when I am working intensely.							
7.7 I am proud of the work that I do.							
7.8 I am immersed in my work.							
7.9 I get carried away when I'm working.							

8. **Section D- Organisational Commitment *(OCQ Scale)***

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Natural	Agree	Strongly Agree
8.1 I					
8.2					
8.3					
8.4					
8.5 .					
8.6					
8.7					
8.8					
8.9					

9. **Section E- Job Satisfaction** ***(Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire)***

The purpose of this section is to give you a chance to tell **how you feel about you present job,** what things you are **satisfied** with and what things you are **not satisfied** with. Ask yourself: **How satisfied** am I with this aspect of my job?

Please indicate your response by placing a cross (x) in in the appropriate boxes below: **On my present job, this is how I feel about . . .**	**Not Satisfied**	**Slightly Satisfied**	**Satisfied**	**Very Satisfied**	**Extremely Satisfied**
9.1 The recognition for the work I do.					
9.2 Relationship with co-workers.					
9.3 The working conditions.					
9.4 The way my supervisor and I understand each other.					
9.5 The amount of pay for the work I do.					
9.6 The opportunities for advancement on this job.					
9.7 Company policies and the way in which they are administered.					
9.8 The responsibility of my job.					
9.9 The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.					

10. Section F- Intention to Quit *(ITQ Scale)*

Listed below are statements that reflect on your intention to leave the organisation in the near future. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by crossing out the answer that best represents your point of view.

Please indicate your response by placing a cross (x) in the appropriate boxes below:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
10.1 I think a lot about leaving this organisation.					
10.2 I am currently searching for employment outside this organisation.					
10.3 When possible I will leave this organisation.					

***** END *****

Thank you for completing the questionnaire, your participation is highly appreciated.

Rest assured, your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

A.4. Ethics Clearance Certificate

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Ncube

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: H15/08/34**
PROJECT TITLE	Mediating the relationship between talent management practices and intention to quit
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Mr C Ncube
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Commerce, Law and Management/
DATE CONSIDERED	21 August 2015
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved unconditionally
EXPIRY DATE	02 September 2018

DATE 03 September 2015 **CHAIRPERSON** J. Knight
(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Professor M Samuel

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10005, 10th Floor, Senate House, University.

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

Signature

23 / 09 / 2015
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

A.4. Permission Letter

McCain Foods (SA) (Pty) Ltd.

Reg. No. 2000/008184/07

HEAD OFFICE	:	6 Osborne Lane, Bedfordview, 2008. P.O. Box 389, Bedfordview, 2008. Telephone +27(0)11 856 6000 Telefax +27(0)11 856 6001
DELMAS	:	Harrison McCain Road, Delmas, 2210. P.O. Box 1023, Delmas, 2210. Telephone +27(0)13 665 8600 Telefax +27(0)13 665 1562
GEORGE	:	Sandkraal Road, George Industria, 6536. P.O. Box 3030, George Industria, 6536. Telephone +27(0)44 802 4000 Telefax +27(0)44 802 4084
SPRINGS	:	Hasset Road, Nuffield, Springs, 1560. P.O. Box 231, Springs, 1560. Telephone +27(0)11 365 3000 Telefax +27(0)11 818 4096

29 October 2014

University of Witwatersrand
Johannesburg

<u>To whom it may concern</u>

Herewith confirmation that McCain Foods (SA) gave Mr Chrisbel Mduduzi Ncube, (Student Number 361500), permission to conduct his research on "Mediating the Relationship between Talent Management and Intention to Quit", at our company.

We request Mr Ncube conducts the research in close collaboration with the HR Department and that he clears content, timeline and participants with us before sending out the questionnaire.

In addition we request a copy of his desertion, after completion of his studies.

Best regards

Estie van Tonder
Snr HR Business Partner
McCain Foods (SA)

APPENDIX B

B.1. Hypothesis 1

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.481[a]	.231	.210	1.005813587356676	.231	10.987	4	146	.000	
2	.616[b]	.379	.358	.907150987940370	.148	34.485	1	145	.000	2.054

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Talent Management Practices

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	44.462	4	11.116	10.987	.000[b]
	Residual	147.703	146	1.012		
	Total	192.165	150			
2	Regression	72.841	5	14.568	17.703	.000[c]
	Residual	119.324	145	.823		
	Total	192.165	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

c. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Talent Management Practices

B.2. Hypothesis 2

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.195[a]	.038	.011	1.164951828079494	.038	1.435	4	146	.225	
2	.197[b]	.039	.006	1.168408579947655	.001	.137	1	145	.711	2.042

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Talent Management Practices

c. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.148[a]	.022	-.005	.968988113811861	.022	.816	4	146	.517	
2	.156[b]	.024	-.009	.971065263144971	.003	.376	1	145	.541	1.681

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Talent Management Practices

c. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.086[a]	.007	-.020	1.035446770277205	.007	.272	4	146	.896	
2	.088[b]	.008	-.026	1.038845302432490	.000	.046	1	145	.830	1.719

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Talent Management Practices

c. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

B.3. Hypothesis 3

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.387[a]	.150	.127	.952338788020256	.150	6.443	4	146	.000	
2	.530[b]	.281	.256	.879176438018772	.131	26.310	1	145	.000	1.800

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Talent Management Practices

c. Dependent Variable: Vigour

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.412[a]	.170	.147	1.019198807897588	.170	7.451	4	146	.000	
2	.639[b]	.408	.388	.863328480590601	.239	58.479	1	145	.000	1.757

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Talent Management Practices

c. Dependent Variable: Dedication

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.235[a]	.055	.029	.851554925771417	.055	2.136	4	146	.079	
2	.289[b]	.084	.052	.841510120827841	.028	4.506	1	145	.035	1.688

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Talent Management Practices

c. Dependent Variable: Absorption

B.4. Hypothesis 4

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.346[a]	.120	.096	.710124	.120	4.972	4	146	.001	
2	.653[b]	.426	.406	.575374	.306	77.393	1	145	.000	1.593

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Talent Management Practices

c. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

B.5. Hypothesis 5

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.481[a]	.231	.210	1.005813587356676	.231	10.987	4	146	.000	
2	.630[b]	.397	.376	.894023305639698	.166	39.795	1	145	.000	2.003

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Job Satisfaction

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

B.6. Hypothesis 6

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.481[a]	.231	.210	1.005813587356676	.231	10.987	4	146	.000	
2	.588[b]	.345	.313	.937988413566155	.114	8.293	3	143	.000	2.040

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Absorption, Dedication, Vigour

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.481[a]	.231	.210	1.005813587356676	.231	10.987	4	146	.000	
2	.582[b]	.339	.316	.936120500191176	.107	23.548	1	145	.000	2.039

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Dedication

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.481[a]	.231	.210	1.005813587356676	.231	10.987	4	146	.000	
2	.518[b]	.269	.244	.984408360423227	.037	7.418	1	145	.007	2.005

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Absorption

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

B.7. Hypothesis 7

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.481[a]	.231	.210	1.005813587356676	.231	10.987	4	146	.000	
2	.481[b]	.232	.205	1.009142687722314	.000	.038	1	145	.845	2.039

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Affective Commitment

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.481[a]	.231	.210	1.005813587356676	.231	10.987	4	146	.000	
2	.481[b]	.232	.205	1.009031987860019	.000	.070	1	145	.792	2.035

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Continuance Commitment

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.481[a]	.231	.210	1.005813587356676	.231	10.987	4	146	.000	
2	.481[b]	.231	.205	1.009195922884105	.000	.023	1	145	.880	2.037

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Normative Commitment

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

B.8. Hypothesis 8

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.166[a]	.028	.001	1.016712520504775	.028	1.036	4	146	.391	
2	.218[b]	.047	.015	1.009738262372090	.020	3.024	1	145	.084	1.933

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Job Satisfaction

c. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.187[a]	.035	.008	1.053931344564236	.035	1.316	4	146	.267	
2	.233[b]	.054	.022	1.046834307919905	.019	2.986	1	145	.086	2.046

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Job Satisfaction

c. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.138[a]	.019	-.008	.929877859627608	.019	.706	4	146	.589	
2	.152[b]	.023	-.010	.931065280728607	.004	.628	1	145	.429	1.833

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Job Satisfaction

c. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

B.9. Hypothesis 9

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.346[a]	.120	.096	.710124	.120	4.972	4	146	.001	
2	.589[b]	.347	.324	.614010	.227	50.286	1	145	.000	1.925

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Vigour

c. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.346[a]	.120	.096	.710124	.120	4.972	4	146	.001	
2	.687[b]	.473	.454	.551589	.353	96.986	1	145	.000	1.853

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Dedication

c. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.346[a]	.120	.096	.710124	.120	4.972	4	146	.001	
2	.529[b]	.279	.255	.644743	.160	32.112	1	145	.000	1.812

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Absorption

c. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

B.10. Hypothesis 10

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.166[a]	.028	.001	1.016712520504775	.028	1.036	4	146	.391	
2	.172[b]	.030	-.004	1.019195176933215	.002	.290	1	145	.591	1.889

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Absorption

c. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.187[a]	.035	.008	1.053931344564236	.035	1.316	4	146	.267	
2	.204[b]	.041	.008	1.053920661690980	.007	1.003	1	145	.318	2.001

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Absorption

c. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.138[a]	.019	-.008	.929877859627608	.019	.706	4	146	.589	
2	.151[b]	.023	-.011	.931247630602515	.004	.571	1	145	.451	1.825

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Absorption

c. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.166[a]	.028	.001	1.016712520504775	.028	1.036	4	146	.391	
2	.226[b]	.051	.019	1.007734241259710	.024	3.613	1	145	.059	1.935

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Dedication

c. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.187[a]	.035	.008	1.053931344564236	.035	1.316	4	146	.267	
2	.228[b]	.052	.019	1.048087725501467	.017	2.633	1	145	.107	2.062

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Dedication

c. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.138[a]	.019	-.008	.929877859627608	.019	.706	4	146	.589	
2	.158[b]	.025	-.009	.930175325174146	.006	.907	1	145	.343	1.840

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Dedication

c. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics: R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.166[a]	.028	.001	1.016712520504775	.028	1.036	4	146	.391	
2	.252[b]	.063	.031	1.001327775933512	.036	5.521	1	145	.020	1.936

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Vigour

c. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.187[a]	.035	.008	1.053931344564236	.035	1.316	4	146	.267	
2	.234[b]	.055	.022	1.046644763865048	.020	3.040	1	145	.083	2.072

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Vigour

c. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.138[a]	.019	-.008	.929877859627608	.019	.706	4	146	.589	
2	.158[b]	.025	-.009	.930259516312243	.006	.880	1	145	.350	1.847

a. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Tenure, Gender, Education, Age, Vigour

c. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

B.11. Hypothesis 11

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.252[a]	.063	.031	.840793608792584	.063	1.962	5	145	.088	2.082

a. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.937	5	1.387	1.962	.088[b]
	Residual	102.505	145	.707		
	Total	109.442	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

Model Summary[c]

					Change Statistics					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.616[a]	.379	.358	.907150987940370	.379	17.703	5	145	.000	
2	.621[b]	.385	.360	.905632249345896	.006	1.487	1	144	.225	2.074

a. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age, Organisational Commitment

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	72.841	5	14.568	17.703	.000[b]
	Residual	119.324	145	.823		
	Total	192.165	150			
2	Regression	74.060	6	12.343	15.050	.000[c]
	Residual	118.104	144	.820		
	Total	192.165	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

c. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age, Organisational Commitment

B.12. Hypothesis 12

Model Summary[b]

					Change Statistics					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.555[a]	.308	.284	.740638276667181	.308	12.923	5	145	.000	1.722

a. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	35.445	5	7.089	12.923	.000[b]
	Residual	79.539	145	.549		
	Total	114.984	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Engagement

b. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.616[a]	.379	.358	.907150987940370	.379	17.703	5	145	.000	
2	.639[b]	.408	.384	.888471864795455	.029	7.161	1	144	.008	2.051

a. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age, Employee Engagement

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	72.841	5	14.568	17.703	.000[b]
	Residual	119.324	145	.823		
	Total	192.165	150			
2	Regression	78.494	6	13.082	16.573	.000[c]
	Residual	113.671	144	.789		
	Total	192.165	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

c. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age, Employee Engagement

B.13. Hypothesis 13

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.653[a]	.426	.406	.575374	.426	21.538	5	145	.000	1.593

a. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	35.651	5	7.130	21.538	.000[b]
	Residual	48.003	145	.331		
	Total	83.654	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

Model Summary[c]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.616[a]	.379	.358	.907150987940370	.379	17.703	5	145	.000	
2	.655[b]	.429	.405	.873050524112558	.050	12.548	1	144	.001	2.048

a. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

b. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age, Job Satisfaction

c. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	72.841	5	14.568	17.703	.000[b]
	Residual	119.324	145	.823		
	Total	192.165	150			
2	Regression	82.406	6	13.734	18.019	.000[c]
	Residual	109.759	144	.762		
	Total	192.165	150			

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

b. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age

c. Predictors: (Constant), Talent Management Practices, Gender, Tenure, Education, Age, Job Satisfaction