

Retention of Senior Managers in the South African public sector: implications for coaching

M.L. Nkhumise

Student No :692969

A research report submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in Business and Executive Coaching

Johannesburg, 2021

ABSTRACT

The South African public sector is expected to ensure provision of speedy, consistent and high-quality service to its citizens, however, this has not been the case. As a result, the situation of poor service delivery has given rise to protests which are a common reality in South Africa and these sometimes become violent in nature. At the heart of these service delivery unrests is that the South African government is beset by high staff turnover rates especially at Senior Manager levels, which hampers the ability of institutions to deliver services to the public. The retention of Senior Managers in the public service is a growing HR challenge and it has become necessary to determine the factors that are important for them within the South African public sector. By understanding these retention factors, the research established what the implications are for coaching. The method of data collection from Senior Managers in the public service was semi-structured interviews. The key findings of the study were that retention of Senior Managers was influenced by a multiplicity of factors such as organisational culture, leadership, job satisfaction, remuneration, work life balance. These factors were identified as essential for the retention of Senior Managers within the South African public sector. The paradigm that was used for the study was constructivism which sought to understand the phenomenon from the lived and unique experiences of participants. The study used thematic analysis to identify, analyse, and interpret patterns of meaning ('themes') within data received from interviews. The findings of the study revealed the retention factors that Senior Managers consider significant. It was also found that some participants viewed exposure to executive coaching as necessary as it led to the discovery of their purpose and meaning in life and helped them to decide to pursue their aspirations, whilst other participants indicated that exposure to executive coaching influenced their decision to continue working for the public sector. Based on the outcome of the study, it is recommended that further studies be conducted on the topic with specific focus on theoretical and research coaching implications within the South African public sector context.

Key words: retention, executive coaching, senior managers, public sector

DECLARATION

I, _____, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in Business and Executive Coaching at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

Name:

Signature:

Signed at

On the day of 20.....

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this to my family. Your presence in my life means so much, I draw inspiration from each and every one of you. Today, I am thankful for all your support and love.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the following special people who provided their unwavering support during the course of this study;

Family: Thank you Ngwedi, Lethabo and Leano for always being there and encouraging me to push the boundaries and ensure that I achieve. It was hard but you had faith in me and cheered on when I was down and out. Thank you, your love, support, and belief in me made this achievement possible.

Rakgadi and Malehasa: Thank you for taking good care of my little one whilst I was finalising this document. She is such a happy and bubbly child, you did a great job. Thank you....

My CEO: Thank you for your understanding and encouragement. You went through a lot of hardship to ensure that this achievement was possible. You are one of a kind, your efforts are bearing fruits. Thank you...

Supervisor: Our journey on this project was the best one ever. I learnt so much about myself and about you. Your work ethic, diligence and patience has rubbed off on me. I am eternally grateful that our paths crossed, my perspective on life has changed a lot. Your unique sense of humour left me in stitches...Thank you for walking this path with me.

Participants in the study: Words will never be enough to express how grateful I am for your willingness to participate in the study. You made the study enjoyable, interesting, and insightful. Thank you to each and every one of you...

Editor: Thank you so much for making this document a masterpiece, I would not have done without you. You are a star. Keep on shining...

Programme Director: Thank you for your support and willingness to help when needed. I really appreciate how you dealt with each query that I had. You are one of a kind.

Faculty Office: Thank you for your guidance and support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
DECLARATION.....	ii
DEDICATION	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xi
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	1
1.2 CONTEXT OF THE STUDY.....	1
1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM	3
1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.....	6
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	6
1.6 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	8
1.7 DEFINITION OF TERMS	9
1.8 ASSUMPTIONS	10
1.9 STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT.....	11
CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW	12
2.1 INTRODUCTION	12
2.2 BACKGROUND DISCUSSION	12
2.2.1 EMPLOYEE TURNOVER.....	12
2.2.2 MANAGEMENT IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE	15
2.2.3 RETENTION OF MANAGERS.....	17
2.2.4 RETENTION IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE.....	18
2.3 HOW DOES RETENTION OF SENIOR MANAGERS IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR HAVE IMPLICATIONS FOR COACHING	19
2.3.1 FACTORS INFLUENCING RETENTION OF SENIOR MANAGERS IN THE PUBLIC SERVICES	19
2.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY	20
2.5 FACTORS INFLUENCING RETENTION	23
2.5.1 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	23
2.5.2 WHAT IS ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	23

2.5.3	NATURE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	24
2.5.4	WELL-DEFINED CULTURE	25
2.5.5	LEADERSHIP	28
2.5.6	NATURE OF LEADERSHIP	28
2.5.7	NATURE OF LEADERSHIP STYLE	30
2.5.8	REMUNERATION	33
2.5.9	EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION	35
2.5.10	GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT	37
2.5.11	WORK-LIFE BALANCE	38
2.5.12	FLEXIBLE WORKING PRACTICES	42
2.5.1	PROPOSITION 1	47
2.6	COACHING	48
2.6.1	DEFINITION OF EXECUTIVE COACHING	48
2.7	HOW DOES EXECUTIVE COACHING DIFFER FROM OTHER FORMS OF HELPING RELATIONSHIPS?	51
2.7.1	CRITICAL STAKEHOLDERS IN THE EXECUTIVE COACHING PROCESS	53
2.7.2	COACHING OUTCOMES.....	56
2.7.3	COACHING OUTCOMES FOR THE ORGANISATION	56
2.7.4	COACHING OUTCOMES FOR THE COACHEE	56
2.7.5	PROPOSITION 2.....	58
2.8	EXECUTIVE COACHING AND RETENTION	58
2.8.1	INFLUENCE OF COACHING ON RETENTION.....	59
2.8.2	EXECUTIVE COACHING AND RETENTION IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR	59
2.8.3	PROPOSITION 3.....	62
2.9	CONCLUSION OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW	62

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY..... 65

3.1	RESEARCH APPROACH	65
3.2	RESEARCH DESIGN	66
3.3	DATA COLLECTION METHODS	67
3.3.1	DATA COLLECTION.....	68
3.4	POPULATION AND SAMPLE.....	68
3.4.1	POPULATION	69
3.4.2	SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHOD.....	69
3.5	THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS	74
3.6	PROCEDURE FOR DATA COLLECTION.....	74
3.7	DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	75
3.8	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	81
3.9	TRUSTWORTHINESS	81
3.9.1	TRANSFERABILITY	81
3.9.2	CREDIBILITY.....	81
3.9.3	DEPENDABILITY.....	82
3.9.4	CONFIRMABILITY	82
3.10	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	82
3.10.1	INFORMED CONSENT TO RESEARCH	82
3.10.2	VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION	83
3.10.3	NO HARM TO THE PARTICIPANTS	83
3.10.4	ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY	83
3.10.5	DECEIVING SUBJECTS	83

CHAPTER 4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION 85

4.1	INTRODUCTION	85
4.2	RESULTS OF PROPOSITION 1	85
4.2.1	ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	85
4.2.2	LEADERSHIP	89
4.2.1	REMUNERATION	92
4.2.2	FRINGE BENEFITS	92
4.2.3	OTHER INCENTIVES	94
4.2.4	JOB SATISFACTION	95
4.2.5	GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT.....	99
4.2.6	EMPLOYEE WELLNESS/ WORK-LIFE BALANCE.....	101
4.3	RESULTS OF PROPOSITION 2	104
4.3.1	THEIR UNDERSTANDING OF EXECUTIVE COACHING.....	104
4.3.2	ESTABLISH WHETHER SENIOR MANAGERS WERE COACHED / NOT COACHED	107
4.3.3	ESTABLISH THE COACHING EXPERIENCES OF SENIOR MANAGERS	108
4.3.4	ESTABLISH THE OUTCOMES OF COACHING THAT WAS UNDERTAKEN BY SENIOR MANAGERS	109
4.3.5	COACHING INFLUENCING THEIR RETENTION.....	110
4.4	SUMMARY OF WITHIN CASE ANALYSIS.....	111
4.4.1	CONCLUSION	116
4.5	SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS/FINDINGS.....	118
4.6	COMPARISON OF LITERATURE REVIEW AND OWN FINDINGS.....	119

CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS 120

5.1	INTRODUCTION	120
5.2	CONCLUSIONS REGARDING RESEARCH QUESTION 1	120
5.3	RECOMMENDATIONS	125
5.3.1	PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS	125
5.3.2	KEY FOCUS AREAS FOR COACHING A SENIOR MANAGER IN THE SA PUBLIC SERVICE 126	
5.3.3	DESIRED COACHING OUTCOMES.....	127
5.3.4	COACHING MODES.....	129
5.3.5	NEW MODEL: RETENTION OF SENIOR MANAGERS IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE.....	131
5.4	ROLE OF OTHER STAKEHOLDERS	137
5.4.1	ACADEMICS	137
5.4.2	POLICYMAKERS.....	137
5.4.3	HR PRACTITIONERS	137
5.4.4	CABINET	137
5.4.5	POTENTIAL SENIOR MANAGERS AND EXECUTIVES.....	138
5.5	SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	138
5.6	CONCLUSION	138

REFERENCES	140
APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW GUIDE	167
APPENDIX C: MM RESEARCH CONSENT FORM	170

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Definition of terms	9
Table 2: Similarities of definition of Executive Coaching by different scholars	50
Table 3: Consistency table: research questions and propositions.....	64
Table 4: Consistency table: research questions, propositions, data collection, and data analysis.....	84
Table 5: Case study analysis (similarities and differences).....	117
Table 6: Comparison of literature review and findings ()	119
Table 7: Consistency table: research questions, conclusions, and contribution to knowledge	123

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Conceptual framework: factors influencing retention	22
Figure 2: Logic Model for an Executive Coaching Programme	61
Figure 3: New model: Retention of Senior Managers	132

LIST OF ACRONYMS

DPSA – Department of Public Service and Administration

OPSC – Office of the Public Service Commission

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the study

One of the most important assets of any organisation is its people; they make the organisation and therefore, form part of the competitive advantage that is used to forge companies ahead. More importantly, Executives and Senior Managers are the thought leaders / visionaries who determine and direct their respective organisations. It is essential to take good care of them and to ensure that they stay in an organisation for long periods, for their contribution to company growth is significant. The role played by the Senior Managers in both private and public sectors is strategic in nature.

Within the South African public sector, senior managers are defined as employees who fall within the category of senior and executive management occupational class. These officials fulfil strategic leadership roles in the national and provincial government departments, state entities, as well as at the local government level. These persons are considered as a public service-wide pool of scarce resources to be utilised in the best interests of the public service.

The Senior Managers within the South African public sector who participated in the study come from diverse ethnic backgrounds. Some of the participants were Africans, Coloureds, and Indians, however, there were no white participants in the study. These participants were both males and females. Some of the participants in the study were employed within a national department whilst the remainder were from state owned entities.

The purpose of the study was to determine whether the retention of Senior Managers in the Public Sector has implications for coaching.

1.2 Context of the study

South Africa, like many developing countries, operates in a global community and competition for resources has increased as well as the war for talent has

intensified (Netswera, Rankhumise & Mavundla, 2005). As such, success in many sectors is dependent on highly skilled employees who are mostly sought after in and outside the country (Netswera et al., 2005). De Villiers (2006) affirms that the war for talent is fierce and endemic and the trends are more prevalent within the government sphere. It is difficult to retain skilled professionals within government mainly due to inadequate and uncompetitive financial rewards within the public service compared to the private sector (De Villiers, 2006).

Research indicates that many countries are prepared to pay a high premium for highly skilled and experienced managers and executives (Netswera et al., 2005). South Africa, as an emerging economy, has several developmental challenges that need to be addressed, as a result, the country (private and public sector) needs Executives/ Senior Managers to lead these developmental challenges. The public service sector is at the centre of the country's economic policy, political direction and implementation of programmes that are aimed at improving the lives of the people of South Africa. However, the public sector is experiencing a high turnover of Executives and Senior Managers which is due to both physical and psychological factors, this results in a loss of institutional memory, lack of business continuity and instability in the organisation (OPSC, 2008) which impacts on the functioning of the state. The public sector is a unique environment which is characterised by bureaucracies, rapid and high impact changes such as new government administration, cabinet reshuffling, changes in heads of departments, therefore the ability to adapt does not come easily to the public sector managers (Williams, 2012). The main quality of any manager in the public sector is their power to influence (Gentry, Eckert, Stawiski & Zhao, 2013). Therefore, the Senior Manager/ Executive in the public sector needs to be agile and be able to operate in this volatile environment. This requires a specific set of skills and mindset into which to tap. In the absence of such skills and mindset, most of these Senior Managers are lost to other countries or the private sector (OPSC, 2009; 2017).

There is a suite of interventions identified, however, coaching can be used to assist managers in the public sector to be effective. According to Grant (2012), coaching can lead to improved levels of workplace engagement and well-being.

This is what is necessary in the public sector (Desmarais, & de Chatillon, 2010) to improve services.

1.3 Research problem

The South African public sector experiences high staff turnover rates, especially at Senior Manager levels (OPSC, 2008; 2009; 2017) which hampers service delivery. Mdlongwa (2014) argues that since the advent of democracy, the public sector has struggled with the basics of ensuring speedy, consistently high-quality service to its citizens. As a result, Ndevu and Muller (2017) assert that, over the past two decades, the country has been experiencing a growing lack of public confidence in the government's ability to provide basic public services to its citizens who are yearning for them. The lack of public confidence is evident through the increasing spate of service delivery protests across the country (Managa, 2012; Ndevu & Muller, 2017). According to Ajayi and de Vries (2019), there are many factors (geopolitical, economic, governance and human resources) that contribute to the current state of affairs in South Africa. For the purpose of the research, the focus is narrowed down to the human resource factors, specifically retention of Senior Managers. Scholars (Kroukamp & Cloete, 2018; Managa, 2012) identified acute problems of leadership, financial mismanagement, and governance as key challenges for the South African public sector. The challenges that are currently prevailing in the public sector can be summarised as follows;

(a) Leadership

Lack of leadership

Most state institutions have several key management and executive positions vacant. This is mainly due to the departure of previous incumbents. Therefore, the remaining employees may not possess adequate leadership skills necessary for institutions to deliver on their mandates. This often results in underspending of allocated funds which consequently, lead to failure to complete projects.

Besides, the absence of key personnel in leadership positions results in instability, uncertainty, and lack of continuity in the implementation of key strategic projects.

Acute lack of institutional capacity

Many of the organs of state have, and continue to, experience an exodus of skilled and experienced employees. The employees left behind institutions with a lack of expertise, resulting in deteriorating service provision within the public service. The exodus is mainly evident at managerial and technical levels of state institutions (Kroukamp & Cloete, 2018; Managa, 2012).

Also, there is a challenge of under-qualified but politically connected managers who occupy important positions within the public service. These deployments weaken the state's capacity to deliver on its mandate.

High staff turnover at senior management levels (vacancies at senior management level)

According to a report from the Office of the Public Service Commission (Pulse of the Public Service, 2018), the government has high vacancy rates across all levels and this hampers its ability to render basic services to the citizens of the country. The report highlighted that amongst others, the Department of Public Works had a vacancy rate of 40%; Sport and Recreation had a vacancy rate of 39% whilst the Department of Transport had a vacancy rate of 31% and Social Development a rate of 23%.

(b) Financial Mismanagement

Over the past two decades, there has been significant growth in the number of financial irregularities in the public service. The Office of the Auditor General (2016; 2017; 2018) has indicated that there are inadequate internal controls and financial management skills which lead to irregular, unauthorised as well as fruitless and wasteful expenditures.

(c) Governance

High levels of corruption

Over the years, the country has experienced disturbing levels of corruption (Managa, 2012). This was particularly reported within the public sector. Corruption took the form of accepting bribes, illegal procurement of goods and services, unauthorised and irregular expenditures. The corruption levels have weakened the ability of the state to deliver on basic services.

Lack of public confidence/lack of trust

According to Ajayi and de Vries (2019), one of the legitimate expectations from the general public about government is access to high quality, speedy and cost-effective service which is a requirement that the state is expected to meet as outlined in the Constitution of the country. Since the dawn of democracy, the government has continued to increase public sector budgets in an attempt to ensure that the service needs of the citizens of the country are met, however, this has not been achieved. Instead, the country has experienced low levels and/or lack of public services (Ajayi & de Vries, 2019).

Due to deteriorating levels of services from government, the public has lost confidence for the provision of better services (Managa, 2012). The citizens of the country have expressed their dissatisfaction through participating in service delivery protests which are evident across the country, including in rural areas. Some of these protests are violent and result in vandalism, destruction of state property and casualties to innocent people. The citizens were demanding better service delivery (Managa, 2012) from the government of the day.

The service delivery protests are mainly about issues of unemployment, roads, electricity, water and sanitation, local governance and housing issues and they are usually targeted towards national, provincial and the local sphere as well as entities such as Eskom (Runciman, Alexander, Rampedi, Moloto, Maruping, Khumalo & Sibanda (2016). This study focuses on the state entities of government as well as a national department.

The objective of this study was to determine what are the factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers and what are the implications for coaching.

1.4 Research objectives

Research objective

To determine the nature of the relationship between retention factors and elements of coaching for Senior Managers in the South African public sector.

Propositions

The first proposition is to determine the factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers/ Executives in the public sector.

The second proposition is to determine the experiences of Senior / Executive Managers in the public service regarding executive coaching.

The third proposition is to determine whether coaching influences Senior Managers' retention in the South African public service.

1.5 Significance of the study

This study contributes theoretically, methodologically, and empirically to the body of knowledge that exists, particularly on retention and executive coaching. Empirically, the study adds to the body of knowledge, especially with regards to the potential role of coaching in the retention of Senior Managers within the public sector. The available literature on executive coaching is mainly private sector-focused (Fischer & Beimers, 2009); through this research study, contribution to the body of knowledge as well as possible theory-building may be realised.

The study also explores and adds to the body of knowledge on whether coaching interventions may assist in the retention of Senior Managers. The study also contributes methodologically to the body of knowledge in that most of the existing studies were conducted from a quantitative research paradigm, this study utilised

the qualitative research methods (interviews) with emphasis on the constructivist paradigm.

The study indicates whether coaching can be used to improve the retention of Senior Managers in the South African public sector and thereby improve service delivery. The study determines the nature of the relationship between retention factors and elements of coaching for retention of Senior Managers in the South African public sector.

The following stakeholders benefit from the outcome of this study;

Academics - The outcome of the research study contributes to the broader body of knowledge. It also provides a perspective of how coaching interventions are effective in the public service sector as compared to the private sector.

Policymakers – The Department of Public Service Administration is charged with the responsibility of developing and monitoring human resources policies which, amongst others, include retention of key and scarce skills.

Human Resources Practitioners - Human Resources Practitioners would be able to detect areas that need improvement and the possible inclusion of coaching interventions in their talent management strategies. Also, coaching interventions could be used as a bargaining tool to attract and retain skilled Senior Managers and Executives.

Cabinet – The cabinet has the final authority for the appointment and retention of Executives (Heads of Department and Chief Executive Officers) in various state departments and public entities. The findings of this study enable them to propose measures that must be put in place for the retention of future Executives and Senior Managers.

Potential Senior Managers and Executives – potential Executives and Senior Managers would benefit from the outcome of this research study as it ensures that their transition to these echelons is met with the necessary support in the form of coaching interventions.

1.6 Delimitations of the study

The scope of the research topic only extends to Senior Managers/ Executives who work for the South African public sector. To ensure that appropriate people are reached, the study was limited to managers who are employed as permanent employees in the public sector.

Due to proximity, the study was limited to Senior Managers/ Executives based in Gauteng province, which implies that Senior Managers in the other eight (8) provinces were excluded from the study.

1.7 Definition of terms

Table 1: Definition of terms

Terminology	Definition/ description
Executive Coaching	“a form of leadership development that takes place through a series of contracted one-on-one conversations with a qualified coach” (de Haan & Duckworth, 2013, p.7)
Non-profit sector	Non-profit sector refers to an organisation that is operating not for profit, such as the state and other non-profit organisations, the purpose being the provision of services (Fischer & Beimers, 2009)
Performance	Performance refers to the delivery of outcomes in the form of services which will benefit the citizens of the country (OPSC, 2008).
Public service	Government department (national, provincial, local), public entities (OPSC, 2007; 2008)
Retention	Retention is a voluntary move by an organisation to create an environment which engages employees for the long term (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009) Retention of human resources refers to the attempts to ensure that employees stay in the

	organisation and that voluntary turnover is minimised (Ng'ethe, Namusonge & Iravo, 2012)
Senior Manager/ Executive	Any employee who is employed on levels 13 and above, this includes the Heads of Departments throughout the public service (OPSC, 2008)
Turnover	Defined as the rotation of workers around the labour market; between firms, jobs, and occupations; and between the states of employment and unemployment (Abassi & Hollman, 2000).

1.8 Assumptions

The following assumptions were made in this research study:

The participants of the study had adequate work experience as Senior Managers/ Executives within the Public Sector or public sector, in general;

- The participants understood executive coaching as a domain and the possible benefits associated with it. They were also familiar with the concept of employee retention and how it affects them.
- It was also assumed that the participants of the study would be open and honest about their unique and lived experiences as they relate to retention and coaching within the public service.

1.9 Structure of the report

The report comprises six chapters (including this one) which are outlined as follows;

Chapter 2: This chapter covers the literature review wherein important concepts such as employee turnover, retention, factors that influence retention, executive coaching, and retention are assessed. The literature review examines the research question in the study outlined in Chapter 1.

Chapter 3: This chapter outlines the research methodology used in the study; as such, it covers concepts such as the research approach, research design, data collection method, population and sample, research instrument, the procedure for data collection, data analysis, limitation of the study, validity and reliability issues.

Chapter 4: It presents and discusses the findings of the study as it pertains to the research question that was stated in Chapter 1 of the report.

Chapter 5: This chapter presents the implications of the coaching as it pertains to the retention of Senior Managers in the public sector.

Chapter 6: The chapter provides conclusions and recommendations based on the outcome of the study. It also offers suggestions for future research topics that can be investigated further, regarding this topic.

Conclusion

The purpose of the research study was to determine whether retention of Senior Managers in the South African public sector has implications for coaching. In this regard, it would be necessary to explore and examine the literature on retention factors, retention in the public sector, executive coaching as well as management in the public service. Chapter two of this report outlines a detailed literature review of articles, books and reports on employee turnover, retention factors, retention in the public sector, executive coaching as well as management in the public service.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter entails the theoretical basis for the research by examining several sources of knowledge on employee retention and executive coaching for Senior Managers. The rationale of discussing the theoretical basis was to understand the varying views, historical and current research findings as well as emerging trends regarding employee retention, as well as executive coaching within the public sector context.

2.1 Introduction

Environmental changes have an impact on executives, both in the private and public sectors. The executives are therefore required to be agile and adapt to these changes whilst increasing their knowledge base, as well as have the ability to analyse and function within and around these changes.

The Chapter was divided into three parts which are employee turnover, retention factors, executive coaching. Part one of this chapter deals with the concept of employee turnover, the types of turnover, causes of employee turnover as well as the impact of employee turnover. Part two discusses retention factors employees consider important during their employment cycle. The last part of the chapter deals with executive coaching and its impact on employee retention.

2.2 Background discussion

To understand the subject of retention, a perspective must be given on the opposite of retention that leads to non-availability of Senior Managers, in this regard, employee turnover, its causes and its effects are discussed. The section also covers aspects of retention of managers and their retention in the public service.

2.2.1 Employee turnover

Globally, many organisations are battling to deal with the challenge of employee turnover. It is not a desirable phenomenon; however, it occurs in many

organisations both in the public and private sectors. They are battling because there is a raging war for talent in the labour market. This section briefly outlines the concept of employee turnover, what causes it and its effects.

What is employee turnover?

Over the past few decades, scholars have attempted to define the term employee turnover; Price (1977) defined it as the ratio of the number of organisational members who have left during the period being considered divided by the average number of people in that organisation during the period. Employee turnover was further defined as the rotation of workers around the labour market; between firms, jobs, and occupations; and between the states of employment and unemployment (Abassi & Hollman,2000). Turnover, in many organisations, is either voluntary or involuntary.

Heneman and Judge (2009) assert that the turnover can be categorised as follows;

(a) Involuntary turnover relates to discharge and downsizing

- Discharge turnover is aimed at an individual employee due to discipline and/or job performance problems
- Downsizing turnover involves organisational restructuring or a cost reduction programme to improve organisational effectiveness and increase shareholder value

(b) Voluntary turnover refers to avoidable and unavoidable turnover

- Avoidable turnover potentially could be prevented by certain organisational actions
- Unavoidable turnover relates to death or relocation by a spouse of an employee

Employee turnover is an inherent challenge in many organisations as it affects business continuity and organisational effectiveness (Ahmed, Sabir, Khosa, Amjad & Bilal, 2016). Given the inherent nature of the phenomenon, it is ideal that this multifaceted phenomenon be understood in terms of its causes. The following section outlines some of the causes of employee turnover, and the effects of employee turnover.

Causes of employee turnover

Employee turnover is caused by job related factors as well as organisational factors. These two categories of factors are outlined in the following sections.

(a) Job-related factors

Job-related factors refer to factors such as influence over the job, amount of pay, sense of achievement as well as respect (Gazioglu & Tansel, 2006). According to Firth, Mellor, Moore, and Loquet (2007), the experience of job stress as well as a sense of powerlessness, locus of control and personal control causes employees to leave their organisations. Also, employees leave organisations due to prevailing market conditions (Mano & Tzafrir, 2004). Moreover, role ambiguity (where there is a difference in understanding about what the role entails and what is expected from the employee) also occurs. Training and learning opportunities also have a considerable effect on the intentions of the employees to stay, because when the organisation does not provide these opportunities, employees tend to leave that employer (Mamun & Hasan, 2017).

(b) Organisational factors

According to Zuber (2001), employees leave when there is organisational instability because it indicates that their future is unpredictable in the organisation. Organisations that adopt a cost-oriented approach to employment costs become less attractive to the employees and this increases labour turnover (Simon et al., 2007). Besides, the need for employees to be informed also contributes to their decision to either stay or leave the organisation. Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner (2000) noted that employees leave organisations due to pay and pay-related matters. A study by Zhang (2016) found that interpersonal relationships between departments have a significant impact on employee turnover. It was found that the nature of the organisation also affects the intention of employee turnover, in that, members of staff in state owned organisations have the highest level of turnover intentions compared to those in the private sector as well as foreign funded organisations (Mamun & Hasan, 2017). It was also established that the overall organisational culture affects the employee turnover intentions, especially when it relates to issues of trust and respect within the management team.

Given that the causes of employee turnover affect both the employee and organisation, there is a need to understand its effect. This will assist in dealing with the phenomena. The details of the effects of employee turnover is outlined in the following section.

Effects of employee turnover

The effects of employee turnover are costly for organisations. According to Molinaro (2019), the costs are in the form of lost knowledge, loss of productivity, lost morale, as well as the loss of trade secrets. These effects have the potential to set an organisation back and affect its effectiveness in rendering services.

Employee turnover is complex and affects both private and public sector organisations which result in psychological and economic consequences (Ahmed Sabir, Khosa, Ahmad, & Bilal, 2016). Organisational impacts of employee turnover are slower / decline in the performance of employees which affects service delivery and customer satisfaction. Also, according to Chen, Lin and Lien (2010), employee turnover triggers increased expenses concerning recruitment and selection and possibly training and development of new employees, as well as destabilisation of teams due to the introduction of a new leader. Research indicates that employee turnover is more prevalent in developed countries, however, the trend is gaining momentum in developing economies, mainly due to the advent of globalisation.

In brief, employee turnover is the opposite of employee retention which most organisations would like to have. The following section outlines the factors that influence employee retention.

2.2.2 Management in the Public service

Management is a domain which is found in both private and public sector organisations, however its application depends on the objectives of the existence of such an entity. Private sector entities are created to pursue profit-related goals and to become market leaders in the areas in which they operate (Chen, 2014). Public sector organisations are set up to fulfil the needs of the citizens of the

country and sometimes stakeholders (general public as well as politicians) with differing agendas (Williams, 2012).

According to Knies and Leisink (2018), public sector organisations are characterised by red tape in the form of rules and regulations that employees are expected to follow as well as public service motivation which relates to employees' drive and passion to serve. It is management's role to ensure that their employees are motivated to serve within the prescribed rules and one way in which this influence is effected is through supervisors' impact on employees' motivation and red tape perceptions (Knies & Leisink, 2018). Public service motivated employees are willing to exert themselves and their supervisors' transformational leadership and their organisations' high-performance work systems will positively influence their employees' public service motivation (Andersen, Heinesen, & Pedersen, 2014). On the other hand, red tape generally has a negative effect on organisational outcomes, but supervisors may influence their employees' red tape perceptions through their transformational leadership, so that employees feel encouraged to work with and around the rules in order to deliver meaningful public service (Knies & Leisink, 2018).

Management in the public sector is also underpinned by constant and regular changes associated with the outcome of the electoral processes, as such, leadership changes hands more frequently (Baarspul & Wilderom, 2011). Senior managers in the public sector are at the forefront of interacting with politicians or office bearers and as such, their tenure with an organisation may be largely dependent on their political leverage with a politician (Williams, 2012). The power of influence is one of the key qualities of effective managers (Head, Sorensen & Yeager, 2007). Many public sector organisations are characterised by bureaucracy; decision-making processes are often erratic and sporadic when compared to the private sector set up where decisions are more informed and supported by evidence. Although the public sector environment is characterised by rapid changes, employees enjoy job security due to the rules and regulations that are put in place within public sector organisations and employees are also given more recognition, especially because of their seniority (Baldwin, 1987).

Management in the public sector is also affected by the internal structures of their organisations, in that their funding is from the fiscus or collected taxes from the state, this makes it difficult for the introduction of flexible remuneration packages and incentives that are found in the private sector (Chen, 2014). A research study conducted by Andersen (2010), confirms that there are differences between public and private sector managers which impact on the leadership styles, decision making processes and motivational profiles.

2.2.3 Retention of managers

Employee retention is regarded as one of the most critical issues facing organisations, mainly due to economic growth, a shortage of skilled manpower and high levels of employee turnover (Michael, 2008). Since many organisations are facing the challenge of employee turnover, corporates are building closer relationships with their high performing employees wherein development is one of the main aspects of their growth (Bhatia & Kaur, 2014). This is viewed as a means to improve retention and employee engagement. Besides, organisations have also recognised that training alone is not enough; additional interventions in the form of supportive mentoring and coaching are earmarked for the acceleration of employee growth and retention (Bhatia & Kaur, 2014). The aforementioned support the main purpose of retention which is to prevent competent employees from leaving the organisation as this may hamper productivity and service delivery (Chiboiwa & Chipunza, 2010). According to Mbagua (2015), organisational factors which include leadership behaviour, teamwork, communication, company's policies and good work environment are some of the elements that contribute to employee retention.

For Jorgensen (2005), retention of employees is dependent on factors such as flexible work, customised rewards and benefits, participation, autonomy, multi-career mobility as well as challenging work assignments. As such, the war for talent requires organisations to have solid retention strategies, one of such strategies is training and development (which encompasses traditional training, mentorship, and coaching) that are amongst the critical factors to manager retention (Mohamed, Nor, & Dahalan, 2014). The retention of employees is also influenced by the leader as well as the psychological contract fulfilment between

the organisation and the employee. The availability of appropriate training and development interventions for managers influences their intention to stay or leave the organisation. Retention behaviour is influenced by many factors, including human resource practices, such as training and development (mentoring and coaching). In the South African context, retaining talent is more challenging than finding it in the first place (Ngobeni & Bezuidenhout, 2011); this is attributed to the huge shortage of skills in the market and a shrinking economy. Scholars such as Clutterbuck (2005) assert that strategies such as mentoring and coaching are important as they assist individuals to create and negotiate an imaginative and sustainable development plan. Moreover, Executive coaching interventions can have a positive effect on leadership effectiveness for an organisation (Thach, 2002). It is emphasised that responsibility and accountability for retaining talent is a joint effort between the Line Manager, employee, and the Human Resources department, however, the Line Manager is at the forefront of this exercise (Ng'ethe et al., 2012). This is mainly because employees would remain with an organisation if they believed their Manager shows concern and care about them, through regular positive feedback and recognition (Michael, 2008). Retention of employees is one of the competitive advantage tools that organisations can use to leverage much-needed skills (Ahmad, Iqbal & Sheeraz, 2012). It is therefore important to consider retention as an all-round module of an organisation's human resource strategies (Ahmad, Iqbal & Sheeraz, 2012).

2.2.4 Retention in the public service

According to Deaton, Wilkes and Douglas (2013), the public sector has an advantage of attracting managers, however, their stay in the public service organisations is limited to a period of at least five years. Many of the public sector leaders are attracted to the public sector by the drive to contribute to the broader society thereby deriving meaning and a sense of purpose (Deaton, Wilkes & Douglas, 2013) in their lives. One of the retention challenges in the public sector is that current Senior Managers are older persons who intend to extend their stay with organisations, this, in turn, creates a situation wherein the younger generation find limited career opportunities in such organisations and their stay is limited (Freedman, 2009). According to Brinckerhoff (2007), retention in the

public sector has challenges relating to multiple generational communications gaps which have an impact on leadership and management. This challenge is presented in the form of how managers from different generations prefer to be treated and led within an organisation (Carman, Leland & Wilson, 2010). Also, Carman et al. (2010) assert that the aforementioned challenge creates discomfort for employees and managers which in turn, results in organisational misfit.

According to Berkshire (2008), the public sector is unable to retain employees due to the general perceived concerns regarding the work-life balance, insufficient earning potential, lack of guidance and support from executive directors, as well as the overwhelming responsibilities associated with the public sector organisations. Due to the bureaucratic nature of the public sector, leadership development remains a challenge (Day, Harrison & Halpin, 2008), and this extends to the broader organisation. The outcome of a research study (Sheridan & Howard, 2009) revealed that executives who participated in coaching programmes reported improvements in work-life balance, self-confidence, and leadership. The same outcomes were reported in another study (Wilson & Gislason, 2010) which also indicated that the leadership of the executives being coached improved and their rate to remain with the same organisation improved.

2.3 How does retention of Senior Managers in the public sector have implications for coaching

This section of the report outlines the factors that influence retention. The key opposite aspects of retention such as employee turnover, its causes and effects is discussed. Retention as a theme is discussed, as well as the retention factors from a conceptual framework for the study.

2.3.1 Factors influencing retention of senior managers in the public services

Retention of employees is a challenge faced by both public and private sector organisations. There is a continued war for talent. Employees who are skilled, experienced, and classified as part of the scarce skill occupants are headhunted and recruited by organisations that can offer them better options. Research

indicates that retention is a wide and complex subject. Depending on the state and current career lifecycle of the employee, their retention factors will vary. To better understand the factors that influence retention, a conceptual framework model was developed. The model is discussed in the following section.

2.4 Conceptual framework for the study

The conceptual framework for this study was that retention of Senior Managers is influenced by factors such as organisational culture, leadership, employee job satisfaction, work-life balance, remuneration, as well as growth and development.

The framework asserts that organisational culture issues such as the nature of the culture and a well-defined culture are attractive to prospective and existing senior managers. Equally, when the organisation has quality leadership, it can retain its senior managers because they believe in the people at the leadership level. Similarly, the type of job that employees are exposed to, whether mundane or challenging work, does influence their decision to either stay or leave the organisation, often, employees are looking for a challenge/ job satisfaction and when not offered, they tend to look elsewhere.

Today, employees are on a quest to ensure balance between work and life. They have recognised that they have family responsibilities as well as work demands. They need to ensure a balance between the two. An employer that recognises these circumstances will be preferred because he/she will be assisting employees to have a balance between work and life. This may lead to a better quality of life. Similarly, employees would prefer to have growth and development opportunities made available to them. This is because the information age requires employees to continuously update themselves so they can contribute meaningfully to the organisations. Additionally, remuneration of employees is central to the engagement with the employer, therefore, the benefits as well as incentives offered, either entice them to the organisation or motivate them to leave. The conceptual model outlined in figure 1 is a framework for the study. It shows the factors that influence the retention of senior managers and the

underpinning role of executive coaching in ensuring that managers remain with an organisation.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK: RETENTION OF SENIOR MANAGERS

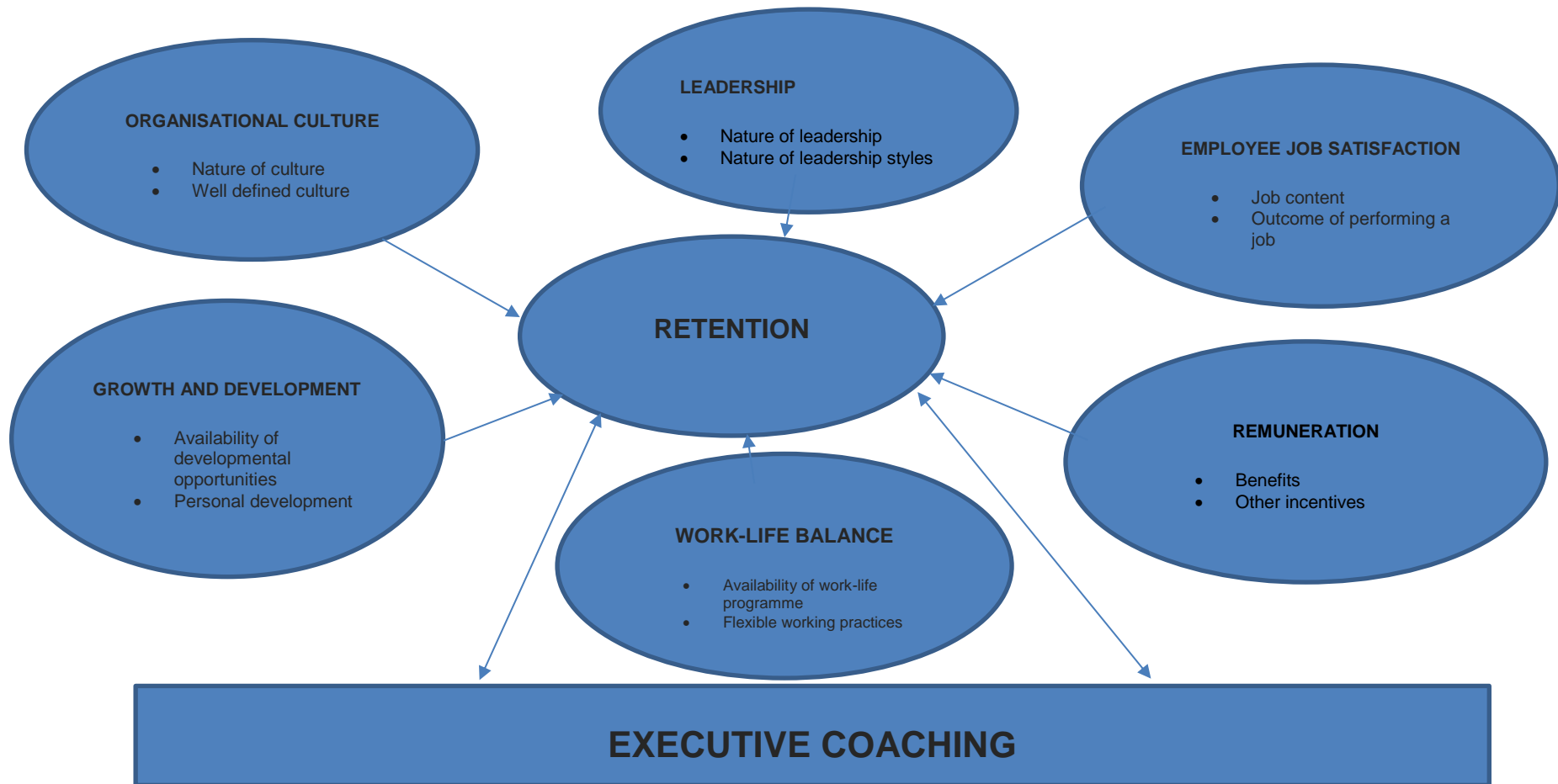


Figure 1: Conceptual framework: factors influencing retention

2.5 Factors influencing retention

This section provides details of the factors that influence retention. These factors are divided into two broad categories, namely, organisational factors as well as individual or personal factors. The organisational factors include culture, leadership, as well as remuneration, whilst individual factors include growth and development, work-life balance and job satisfaction. The focus is first on organisational factors and later the individual or personal factors are also discussed in detail.

2.5.1 Organisational culture

The term organisational culture is multi-layered and was brought to the fore many decades ago. It has its origins in other disciplines such as sociology, anthropology, psychology, ethnography, and organisational development. According to social anthropologists, sociologists, as well as social psychologists, culture is a fluid concept within a functioning society (Weber, 1930; Mead, 1934, Radcliffe-Brown, 1952). According to Keesing (1974), culture is considered to be a socially transmitted behaviour pattern that serves to relate human communities to their ecological settings. This notion of culture is also reflected in the work of organisational researchers (Wilkins & Ouch, 1983; Barney, 1986; Saffold, 1988; Ott, 1989); psychologists (Schein, 1985, 1990); Hofstede (1980, 1991) as well as ethnographers (Whyte, 1949; Rohlen, 1974). Culture fosters competitiveness (Hamadamin & Atan, 2019) especially when it is able to connect individuals in the organisation regardless of their position (Sabiou, Mei & Joarder, 2016). Organisational culture has been studied extensively by different scholars and varied organisational impacts are established.

2.5.2 What is organisational culture

The concept of culture has been around for some time. There are different schools of thought, such as human relations, software of the mind, process consultation and appreciative inquiry, on the subject of culture (Fortado & Fadil, 2012). For this study, the human relations school of thought is relevant and is explored.

The Human relations school of thought was amongst the first to explore the concept of social relations in organisations and researched it further until it became known as the organisational culture. The leading researchers of this concept within the human relations school of thought include numerous authors (Perrow,1979; Mayo,1933; Gardner, 1945; Warner & Louw, 1947; Richardson & Walker,1948)

The human relations school of thought approached the subject from a behaviourist psychological point of view. They consider culture as something which an organisation has and which can be manipulated to serve the ends of management. The researchers emphasise the concepts of healthy and unhealthy cultures.

Over the years, the definition of organisational culture has evolved. In the 1970s, organisational culture was defined as an institutionalised and standardised mode of behaviour and thought whose normal forms are socially recognised in the explicit or implicit rules to which members of society tend to conform (Keesing,1974). In the 1980s, Schein (1985) defined organisational culture as strong cultures that can be deliberately created and are to be associated with effectiveness. One of the influential scholars stated that culture is not something that you can observe, capture in a static state, is not an unchanging trait of society, instead, culture is about shared interpretations within a social group (Geertz, 1973). According to Kim, Kim and Rhee (2017), management should cultivate an organisational culture that discourages employee turnover in the form of participatory culture. A participatory culture is a situation where employees feel that they are engaged in a dialogue with the organisation and their voices are being heard (Kim et al., 2017). Organisational culture is continuously evolving as new people and leadership are growing with the organisation.

2.5.3 Nature of organisational culture

Organisational culture has tangible and intangible elements (Geertz, 1973). Schein (2010) has revealed that within an entity, organisational culture exists on three levels. According to Schein (2010), the organisational culture consists of artefacts, whilst the espoused beliefs and values characterise the second level of

organisational culture and the third level is basic underlying assumptions. Organisational culture can be either toxic or non-toxic.

According to Van Rooij and Fine (2018), a toxic organisational culture condones, neutralises, enables rule-breaking, disables, and obstructs compliance and the actual practices contrast to expressed compliant values. Researchers indicate that in a toxic culture, employees sidestep differences with their superiors for fear of punishment (Jones, 1996), the long-term sustainability of the organisation is endangered by personal interests (Atkinson & Butcher, 2003), managers' tempers are always flaring in the organisation (Middle, 2003), there are high turnover rates, especially at the leadership level and employees are not viewed as assets but rather as liabilities (Macklem, 2005).

In environments with a toxic culture, employees are stretched and overloaded with tasks and are unable to maintain their balance between work and life (Gilbert, Carr-Ruffino, Ivancevich & Konopaske, 2012). The managers in this environment continue to keep employees in the dark about key strategic issues because they are preoccupied with their status and power (Hymowitz, 2004). Also, the toxic behaviours undermine organisational productivity and work-life effectiveness (Tastan, 2017). Ultimately, the nature of culture determines whether employees stay or leave the organisation, it is therefore, essential that management monitors the prevailing culture and makes necessary adjustments.

The following section provides an outline of a well-defined culture, its characteristics, and the benefits of having such a culture in the workplace.

2.5.4 Well-defined culture

A well-defined culture promotes open and honest communication, places emphasis on knowledge equality and contributes to the retention of employees (Pyszka & Pilat, 2011). It is further characterised by employee engagement, a high degree of motivation, a sense of inspiration, personal development, and supportiveness of the organisation (Oakley, 2004). According to Cain (2009), such culture is characterised by a shared set of values, commitment to the common good, a high level of staff engagement and a shared vision of the future. This kind of organisational culture is branded by trust and democratic

management (Gilbert et al., 2012). Organisational culture determines the climate which will either attract or deter employees and prospective recruits. According to Kaouache, Brewer and Kaouache (2020), within organisations, there are different kinds of cultures such as a power culture wherein an organisation exhibits a high level of centralization and a low level of formalization. In this type of culture, power is exercised by a few leaders who control work and exercise leadership on the basis of their personal traits rather than relying on bureaucratic rules and procedures (Harrison, 1993; Cacciattolo, 2014). These conditions give top managers the right to dominate the most important decisions and react quickly to external challenges (Kaouache et al., 2020).

The second type of culture is the role culture which is characterized by high levels of centralization and formalization, organisations with this type of culture have a hierarchical structure that concentrates power in top managers, who delegate authority to subordinates as a way to influence and maintain control over the organisation (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). In this type of culture, job descriptions are clearly defined and tasks are strictly prescribed and regulated by a set of rules, processes, and procedures that should be respected when making bureaucratic decisions (Kaouache et al., 2020).

The third type of culture is achievement culture which is a mixture of decentralization and a high level of formalization, management tends to empower employees and encourage them to work together to achieve common goals according to clear rules and procedures (Kaouache et al., 2020). This form of organisation considers employees experts in making decisions, practicing teamwork, and exercising mutual control (Cacciattolo, 2014).

Lastly, there is a support culture which exhibits low levels of centralization and formalization, mutual trust between top managers and employees permits the latter to have a high level of decision authority, freedom to organise, and control their work, and influence colleagues to develop competencies and make consensual decisions (Kaouache et al., 2020).

Although there are distinct cultures, in many organisations, there is a mixture of the culture with a particular culture being dominant (Kaouache et al., 2020).

A well-defined culture encourages flexibility (work-life balance) regarding working conditions and benefits and aids retention (Letchmiah & Thomas, 2017).

Research has found that there is a relationship between organisational culture and retention of employees. According to research (Kerr & Slocum 1987; Kopelman et al., 1990), it was found that employee retention may be related to organisational culture values. Organisational cultural values influence human resource strategies, policies and practices which foster an organisational climate that promotes levels of commitment as well as retention (Kerr & Slocum (1987). Likewise, an alignment between the organisation and personal values leads to employees staying longer in organisations (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991; Schneider, 1987). In another study, it was found that employee retention is linked with organisational culture, especially in organisations that emphasise interpersonal relationships as opposed to work task values (Sheridan,1992). Whilst in another study, it was found that in public sector organisations, power culture is more dominant than other cultures (Kaouache et al., 2020). Although employees preferred the achievement culture where they are empowered by management, it was found that this type of culture was not prevalent in public sector organisations (Kaouache et al., 2020).

In conclusion, organisational culture determines the organisational mindset around opportunities offered internally (Chatman & Cha, 2003), employees become energised when culture appeals to their higher ideals (Liden, Wayne, Lioa & Meuser, 2014). There must be alignment between the values of the organisation and the one to which an employee ascribes (Messmer, 2006). According to a study by Boon and Biron (2016), it was found that person-organisation fit as well as person-job fit are essential for they ensure alignment between the organisation and the employee.

Organisational culture occurs in many organisations, it however, does not happen in isolation to leadership. The following section outlines the types of leadership that are available and which ones influences the retention of employees.

2.5.5 Leadership

Organisations are led by leaders who are expected to ensure that the intended strategic objectives are achieved through a team of followers. Leaders adopt different approaches to leading. This section explores the different nature of leadership as well as the leadership styles that are available to employees in leadership positions.

2.5.6 Nature of leadership

Within organisations, there are different types of leadership such as transformational leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, servant leadership, as well as *laissez-faire* leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Crossan, Vera & Nanjad, 2008; Russell & Stone, 2002; Bass, 1999).

a) Transactional leadership

According to Bass (1999), transactional leadership refers to the exchange relationship between the leader and follower to meet their self-interests. The exchange may take the form of contingent reward, that is, a follower is rewarded for his or her effort, based on how they have diligently executed work as clarified by the leader. Also, the exchange can be in the form of management by exception, this is when the employee's actions are monitored by the leader and corrective measures are put in place when the employee falters. Lastly, the exchange can take the form of passive leadership, wherein the leader will not act until problems arise. Briefly, the transactional leader values contractual agreements with followers and this is core to their relationship (Nawaz & Khan, 2016).

b) Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership refers to a situation where a leader is able to inspire followers to move beyond immediate self-interest to achieve results for the organisation and this is achieved when the interactions between the leader and the followers are mainly characterised by magnetism, innovation, thought for others, sound moral judgement, ethical decision

making (Friedman, 2000; Fry & Cohen, 2009; Fry & Slocum, 2008; Hyde, 2004; Rogers, 2003; Yang, 2006).

Transformational leadership raises the levels of followers' maturity, standards, concerns for accomplishment, self-actualisation, the well-being of others, organisation and society (Bass,1999). Transformational leadership has the following elements: idealised influence/ inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Bass, 1999). According to Arnold (2017), the first of these elements which is idealized influence, refers both to the characteristics that followers attribute to the leader, as well as the behaviour the leader engages in related to being a role model and doing the right thing. A leader with strong values, who also acts in accordance with these, would score highly on this dimension, whilst the second element which is inspirational motivation, relates to broadly communicating a positive vision and holding high expectations. Intellectual stimulation, the third element, involves being open to new ways of accomplishing tasks and encouraging others to be creative in their thinking and finally, individual consideration, the fourth element, focuses on a leader who treats employees as individuals, spends time coaching and developing their skills, cares, and is compassionate (Arnold, 2017). A transformational leader ranks their relationship with followers as a high priority; as such this leader endeavours to empower teams, enhance self-efficacy and personal growth of followers (Nawaz & Khan, 2016). The outcome of this leadership is that followers are encouraged and challenged to achieve their goals and that of the organisation through creativity and innovation.

c) Servant leadership

The servant leadership is premised from the point where the leader has a desire to serve others, that is the leader takes the position of a servant amongst the fellow workers (Russell & Stone, 2002). This kind of leadership is characterized by the prioritisation of others' interests as opposed to self-interests (Greenleaf, 1977; Pollard, 1996; Wilkes, 1996). Servant leaders have functional attributes which are vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modelling, pioneering, appreciation of others and empowerment. They also possess accompanying attributes which are

communication, credibility, competence, stewardship, visibility, influence, persuasion, listening, encouragement, teaching and delegation. Servant leadership has the potential to change organisations and society, mainly because it is about serving others. The differentiator of servant leadership is that it engages followers in many ways, such as relational, ethical, emotional and spiritual (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck & Linden, 2019). This leadership prioritises followers' well-being and growth, thus, it encourages followers to achieve what they are capable of (Eva et al., 2019). It incorporates stewardship and acknowledges authenticity as well as the higher calling of serving others.

d) *Laissez-faire* leadership

The leadership can be defined as the avoidance of leadership, the leader is not available when required, this leadership is characterised by dissatisfaction by subordinates, continuous conflict, and ineffectiveness (Bass, 1999). Similarly, Nawaz and Khan (2016) posit that *laissez-faire* leadership is demonstrated by limited participation by the leader in critical organisational matters, procrastination when they are expected to respond to matters. The consequences of *laissez-faire* leadership are frustrated followers, low levels of self-esteem by followers, little care towards followers and demotivated teams (Nawaz & Khan, 2016).

Managers in organisations apply different leadership approaches such as transactional, transformational, servant and *laissez-faire*. In other instances, a combination of leadership approaches are used. The section that follows deals with leadership styles and these include coercive style, authoritative style, affiliative style, democratic style, pace setting style, as well as coaching style.

2.5.7 Nature of leadership style

Leaders use different styles to lead organisations. According to Goleman (2004; 2017), effective leaders use a combination of leadership styles to achieve results within their organisations. The use of a leadership style is determined by the kind of leadership that is prevailing in the organisation at that given moment. Accordingly, six leadership styles can be used by leaders, that is coercive style,

authoritative style, affiliative style, democratic style, pacesetter style and coaching style.

(a) The coercive style

A leader who uses this kind of style tends to demand immediate compliance and uses phrases such as “do as I say”, the leader is motivated by the determination to achieve, inventiveness as well as willpower. The coercive leadership style is more effective when there is a crisis in an organisation or when there is a need to deal with a difficult employee, the implementation of a turnaround strategy (Goleman, 2004), as well as where there is a need to shock people into new ways of working (Goleman, 2017).

The leadership style will not be conducive in instances where employees take pride in their work and are not motivated by money. This is because leaders using this style, do not see the need to motivate others and are only interested in getting the results. Although it is effective in some instances, it may alienate employees who need motivation and encouragement from their leaders. It also affects the staff morale which is reflected by the prevailing organisational climate (Goleman, 2017). Coercive leadership style erodes the sense of responsibility that employees are supposed to have; as a result they display no initiative or sense of ownership or no accountability for their performance (Goleman, 2017).

(b) The authoritative style

This leadership style charts a new course and sells a fresh long-term vision to the followers; it has the ability to improve organisational climate (Goleman, 2017). Also, the leader utilising this leadership style provides the team with the overall goal that needs to be achieved and gives team members space to determine how they will go about achieving the goal. Often, for the leaders who adopt this style, their underlying emotional intelligence is self-efficacy, understanding and transformation (Goleman, 2004). This kind of leadership style is more appropriate in stable

organisations but will not be effective in an environment where there are many experts who are more knowledgeable than the leader, because the experts may go beyond their set parameters. Nevertheless, the leadership style is effective because employees know that what they are doing matters and they have the flexibility in executing their job (Goleman, 2017).

(c) The affiliative style

The leadership style revolves around people in that individuals are valued as well as their emotions over the organisational goals and tasks (Goleman, 2017). The style strives to keep employees happy and is about creating harmony in the organisation.

The leadership style is useful when the intention is team building or building morale. The underpinning emotional intelligence competencies for this leader are understanding, building relationships and communication. The leadership style is not effective because it focuses on praising team members, as a result, poor performance may not be corrected. Nonetheless, leaders utilising this style are masters at building a sense of belonging for employees in an organisation (Goleman, 2017).

(d) The democratic style

According to Goleman (2004), democratic leadership style builds organisational flexibility and responsibility and helps generate fresh ideas. Although the leadership style encourages creativity and innovation, this is at the expense of the team having long meetings. In the end, this leadership style produces a minimal impact on the organisational climate of an entity.

(e) The pacesetting style

The pacesetting leader is considered a trendsetter who has high standards and lives them, a leader who can have a positive impact on employees because he/she is motivated and possesses high levels of competency (Goleman, 2004). The leader is on a quest to achieve results from the highly motivated team with whom he/she is working. The downside of this

leadership style is that the leader's demands for excellence may overwhelm some of the employees with whom he/she is working.

(f) The coaching style

The leadership style is more interested in the personal development of employees and not so much in the work-related tasks that employees are expected to achieve (Goleman, 2004). This leadership style is effective in instances where employees have accepted that they have weaknesses that need to be dealt with. It will, however, not be effective where there is resistance and no interest in change.

In brief, leadership is vital for the survival of an organisation, as well as the need to be competitive in the industry in which it operates. The nature and leadership styles adopted determines its success or failure.

Retention of employees is complex, and one of the factors that contributes to the decisions of employees whether to stay or leave is remuneration. This factor is discussed in the next section of the report.

2.5.8 Remuneration

Remuneration is defined as something that an organisation offers to the employee in response to the work as well as performance and it is desired by the employee (Agarwal,1998). It has several components such as salary, bonus, long term incentives, pensions, benefits, and other perks (Braje & Galetić, 2019). According to Braje and Galetić (2019), base pay has the greatest impact on the organisation's ability to attract and retain top managers, while short-term incentives are important for top management's motivation and as a form of recognition. Similarly, long-term incentives have an impact on retaining top managers and benefits are the most important as the form of recognition. Remuneration ensures that loyalty is enhanced especially when there is prestige (Braje & Galetić, 2019). Benefits are also viewed as recognition from management, peers, and the team (Kent, Siu & Walker, 2001). Also, remuneration comes in the form of rewards which often create an impression that

the employee is valued. This section covers issues relating to benefits as well as rewards/ other incentives.

(a) Benefits

In every organisation, employees need to feel equitably remunerated and also to see the potential to grow in that entity (Mansel, Brough & Cole, 2006). Employees' perceptions about the employer's benefits are important. Employees need to feel that if they are not taken care of concerning basic benefits (medical aid, pension, leave), they are more likely to leave compared to employees whose perception is positive regarding the equivalence of their contribution and the benefits that they get from their employer (Lee, Liu, Rousseau, Hui & Chen, 2011).

According to Davies, Taylor and Savery (2001), compensation (benefits) should be used strategically to improve morale, reduce turnover, and achieve set targets.

(b) Other incentives

Financial rewards programmes are a useful tool to retain employees (Letchmahih & Thomas, 2017). They are an extrinsic monetary reward (income, the feeling of stability and consistency as well as recognition). They ensure that employees are valued and recognised/rewarded for a good and excellent performance.

Gardner et al., (2004) found that pay is a motivator as well as a retention strategy. Similarly, Moncraz, Zhao and Kay (2009) found that pay/compensation was a critical factor to reduce managerial turnover and increase commitment.

In conclusion, remuneration is one of the retention factors that help in the long-term growth of an organisation and it also assists in promoting its goodwill (Olaniyan & Binuyo, 2017). Remuneration has both direct and indirect effects on the retention of employees in organisations. The next section of the report deals with employee job satisfaction.

2.5.9 Employee job satisfaction

One of the factors of retention relates to employee job satisfaction. This concept of job satisfaction dates back many decades and is complex. It can be defined as a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances which causes job satisfaction (Hoppock, 1935). The psychological circumstances include the pleasurable/ positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job/ job experience (Locke, 1976).

Over the decades, research studies have been conducted on employee job satisfaction, it has been established that different employees' attainment of job satisfaction is influenced by different factors. The factors may be intrinsic or extrinsic to the employee (Herzberg, Mitchell & Albright, 1971). For Herzberg (1976), the intrinsic factors can be characterised by elements such as challenging work, recognition for one's achievement, responsibility, opportunity to do something meaningful, involvement in decision making and sense of importance to an organisation. In the later research studies, McCrensky (1964) found that employee job satisfaction was directly related to their personal satisfaction, individual sense of attainment and realising long term personal goals. It was further found that improving and maintaining job satisfaction is crucial to achieving low turnover rates in an organisation (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969).

On the other hand, Singhai (2016) defined job satisfaction as the evaluation of a person's job and his company as contributing suitably to the attainment of one's personal objectives and therefore, the job satisfaction and dissatisfaction depends on the nature of job and also on the expectation from their job. Therefore, it is a function of the intended and actual performance and the perceived discrepancy. The concept of job satisfaction can be defined as the difference between the quantum of rewards received by employees and the amount they believe they should receive (Singhai, 2016). There are various elements that form part of job satisfaction; for the purpose of the study, focus was on job content as well as the outcome of performing a job.

(a) Job content

According to Hackman and Oldham (1976), job characteristics, such as skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback, contribute to the employee's job satisfaction. Job content can either be routine, challenging, enriched, or not enriched. When a psychological contract between the employee and the organisation is concluded, the employees bring to the job their needs and expectations (Davis, et al., 1985). Employees tend to relate their job satisfaction to the employer's ability to satisfy the needs of the employee's wants (Berry, 1981) because employees become dissatisfied when their outputs are less than their expectations (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Locke 1976). Job dissatisfaction can manifest in the form of insecurity among employees and is influenced by the working environment, autonomy, salary, communication, and organisational commitment (Lane et al., 2010; Vidal et al., 2007).

(b) Outcome of performing a job

Aziri (2011) indicated that employees who performed challenging and diverse jobs get a sense of achievement and success when the productivity outcome is positive. Similarly, Kaliski (2007) indicates that the achievement of set goals on the job leads to a warm feeling of fulfilment. Reichheld (1996) says there are three criteria for job satisfaction, employees work hard when they have job pride, the job is interesting and meaningful and they are recognised for their work and benefit from the work they have accomplished. Sokoya's (2000) research outcome in the public service found that income or compensation of employees was the most valuable determinant of job satisfaction. The study found that commitment to an organisation, productivity and creativity are linked to job satisfaction. According to Murray (1999), job satisfaction improves retention and reduces hiring costs.

(a) In summary, job satisfaction as a retention factor ensures that employees can derive meaning from the work that they perform daily. The job content and the outcome of performing a task fulfils managers in organisations. The following section of the report outlines the retention factor regarding growth and development which covers availability of developmental opportunities and personal development.

2.5.10 Growth and development

The fast pace of developments that are accelerated by technological advancements requires that both the organisation and its employees should be at the forefront of accessing new knowledge. An organisation that invests in the growth and development of its employees can have a competitive edge in the market (Tomlinson, 2002) and becomes a leader in driving innovation. It is also able to capture the market share and even venture into territories that are foreign to its competitors. That organisation can meet the global challenges of the sector and its sustainability is secured. Growth and development is essential hence the chief goal of any organisation should be to cultivate the growth of the employees by equipping them with the knowledge and skills to face any unforeseen expectations in the future that may affect the organisation (Aris, Rajah, Abdullah, Hamid, 2019). The concept of growth and development was explored in terms of availability of developmental opportunities as well as personal development, which are outlined below.

(b) Availability of developmental opportunities

Skills development has become a differentiator between organisations and employees are more attracted to packages that include opportunities for self-development. These opportunities ensure that employees are empowered and updated on developments within their field of work. According to Allen (2008), an organisation that takes care of the developmental needs of its employees can significantly lower their motives to leave the organisation. Employees who are recognised and developed, tend to stay longer with their employer (Aguenza, 2012). Research indicates that offering developmental opportunities to employees enhances their loyalty to the organisation, thereby reducing their turnover intentions.

Employees are a valuable asset to any organisation. They appreciate an organisation that invests in their training and skills development. This is mainly because employees at senior management level require constant and continuous professional development given the rapid changes that are happening in their fields of work (Doh, Smith, Stumpf & Tymon, 2011; Letchmaih & Thomas, 2017).

In addition, good career prospects are crucial for many employees (Rondeau & Wager, 2001), as such, they would prefer to be developed so that they are in a position to take up career opportunities in the labour market. In today's labour market, knowledge is the most expensive asset (Handy, 2008) and those who possess it are either highly sought after by competitors or paid handsomely by the existing employers.

(c) Personal development

Personal development refers to a process concerned with specific aspects of the individual, the development of 'what' and the ways this can be planned, achieved, and evaluated (Irving & Williams, 1999).

Research indicates that some of the benefits of providing personal development opportunities to the employees are that they experience greater satisfaction with their ability to achieve results on the job (Letchmiah & Thomas, 2017). Employees appreciate the opportunity to acquire new skills that they can use in the execution of their work.

Scholars such as Nguyen and Duong (2020) indicate that training and development does help to reduce the cost of recruitment for the company, and it is considered an important factor in the retention of employees. Also, research conducted by Zaitouni (2016) suggests that if employers wish to avoid having a high level of turnover rates within their organisation then they should consider providing all employees within the organisation opportunities to improve both their skills and their knowledge. Allowing employees to improve their competencies related to job performance will help to significantly reduce turnover rates in the organisation.

The retention factor on growth and development is followed by the work-life balance, which is discussed in detail in the next section of the report. The retention factor on work-life balance covers the availability of work-life programmes as well as flexible working arrangements.

2.5.11 Work-life balance

Today, employees are faced with increasing and competing demands from work and their homes. They are confronted by conflicting responsibilities and

commitments which require their intervention. It is apparent that 24 hours in a day is not sufficient to accommodate the demands of the world of work and the family. In an attempt to ensure stability and continuity in organisations, work-life balance becomes important.

The genesis of work-life balance dates back to the 1930s when companies started to implement specific hour shift systems to improve efficiency and to allow employees time off. The field of work-life balance has since evolved. In the 1970s, scholars started to conduct research studies on this subject. The findings of one influential study found that family and work are institutions on their own, however, they have intersections and transactions between them (Kanter,1977). According to the research, employees derive everyday life experiences from work and family which shape their social relations, it is work and family that provides employees with an opportunity to interact and socialise (Kanter,1977). The study emphasised that there is an underlying relationship between the economic activities that an employee engages in and their family.

Increasingly, over recent years, employees are not willing to compromise and sacrifice their families because of work. This is becoming a challenge for employers because they need to ensure that there is a balance between work and life. This predicament is exacerbated further by the complexities of modern living with which employers and employees are faced.

Since the emergence of work-life balance, there has been progress and more research has been conducted on the subject; as a result, organisations are utilising their work-life balance programmes as part of attraction and retention strategies.

What is a work-life programme

The concept of work-life balance is intricate; depending on a specific role, it means different things to different people. The meaning of work-life balance from an employee's perspective refers to the challenge of managing conflicting demands between family responsibilities and work obligations, whilst from the employer's perspective, it refers to a dilemma of having a supportive culture which considers the employees' family responsibility while executing their daily

work (Lockwood, 2003). A balanced life, according to Yadav and Rani (2015), is one in which effort is made towards maintaining stability in the areas of intellect, emotion, physical, spiritual, and mental prominent areas of significance. The disregard of one or more of the identified areas, may affect the quality of the entire balance.

Availability of work-life programmes

Work-life balance is about developing and sustaining workplace conditions that are welcoming and stable, helping workers to balance work and personal commitments while strengthening employee satisfaction and efficiency (Giridharan, 2016) According to research by Parasuraman and Greenhaus (2002), in many organisations, sections of employees are confronted with work-life pressures and in some instances, they do not have the necessary support to deal with these pressures.

This is happening against the backdrop of the changing face of the family which previously was defined as a married male and female with their children. Today, the face of the family comprises single parents, same-sex partners, childless families, families headed by grandparents, extended families (the elderly, orphans, disabled and others) who are cared for by employees, blended families (partners with children from previous relationships or marriages) as well as parents who have shared child custody between them (Lockwood, 2003).

The above evolving face of the family is a complication faced by both employees and employers and requires proactive and strategic interventions. As such, Lockwood (2003) asserts that an employer is expected to at least have the following in place;

- (a) Family–friendly benefits: employer providing employees with an opportunity to deal with their family matters whilst taking care of work commitments;
- (b) Work-life programmes: employer to provide interventions (financial or non-financial) that allow employees to address both personal and work-related challenges;

- (c) Work-life initiatives: employer ensuring that at work policies and procedures are geared towards flexibility between work and family life. Employees should have time to address both work and family demands.

According to Friedman and Greenhaus (2000), work and life are the dominant roles in the life of an employee, therefore the conflict of work-life has a serious consequence for the employees as it affects their quality of life and career aspirations. Often, employees have to choose between a satisfying career and their marriage and children. The study found that support from the family / home and at work has either a positive or negative effect on how the employee will manage the balance (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

As such, employee wellness programmes are a necessity in organisations, they are an exceptional resource for employees. Ideally, an employee wellness programme ought to provide a variety of services, such as psycho-social interventions, financial wellness, career support, mental health interventions, health screening facilities, legal assistance, as well as flexible working practices.

The benefits of having work-life interventions in place range from improved levels of commitment, productivity, lower turnover, reduced likelihood of unethical behaviour, as well as reduced employee relations issues (Lockwood, 2003).

Research indicates that organisations that establish and maintain good work-life balance programmes ensure that the quality and productivity of employees does not diminish (Letchmahih & Thomas, 2017) because issues of stress are reduced, resulting in increased levels of focus and motivation.

In addition, the availability of functional work-life programmes ensures that employees stay with the organisation longer, however, where employees are unable to attain a work-life balance, they are predisposed to leaving the organisation. According to Nadeem (2009), employers can keep their employees, especially where they are in a position to provide policies that advocate for a healthy work-life balance. The programmes are significant in that they create a sense of belonging (Miller, Erickson & Yust, 2001) for the employees and they show that the employer cares about their needs and is willing to address them (Ramlall, 2003). A recent study by Akter, Ali, and Chang (2019) found that there

is a positive relationship between work–life programmes and both perceived organisational performance and financial performance.

2.5.12 Flexible working practices

The demands of modern-day living require employers to have formal or informal practices/ strategies that ensure that employees have the flexibility to deal with work and life challenges (Cully, Woodland, O'Reilly & Dix, 1999; Giannikis & Mihail, 2011; Tietze & Musson, 2002). Some of the flexible practices include the following;

- (a) Job sharing – this refers to a situation where two or more employees voluntarily share a 40-hour job with pro-rated salaries. This arrangement ensures that employees can have sufficient time to deal with family responsibilities as well as work demands;
- (b) Flex leave – this mainly refers to leave categories that an organisation will introduce to allow employees paid time off to deal with their family matters. This will include family responsibility leave and parental leave.
- (c) Flex place: This is an arrangement where work is conducted at a different location other than the employee's regular office. This can be in the form of a satellite office or working from home arrangement.
- (d) Flexitime: this is an arrangement where employees are allowed to choose their time to start and end work. This should be within the parameters of the employer's service requirements.

According to Rincy and Panchanatham (2018), the employer's flexibility with time was associated with trust in the organisation, organisational commitment, and extrinsic satisfaction, as such, employer support for employees' non-work lives has also been found to enhance perceptions of organisational supportiveness and increase organisational commitment.

Moreover, there are a number of benefits that an organisation, as well as its employees, can derive from flexible working arrangements. According to Sulaymonov (2020), benefits of flexible working include high retention of staff and organisational knowledge, positive impact on productivity, morale and quality of work, less absenteeism, employee turnover and tardiness, better work-life

balance, high life satisfaction, contented and committed employees, as well as reduction in commuting time and costs.

Also, studies (Denton, 1992; Golden; 2008; Richman, Civian, Shannon & Brennan, 2008; Ronen, 1981) indicate that flexible arrangements provide an organisation with a retention advantage over their competitors because it improves employees' job satisfaction. In addition, it was found that flexible working has a positive effect on employee satisfaction and retention (Idris, 2014). Conversely, some studies found that flexible working arrangements have disadvantages such as lack of the culture of presenteeism in organisations, stress due to increased work hours, increased workloads, alienation and disassociation with the organisation as well as reduced relationships due to impersonal virtual team engagements (Sulaymonov, 2020).

In summary, work-life balance is a necessity in organisations, it contributes positively to the retention of employees (Lockwood, 2003) and increases levels of motivation amongst employees (Gottlieb, Kelloway & Barham, 1998). It is therefore essential that employers should become proactive and identify new developments that may have an effect on the work-life balance of their employees and propose measures that can be put in place to address them.

Organisations have employees from different generations and they are influenced by varied retention factors. The next section of the report provides an overview of the retention factors for employees in their generations.

Generational retention

Today, workplaces have different generations, there are currently four types. The four cohorts are traditionalists, baby boomers, generation Xers, and millennials, they have different, yet at times similar, workplace values leading to attitudinal workplace preferences which, in turn, affect their motivation to join and remain with a particular organisation (Martin & Ottemann, 2016).

According to Simmons (2016), each generation has some differences and characteristics regarding the issue of retention in the workplace. The matured generation /traditionalists include individuals born before the end of World War II,

had less education, and were more conservative (Lyons & Kuron, 2013). Studies found that the traditionalists' view of careers was for employees to maintain employment at one organisation for an extended time; as a result, they had fewer organisational transitions than all younger generations (Tourangeau, Wong, Saari, & Patterson, 2015). The next generation is called baby boomers, which includes individuals born between 1946 and 1965 and are characterised by their belief in high values, growth, work ethics, title, and promotions (Martin & Ottemann, 2016). The baby boomers are a large generation, when they leave an organisation and their positions or retire, they leave a gap that is hard to replace (Tourangeau et al., 2015). The generation that followed the baby boomers in the workplace were generation X which included individuals born between 1966 and 1980 and the members of this generation are independent and value work–life balance as well as high compensation (Martin & Ottemann, 2016). Also, the members of the generation Xers when they felt satisfied with their jobs were more likely to commit to their organisations (Martin & Ottemann, 2016). Research (Tourangeau et al., 2015) indicates that members of this generation were the first who significantly changed the previous concept of career paths within one organisation, they had more career mobility than members of previous generations between the ages of 25 and 44 (Lyons et al., 2012). The other generation is the millennials, these are individuals born between 1980 and 1999, also known as members of Generation Y (Thompson & Gregory, 2012). The rate of turnover among Millennials is significantly higher than in older generations of workers. Previous generations centred work on the labour workforce and made a career path for their employees that rewarded them for loyalty within one organisation (Chudzikowski, 2012). Millennials, on the other hand, are more interested in job security and work life balance than money (Buzza, 2017).

The generations that are available in the workplace reflect the world population wherein, continents such as Africa, Asia and South America with its citizens mainly comprised of young people (i.e. millennials and Generation X). However, the educational levels in Africa are at secondary level and in Asia they are at tertiary level.

Europe has older generations (baby boomers and traditionalist). The educational levels are at tertiary which is significantly higher than the ones in Africa, at the same time, the other continents such as North America have a mixture of both young and older generations and their educational levels in these continents are at tertiary level (Murtin, Mackenbach, Jasilionis, & d'Ercole, 2017).

Research (Arthur,2016) has established that there is migration of Africans to other parts of the world such as Europe, North America and Australia where there are better job opportunities for both skilled and unskilled people. There is continuous movement of people from these continents which affect negatively the remaining skills levels in the migrant's country of origin (Arthur,2016).

Africa has a number of scarce skills occupations which is easily affected by movement of skilled employees to other parts of the world especially developed countries (Arthur,2016).

Table 2: Population statistics for some parts of Africa

Country	Population size	Ethnicity (majority)	Education levels	Number of employees in the public sector
Kenya	52 million	Africans	Tertiary	700 000
Mauritius	1.2 million	Mixed	Secondary	50 000
Egypt	100 million	Arabs	Tertiary	5,6 million
Ghana	30 million	Africans	Secondary	477 000
Nigeria	201 million	Africans	Secondary	430 750
South Africa	58 million	Africans	Secondary	2,1 million

How does South Africa compare with other African nations?

Research indicates that employee retention continues to be a challenge for many companies across the African continent. In South Africa, du Plessis, Barkhuizen, Stanz, and Schutte (2015) found that talent management practices are negatively related to intentions to quit, whilst Seopa, Wöcke, and Leeds (2015) found that talent pool members have higher relational and transactional psychologist contracts, organisational commitments, and intentions to stay with the organisation compared to non-talent pool members. Also, Potgieter and Snyman (2018) established that personal factors such as emotional intelligence, self-esteem, job characteristics, supervisors' support, career opportunities and work-life balance are some of the retention factors that influence employees' decision to either stay or leave. Previously, Kock and Burke (2008) found that some employees preferred to stay in the South African public service because it was deemed a good place to work.

Compared to South Africa, research indicates that in Kenya, talent management has challenges and identified that the country has ill prepared graduates who are not able to add value to their organisations whilst on the other hand, there are migrations of talented people to other developing and developed countries and security, as well as corruption, pose a challenge (Muyia Wekullo, & Nafukho, 2018) to the talent management initiatives of that country.

On the other hand, in Nigeria, Ibidunn, Osibanjo, Adeniji, Salau, and Falola, (2015) found that talent management facilities led to innovation and retention, however, Oseghale, Malik, Nyuur, Pereira and Ellis (2018) found that government regulations and the prevalence of crime in society influenced talent management in that country.

Compared to South Africa, in Egypt, Hashish (2019) found that talent management created a perceived career and talent growth for employees. This finding was supported by Mousa and Ayoubi's (2019) study which highlighted that inclusive talent management created competitive advantage for companies and had the potential to decrease demotivation (Othrna & Khalil, 2018). Whilst in Ghana, Mensah and Bawole (2017) found that talent management has direct and

indirect effects on employees' decisions and commitment and to quit. It was also found that the person–job fit was important for talented employees (Mensah & Bawole, 2017). Although Mauritius is also affected, it was found that effective talent management systems led to talent attraction and competitive advantage which increased the employer's attractiveness.

2.5.1 Proposition 1

The above literature review led to the proposition that the retention factors that influence Senior Managers to remain in the employ of South African organisations were organisational culture, leadership, employee job satisfaction, growth and development, remuneration, as well as work-life balance.

The literature review on retention, indicates that factors such as organisational culture, leadership, employee job satisfaction, growth and development, remuneration as well as work-life balance are factors that influence retention of employees. It is further indicated that the retention of employees cannot be achieved by the implementation or presence of one factor. It is not as a result of a single factor, but a combination of factors working together. The generational priorities and needs also play a role on the retention of employees

Retention of employees requires an organisation to put in place interventions that will ensure it realises its objective which is ensuring that skilled employees remain in its employ. Amongst such interventions, coaching is one of those that can be implemented with the view of ensuring that employees remain in the organisation. The following section of the literature review explores what coaching is about, the role of different stakeholders in the coaching journey as well as the coaching outcomes for both the executive undergoing the process as well as the organisation.

2.6 Coaching

This section of the report focuses on coaching wherein, the roles of different stakeholders are discussed. Also, the discussion is on the potential influence of executive coaching on the retention of senior managers in their respective organisations.

Coaching plays an important role in an organisation as well as in the lives of the employees who partake in it. It is, however, important to understand its genesis and evolution over the years. Literature indicates that the exact origins of executive coaching are not known, there are however speculations or brief statements on when the field emerged (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001). The speculations and brief statements about the field of executive coaching dates to a few decades ago (Hudson, 1999; Kilburg 1996; Olesen 1996; Tobias, 1996). These authors agree that executive coaching has been around for some time. The renaissance of the coaching field can be traced between the years 1950 – 1979. During this period, there were a few coaches who used a combination of psychological methods as well as organisational development techniques to assist executives in carrying out their work responsibilities. The field continued to grow, and in the 1980s, coaching was recognised as a stand-alone sphere of employee development. As a result, during 1980 – 1994, the field saw an increase in standardised coaching professional services. The period 1995 to date, showed that there has been an increase in the number of publications and the emergence of professional organisations for business coaching.

2.6.1 Definition of executive coaching

Executive coaching is a fairly new domain; hence many authors describe it in different ways. Executive Coaching is defined as a short-term process which is results-driven and aims at delivering tangible added value which results in behaviour change as well as the attainment of high standards (Grant, 2007). On the other hand, Whitmore (2009) describes executive coaching as an intervention that is designed to support individuals and teams for the achievement of extraordinary results linked to the set goals and targets. Other scholars, such as de Haan, Duckworth, Birch and Jones (2013), define executive coaching as a

leadership development programme which is structured in a way that there are one-on-one conversations between a coach and client (in a form of a senior manager or executive), the desired results being the change in behaviour (Wasylyshyn, Shorey & Chaffin, 2012) of the person being coached.

According to Kilburg (1996, p.142), executive coaching is defined as a helping relationship formed between a client who has managerial authority and responsibility in an organisation and a consultant who uses a wide variety of behavioural techniques and methods to help the client achieve a mutually identified set of goals to improve his or her professional performance and personal satisfaction and consequently, to improve the effectiveness of the client's organisation within a formally defined coaching agreement.

Executive coaching is defined as a short to medium-term relationship between an executive and a consultant to improve an executive's work effectiveness (Feldman & Lankau, 2005). It is also defined as an engagement where systematic feedback is provided to the executive with the view of enhancing professional skills, interpersonal awareness, and personal effectiveness (Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001).

Other researchers define coaching as a human development process that involves structured, focused interaction and the use of appropriate strategies, tools, and techniques to promote desirable and sustainable change for the benefit of the coachee and potentially other stakeholders (Bachkirova, Cox & Clutterbuck, 2014).

According to Kombarakan et al. (2008), executive coaching is a short-term interactive process between a coach and a leader aimed at improving leadership effectiveness by enhancing self-awareness and the practice of new behaviours.

On the other hand, for Jones, Woods, and Guillaume (2016), coaching is defined as a one-to-one, non-hierarchical trusted relationship between a person in an organisation (a coachee) and a coach. The relationship was underpinned by a three or four-way contract between the coachee, the coach, their manager and sometimes another representative of the organisation (Turner, & Hawkins, 2016).

All of the above definitions have similarities and differences, which address common aspects of what a coaching relationship entails. These similarities and differences can be summarised as follows;

Table 3: Similarities of definition of Executive Coaching by different scholars

Common aspect of the definition of Executive Coaching	Grant (2007)	Whitmore (2009)	de Haan, Duckworth, Birch & Jones (2012)	Wasylyshyn, Shorey & Chaffin (2012)	Feldman & Lankau, (2005)	Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001)	Jones et al 2016	Turner & Hawkins, 2016
Goal is results orientation	X	X	X	X	X	X	x	x
Partnership	X	X	X	X	X	X	x	x
Presence of a leadership challenge	X	X	X	X	X	X		
Personal development/ growth and/or performance improvement	X	X	X	X	X	X		

In summary, coaching is a formal relationship between a client and a coach (Hannafey & Vitulano, 2013), the aim of the sessions or conversation is to attain behavioural change. The conceptualisation of the concept of coaching is aligned to the fact that coaching can create purposeful and positive individual change (Grant, Curtayne & Burton, 2009) which results in improved organisational and employee performance. For the purposes of the study, the definition of executive coaching by Kilburg (1996) is used for it is holistic and addresses the needs of the parties (client, coach, and coachee) in the triadic relationship.

It should however, be noted that depending on the type of coaching and learning approach, the individual and the organisation may achieve varying results. Four types of approaches can be employed, namely, functionalist which is designed to assist the employee to learn the critical functions of a job (it is similar to mentoring), engagement which ensures that the employee becomes a better performer, revolutionary and evolutionary approaches apply to employees who have high potential and need fast-tracking in preparation for greater responsibilities (Brockbank, 2008); the results of each approach can serve different purposes for the organisation, such as becoming employer of choice, improved financial and operational performance (Joo, Sushko, & McLean, 2012). It has been empirically demonstrated that coaching is an effective tool and can have a positive impact on the performance of an organisation and for employees who use it, their overall job satisfaction levels, as well as well-being, improve (Theeboom, Beersma & van Vianen, 2014). The ultimate goal of each organisation is to retain its executives and therefore be in a position to realise their return on investment (De Meuse et al., 2009; Grant, 2012). However, there is a gap in the literature and empirical evidence that suggests that a coaching intervention can influence the retention of Senior Managers/ Executives, especially in the public service.

2.7 How does Executive Coaching differ from other forms of helping relationships?

According to Feldman and Lankau (2005), executive coaching differs with other forms of helping relationships in the following ways;

- ✓ **An adviser:** an expert who shares business acumen with an executive to assist them in executing their responsibilities. Executive coaching does not assume the role of a subject expert, rather facilitates the process and the executive is considered the content expert;
- ✓ **A mentor:** this refers to a senior experienced professional who helps younger inexperienced employees (early career) become effective in their roles. Executive coaching deals with individuals who do not require that kind of intervention, they are at the peak of their careers;

- ✓ **Therapy:** this is a session conducted by a registered/licenced professional, such as a psychologist or psychiatrist; the aim is to address emotional or behavioural challenges experienced by the coachee. The length of time for the session is not specified, whilst for executive coaching, there are time limits and goals are explicitly stated (Feldman & Lankau, 2005)

Coaching and counselling are differentiated in that counselling focuses on the strengths and weaknesses of an individual with the view to assisting them, usually people seek counselling to help them resolve emotional, psychological and relationship issues, clients may be experiencing difficult and distressing events in their lives, such as bereavement, divorce, health problems or job concerns or feelings of anxiety or dissatisfaction with life (Grant & Green, 2018).

According to Schlosser, Steinbrenner, Kumata and Hunt (2007), executive coaching is important as it has the ability to promote individual learning which later translates into personal development/ growth as well as organisational value. This value may be in the form of operating financial results, business results, strategic results and human capital development and organisational effectiveness improvement results (Schlosser et al., 2007). Similarly, executive coaching deals with people who are mid-career or executives in their current jobs who are intending to enhance well-being and performance in personal life and work domains, underpinned by models of coaching (Grant & Green, 2018).

Executive Coaching places an emphasis on issues and goals related to the executive's performance, attributes. Coaching can be in the form of face-to-face meetings, email. It is a collaborative relationship. The coach is the expert in the process whilst the executive is the content expert (Stober, 2006). Also, it is seen as an enabler to leadership development (Anderson, Rayner & Schyns, 2009) since it allows for the enhancement of specific leadership competencies that are necessary for their effective functioning. According to Anderson, et al. (2009), executive coaching may result in financial and intangible benefits for the organisation.

2.7.1 Critical stakeholders in the executive coaching process

The executive coaching process is a triadic relationship or partnership with each party having desires, expectations, and obligations to fulfil. The key stakeholders in the executive coaching journey are the coach, the coachee, and the organisation. Their role and responsibilities are outlined below;

(a) The organisation

An organisation is expected to provide the necessary developmental interventions for its employees including the executives. In this regard, the organisation needs to have a share of the responsibility of coaching an executive as well as the associated benefits of having gone through the coaching process. The organisation may adopt several programmes that are aimed at changing/ improving the behaviour of the executive. It is important that at the onset / during the executive coaching journey, the organisation ensures that there is an alignment between the individual and organisational goals. According to Pliopas (2017), the organisation pays for the executive coaching services and there are objectives of initiating coaching interventions for their employees.

Often, the success of the coaching journey is dependent on the support the executive is receiving from the organisation. The support is in the form of a time allowance for the executive to attend the coaching sessions. In this regard, certain responsibilities could be reallocated to other executives to ensure that there is time and space for coaching to take place. The organisation may also ensure that empathy is applied and the desired improvements or changes that the employee would like to attain are recognised and respected. Also, support from the organisation can be attained through commitment and elevation of the coaching programme as one of the strategic imperatives.

The organisation would also be expected to provide an appreciative environment that would allow the coaching process to thrive. The executives who are participating in the coaching process should feel that the organisation cares and would like them to succeed in their coaching journey.

(b) The coach

The coach plays a pivotal role in the coaching process. It is the coach who facilitates the coaching process (Pliopas, 2017) to ensure that the outcomes are beneficial to both the coachee and the organisation. It is for this reason that the coach has to have credibility in a form of skills/ expertise and experiences; should be an external coach and possess certain attributes.

Firstly, the coach is expected to at least have a formal qualification in the field of coaching or psychology or counselling. This assists in ensuring that the facilitation process is conducted professionally and the duty of care is exercised at all times. Besides, the coach has to have experience or expertise in the sector in which the executive works. It is also prudent for the executive to have experience /expertise in the executive management echelon.

Secondly, the appointed coach should not be from within the organisation. It should be an external and neutral person who is not contaminated by the internal matters of the organisation. Literature suggests that a panel of coaches should be available for the executives to ensure that there are options from which to choose. There should be a connection between the coach and the coachee.

Lastly, the coach should possess a number of attributes or traits. It is expected that a coach should have self-confidence, be professional, likable, creative, calm, communicate clearly, honest, organised, warm, empathetic and be able to maintain confidentiality. It is important that a coach has these traits as they ensure that the executive/ coachee is able to be vulnerable and open up about their coaching agenda.

In summary, a coach should have integrity, support for the coachee, and good communication skills (Rekalde, Landets & Albizu, 2015). They should also have trustworthiness (Blattner, 2005; Graham, Wedman & Garvin-Kester, 1994; Gregory & Levy, 2011; Judge & Cowell, 1997; Kombarakaran, Yang, Baker & Fernandes, 2008; Kralj, 2001; O'Brion & Palmer, 2000)

because they deal with sensitive and delicate matters of the organisation as well as those of the coachee.

(c) The coachee

The success of the coaching process is equally dependent on the coachee. The coachee is central to the coaching process and it is therefore important that the coachee has full commitment to the process. This can be demonstrated through the motivation that the coachee has towards the programme. The motivation can be expressed in terms of the amount of effort invested and an open attitude to change (Matlay, Rae, Audet & Couteret, 2012). The coachee sets the agenda for the coaching sessions, which will be beneficial to the process of addressing areas of development (Pliopas (2017).

Additionally, the coachee is required to have a level of self-efficacy. The coachee needs to display optimistic self-belief in his/her competence or chances of successfully accomplishing a task and producing a favourable outcome (Bandura, 1997). It is therefore expected that a coachee would have self-efficacy in the form of mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, emotional and physiological states as well as imaginative experiences (Bandura, 1997).

In brief, the coachee is the pivot in the successful coaching process and the relationship between the coach and the coachee is key. The key features of this relationship relate to a good match between them. A good match ensures a seamless and effortless process between the two. The match eventually leads to high levels of commitment to the process as well as its beneficial outcomes.

For this reason, coachees are of the view that an individualised or personalised programme developed by a coach has a good chance of obtaining better results/ outcomes. The coachee should be dealt with as a unique individual not as part of the group. The approach of one size fits all is not ideal for most coachees and the coaching process in general.

2.7.2 Coaching outcomes

Research indicates that organisations that have implemented coaching interventions can reap benefits for both the employees who undergo coaching as well as the organisation. The section that follows outlines the outcomes of coaching for both the executive as well as the entity.

2.7.3 Coaching outcomes for the organisation

An organisation that effectively implements executive coaching can reap benefits that it ordinarily would not realise. The outcome of the coaching process for the organisation can be classified as organisational performance, teams, and human capital. Firstly, they will experience an improved organisational performance as a result of increased productivity levels (Olivero, Denise, Bane & Kopelman, 1997). The coachees become more organised, focused, and committed to the organisation. They work collaboratively with their colleagues and ensure optimal utilisation of resources. Secondly, the organisation would experience the effectiveness of teams (Hagen & Garvriova Aguilar, 2012), communication between teams and members. Also, the outcome of coaching at the organisational level includes increased employee satisfaction, productivity, leadership effectiveness and coaching culture (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018).

Lastly, the organisation will achieve an enhancement of human capital practices which will ensure that it gets the competitive edge over other entities. The introduction and implementation of executive coaching affects job satisfaction levels of existing executives and encourages their retention (Ellinger, Ellinger & Keller, 2003; Olivero et al., 1997).

2.7.4 Coaching outcomes for the coachee

The coaching outcomes for the coachee can be categorised into personal, career and overall wellness. The personal outcomes are reflected in the coachee's improved levels of self-awareness and assertiveness (Bozer, Sarros & Santora, 2014; Gatling, Castelli & Cole, 2013; Wales, 2003; Baek-Kyoo, 2005). The coachee would display increased confidence levels (Wales 2003), which can be

demonstrated by improvements in the leader's ability to inspire and impact followers (Dexter, Dexter & Irving, 2011; Jackson & McKergow, 2012; Walker–Fraser, 2011). In addition, the coachee would demonstrate positive changing behaviours (Grant, 2005(a); Wasylyshyn, 2003) in that there would be more effective delegation of duties to subordinates (Dexter et al., 2011; Jackson & McKergow, 2012; Walker–Fraser, 2011) and allocation of time for strategic thinking and discussions which had not occurred before.

With regards to the career-related outcomes, the coachees would be more comfortable with their job through the coaching process, they were able to attain role clarity (Kim, Egan, Kim & Kim, 2013; Sonesh et al., 2015) as such, the coachee would be in a position to advance and improve their career development (Wales, 2003). These positive changes would have been underpinned by their new ability to adapt to change more effectively and partake in goal setting and execution for their attainment (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargus & Kucine, 2003).

The coaching process can enhance the overall employee well-being in that, coachees can attain a better work-life balance (Gregner,1997), which is supported by their improved psychological as well as social competencies (Wales, 2003). Post the coaching process, most coachees have reported improved abilities in developing relationships, networks, and interpersonal skills (Wales, 2003). Recent research indicates that outcomes of coaching for the coachee are that it is seen as a source of support and encouragement, there is an increased work and life satisfaction and improved resilience (Athanasopoulou & Dopson, 2018).

In summary, executive coaching has outcomes for both the organisation and the coachee. Some of the outcomes of coaching are increased level of job satisfaction, job retention, improved loyalty to the company (Ellinger, Ellinger & Keller, 2003; Olivero et al., 1997), as well as improvements in interpersonal dynamics/ teamwork (Hagen & Garvirilova Aguilar, 2012). The organisation that implements executive coaching successfully does experience high levels of motivation (Sonesh et al., 2015) coming from skilled and confident employees (Wales, 2003).

2.7.5 Proposition 2

The literature review on coaching indicates that different dynamics result in individual and organisational outcomes. The coaching journey provides coachees with experiences; this is consistent with the proposition that intends to determine the experiences of Senior Managers regarding coaching.

2.8 Executive Coaching and retention

Retention can be regarded as a consequential outcome of the executive coaching process for it benefits both the individual and the organisation (Joo, 2005). On an individual level, benefits include individual performance (Smither, London, Flautt, Vargas & Kucine, 2003), compensation, promotion, job satisfaction (Wanberg, Welsh & Hezlett, 2003) and commitment, as well as psychological well-being (Jarvis, 2004). The organisational benefits include organisational performance, talent retention (Jarvis, 2004) and organisational transformation.

A research study (Fischer & Beimers, 2009) found that executive coaching had a positive impact on the personal growth and skills development of an executive, these were displayed by increased levels of confidence in their ability to perform the necessary tasks and to address challenges facing them. The increased confidence also had a positive impact on the job satisfaction levels of these executives. Strategic thinking capabilities were also reported as being positively affected. Skills improvement was in long-range planning, financial management, personnel management, communication skills, and leadership within the organisation. More than two-thirds of the executives viewed themselves as remaining in the current position for more than three years. Coaching has a positive impact which results in a strong desire for the executives to remain as executive directors of their respective organisations.

Another research study (Olivero, Bane & Kopelman, 1997) found that the introduction of executive coaching as a follow up to a training programme was shown to increase productivity by 88% in public sector managers, which was a significant greater gain compared to training alone. A study (Ely, Boyce, Nelson, Zaccaro, Hernez-Broome, & Whyman, 2010) found that one of the outcomes of

executive coaching is increased retention of both the executives and their subordinates. Also, a study by Kamunya and Nzulwa (2020) found that executive coaching influences employee retention.

2.8.1 Influence of coaching on retention

Employee retention is a complex and multifaceted practice and is not influenced by a single factor (Scullion & Collings, 2012). Many other factors influence an employee's decision to remain with an organisation and amongst them, is leadership, organisational culture, work-life balance, rewards and recognition (Veloso, Da Silva, Dutra, Trevisan & Fischer, 2014).

Research studies have found that the impact of executive coaching can be far and wide; according to Parker-Wilkins (2017), it was found that coaching resulted in increased retention of the leaders as a consequence of their coaching. Moreover, Dagley (2006) also found that coaching has a positive effect on the professional development of the talent pool, building capability talent retention and morale, effective leadership, team cohesion, cultural change, conflict resolution, performance management and remediation.

2.8.2 Executive coaching and retention in the public sector

According to Grant (2012), the influence of executive coaching for many organisations has the potential to deliver a wide range of positive outcomes such as increased workplace engagement, decreased stress, depression, and anxiety, increased resilience, and well-being. Executives may be persuaded to stay with a particular organisation for coaching has impacted on their learning and job satisfaction (Haan et al., 2008). Notwithstanding the above, research by Fischer and Beimers (2009) indicates that there is limited empirical evidence on the effectiveness of executive coaching in the non-profit sector; this could be attributed to the fact that the use of executive coaching in the non-profit sector is limited only a select few who have access to these services. The research also points out that non-profit organisations have undertaken limited executive transition planning, executives are promoted without the necessary preparation and leave within five years, (Fischer & Beimers, 2009). The outcome of that research is further confirmed by scholars (Joo, 2005; Feldman & Lankau, 2005)

who assert that there are still gaps in the effect of executive coaching at the organisational level. Also, the evaluation of the efficacy of executive coaching has lagged, as such, there are difficulties in identifying business impacts (Levenson, 2009) of the intervention, especially in the public sector.

According to Fischer and Beimers (2009), executive coaching programmes (see Figure 2) that were introduced in the public sector have certain activities that translate into immediate, intermediate, and long-term outcomes. The notable outcomes include increased confidence, increased productivity which leads to effective management and leadership.

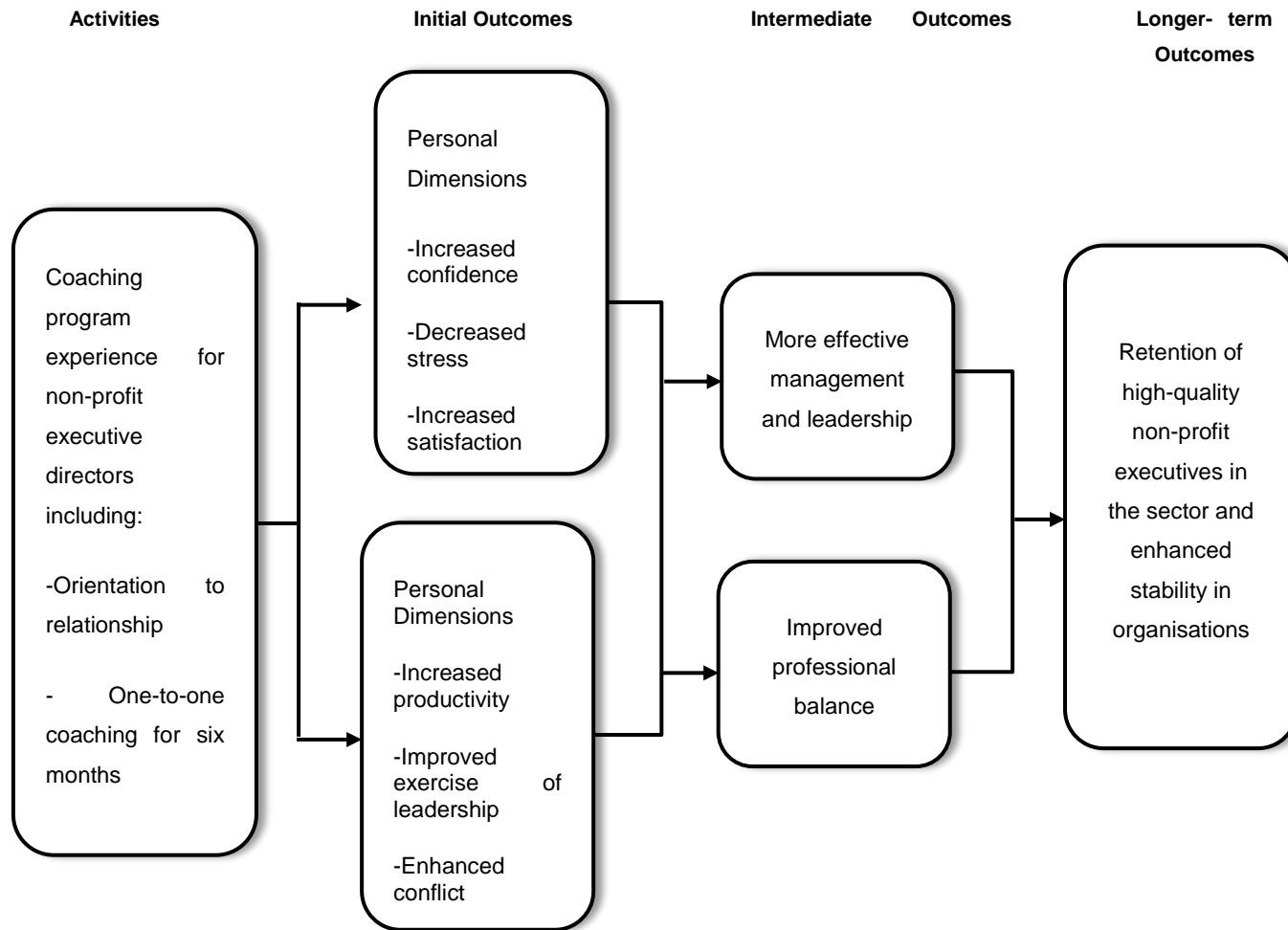


Figure 2: Logic Model for an Executive Coaching Programme

Adapted from **Fischer and Beimers (2009)**

The outcome as depicted in Figure 2 is the retention of high-quality non-profit executives in the sector (Fischer & Beimers, 2009). The outcome of the study using the aforementioned programme revealed that coaching can improve the executive's capabilities to serve effectively in their role (Fischer & Beimers, 2009).

2.8.3 Proposition 3

The proposition was to determine whether coaching influences an employee's retention. The literature review has indicated that there are different schools of thought on the matter. Some scholars are of the view that coaching does influence the retention of employees, whilst others believe that coaching assists, amongst others, in the achievement of productivity and improvement of skills.

2.9 Conclusion of the Literature Review

Coaching as a domain has occurred mainly in the private sector, it is a new phenomenon in the public sector, however, the selection and use of appropriate interventions can assist in ensuring that senior managers are retained (de Haan, Culpin & Curd, 2011) in the public sector. The literature review highlights that retention of Senior Managers remains a challenge for organisations, however, there is a research gap within the public sector. According to Cregard and Corin (2019), literature and research on public manager turnover has rarely addressed work environment conditions which has an impact on their (public managers) decisions to stay or leave. Often these turnover decisions are complex and involve protracted processes, as a result, the study by Cregard and Corin (2019) suggested that further research into public manager turnover is necessary to fully understand public manager turnover. Also, a study was conducted in the South African public service which recommended that further research needs to be conducted to explore the relationship between organisational culture, staff engagement and satisfaction as they affect the employee's decision to remain or leave the organisation (Mash, De Sa & Christodoulou, 2016).

Similarly, a study by Terblanche, Albertyn and Coller-Peter (2017) indicated that South Africa faces a shortage of skilled leaders and the emergence of coaching is seen as an opportunity to support employees at senior management levels. According to Terblanche, Albertyn and Coller-Peter (2017), there is very little empirical research that has been conducted to understand how coaching can be employed during a senior manager's career (whether in the current or new role). This study attempted to add to the body of knowledge regarding the retention of Senior Managers in the public sector.

Table 4: Consistency table: research questions and propositions

RQ #	State Research Question or Objective	Prop / hyp #	State Proposition or Hypothesis
1	Determine the nature of the relationship between retention factors and elements of coaching for Senior Managers in the South African public sector	1	
1.1	To determine factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers/ Executives in the public sector.	1.1	Determine factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers in the South African public sector
1.2	To determine the experiences of Senior / Executive Managers in the public service regarding executive coaching	1.2	Determine the coaching experiences of Senior Managers in the South African public sector
1.3	To determine whether coaching influences Senior Managers' retention in the South African public service.	1.3	Determine whether coaching influences the retention of Senior Managers in the South African public sector.

CONCLUSION OF THE CHAPTER

The literature review is a prelude to the research, it provided the basis for the testing of the research question as well as the propositions. In the following chapter, the research methodology that was followed to conduct the study is outlined. The chapter, amongst others, describes the qualitative research methodology used and the constructivism approach that was adopted. It also provides details on the research design, data collection methods, population and sample, research instrument and procedure for data collection, as well as data analysis.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the research methodology that was utilised during the study. The key components such as the preferred research approach, research design, data collection and analysis, sampling and population, trustworthiness, dependability as well as ethical considerations are discussed. The Chapter commences with the research approach that was used for the study.

3.1 Research approach

The study followed a qualitative research approach. This approach was chosen because it allowed the participants to describe and interpret their lived experiences within the context of the study. It was necessary to obtain the lived experiences of the Senior Managers because it provided a certain perspective about them within the context of the South African public sector. The participants were able to use their voices/ words to describe their lived experiences. The research approach was based on a constructivist research paradigm.

The constructivism research paradigm was part of the study; it allowed the researcher to acquire an understanding of lived experiences from a point of view of those who lived it day-by-day (Ponterotto, 2005). Moreover, the paradigm was based on multiple subjective external realities, as such it (the paradigm) adhered to a relativist position that assumed multiple, apprehendable and equally valid realities (Tekin & Kotaman, 2013). It is a firm belief of the constructivist that reality is first developed in the mind of an individual, this reality is created in the individual's social-historical context which is influenced by many factors occurring in their daily lives (Ponterotto, 2005). Therefore, the deeper meaning can be brought to the fore through deeper reflection (Ponterotto, 2005). The centrality of the engagement between the researcher and the participant who was the object of the study, allowed for both parties to uncover deeper meaning to a specific phenomenon (Ponterotto, 2005; Tekin & Kotaman, 2013). As the research unfolded, the reality was constructed and the participant was an active actor in the process (Ponterotto, 2005).

Constructivists emphasised that studying a phenomenon leads to multiple interpretations which are represented through multiple realities about a phenomenon (Ponterotto, 2005; Tekin & Kotaman, 2013). In this study, it acknowledged that the researcher has his or her values and lived experiences, it was therefore important that such should not be ignored but appreciated and described accordingly (Ponterotto, 2005; Tekin & Kotaman, 2013). Of note, was that this paradigm shifted the power to the research participant as they were empowered to lead the research as they shared their lived experiences (Ponterotto, 2005). The paradigm was appropriate for this research because it allowed Senior Managers in the public service to share their lived experiences. In addition, these Senior Managers were also empowered to lead discussions through the sharing of their day-to-day experiences in their career lives; this was to ensure that their voices are heard and to determine their views on retention and coaching in the public service, in order to acquire information through a qualitative case design which is discussed in the next section.

3.2 Research design

Research design formed an important part of the research; it provided a procedural outline on the type of information that was sourced, from whom and how (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). According to Creswell, Hanson, Plano Clark, and Morales, (2007), there are various qualitative research designs, however, for this study, a qualitative case design was used. A case study is defined as an established approach that enables a researcher to acquire an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon or complex issue through multi-faceted sources (Eisenhardt, 1989; Barratt, Choi & Li, 2011; Crowe, Creswell, Robertson, Huby, Avery & Sheikh, 2011). Case studies also involve various levels of analysis, such as within single or multiple cases (Eisenhardt, 1989).

There are three types of case studies which range from intrinsic, collective as well as instrumental case study (Crowe et al., 2011). For the purposes of this study, the collective case study approach was used. The rationale of using the collective case study was that the approach allowed for multiple cases to be studied which were researched concurrently and consecutively (Barratt et al., 2011). The

collective case study approach was helpful in gaining a broader understanding of retention and coaching from more than one case (Eisenhardt, 1989). The advantages of the collective case study approach were that it allowed for single case analysis as well as comparisons (similarities and differences) of two or more organisations with the view of identifying variations, trends, the relationship between different causes, effects, and outcome between cases under research (Yin, 1989). As such, the study allowed for the comparison of information from the four organisations to ascertain the dynamics of retention and coaching. Additionally, case studies are useful in that they may lead to theory development as well as theory testing (Yin, 1989; Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). Also, the outcome of a case study research has the potential to contribute positively or strengthen existing historical explanations or contest the previous findings of preceding case or cases (Yin, 1989; Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). The usefulness of case studies relied on the unit of analyses utilised for the study, the details thereof are discussed in the following section.

Unit of Analysis

Unit of analysis defines what the case study is focusing on, i.e. what the case is, such as an individual, a group, an organisation, a city, and so forth (Berg, 2001). For the purposes of the study, unit of analysis were senior managers who were defined as employees who fall within the category of senior and executive management occupational class. These officials fulfil strategic leadership roles in the national and provincial government departments, state entities as well as at the local government level.

The unit of analysis played an important role in the data collection process, as outlined in the section below.

3.3 Data collection methods

In this section, an outline of the data collection methods utilised during the study is provided. Also, the advantages of the chosen data collection method is given.

3.3.1 Data collection

The case study approach involves several data collection methods such as interviews, questionnaires, focus groups, observations, audits (Eisenhardt, 1989; Crowe et al., 2011). To gain insight into the retention of Senior Managers within the public sector, the study used qualitative evidence in the form of interviews and auditing of organisational information.

Data was collected through the use of interviewing techniques which were conducted in a face-to-face setting. In this regard, interviews provided Senior Managers with an opportunity to give an account of their lived experiences regarding retention, as well as coaching. For this study, semi-structured interviews were used. The advantage of using semi-structured interviews was that they allowed for the collection of rich and detailed data from the source (Seidman, 2006). Due to their nature of a free-flowing conversational style, semi-structured interviews were considered powerful, especially in instances where there was a need to tap into the participant's lived experiences (Gubrium & Holstein, 2002). During interviews, participants were encouraged to talk about their retention and coaching experiences in a free, non-intimidating manner, whilst being guided through the process. Researchers, such as Gubrium and Holstein (2002), warn that the wealth of information that can be obtained from the research study which uses interviews for data collection depends on the researcher-participant power relationship. This relationship can make a difference in a research study, especially on the validity attributed to the data collected. Given this warning, it was important to continuously strike a balance between retaining interviewer control and approximating normal conversation (Madill & Gough, 2008). These interviews were conducted on a sample of Senior Managers who were selected from the broader population of employees within the occupational class for Senior Managers within the South African public service.

3.4 Population and sample

This section provides details on the population and sample used for the study.

3.4.1 Population

The term 'population' is defined as the total group of persons that a researcher is interested in conducting a study on (Cooper & Schindler, 2011). The population of this research study was Senior Managers / Executives in the South African public service. The South African public sector employs over one million employees at national, provincial, local, and state-owned entity levels (DPSA, 2013). A portion (10%) of the total staff complement is classified as Senior Managers / Executives (DPSA, 2013). The public sector institutions are dispersed throughout the country, this proved difficult to conduct a research study at the population level. Based on that, the study only focused on the sample as opposed to the entire population. The details of the sample as well as the sampling method are outlined below.

3.4.2 Sample and sampling method

Sampling refers to the act, process, or technique of selecting a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population (Merriam, 2009). A sample was intended to examine part of the total population (Devers & Frankel, 2000). There are different types of sampling methods, such as purposive sampling (Creswell, 2017), convenience (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016), snowball sampling (Yin, 2011; Merriam, 2009) as well as theoretical sampling (Merriam, 2009).

For the purpose of the study, a convenience sampling method was utilised. It is a type of non-probability or non-random sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study (Etikan et al., 2016). The convenience sampling method was chosen because it was affordable, easy and the subjects are readily available.

Nonetheless, the researcher acknowledged that although convenience sampling was able to produce useful results, these results are prone to significant bias, because those who volunteer to take part may be different from those who

choose not to (volunteer bias), and the sample may not be representative of other characteristics, such as age or sex (Farrakhan, Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, 2012).

For the research study, the identified senior managers/executives were drawn from the national department as well three state-owned entities. The sample was valuable in that it ensured a selection of individuals who had 'rich information' which could provide insights into the research questions (Creswell, et. al., 2007). In this regard, Senior Managers/ Executives in a national department as well as the three state-owned entities were selected for the study. These Senior Managers/ Executives had been in their roles for a period of three and more years.

The sample size for the study was determined in line with research guidelines. Weller, Vickers, Bernard, Blackburn, Borgatti, Gravlee and Johnson (2018) indicated that sample size determination for open-ended questions relies primarily on custom and finding the point where little new information is obtained. Saturation can either be thematic or salient. Thematic saturation refers to a point during a series of interviews where few or no new ideas, themes or codes appear. The study used a sample size of 16 participants because it was found that about 12 – 16 interviews were adequate to achieve thematic saturation (Guest, Bunce & Johnson, 2006). Also, Hagaman and Wutich (2006) found that one could reliably retrieve the most salient themes in the first 16 interviews. Probing and prompting during an interview seems to matter more than the number of interviews. A research study by Tran, Porcher, Tran and Ravaud (2017) found that a sample size greater than 50 would add fewer than one new theme per additional person interviewed.

Given that a case study approach was used, it was vital to ensure that a representative sample in terms of ethnicity, gender, age was available to provide a useful variation on the dimensions of theoretical interests (Seawright & Gerring, 2008). The profile of the sample for the study was as follows;

Table 5: Organisational profile

Organisation	Type	No. of participants
Organisation A	National department	2
Organisation B	State owned entity	4
Organisation C	State owned entity	5
Organisation D	State owned entity	5

The four cases that were chosen provided the researcher with an opportunity to probe causal mechanisms that may either confirm or disconfirm a given theory/theories (Gerring, 2004).

Table 6: Race

The race profile of the sample comprised fourteen Africans, one Indian, one coloured with no white participants.

Race	No of participants
Africans	14
Indians	1
Coloureds	1
Whites	0

Table 7: Gender profile

The gender profile of the sample comprised ten (10) males and six (6) females.

Males	Females
10	6

Table 8: Educational qualifications

The educational profiles of the participants varied, some of them held Bachelor degrees, National Diplomas, Honours degrees as well as Masters and Doctoral degrees.

Organisation	Type	No. of participants	Highest qualification
Organisation A	National department	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bachelor's degree • National Diploma: Public Management
Organisation B	State owned entity	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • LLB • Diamond Valuation Certificates • Hons Public Management • Bachelor of Arts
Organisation C	State owned entity	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • B Comm Accounting • Master in Commercial Law • Master in Public Health • Hons: ICT • Bachelor of Mining Engineering
Organisation D	State owned entity	5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doctoral degree • Master of Business Administration • B Mining Engineering • B Comm Accounting • Bachelor of Science

Table 9: Age profiles of the participants

The participants from the study came from different generations, there were, baby boomers, generation Xers, and millennials. The baby boomers were born between 1946 and 1964; generation X were born between 1965 and 1980 and millennials were born 1981 and 1996. These generations have different, yet at times similar, workplace values leading to attitudinal workplace preferences which, in turn, affect their motivation to join and remain with a particular organisation (Martin & Ottemann, 2016). Below is the statistic of the age profiles of the participants:

Organisation	Number of participants	Age profile
Organisation A	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• X1 (generation Xer)• X1 (millennial)
Organisation B	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• X3 (generation Xers)• X1 (millennial)
Organisation C	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• X4 (generation Xers)• X1 (baby boomer)
Organisation D	6	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• X4 (generation Xers)• X2 (baby boomers)

Table 10: Coaching experience

Coaching experience refers to action or activities that a participant undertook as part of their coaching. Some of the participants went through an organisation initiated coaching whilst other participants self-funded the initiative.

Organisation	Type	No. of participants	Current/previous coaching experience	Payment (self-funded/ organisational funded)
Organisation A	National department	2	Current	Organisational funded
Organisation B	State owned entity	4	1 previous	Organisational funded Self-funded

			3 current	
Organisation C	State owned entity	4	1 Previous 4 previous	Organisational funded Self-funded
Organisation D	State owned entity	6	1 previous 5 previous	Organisational funded Self-funded

The profile of the participants in the study were diverse in terms of race, gender, educational qualification, the type of organisation for which they work as well as their coaching experiences. Some of the participants underwent organisation-initiated coaching and others attended self-initiated coaching programmes.

3.5 The research instruments

The research instruments that were utilised for the study was semi-structured questionnaire interviews and a review of organisational records. The first part of the questionnaire instrument dealt with retention as a theme, followed by retention factors, then the role of executive coaching in influencing the participants to stay with their employer. The following section of the questionnaire dealt with biographical information of the participant, specifically about their age, gender, race, employment status, position, and tenure. The research instrument was structured in such a way that it allowed for a free flow of conversation between the researcher and the participant (Seidman, 2006). In instances where the participant felt uncomfortable discussing certain issues, they were not forced to do so (Resnik, 2011). The semi-structured interviews were used to facilitate the data collection and the procedure followed was as per the outline below.

3.6 Procedure for data collection

The procedure for data collection included the submission of a letter to request permission to conduct a study within the organisation. The letter was followed by a meeting with the relevant approving authority to explain the study and reasons for choosing the said organisation. During the engagement, appropriate

respondents were identified. Upon receipt of approval from the entity, the researcher liaised with the co-ordinator for appointments. Before the actual interviews, the identified participants were provided with details of the study and expectations from the researcher.

On the day of the interviews, participants were briefed on the approval that was granted to conduct the study, their consent to be part of the study, the fact that they could withdraw at any time that they felt uncomfortable with the process. The researcher then requested permission from the participants to record (audio and written notes) the interviews. The participants were also informed about confidentiality and anonymity as it related to the study. The researcher also indicated that the outcome of the study would be shared with the entity for potential use or implementation. Following the data collection, the information was analysed through the process outlined below.

3.7 Data analysis and interpretation

Data analysis was conducted on two levels, the first level being overall to all participants. At this level, the data collected from the interviews were analysed to determine the outcome of the study. On the second level, there was a cross-case analysis of the acquired information to establish where there were possible similarities and differences between the cases. The process of analysing data occurred simultaneously in an incremental manner; this ensured that reality brought about by the data collected was captured immediately. In ensuring that analysis had integrity, the framework approach (Crowe et al., 2011) which stipulates the step-by-step data analysis process that included familiarisation, identifying a thematic framework, indexing, charting, mapping and interpretation was considered. The following steps of data analysis were followed;

- A within-case analysis was conducted, to first ensure that data received from each organisation was analysed and understood in the context of that entity. Within case analysis also ensured that data collected was divided into manageable sets (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Crowe et al., 2011; Barratt, 2011). Moreover, trends, emerging relationships and insights were identified

(Yin,1989). For the study, an analysis of information from each entity was analysed separately from the other entities;

- Qualitative data was analysed through the use of coding. It allowed for organising and making sense of the data received (Basit, 2003). Coding forms an important part of data analysis; it involves the process of subdividing data as well as categorisation of the raw data received (Dey, 1993). For the research, the analysis was conducted throughout the study instead of at the end of the project (Basit, 2003); this assisted in ensuring that the researcher was able to make sense of the data as it came in.
- After completion of the single case analysis, a cross-case analysis was conducted, the cross-case analysis was intended to identify patterns (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Crowe et al., 2011; Barratt, 2011). This was conducted through the analysis of similarities and differences based on the constructs in terms of category, sub-category and themes (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Crowe et al., 2011; Barratt, 2011).
- In the process of analysing, data was divided into themes and categories of the research study (Yin, 1989).

As part of the research analysis, the study conducted both within case as well as cross-case analysis. The approach that was utilised in analysing the data was thematic analysis. The following section outlines thematic analysis which was conducted as part of the study.

THEMATIC ANALYSIS

Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analyzing, and interpreting patterns of meaning ('themes') within qualitative data (Clarke & Braun, 2006). Thematic Analysis is unusual in the canon of qualitative analytic approaches, because it offers a method/ a tool or technique, unbounded by theoretical commitments rather than a methodology (a theoretically informed, and confined, framework for research) (Clarke, Braun, & Hayfield, 2015).

Also, thematic analysis provides accessible and systematic procedures for generating codes and themes from qualitative data. Codes are the smallest units of analysis that capture interesting features of the data (potentially) relevant to the research question. Codes are the building blocks for themes, (larger) patterns of meaning (Saldana, 2013) which assist in preparing for the data analysis phase.

The aim of thematic analysis is not simply to summarize the data content, but to identify, and interpret, key, but not necessarily all, features of the data, guided by the research question (Clarke et al., 2017). The emphasis is on producing rigorous and high-quality analysis. Thematic analysis has in-built quality procedures such as a two-stage review process where candidate themes are reviewed against the coded data and the entire data-set (Clarke & Braun, 2006).

Why is Thematic Analysis useful

Thematic analysis provided flexibility in terms of research question, sample size and constitution, data collection method, and approaches to meaning generation. Thematic Analysis can be used to identify patterns *within* and *across* data in relation to participants' lived experience, views, and perspectives, and behaviour and practices; 'experiential' research which seeks to understand what participants' think, feel, and do (Clarke et al., 2017).

Thematic Analysis can be used to analyse large and small data-sets from case study research with 1–2 participants (Cedervall & Åberg, 2010) to large interview

studies with 60 or more participants, i.e. homogenous and heterogeneous samples (Mooney-Somers, Perz, & Ussher, 2008).

With the use of thematic analysis, virtually any data type can be analysed, from widely used qualitative techniques such as interviews and focus groups, to emerging methods such as qualitative surveys and story completion (Braun & Clarke, 2013). Finally, Thematic Analysis can be used for both inductive (data-driven) and deductive (theory-driven) analyses, and to capture both manifest (explicit) and latent (underlying) meaning.

For the purposes of the study, thematic analysis was used in accordance with the steps set out below;

Six steps of thematic analysis

Step 1: Familiarise yourself with the data

As part of the process, the researcher familiarized themselves with the study by reading the filed notes, listening to the audio and reading the transcriptions. This was conducted whilst the interview process was underway and also prior to the commencement of the data analysis.

Step 2: Generate initial codes

Based on the data received, the process of generating initial codes commenced. The process of generation codes was conducted on a software. The generation of initial codes was guided by the content of literature review which highlighted key areas regarding retention as well as coaching in the public service. The adopted approach was to code as many themes as possible. This assisted in ensuring that a pattern was established from these codes.

Step 3: Discovering themes/ searching for themes

Through the process of coding themes and sub themes were identified. These were clustered accordingly in the software to ensure that appropriate groupings are in place. The new themes and sub themes were discovered from individual

participant. There was a need to ensure that a holistic identification of themes and sub themes is undertaken for the total data set.

Step 4: Reviewing of themes

Subsequent to the coding of data in step 3 above, the all the identified themes and sub themes were reviewed, rearranged and assigned to relevant categories. The intention of reviewing themes and sub themes was to ensure that there is internal coherence in a theme and clear distinction between themes.

Step 5: Defining and naming themes

At this stage, the process of defining and naming the themes commenced. The identified themes and sub themes were named in line with their essence.

Step 6: Writing the analysis

Once the above step was completed, the process of writing analysis commenced. This took into consideration the literature review and the lived experiences of the participants.

Cross-case analysis

Cross-case analysis is a research method that facilitates the comparison of commonalities and differences in the events, activities and processes that are the units of analyses in case studies (Khan & VanWynsberghe, 2008). Cross-case analysis assisted in the mobilization of case knowledge which can be put to use for broader purposes. Cross-case analysis was used for this study because new connections made across cases produce new knowledge and experiences.

Advantages of cross-case analysis

According to Khan and VanWynsberghe (2008), cross cases represent rich holistic examples of experiences and cases are comparable in relation to patterns of similarities and differences. Also, memorable cases are accessed and it allows comparisons among cases which can construct and yield meaningful linkages and cognitive cross-case analyses are a useful way to produce analogies, make inferences, and develop conditional generalizations for the individual (Khan & VanWynsberghe, 2008).

How the cross-case analysis was conducted in this study

The cross-case comparison made it possible for the researcher to develop expertise regarding retention and coaching practices within the South African public sector. It helped to refine these concepts. It provided contexts of retention and coaching from different organisations within the public service. It provided the researcher with the opportunity to see patterns between concepts and among data.

The comparison of these organisations brought new insight regarding retention and coaching within the South African public service. The comparison also showed how these organisations were handling the same challenges regarding the retention of Senior Managers as well as opportunities to implement coaching.

The potential value of the cross-case analysis within this study involved seeing the notion of retention and coaching processes and practices in a new light. This comparison with other organisations has allowed the researcher to see that the importance of listening to individual experiences because they are unique and valuable.

Triangulation

Triangulation refers to the use of multiple methods or data sources in qualitative research to develop a comprehensive understanding of phenomena (Patton, 1999). Triangulation also has been viewed as a qualitative research strategy to test validity through the convergence of information from different sources. There are different types of triangulation, method triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation, and data source triangulation. For the purposes of the study, data source triangulation was utilised. This triangulation focuses more on obtaining data from multiple sources (Mathison, 1988). The data sources were semi-structured interviews as well as organisational records from which the sample was obtained.

3.8 Limitations of the study

The limitation of this study was that it was only conducted on three government entities and one national department. This is against a total of over 900 entities, at national as well as the provincial government levels. The study was limited to four organisations that are categorised as part of national departments and state-owned entities.

3.9 Trustworthiness

The qualitative study was conducted and therefore the study's trustworthiness wherein transferability, credibility, dependability as well as confirmability are determined.

3.9.1 Transferability

Transferability refers to the extent to which the reader can generalise the findings of a study to his or her context (Morrow, 2005, p. 252) and addresses the core issue of "how far a researcher may make claims for a general application of their theory" (Gasson, 2004, p.98). Given the small sample used, as well as the fact that there was no statistical analysis conducted in the study, it would not be possible to generalise the results of this study. The implications are that the results would not be readily applied across government entities however, some lessons can be learned by various state organs.

3.9.2 Credibility

Credibility refers to the idea of internal consistency, where the core issue is "how we ensure rigor in the research process and "how we communicate to others that we have done so" (Gasson, 2004, p.95). In this study, credibility was ensured through prolonged engagement with participants wherein interviews were more of a conversation about their experiences, they were also encouraged to be free and open. In addition, the researcher noted observations that were made during the study as engagements continued with the participants. Given that there was no predictability of what would transpire out of engagements with participants, the researcher had regular debriefing sessions with the research supervisor.

3.9.3 Dependability

Dependability deals with the core issues that “the way in which a study is conducted should be consistent across time, researchers and analysis techniques” (Gasson, 2004, p.94). During the study, the findings were derived in a similar manner in that an audit trail was kept of the research activities, participants were interviewed from the different organisations. The analysis of the findings was conducted in line with the identified themes and categories. The capturing of the findings was conducted as and when interviews were concluded.

3.9.4 Confirmability

Confirmability is based on the acknowledgement that research is never objective (Morrow, 2004). According to Gasson (2004, p.94), it addresses the core issue that “findings should represent, as far as (humanly) possible, the situation being researched rather than the beliefs, pet theories or biases of the researcher”. During the study, the researcher strived to maintain the integrity by possible management of subjectivity. The information from the audit trail was used to ensure the management of subjectivity.

3.10 Ethical considerations

Social research is underpinned by key ethical considerations which pertain to the approach, procedure, conduct of the researcher and the final usage of the material (Resnik, 2010) obtained from the research study. The key ethical considerations that were implemented during the study were as follows:

3.10.1 Informed consent to research

At the commencement of the research, approval was sought from the identified organisation. The request for informed consent was also obtained from the identified participants. They agreed to participate in the study through the signing of a consent form.

3.10.2 Voluntary participation

All participants were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary and they were welcome to disengage at any time that they felt uncomfortable with the process.

3.10.3 No harm to the participants

As a researcher, the principle of causing no harm to participants was upheld. This was done through a process of consciously assuring them that the conversation was confidential and would not be revealed to unauthorised persons.

3.10.4 Anonymity and confidentiality

The participants were informed that their identities would remain anonymous and the information that they shared during the interviews would be treated as confidential.

3.10.5 Deceiving subjects

The participants were encouraged to be frank and honest and the researcher also pledged to do the same. This pledge was maintained throughout the study.

The researcher adhered to the highest levels of technical standards and maintained these throughout the study. As such, there was no deceiving of participants, plagiarism and no changing of data or observations from the participants.

Conclusion

The research methodology applied enabled the process of uncovering of findings that are outlined in chapter 4 of the study. The findings are categorised according to the research question, as well as the propositions.

Table 11: Consistency table: research questions, propositions, data collection, and data analysis

RQ #	State Research Question or Objective	Prop / hyp #	State Proposition or Hypothesis	Data collection detail	Data analysis method
1	Determine the nature of the relationship between retention factors and elements of coaching for Senior Managers in the South African public sector	1			
1.1	Determine how retention of Senior Managers in the public sector has implications for coaching	1.1	To determine the retention factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers/ Executives in the public sector.	Semi-structured interviews guide questions	Thematic analysis
1.2	Determine how retention of Senior Managers in the public sector has implications for coaching	1.2	To determine the experiences of Senior / Executive Managers in the public service regarding executive coaching	Semi-structured interviews guide questions	Thematic analysis
1.3	Determine how retention of Senior Managers in the public sector has implications for coaching	1.3	To determine whether coaching influences Senior Managers' retention in the South African public service.	Semi-structured interviews guide questions	Thematic analysis

CHAPTER 4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study. The findings are discussed under the following headings; factors influencing retention, experiences of senior managers to executive coaching, the influence of coaching on retention, as well as implications for coaching. In the presentation of the findings, the research study propositions were tested against the data obtained during the interviews.

4.2 Results of Proposition 1

To determine factors that influence retention of Senior/ Executive Managers within the South African public service

4.2.1 Organisational culture

The concept of organisational culture is intricate and it draws from many disciplines such as anthropology, sociology, psychology, and other fields. Organisational culture can be defined as shared values and beliefs, myths, interpretations and meanings within an organisation, and actions and behaviours, including customs, practices, norms, rituals, and implementation of control systems (Schein, 1985, 1996, 2010; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1996). Organisational culture has tangible and intangible elements (Geertz, 1973). Research has revealed that within an entity, organisational culture exists on three levels. According to Schein (2010), the organisational culture consists of artefacts, whilst the espoused beliefs and values characterise the second level of organisational culture and the third level is basic underlying assumptions. As part of the study, four (4) participants indicated that organisational culture was one of their retention factors that determine whether to stay or leave the organisation. Although, these four participants identified organisational culture, they mentioned different aspects that are essential to them.

(a) Theme 1: Nature of organisational culture

Organisational culture has antecedents which will either characterise a non-toxic or toxic organisational culture. The difference between the two cultures (toxic and non-toxic) is that the non-toxic culture is characterized by employee engagement, the high degree of motivation, sense of inspiration, personal development, and supportiveness of the organisation (Oakley, 2004). This kind of culture is warm and influences senior managers to continue to remain with the organisation.

One participant indicated that;

“a culture that wherever you are on Sunday, you are looking forward to Monday” (participant 11).

Conversely, toxic organisational culture condones, neutralises, enables rule-breaking, disables, and obstructs compliance and the actual practices contrast with expressed compliant values (Van Rooij & Fine 2018). This kind of culture is not ideal for the retention of senior managers.

In short, organisational culture is one of the factors that influence the retention of managers in organisations. The participants affirmed that a non-toxic culture is preferred to ensure their retention. This culture motivates them to want to come to work. This assertion agrees with the findings of Oakley (2004) which indicated that a non-toxic culture is, amongst others, characterised by a high degree of motivation.

Theme 2: Defined culture

Culture is more than the feel-good aspects of respect and kindness; it also covers aspects of order and predictability. Organisational culture also relates to employees and their fit into the existing organisation. There are different kinds of organisational culture, such as power culture, role culture, achievement culture as well as support culture. It was also found that managers would rather remain with an organisation that has similar values to theirs. This alignment ensures that there is no conflict between their personal and organisational values. It is central

for the managers to have a proper fit between themselves and the organisations for which they are working.

Participant 1 indicated that part of organisational culture that was important to their decision whether to stay or leave was whether there is an alignment between organisational and personal values. This determined their fit into the broader organisation. The participant stated that when a misalignment occurs;

“often when those kinds of things happen i.e. the mismatch between organisational and personal values, I tend to think that I would never survive that environment” (participant 1).

Similarly, participant 8 also highlighted the importance of organisational culture and being able to blend into the organisation. The person-organisation fit ensures that the employee is either able to stay longer or leave. The response by the two participants is supported by the research that suggested that the employee’s turnover decision is influenced by fit perceptions, with lack of fit seriously undermining employees’ intentions to retain their membership with the organisation (Boon & Biron, 2017). These participants indicated that a mismatch between organisational and personal values, as well as their inability to blend into the organisation, would influence their decision to stay or leave the organisation.

Equally, participant 16 indicated that a consultative culture is preferred because it ensures that both the employees and the organisation benefit from it. The participant stated that,

“It is very involved, it is a consultative culture which is important for picking our heads at our level to interact amongst ourselves and come up with programmes that we think are going to benefit our people and also the organisation” (participant 16).

The consultative culture is driven by the leader of the organisation, wherein the leader is able to listen deeply for the breadth and depth of organisational issues, applies empathy and puts in efforts to help members of the organisation so that they are heard and understood (Stein, 2017). Also, a consultative culture promotes the creation of a safe space for collaboration by members of the

organisation as opposed to confrontational approaches within teams (Stein, 2017). A consultative culture, especially at senior management level, is essential to ensure team work as well as productivity. On the other side, participant 1 indicated that within the public sector, there is a culture of not planning things in advance and this leads to employees being inconvenienced. This poor planning affects their daily plans and operations. The participant indicated frustration with regards to this and stated that;

“Well, there is a thing in the public service about culture, right, which I have found that working for entity X, the culture is different to working for a national and provincial department. Often you get an instruction from your authorities that does not appear to have been considered properly, if I may put it that way, an example I can make is being informed at 8 pm today that you need to be in Cape Town at 9h00 am tomorrow. Those kind of things that happen in the public sector and they happen often. That managers need to just get things done, get it done because your authorities have spoken and you cannot defy that instruction (participant 1).

The above indicates elements of power culture that exist within the organisation. According to Kaouache et al. (2020), power cultures have characteristics of high levels of centralization and low levels of formalization, wherein power is exercised by a few leaders at the top over the majority of employees. There is little to no room for negotiations or consultation on certain matters. This lack of flexibility may be perceived negatively by those at the receiving end. This indicates that organisational culture is a complex and dynamic matter, consideration needs to be taken on the prevailing culture to ensure that it is appropriate.

In conclusion, research studies by various authors (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Holmes & Marsden, 1996; Messmer, 1999) found that organisational culture has a direct influence on the performance of employees, their self-efficacy, commitment to work, ethical behaviour, as well as their retention. This finding corresponds with the outcome of the current research study in that participants affirmed that their decision to stay with an organisation is influenced by the nature of the organisational culture as well as a structured culture.

4.2.2 Leadership

The vision and direction of any organisation is determined by its leadership. The leadership sets the course that ordinary employees ought to follow in order to achieve set strategic objectives (Goleman, 1995, 2000, 2017). There are various leadership approaches and styles employed by those in leadership roles. As part of the study, participants indicated their preferred leadership which influenced their stay in an organisation. The following sections outline the outcome of the study as it relates to the nature of leadership as well as the leadership styles.

Theme 1: Nature of leadership

Organisations have different types of leadership, such as transformational leadership, transactional leadership and servant leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Crossan, Vera & Nanjad, 2008; Russell & Stone, 2002; Bass, 1999). The study found that some participants (1,2,5,6,10,11,16) highlighted the nature of leadership as core to their decision to either stay or leave the organisation. The participants indicated different aspects of leadership that influence their retention. One participant indicated that a leadership that promotes a culture of frankness, honesty, good ethics, and values was considered to be great leadership. The participant stated that:

“great leadership for the institution was the one that promoted a culture of frankness, a culture of honesty, a culture of, good ethics, okay, uhm, and the values” (participant 1).

Similarly, participant 5 indicated that strong and disciplined leadership resonated with him and contributed to the decision to remain with the organisation for longer. According to this participant, working in an environment where there is strong and disciplined leadership;

“one tends to learn and grow a lot and remain loyal to that organisation” (participant 5).

Whilst participant 6 indicated that stability at leadership level plays a big role in their decision to remain with an organisation. According to this participant, it is important that the appointed leadership have the necessary skills, knowledge to be able to take the institution forward. The participant stated that:

“I think at senior management level, uhm, the shareholder has the bigger role to play in that. And when we are just talking about stability, uhm, uhm, the leadership and so is appointed by the shareholder. So stability at your leadership, stability at your, within your, uhm, uhm, uhm. Board and also the board having the skill, uhm, and the knowledge to take the institution forward with a clear vision. Those are the most important things” (participant 6).

On the other hand, participant 10 indicated that autocratic/dictatorship influenced her decision to either stay or leave the organisation. The participant indicated that it is important for the leadership to “walk the talk”. The participant stated that:

“...it’s the leadership, I think the leadership is almost like a dictatorship, its not something that is you know lets all rely on it, they say the words but the practice is different” (participant 10).

The outcome of the study indicated that participants preferred transformational leadership. This is a type of leadership that can facilitate intellectual stimulation which encourages innovation and creativity. Transformational leadership has consideration for individual needs as it pertains to development and thereby supports and coaches them accordingly.

Transformational leadership also requires that the leader must inspire followers and set high standards of performance that the followers need to achieve.

Research by scholars (Bogler, 2001; Heller, Judge & Watson, 2002; McKee, 1991; Judge & Piccollo, 2004) found that transformational leadership influences a person’s stay in the organisation because it conveys a sense of mission amongst employees. This means that employees feel that they need to contribute positively to the organisation. This need becomes a mission for them to be with that organisation. Transformational leadership provides employees with

intellectual inspiration which encourages innovation and the drive to want to solve problems within the organisation.

In conclusion, the finding affirms that transformational leaders are more employee-oriented and thus more concerned about their employees' careers and development.

Theme 2: Leadership style

Organisations have adopted leadership styles that are used by leaders in different situations and they have an impact on the organisational climate. According to Goleman (2004, 2017), there are six basic leadership styles and these are coercive, authoritative, affiliative, democratic, pacesetter, as well as coaching. The leadership style that is used, has an influence on the retention of managers. The responses affirm that the affiliative leadership style is more ideal. The leadership style ascribes to the notion that "people come first", this is consistent with the responses that confirmed that all voices would be heard even those of the meek. Also, researchers assert that this leadership style is ideal for boosting morale and building teams within an organisation. During the study it was found that some participants preferred a management style that was inclusive. The participants state that their decision to either leave or stay with the organisation is influenced by;

"...the management style that is inclusive. Okay, yes there are certain decisions that you need to run past your line managers getting their input but it is not to say that when they've made their decision its final you are allowed to engage." (participant 16).

Similarly, participant 11 stated that:

"...participative leadership resonated with my values, it is participative leadership, where your voice is heard and it's not about taking orders only" (participant 11).

The responses proved that working together towards a common purpose is more favoured. Even though some participants preferred the affiliative leadership style,

other participants emphasised that leadership should “walk the talk”. According to these participants, conflicting messages between what a leader says and does creates a negative perception of the quality of that leader. It also dampens their levels of motivation and ultimately, their decision to remain with the organisation because of a lack of integrity. A study by Wakabi (2016) found that leadership style influences the decisions of employees to either stay or leave the organisation.

4.2.1 Remuneration

The contract between the employee and the employer is based on certain expectations. The employer expects the employee to render a service following the agreed standards and the employee expects some form of remuneration for services rendered. Participants in the study indicated that remuneration in the form of benefits, as well as other incentives, were important for their retention.

4.2.2 Fringe Benefits

Ordinarily, employees would prefer to work for an organisation that provides basic benefits such as medical aid, pension, leave (annual, sick, and special leave). These benefits are an assurance to employees, especially in time of need (e.g., when they are sick). Studies indicate that employees need to feel valued and therefore equitable remunerative practices are necessary (Mansel, Brough & Cole, 2006). One participant stated that;

“you know, when you look at issues of medical aid, pension funds and also the bursary schemes in government allows one to have a whole range of benefits, that one may deem the critical ones in one’s life”(participant 8).

Also, benefits are in the form of leave days that are allocated to employees on an annual basis. There are also special leave days that are allocated to employees for incidents such as study, family responsibility, and others. During the study, some participants indicated that they were encouraged to pursue developmental opportunities (furthering their studies) precisely because the employer provided them with adequate study leave days. This was perceived as a generous gesture

in comparison with what was offered by other organisations, both in the private and public sector. The participant stated that;

“you get as many days practically as you need. In some companies you find, they would give you one day of study leave and they want you to put in, let’s say two of your annual leave. But at our entity, you get, it’s a separate allocation, your study leave from your annual leave” (participant 12).

Instances where employees feel that they are not taken care of with regards to basic benefits (medical aid, pension, leave), are more likely to leave compared to employees whose perception is positive regarding the equivalence of their contribution and the benefits that they get from their employer (Lee, Liu, Rousseau, Hai & Chen, 2011). Similarly, respondent 14 stated that;

“Security of tenure, because once that is out of the way, your mind is cleared. Security of tenure is more of a, obviously as you nearing retirement age. Uhm, you start to worry about, when I retire, you know, will I be financially secure and if you don’t have that security you tend to not be focused in terms of what you need to do. You know because you may feel like, I need to start dipping inside other secondary activities to make sure that I am financially secure and also to meet my obligations” (participant 14).

The respondent highlighted the fact that as one nears retirement, there is a need to be assured of retirement benefits. Other incentives become secondary as the concern is now placed on whether the employee will be financially secured once they retire from the entity.

During the study, respondent 6 highlighted that due to financial obligations that need to be met on a monthly basis, money was still the driving force for his retention. It was however emphasised that money was not the only factor that influenced their retention. Whilst respondent 7 indicated that a salary package increase would make her remain with the organisation. Participant 7 stated that;

“I think if really they can just push us to level 12 that will make me more happy to remain” (participant 7).

Salary packages plays an important role on the decisions of employees regarding their retention or termination of their services with an entity. The financial circumstances of employees vary and the need to have more money was a driving factor that influenced their retention or their decision not to stay. This participant indicated that should an opportunity of a better offer be available elsewhere, she would leave the organisation as she needed money.

Lastly, respondent 11 echoed the sentiments of other participants regarding benefits. This participant emphasised that those benefits need to be benchmarked against best practices in the market.

In conclusion, research shows that compensation plays a greater role in the retention of employees (Singh, 2019). Also, the current economic circumstances as well as the work family demands, it is important that flexible compensation package be considered as opposed to standardized compensation packages. Given that the workplace comprises different generations, who have different choices and thus the item desired by youth may not be of any use to a middle age employee. Therefore, there is a need for compensation planning which would accommodate the varied needs of employees.

4.2.3 Other incentives

Over and above salary and basic benefits such as medical aid, pension and leave, participants specified that they would like to receive other benefits such as performance bonuses. Receiving rewards encourages them to be loyal and committed to their organisation. Similarly, Davies, Taylor and Savery (2001) reported that rewards should be used strategically to improve morale, reduce turnover, and achieve set targets. Besides, rewards and pay are motivators as well as a retention technique (Moncraz, Zhao & Kay 2009). One of the participants indicated that;

“a person needs to enjoy what that person is doing and then that person can be rewarded and to me the best retention in terms of maybe the money it would be on performance bonus” (participant 2).

Employee rewards are seen as a form of retention. Employees feel that they are recognised for going an extra mile and therefore, performance bonuses are part of incentives that employees view as a form of recognition. Similarly, another participant stated that;

“retention schemes which are you know bonus driven and some were shares driven so they definitely had a positive impact” (participant 9)

Added to the performance bonus, the above participant suggested that other incentives, such as shares, has an impact on the retention of employees. On the other side, participant 10;

“Certainly to be recognized for the contribution that I’m making, not necessarily monetarily but in terms of having my input taken seriously and acted on. I think that’s important, and what else? Benefits, obviously that will come with the package” (participant 10).

To sum up, remuneration is one of the perilous factors that organisations use to reduce managerial turnover and increase commitment (Moncraz, Zhao & Kay 2009). According to Galanaki (2019), some scholars who advocate for employee benefits hold that they are an effective tool to foster a caring climate and indirectly achieve organisational goals whilst views from the opposite side insist that employee benefits should be decreased in favour of direct employee rewards. Depending on a school of thought, employers need to ensure that they have competitive remuneration practices in place which include incentives that would be attractive to employees.

4.2.4 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is multi-faceted and can present itself as a combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances (Hoppock, 1935), wherein, the psychological circumstances include the pleasurable/ positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one’s job/ job experience (Locke, 1976). These circumstances have to do with how the employees feel about their job satisfaction. These are mainly internally focused.

The external aspect of job satisfaction is about the role of the employee in the workplace. Vroom (1964) describes this as affective orientations on the part of individuals toward work roles which they are presently occupying. How employees like or dislike their jobs is also an indication of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

In addition, job satisfaction of employees can manifest as intrinsic (hygiene) or extrinsic (motivators) factors. According to Herzberg (1976), intrinsic factors refers to company policies, supervision, interpersonal relations, work conditions, salary, status, as well as job security. On the other hand, extrinsic factors refer to achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, as well as growth (Herzberg,1976). Similarly, Naz and Sharma (2017) emphasises that job satisfaction denotes the workers' perception of their workplace settings, relationships amid fellows, salary as well as endorsement opportunities.

There are a number of elements that form part of job satisfaction, the study focused on the ones below as they are essential for their job satisfaction.

(a) Job Content

According to Hackman and Oldham (1976), job characteristics, such as skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback contribute to the employee's job satisfaction. Job content can either be routine, challenging, not enriched. Employees prefer challenging work and exposure to areas other than what is contained in their job description. One participant indicated that;

"somebody needs to be in the organisation but if he wants to go to another department, he should be given that opportunity in my view, I don't want where we just focusing it in one division, it should be broad" (participant 2).

Exposure to other aspects of the business provides employees with an opportunity to grow and be more responsible for the strategic aspects of the organisation. The more employees are given exposure opportunities, they are able to expand their networks within the organisation and to learn about other parts of the organisation. The new network opened new avenues for possible

career growth and collaboration on future projects. One of the participants indicated that:

“Because I used to spend more time with the technicians and engineers, look at them, what they are doing and all those. I am exposed, so I know when they talk about quality water and whatsoever. Some engineering things I know. The street, when they develop the street, they start and, so I was exposed to a number of things” (participant 4).

Also, the participants indicated that they were doing a job that they enjoyed and they were doing it well and being rewarded for their efforts. They were enthusiastic and happy about their work. Because of the opportunity that they were afforded, the outcome of performing their jobs was value-adding. The job-exposure that they value allowed them to participate in strategic roles outside their institutions, representing their organisation in governance structures that were taking serious decisions. The participant appreciated the fact that they were afforded an opportunity to be part of these structures. This broadened her knowledge and skills and improved her social capital. The participant indicated that:

“I sit in boards and Steering Committee, so the exposure then of being at a corporate governance, then they allow you to sit in those boards where you represent the organisation” (participant 13).

Whilst other participants indicated the importance of external exposure, participant 3 and 12 indicated that internal exposure was appreciated. According to participant 3, a challenging work also ensured that continued learning occurred. The participant indicated that challenging work is not necessarily about improvement in salary but rather one being able to maximise their potential. The participant stated that:

“People will always look for challenge and it is not always about improving the salary-wise but it is also to maximise their potential to say here I am learning day to day not having one thing to do forever” (participant 3).

Whilst participant 12 indicated she finds her job challenging because she ensured that work that was not allocated to anyone is added to her portfolio. This enabled her to continuously learn and grow. She highlighted that:

“work that is not allocated to anyone, so if there is something that needs to be done I offer my services, because I learn from these exposures” (participant 12).

According to the participants in the study, the content of the job has an impact on them in that in instances where it was challenging, it allowed them to grow and maximise their potential. Work exposure that they were provided expanded their knowledge and skills and grew their network within and outside their respective organisations.

(b) Outcome of performing a job

Participants indicated that the outcome of performing their job gave them a sense of fulfilment, especially when they noticed that ordinary people are benefitting from the fruits of their labour. This is consistent with the study by Aziri (2011) which indicated that employees who performed challenging and diverse jobs have a sense of achievement and success when the productivity outcome is positive. Similarly, Kaliski (2007) indicates that the achievement of set goals on the job leads to a warm feeling of fulfilment. One participant indicated that;

“I get fulfilment when I see a project that I initiated actually or we initiated cos some of the projects I initiate them myself, others we initiate together as an entity or as an institution. Once you see the project getting off the ground and especially those tangible projects where it starts and up to the end. The output and the outcome of the project, those are the things fulfils me” (participant 4).

Similarly, participant 7 indicated that fulfilment was attained when serving others. The participant described the passion that she has towards serving others. The participant stated that;

“I become so happy when I serve, you know...I serve with that passion to our communities to our citizens, so I have love for you know, for serving people. Yeah... I just love what I am doing” (participant 7).

Job satisfaction is a key factor that influences the retention of employees in organisations. It has an impact on the individual as well as the organisation. On the individual level, job satisfaction may lead to the employee experiencing meaningfulness, a sense of responsibility for outcomes, as well as improved knowledge of the actual outcomes. On the other hand, an organisation that ensures that jobs are designed in such a way that they are complex and challenging to employees will be in a position to achieve improved productivity levels, lower absenteeism along with reduced turnover intentions. Hence, Naz and Sharma (2017) also emphasised that job satisfaction is the key to success for an employee and for the organisation's productivity.

4.2.5 Growth and development

One of the retention factors that employees consider integral to their career is being provided with opportunities for growth and development. An organisation that implements growth and development intervention derives benefits from doing so. According to Tomlinson (2002), investment in the growth and development of employees will ensure a competitive advantage and the organisation is able to become a leader in driving innovation.

The outcome of the study indicated that growth and development opportunities have a direct impact on the retention of employees. The following themes were examined;

(a) Availability of development opportunities

Developmental opportunities refer to sponsorships by the employer in the form of bursaries, scholarships, participation in a fellowship programme. These opportunities are funded and supported by the employer.

The participants confirmed that the availability of growth and development opportunities was a motivation to remain with the organisation. One participant indicated that;

“in the ten years that I have been with the organisation, I have acquired four qualifications. So, the organisation takes the growth of its employees very seriously” (participant 12).

The organisation allowed them to pursue studies with institutions of higher learning that enhanced their career growth and made them ready for more complex responsibilities. Additionally, they were in a position to contribute meaningfully to the organisation’s strategic direction. As a result, they remained with the employer for many years. Similarly, another participant indicated that the organisation that they worked for provided them with developmental opportunities, both in terms of career as well as professional development. During the tenure with the organisation, the participant was able to change departments which ensured that they were always prepared for any job openings within the organisation. At the same time, the participant indicated that the organisation offered opportunity to advance their qualifications. The participant stated that;

“what made me stay it’s because of the development part. That every five years, more or less, I was changing departments because I was not feeling saturated, that I have reached a point that I am no longer developing. And another thing which then made me stay at Organisation C it’s the opportunity to be able to develop yourself and also to be able to, to uh, advance your qualifications whilst working. Those were the key things which earlier on in my life that played a very significant role in me making very key decision to stay” (participant 15).

The findings of this study are consistent with a study that found that an organisation that takes care of the developmental needs of its employees can significantly lower their motives to leave the organisation, whilst lack of career advancement is a strong predictor of turnover intention (Chan, Mai, Kuok, & Kong, 2016).

(b) Personal development

Personal development is about activities and interventions that are geared towards the improvement of self-awareness and identity, development of talents and potentially, to improve chances for career mobility, quality of life and realisation of goals. Personal development can be attained through the implementation of coaching interventions. One participant indicated that it is essential to;

“be given the opportunity for growth, personal development and also opportunity for studying and furthering their studies ” (participant 8).

Growth and development are considered one of the essential retention factors as it prepares employees for future roles within the public service or even outside the public service.

Research by Wales (2003) indicates that offering opportunities for personal development to employees enhances their loyalty to the organisation thereby reducing their turnover intentions. Participants in the study indicated that they value personal development.

A work environment that encourages and supports the growth and development of its employees is attractive and employees would remain in such a workplace. The availability of opportunities for employee development is a differentiator of employers and employee retention interventions.

4.2.6 Employee wellness/ work-life balance

Today, employees are faced with competing and conflicting demands, as well as responsibilities from their work and homes. There is a need for this balance to be created and maintained. As such, organisations are resorting to the development and creation of employee wellness programmes. The participants in the study indicated that availability of employee wellness programmes and policies influences their decisions to remain with the organisation.

(a) Availability of employee wellness programmes

Employee wellness programmes and practices are a necessity. The programme entails psycho-social interventions (counselling and similar) that are accessible to employees, policies and practices that are geared towards flexible working arrangements, health screening interventions, empowerment workshops and solutions for mental health and dread diseases.

Work-life balance is some sort of support that employees appreciate because it assists them in addressing work and family challenges. One participant indicated that;

“being appreciated at work, being motivated at work, an employer that will provide, uhm, employee wellness programmes that are designed, uhm, to you feeling that, I am working for an institution that appreciates me being more than an employee are important” (participant 11).

(b) Working close to family

Many decades ago, it was a norm that families were separated due to work commitments and the distance between home and the place of work. This separation had unintended consequences in the form of disintegrated family units and poor relations among family members. One participant stated that;

“well we do a lot of travelling and I would still be doing a lot of travelling even if I am home but my argument was based on that after training during that weekend I would be at home, rather than sometimes we come on Friday or come back on Saturday and you cannot do anything. The weekend has already started so you have to remain in Pretoria and then maybe will go home after maybe two weeks or so. So, it is really inconveniencing but in terms of work I don't think there is anything different because I will still be doing a lot travelling where I am home or I am here. But the thing is its better if you know that even if you are there doing the work but Friday would be with your family” (participant 7).

Organisations that establish and maintain good work-life balance programmes ensure that the quality and productivity of employees does not diminish (Letchmaih & Thomas, 2017) because issues of stress are reduced, resulting in increased levels of focus and motivation.

4.3 Results of Proposition 2

To determine the experiences of Senior / Executive Managers in the public service regarding executive coaching

4.3.1 Their understanding of Executive Coaching

Executive coaching is regarded as a short-term intervention designed for managers and leaders within organisations. During the study, it was found that the participants' understanding of executive coaching was varied. The participants indicated that coaching is targeted for senior executives of the organisations, to help them. Similarly, Kilburg (1996) described coaching as a helping relationship formed between a client and the coach. Participants indicated that coaching assists to develop the coachee's skills for the coachee to be effective and be ready for career opportunities. This is also consistent with Feldman and Lankau (2005), who indicated that coaching is intended to enhance the professional skills of the coachee.

During the study, some of the participants indicated that they have been through formal executive development programmes, whilst others have either attended an informal one which was mainly self-initiated and the balance have not been on any executive coaching programme. One participant highlighted his understanding of executive coaching to include aspects of the fact that it is targeted for senior managers. It assists the senior managers in developing their leadership skills. The participant stated that:

“executive coaching means, it's a programme which most universities have of late, are offering. Whereby they target senior executives of the organisations, in order to help them. Uh, develop their skills and in terms of uh, how should I put it? In terms of them able to be good leaders not managers in organisations that they work for. Meaning that it's more like up sailing, uh, the managers in terms of those skills” (respondent 15).

Although the participant has not been on a formal executive coaching programme, there is an understanding it is able to assist with leadership skills for senior managers. The programme separates managers from leaders.

On the other hand, participant 14 indicated that his understanding of executive coaching is a continuous development whilst a person goes through their career. It ensures suitability and compatibility with the post as well as the organisation. The participant highlighted that the process can be facilitated by a person who is not in the same field of work as the coachee. The coach will add value to the career of the coachee. The participant stated their understanding of executive coaching as follows:

“Coaching for me it’s, you are on a career path and you want to make sure that as you, as you grow in that career, you want to make sure that you always well placed, uhm, and you don’t get delayed in terms of the process so normally you will seek advice of somebody that has been in the field or has been in the professional for longer. May not necessarily be in your field. That person will add value, every stage of your working life of your career” (respondent 14).

The above participant organised a coaching programme for themselves, it was informal and the employer was not paying for it. According to the participant, the coaching programme was intended to address certain developmental areas that were of concern to him. The participant indicated that value was derived from the programme.

One of the participants attended a formal coaching programme that was initiated by the employer. According to the participant, executive coaching allows one to achieve more with their time, unlock potential and assist a coachee to move from one state to the other. The participant stated:

“my understanding of coaching has actually been changed by this coaching programme itself. It basically allows you to achieve more with your time, with what you have. It unlocks that potential where you can achieve more than you did before you were coached. So I think coaching is basically that, to say how do you move from this state to another, that’s my understanding of coaching. How do you achieve what you want to achieve” (participant 3).

Participant 3 indicated that as a result of attending the executive development programme, there was value derived in the form of new skills, knowledge and the competence to be more effective.

Conversely, participant 4 did not attend an formal executive coaching programme, however was exposed to it through a self-initiated one. The understanding of executive coaching can either be formal or informal. The participant also indicated that involvement in an executive coaching programme can be voluntary or prescribed. As such, the participant stated:

“executive coaching is, I think it’s when a senior person coaches you, whether it is done formally or informally. Some of these coaches, coaching are done formally others are not done informally, others are voluntary others are prescribed” (participant 4).

Similarly, participant 5 did not attend any formal executive coaching programme, instead, they also had a self-initiated one. The coaching occurred between colleagues. The participant stated that:

“coaching was done informally you know. It was coaching amongst ourselves as colleagues, probably people at the same level” (participant 5).

On the other hand, participant 6 had a different understanding of what coaching was. During the study, the participant indicated that his understanding of an executive coaching programme is not based on his experience of the programme, but on what it was ought to be. According to the participant, their understanding of executive coaching was that:

“There is coaching that actually talks about the generalised point of view and what common practices take place in linkages of strategies and implementation and all of those other environment type of thing” (participant 6).

Coaching is intended to ensure that senior managers grow in their careers. Also, it affords the senior managers with a safe space where managers can be

vulnerable and discuss ideas, challenges, their plans. Similarly, scholars (de Haan, Duckworth, Birch & Jones, 2012) asserted that coaching is a conversation between a coach and a client. The coach can assist a coachee to unlock barriers that are hindering them from attaining what they want. Also, one of the participants indicated that coaching assists individuals to come to a point where they find their purpose, as it guides them on how to move from one state to another. Equally, Wasylshyn, Shorey and Chaffin (2012) affirm that coaching enables coachees to change behaviour which leads to the achievement of extraordinary results (Whitemore, 2009), linked to their aspirations, goals, and targets. One participant stated;

“I understand that executive coaching is really about getting a coach that will help. Either an experienced executive or an executive already appointed as one to almost unlock if there are barriers towards attaining that which they want. Then they unlock, then they help them unlock that potential” (participant 13)

The understanding of executive coaching by participants and scholars can be summarised as a helping process where partnerships were formed between the coach and the coachee, usually, there was a presence of a leadership challenge, and the leader is seeking personal development or growth and/or performance improvement.

4.3.2 Establish whether Senior Managers were coached / not coached

Coaching is a journey implemented in organisations with the intention of either improving their performance or preparing them for senior roles/ growth opportunities in the future and can be beneficial to coachees. Coaching is well regarded by managers. It is viewed as a necessary intervention to assist them to develop and become better managers.

Some participants indicated that they underwent coaching and recommended it as a helping programme which ensured their improved effectiveness, both professionally, as well as on a personal level.

“I have been coached, the focus was on what are the things that I want to achieve and how am I intending to achieve them and what could stop me from achieving those things” (participant 3).

Whilst other participants did not receive coaching and had a yearning for coaching because of the possibilities that they could derive from going through the programme.

“I have no experience of being coached in my entire career, I have not been exposed to coaching at all” (participant 1).

The findings of the study revealed that some managers who went through coaching received value from it, whilst others were not as fortunate as they have never received coaching during their careers.

4.3.3 Establish the coaching experiences of Senior Managers

The coaching experience can be either positive or negative, depending on many factors, such as the coach, the coaching process, the intention of the intervention as well as the organisation. Some coaching experiences contributed positively to the professional and personal growth of coachees, whilst other participants do not benefit from coaching. This is consistent with the study by Wales (2003), which found that coaching can enhance self-confidence, awareness, assertiveness, ability to understand differences, as well as stress management. One participant indicated that;

“Through coaching, you have the ability to have a platform where you discuss issues related to your job without fear of being judged, without fear of being penalised and you open up to your challenges and you get direction from the coach and you grow as a person” (participant 9)

On the other hand, coaching may have a negative impact or effect on employees. This in turn, affects their organisational commitment and the felt tension levels that they may have (Shipper & Weer, 2011). During the study, it was found that some participants went through coaching, however, the effect of that coaching was negative. There was no connection between the coach and the coachee,

levels of commitment to the process and the coaching agenda was not what the manager envisaged, and this impacted negatively on the coaching journey. One participant stated that;

“They tried it at company X but what I realised, it was a forced marriage. Then they go and choose someone to be your mentor and sometimes you, you don’t have a relationship with this person but then it becomes a tick exercise that we had a meeting, we had a meeting. So it never really benefitted me or bear any fruit” (respondent 12).

The study revealed that the coaching process should be approached carefully so that it benefits both the coachee and the organisation. The coachee may be able to improve their self-confidence, awareness, assertiveness whilst the organisation would be able to have improved organisational commitment levels, improved performance, better leadership (Wales, 2003).

4.3.4 Establish the outcomes of coaching that was undertaken by Senior Managers

The study revealed that coaching can ensure that a coachee achieves outcomes, such as professionalism, goal attainment, a balance between social and work life. Participants also highlighted that their confidence levels, self-efficacy, as well as motivation levels improved as a result of coaching. One participant stated that;

“On me as a person it has added a whole lot, I think it has affected my professionalism, my goal-achieving abilities, it has affected my planning, so my social life has improved, my relationship has improved, it has helped a lot” (participant 3).

The outcomes that were stated by participants was consistent with what was found in the studies which confirmed that goal accomplishment (Fischer & Beimers, 2009), professional growth (McGuffin & Obonyo, 2010), improved professional relationships (Kombarakaran, Yang, Baker & Fernandes, 2008), greater managerial flexibility (Jones, Rafferty & Griffin, 2006), increased productivity (Olivero, Bane & Kopelman, 1997), improved resilience and

workplace well-being (Grant, Curtayne & Burton, 2009) were as a result of coaching.

Through coaching, an organisation can derive certain benefits, such as improved leadership and management capabilities and a better work-life balance (Wales, 2003).

Proposition 3: To determine whether coaching influences Senior Managers' retention in the South African public service

4.3.5 Coaching influencing their retention

Employee retention is a complex and multifaceted practice and is not influenced by a single factor (Scullion & Collings, 2012). Many other factors influence an employee's decision to remain with an organisation and amongst them is leadership, organisational culture, work-life balance, rewards, and recognition (Veloso, Da Silva, Dutra, Trevisani & Fischer, 2014). During the study, it was found that some participants believed that coaching was a strategic intervention, when offered, coaching would influence their retention with their organisation. One participant indicated that;

“Definitely because if at all you feel that you are being supported through coaching, that gives you confidence to continue doing uh, offering a service. And also, it makes you feel that you are growing, if at all there is no coaching you just feel that the company has just left you to perish. They don't care about what is it that you are offering. So that in a way shows that you are working for a caring organisation” (participant 15).

The finding was consistent with the outcome of the study by Fischer and Beimers (2009), which found that executive coaching programmes that were introduced in the public sector have certain activities that translate into immediate, intermediate, and long-term outcomes. The notable outcomes include increased confidence, increased productivity which lead to effective management and leadership. The outcome is the retention of high-quality non-profit executives in the sector (Fischer & Beimers, 2009). The outcome of the study revealed that coaching can improve the executive's capabilities to serve effectively in their role

(Fischer & Beimers, 2009). Also, a study by Ellinger, Ellinger and Keller (2003) found that coaching leads to job satisfaction, as well as retention of employees.

Retention is influenced by many factors and not a single factor, and this was the view of some participants who believed that coaching did not influence their decision to remain with their employer. According to the participants, they did not see a causal link between retention and coaching, instead, coaching was necessary for ensuring optimal performance/ productivity. The participant stated that;

“I can’t say I see almost a causal link between coaching and retention. I mean we can organise coaching for executives with an intention to guide them to perform at their optimum best” (participant 13).

According to participant 13, there is no direct relationship between coaching and retention. Senior Managers may undergo coaching, however, there is no guarantee that they will stay in the organisation. Often, the Senior Manager’s decisions to remain with an organisation is influenced by various factors including the availability of coaching intervention. The participant highlighted that they would have considered leaving the organisation due to other reasons.

4.4 Summary of within case analysis

The research study was conducted in four organisations within the South African public sector. The participants provided their responses as per their existing employer. The findings of the study indicated that there are certain elements that are common within the South African public sector. The retention of senior managers is a shared challenge experienced within the public service.

Discussion of the Cross-case findings - Comparison of cases

The research study was conducted through the participation of respondents from four organisations within the South African public sector. In this section, the findings of the study is for each of these organisations. In this regard, the participants indicated their retention factors as well as whether they were exposed to executive coaching and its effect on their decision to either stay or leave the public service.

(a) Organisation A

Organisation A has over 2000 employees and has a turnover rate of more than 10% as indicated by the Annual Report of 2018/2019 financial year (Annual Report, 2019). During the study, one of the participants from this organisation indicated that the working environment wherein there are good interpersonal relationships with high levels of trust are important for their retention. Also, the same participant indicated that being involved in important activities of the organisation make them feel valued as an employee. Whilst the second participant highlighted that being close to her family is an important factor that determined her stay or decision to leave. The participant also indicated that salary was also another retention factor for her. Research indicates that at the end of March 2019, the turnover rate of this organisation was over 10% (Annual Report of 2018/2019 financial year)

It was found during the study that both participants underwent an executive coaching programme which was initiated and sponsored by the organisation. Both participants highlighted that coaching is necessary because they were able to improve within their professional and personal spheres of life. It was however found that the participants were divergent with regards to whether coaching had influenced their decision to stay or leave the organisation. One of the participants indicated that due the coaching programme, there was a possibility that they would leave the organisation and go and pursue their passion in business, whilst the second candidate indicated that they will remain with the organisation provided they were compensated accordingly.

(b) Organisation B

With regards to organisation B, the entity employed a total of 17 permanent staff with a turnover rate of less than 1% as outlined in the Annual Report of the organization (Annual Report, 2019). During the study, four (4) participants took part. The participants highlighted the following as the factors that influenced their decision to either stay or remain with the organisation. According to one of the participants, great leadership within the institution as well as a culture of frankness and honesty and good ethics influenced their stay with the organisation. Whilst the second participant indicated that job satisfaction was important in that the respondent received fulfilment when projects were completed and positively impacting the lives of ordinary citizens. Moreover, the job within the public service offered network opportunities which exposed one to other parts of the organisation or even government. The third participant also highlighted stability at leadership level as well as the ability to make a difference and leave a legacy for the youth as important retention factors. The fourth participant indicated that benefits such as pension as well as benchmarked salary were key to their retention.

With regards to exposure to executive coaching, two of the participants have not undergone any coaching whether employer initiated or self-initiated. Whilst the other two participants received coaching. One of the two participants initiated the coaching themselves and they were empowered in the process. Whilst the other participant attended coaching which was organised by his previous employer. This participant however highlighted that the coaching programme was not beneficial to him because it felt like an indoctrination.

(c) Organisation C

This organisation had a turnover rate of 9% at the end of March 2019 and it employed a total of 576 employees (Annual Report, 2019). During the study, it was found that all five (5) participants from this organisation highlighted growth and development opportunities provided to them as amongst the key retention factors. All the participants indicated that they were afforded opportunities to develop themselves academically and professionally. The organisation valued

and prioritized employee development and as such, it became part of its culture. Also, three of the participants indicated that their organisation offered them exposure in the form of added responsibilities which ensured that their job was challenging and fulfilling. The other factors that were cited by the participants were benefits in the form of leave, especially for study purposes, as well as job security.

Although participants indicated that growth and development was valued by the organisation, there were no formal coaching programmes initiated and sponsored by the institution. As such, it was found that some of the participants have not undergone any coaching, whilst others embarked on self-initiated coaching programmes. Those who participated in the self-initiated programme reported positive benefits on their personal and professional lives. Whilst one participant attended a coaching programme with their previous employer, they reported that it was not beneficial instead it felt like a 'forced marriage' between the coach and the coachee, as a result the programme ended suddenly.

(d) Organisation D

With regards to organisation D, it employed a total of 59 employees with a turnover rate of 5% (Annual Report, 2019). During the study, five (5) participants took part. One of the participants identified personal development as well as being provided with the opportunity for exposure in other areas of the organisation. The participant further indicated that money based on performance bonus as well as conducive working environment are equally important for their retention. The second participant highlighted the opportunity to make a difference as well as the availability of developmental opportunities as their factors for retention. Whilst the third candidate indicated that the retention factors that influenced the decision to remain with the entity was a good work environment where employees are blending with the organisation and are able to fit in as well as fringe benefits. Similarly, the fourth participant reported that the working environment was one of their retention factors. The last participant reported that being recognized for the contributions that one is making as well as having fringe benefits would ensure their retention.

With regards to whether the participants had exposure to executive coaching, the findings of the study revealed that three (3) have not received any coaching throughout their careers, one was exposed to an informal coaching programme and the other candidate was coached at her previous employer prior to joining the public service.

Analysis of the cross-case findings

The findings of the study indicated that across the entities, participants valued different retention factors. However, there were factors that were common amongst them such as availability of opportunities for employee development, personal development, having benchmarked fringe benefits as well as salaries. In some instances, the participants also emphasized a conducive working environment with appropriate culture as important for their retention.

It was also discovered that the rate of staff turnover for the above organisations differed. Organisation A had the highest turnover rate, this was attributable to the fact that most of the senior managers were promoted in other government departments and created vacancies in this organisation. Within organisation C, the turnover rate was moderately higher and could be attributable to the fact that senior managers and executives are appointed on a three-year fixed term contract. In certain circumstances, these contracts are renewable based on performance and other factors. Participants highlighted that the three-year contract appointments made them to search for other opportunities elsewhere so that they can be settled before the contract expires. As such, most of the participants had a shorter duration with the organisation. On average, they had been with the company for a period less than four (4) years.

Compared to organisation D which had a moderately high turnover rate, the entity was faced with fierce competition for human resources from the private sector. The participants had been with the organisation for more than five years and they indicated that they would remain with the organisation for some time. Organisation A and B had their Senior Managers for longer compared organisation C and D. This was attributable to the uniqueness of their service offerings since they are not in competition with the private sector. Most of the

participants have been with these organisations for periods of more than 10 years.

Although the four (4) organisations had varied responses with regards to retention factors, it was found that only one of these organisations had an employer initiated executive coaching programme. The participants from this organisation highlighted that the introduction of the executive coaching programme has empowered them, both professionally and personally.

Table 5 provides a summary of the cross-case findings which indicate the similarities and differences of the lived experiences of Senior Managers within the South African public service.

4.4.1 Conclusion

The decision to remain with an organisation is dependent on many factors and these are unique to each individual. The study revealed that some participants' retention was influenced by the fact that they were coached whilst others were not.

Table 12: Case study analysis (similarities and differences)

PROPOSITION	Organisation A	Organisation B	Organisation C	Organisation D
To determine the retention factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers/ Executives in the public sector.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job satisfaction • Growth and development • Remuneration • Work-life balance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational culture • Leadership • Job satisfaction • Growth and development • Remuneration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational culture • Leadership • Job satisfaction • Work-life balance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organisational culture • Job satisfaction • Growth and development • Remuneration
To determine the experiences of Senior / Executive Managers in the public service regarding executive coaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All participants received formal coaching organised by the employer 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No formal coaching was received by participants, however, some participants organised their private coaching sessions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No formal coaching was received by participants, however, some participants organised their private coaching sessions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No formal coaching was received by participants, however, some participants organised their private coaching sessions
To determine whether coaching influences Senior Managers' retention in the South African public service.	For some, coaching influenced their retention, others not	For some, coaching influenced their retention, others not	For some, coaching influenced their retention, others not	For some. coaching influenced their retention, others not

4.5 Summary of the results/findings

Retention of Senior Managers remains a challenge for many organisations. The study intended to determine the nature of the relationship between retention factors and elements of coaching for Senior Managers in the South African public sector. The findings of the study revealed the following;

(a) Proposition 1:

It was found that the factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers in the public service are organisational culture, leadership, growth, and development, job satisfaction, remuneration, as well as work-life balance. The participants regarded these factors as important for their stay with an organisation.

(b) Proposition 2:

The outcome of the study revealed that some Senior Managers had been exposed to coaching whilst others had not. Some of those who were exposed to coaching had positive experiences whilst the others had negative experiences. The Senior Managers who were not exposed to coaching indicated that they believed, should they have been exposed, they would have benefited from the process, although some of the managers who were not exposed to formal coaching, privately organised / arranged coaching sessions for themselves. These sessions proved valuable to them.

(c) Proposition 3:

The outcome of the study indicated that some of the participants believed that coaching influenced their retention whilst others confirmed that participation in coaching would not lead to their retention, instead, it may lead them out of the position or the job. The participants highlighted that retention is unique to every individual and many factors may lead to their decision to stay or move.

Retention of Senior Managers continues to be a complex and evolving subject which is affected by many factors (internal and external). The individual circumstances also add to the challenge of dealing with retention.

4.6 Comparison of literature review and own findings

Table 13: Comparison of literature review and findings (this is a requirement as per the template)

RQ #	State Research Question or Objective	Prop / hyp #	State Proposition or Hypothesis (literature review response to RQ)	Findings from own study
1	Determine the nature of relationship between retention factors and elements of coaching for Senior Managers in the South African public sector	1		
1.1	Determine how retention of Senior Managers in the public sector has implications for coaching	1.1	Determine factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers in the South African	The findings are that the Senior Managers in the SA public sector are influenced by organisational culture, leadership, job satisfaction, remuneration, work-life balance and growth and development.
1.2	Determine how retention of Senior Managers in the public sector has implications for coaching	1.2	Determine the coaching experiences of Senior Managers in the South African public sector	The findings indicate that some managers were formally coached whilst others were not. Those who received coaching some found it valuable whilst others did not find it valuable.
1.3	Determine how retention of Senior Managers in the public sector has implications for coaching	1.3	Determine whether coaching influences the retention of Senior Managers in the South	The findings are that some senior managers indicated that coaching would influence their decision to stay, whilst others were not influenced by coaching to stay

CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

Senior Managers form an integral part of an organisation's leadership team, they drive the implementation of government priorities, plans and strategies. This chapter provides the conclusions of the study as they relate to the research question and the propositions. There are recommendations on how the outcome of this study could be beneficial to different stakeholders such as academics, policymakers, HR practitioners, etc. Further, the study provides suggestions on future research on the subject.

5.2 Conclusions regarding research question 1

The research question was what is the nature of the relationship between retention factors and elements of coaching for Senior Managers in the South African public sector. This research question had three propositions; the first proposition was what were the factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers within the South African public service. In this regard, the literature review highlighted that retention cannot be achieved through a single factor; it is influenced by multiple factors and the needs of an employee, depending on where they are in their life cycle. The review of the literature showed that there are a number of factors, such as organisational culture, leadership, job satisfaction, growth and development, remuneration, as well as employee wellness, as essential factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers in the South African public service. During the collection of data, participants confirmed that the same retention factors (organisational culture, leadership, job satisfaction, growth and development, remuneration, as well as employee wellness) indeed influenced their stay within public service organisations. The participants highlighted a combination of different retention factors that influence their stay in organisations.

The second proposition was what were the Senior Managers' coaching experiences. Literature review suggests that executive coaching contributes to the effectiveness of the executive, their productivity, and the improvement of their leadership skills. It also indicates that Senior Managers who undergo coaching are more likely to be satisfied with their job. During the research, Senior Managers were requested to indicate whether during their career span they had gone through coaching and how they would describe the experiences. Some of the Senior Managers indicated that they had received coaching, whilst others indicated that they had not received it since joining the public service. Those who received coaching were divided on its value. Some Managers found coaching helpful and it had assisted them in their career progression, whilst other Managers were not of the same view.

The third proposition was whether coaching influences the retention of Senior Managers in the public service. In this regard, the literature review indicates that there is a link between coaching and retention of employees. During the study, some of the Senior Managers indicated that coaching did influence their stay with the organisation. However, some Managers indicated that receiving coaching did not mean that they would remain with the organisation. It was suggested by one participant that because of coaching, they have realised that their purpose in life is not within the public sector but rather outside. Coaching had given them the courage to pursue their entrepreneurial aspirations. In brief, there is no guarantee that once an employee received coaching, they would stay with the organisation. Coaching may lead an employee toward or away from the organisation; it is a risk that an employer takes.

In summary, coaching is an essential developmental intervention that has the potential to improve a leader's effectiveness and contribute positively to the organisation. There is value in undergoing executive coaching, especially within the context of the public service which is plagued by service delivery challenges.

It was also established that a combination of factors, such as organisational culture, leadership, job satisfaction, growth and development, remuneration, as well as work-life balance, does influence the retention of Senior Managers in the public service.

Table 14: Consistency table: research questions, conclusions, and contribution to knowledge

RQ #	State Research Question or Objective	State literature-based proposition or hypothesis	State conclusion or answer based on own research	Highlight key differences between your initial propositions / hypotheses and your findings – this is your contribution to knowledge
1	Determine the nature of the relationship between retention factors and elements of coaching for Senior Managers in the South African public sector			
1.1	Determine how retention of Senior Managers in the public sector has implications for coaching	Determine factors that influence the retention of Senior Managers in the South African	The conclusion is that retention factors such as organisational culture, leadership, job satisfaction, growth and development, work-life balance, remuneration are the factors that keep Senior Managers in their organisations	The difference between the initial proposition and the findings is that the working environment and the support were identified as some of the retention factors. The findings of the study revealed organisational culture, leadership, job satisfaction, growth and development, work-life balance, remuneration as essential retention factors.

RQ #	State Research Question or Objective	State literature-based proposition or hypothesis	State conclusion or answer based on own research	Highlight key differences between your initial propositions / hypotheses and your findings – this is your contribution to knowledge
1.2	Determine how retention of Senior Managers in the public sector has implications for coaching	Determine the coaching experiences of Senior Managers in the South African public sector	The conclusion is that executive coaching is a necessity in the public sector. There is a need for its introduction and implementation.	The difference between the initial proposition and the findings is that executive coaching is not implemented fully in the South African public services.
1.3	Determine how retention of Senior Managers in the public sector has implications for coaching	Determine whether coaching influences the retention of Senior Managers in the South African public sector	Executive coaching has the potential to influence the decision of senior managers to either stay or leave the organisations	The difference between the initial proposition and the findings is that participation in a coaching programme does not directly influence retention of senior managers.

5.3 Recommendations

Organisations throughout the world are competing for talent and their competitive edge is dependent on their ability to attract and retain skilled talent. As such, retention is no longer a subject that organisations can put on hold but it is a strategic necessity to which both the public and private sectors should give attention. This is exacerbated by the changing face of the world of work, active citizenry, globalisation, technological advancements, and a sense of community.

The retention of Managers is complex in both the public and private sectors. The study focused on the retention of Senior Managers in the public service and the implications of coaching. The implications for coaching may be presented as practical, theoretical or research implications. This study focused on the practical implications of coaching and it is recommended that the South African public sector should consider the practical implications of coaching, the proposed model for retention of Senior Managers in the public sector as well as the role of different stakeholders (cabinet, policy makers, Senior Managers) in the context of executive coaching within the South African public service. Below is the detailed outline of the recommendations:

5.3.1 Practical implications

The South African public service is continuously experiencing challenges concerning recruitment, retention, career pathing as well as the utilization of senior managers' expertise and skills (OPSC, 2017). This challenge has translated into a lack of and poor service delivery that is attributable to talent management strategies that have failed to retain key talent in the public service (Koketso & Rust, 2012). According to Barkhuizen (2014), public service leadership within South Africa needs, therefore, to give precedence to the talent management of skilled and competent staff as they are high in demand in the public sector. The organisational implications concentrate on three focus areas, viz., the coaching agenda in the South African public service, the outcome of the coaching process and the leadership skills set.

5.3.2 Key focus areas for coaching a Senior Manager in the SA public service

Over the past three decades, the agenda for executive coaching has been to improve the executive's work effectiveness (Douglas & McCauley, 1999; Feldman, 2001). More and more organisations are using executive coaching as a developmental intervention for managers (Feldman & Lankau, 2005). Executive coaching is an important and strategic tactic for the retention of executives. This study has highlighted the importance of retention and consequently the need for organisations to pay attention to the senior managers' retention factors. As such, executive coaching interventions should prioritise retention as part of the coaching journey. Research (Kombarakaran, Yang, Baker & Fernandes, 2008) has found that executive coaching can contribute to leadership development and the retention of talent. The key aspects of the coaching agenda intended to retain Senior Managers in the South African public service should focus on the following areas;

(a) Organisational culture

The coaching agenda would need to deal with aspects of culture as it relates to the nature of organisational culture. Similarly, the topic of the existing / defined culture of the organisation should be attended to. The intention of including organisational culture into the coaching agenda is to ensure that there is a fit and alignment between the individual and the entity.

(b) Leadership

Leadership charts the course for others to follow. The coaching agenda needs to have a conversation regarding the nature of leadership that ought to be in the organisation, the desired leadership styles, as well as the importance of stability at the leadership level.

(c) Job satisfaction

Employees derive satisfaction when they see the results benefiting the identified stakeholders. Participants in the study specified job content as well as outcome of performing a task as essential parts of their satisfaction. The coaching agenda would need to explore this focus area so that it can be improved to benefit both the employee and the organisation.

(d) Growth and development

The changing world of work requires that employees are kept updated of developments within their area of work, industry as well as sector. As such, participants from the study highlighted that the availability of development opportunities as well as personal development is essential. The coaching agenda would need to spend time on this so that organisations can improve their practices with the view to retaining these Senior Managers.

(e) Remuneration

Remuneration has several aspects to it. Employees value different features of remuneration. The coaching agenda would need to deal with matters of benefits, and other incentives, as well as salary packages.

(f) Work-life balance

The ability to create and maintain a balance between work and life is a serious consideration for many employees. As such, this topic deserves to be part of the coaching agenda. The participants in the study highlighted that the availability of employee wellness programmes as well as working close to family as the drivers of their wellness. The coaching conversations should focus on this area as it has benefits to assist organisations in the retention of senior managers.

5.3.3 *Desired coaching outcomes*

Coaching can have a positive effect on executives, especially when it is linked to a particular objective (De Meuse et al., 2009). The organisational outcomes that are associated with coaching are improved productivity, reduced turnover rate and better retention of talent, whilst the individual outcomes include professional growth (McGuffin & Obonyo, 2010), improved professional relationships (Kombarakaran, Yang, Baker & Fernandes, 2008) and greater managerial flexibility (Jones, Rafferty & Griffin, 2006),

It is evident from the above studies that coaching can be beneficial to both the executive and the organisation. Therefore, when an organisation implements coaching interventions, it must outline the objective of the intervention as well as the expected results to the coach. The results of introducing coaching would be

improved levels of services in the South African public service, as well as retention of talent.

(a) Core skills of coachees: development of leadership skills

(i) Personal and professional improvement

Coaching, amongst others, is a journey of self-discovery. It provides the coachee with an opportunity to learn about themselves and discover themselves. During the study, participants asserted that through coaching, Senior Managers can derive many benefits, such as becoming a better executive. In this regard, one participant stated that;

“most of our executives are new in the field or and some of them academically they are fine, understand, others they went through the ranks, but others they jumped quick. We can’t shy away that some of, we are, most of us are also benefiterers of the employment equity and affirmative action but some of them were just given positions because of their academic qualifications. But they were never properly prepared for those positions. So we need that, that accelerated programme which for me is coaching” (participant 4).

(ii) Improved skills set

The coaching journey offers the coachees an opportunity to broaden their skills set. During the study, participant 1 emphasised that coaching can enhance the chance of senior manager becoming a generalist, i.e., expanding the areas of responsibility. Such a benefit increases the chances of the Senior Manager’s career mobility due to role expansion. The participant indicated that;

“Coaching can assist one to be an all-rounder who becomes ready for career growth or career transition” (participant 1).

Similarly, participant 10 indicated that through coaching, there is an opportunity for the senior manager to widen their set of skills.

(iii) Self-awareness

Often, individuals who undergo coaching derive a lot of benefits from the process, these may, amongst others, include self-awareness and improved relations/management of others. Participant 9 indicated that senior managers who engage in coaching can personally grow aspects of their lives, such as self-reflection. In the process, coaching allows them to conduct self-reflection. People management is an aspect that is central to the role of a Senior Manager, however, some managers find it a rather complex area of work. Participation in coaching assists senior managers to hone their people management skills.

In conclusion, the South African public service needs to embrace executive coaching as a tool that may assist in fast-tracking the attraction and the retention of senior managers. Scholars (Bozer, Sarros & Santora, 2014) affirm that there is a need for the development and establishment of an executive coaching framework which outlines how executive coaching can be implemented. There is also a need for executive coaching to be integrated into Human Resource Development practices. Based on the new framework, the South African public service will be in a position to design, deliver and evaluate their executive coaching initiatives strategically and systematically. Besides, organisations will be in a position to determine the value of coaching services, based on the individual and organisational impact and outcomes.

5.3.4 Coaching modes

The public service is multifaceted and has a lot of interlinkages amongst departments, local government, and state-owned entities. Daily, there are projects, programmes that require inputs/contributions from another state organ. It is therefore vital that coaching that is implemented can address the complexities that are faced by the Senior Managers in the South African public sector. Various coaching modes can be used to ensure improved performance and retention of Senior Managers. Some of the available coaching modes include skills and performance coaching, developmental coaching, team coaching, peer coaching, cross-cultural coaching, transformational coaching, as well as executive

coaching. It is proposed that as a start, the following retention modes be implemented;

(i) Skills and performance coaching

The objectives of this coaching approach is to improve the skills and performance of a coachee (Cox, Bachkirova & Clutterbuck, 2014). This coaching intends to cultivate motivation, increase awareness, and build self-efficacy. These are intrinsic for Senior Managers in the public sector.

(ii) Developmental coaching

The study revealed that Senior Managers preferred to remain in an institution where their developmental needs are catered for. It is expected that the employer should make available developmental opportunities as well as prospects for personal development. The introduction of developmental coaching would ensure that the developmental needs of the Senior Managers are addressed as they are the ones who will be setting the agenda.

(iii) Transformational coaching

This type of coaching allows the client to create a fundamental shift with regards to the way they do things and view others (Cox, Bachkirova & Clutterbuck, 2014). This shift is essential and needs to be sustained beyond the coaching sessions. This is relevant to Senior Managers and executives who are aspiring to become transformational leaders. This is the same leadership that participants in the study indicated that they would prefer to have.

(iv) Executive and leadership Coaching

The participants of the study indicated the type of leaders that they would prefer and that would influence their decision to either stay or leave the organisation. The top leadership of organisations in the public sector would need to understand the retention factors of Senior Managers and make the necessary adjustments to ensure that they create a conducive working environment. Therefore, the leadership needs to participate in executive and leadership coaching which will assist with behaviour change, self-image and finding meaning or their

purpose (Cox, Bachkirova & Clutterbuck, 2014). Through this process, the leadership would be in a position to cultivate an ideal organisational culture that is led by transformational leaders.

The war for talent is a reality for all organisations, both in the public and private sectors. The South African public sector is amongst organisations that continue to lose Senior Managers to other sectors of the economy. This makes it difficult to operate optimally as there are vacancies in critical leadership positions. The study revealed that coaching may be a useful tool to implement so that the current and new Senior Managers can be retained for longer periods. This is with the understanding that not all Senior Managers will remain with the public sector forever, however, a reduction in their turnover rate would provide some stability to the sector.

5.3.5 New model: Retention of Senior Managers in the public service

The outcome of the study confirms that coaching as a new field has implications on the retention of Senior Managers in the public services, in that it has to be integrated into the human resource practices of the entities. Efforts to retain Senior Managers cannot be conducted in isolation from other processes. The inclusion of coaching into these processes may ensure that Senior Managers remain with the employer as their needs are taken care of. The ripple effect of caring for the Senior Managers is that they would also be empathic towards their team members. This would result in a situation where turnover rates are reduced for both the Senior Managers and the employees.

The study resulted in the development of a new model (see figure 3 below) for the retention of Senior Managers within the public service.

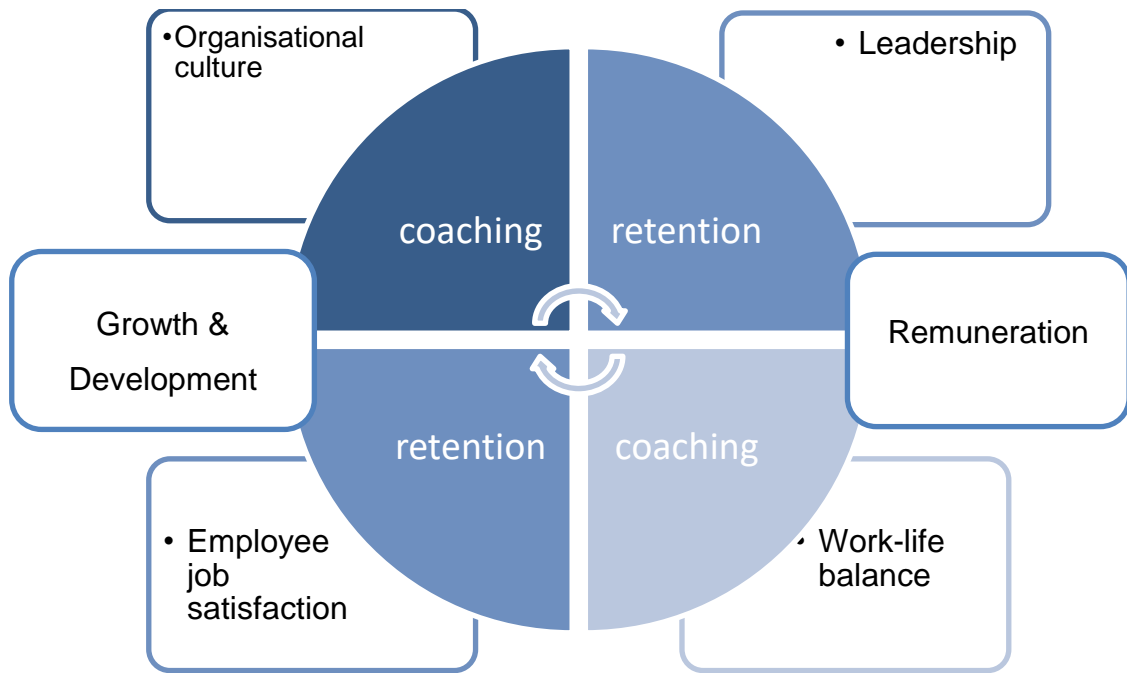


Figure 3: New model: Retention of Senior Managers (By author)

Coaching and retention at the centre of the model

At the centre of the model is coaching and retention, which means that these two should be continuous and deliberate processes implemented with the intention to attract, motivate, and retain employees. Whenever an entity recruits a new Senior Manager, there should be a deliberate effort to retain them. The retention can be achieved through coaching processes for skills/competency, performance and other behavioural changes which will ensure that Senior Managers are empowered and able to perform optimally.

Organisational culture

It is recommended that public sector organisations ensure that the organisational culture is conducive and attractive to new incumbents. The presence of a healthy culture would ensure that when coaching is implemented, Senior Managers would be exposed to the right organisational culture which would encourage them to stay. The following elements which are directly or indirectly linked to organisational culture should also be assessed, these are prevailing tone at leadership, growth and development opportunities, remuneration, the importance of work-life balance, as well as their job satisfaction. For existing Senior

Managers, a determination would be made with regards to their life cycle within the organisation and their coaching needs, then a coaching programme would be recommended. Through coaching, an organisation would be in a better position to understand challenges, obstacles and impediments that senior managers face on a regular basis.

Growth and development

According to a study by Taib, Krauss and Ismail (2019), training and development create connections for the executives to the organisation. These connections influence their decisions to stay within the organisation. It was also found that professional development which considers the individual needs and is customized for that individual motivates them and ensures that they continue to grow in that organisation. As such, their career and development are directly linked to their fit and compatibility towards the organisation and this encourages them to stay. The study also found that individual and organisational development opportunities which, amongst others, include coaching, scholarships, sponsorships, have a major contribution to the development of executives and their ultimate decision to stay in the organisation. Organisational development practices that contribute to executive retention are coaching, mentoring and leadership development.

Employee job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is important for it gives positive effect to the mental outlook of Senior Managers. It affects their attitudes towards their job, as such job embeddedness causes many executives to remain with the organisation. Due to the greater sacrifices of leaving the organisation, it becomes difficult to make that decision to leave.

Work-life balance

Work-life balance is complex and differs from organisation to organisation and from individual to individual. It relates to how people choose to prioritise their work, family, individual and community responsibilities (Munn, Rocco, Bowman & van Loo, 2011). It is also defined as an absence of unacceptable levels of

conflict between work and non-work demands (Ross & Vasantha, 2014). Munn et al. (2011) support that work-life balance is individualistic, meaning that each individual may achieve it differently by doing what is meaningful and works best in all aspects of his/her life. The benefits of a work-life balance include higher quality of life, higher levels of work involvement and greater life satisfaction (Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw, 2003). Research (Eversole, Venneberg & Crowder, 2012; Perlow & Kelly 2014) also found that there is a positive relationship between the organisation and the individual. According to Halpern (2005), work-life balance leads to reduced absenteeism, lower turnover behaviours and reduced stress levels, higher levels of productivity and improved customer experience.

Growth and development

It is critical that annually, organisations conduct executive training audits, this will assist in assessing the needs of executives and ensuring that there is correct alignment with regards to the required training interventions provided to the employees. The audits will also assist in assessing the efficiency of the current training offered by organisations and in identifying gaps.

Remuneration

There is a need for organisations to rigorously assess their current remuneration systems and introduce flexible remuneration systems instead of rigid and standardised remuneration systems. As such, offering bonuses and other incentives, the organisation will increase the Senior Managers' intentions to stay with the organisation (Johennesse & Chou, 2017).

How would the model would assist executive coaches and Senior Executives and Heads of Public Service Organisations in South Africa and other countries in the future

(a) Heads of Public Service organisations

According to the OPSC (2017) Report on recruitment, retention in the public service is currently facing a serious challenge regarding the recruitment and retention of senior managers. The predicament of a shortage of senior managers has an impact on the ability of the state to render services to its citizens.

In order to deal with this challenge, the Heads of Department are empowered by Chapter 10, Section 195 (1) (h) and (i) of the Constitution which stipulates that good human resource management and career-development practices must be cultivated to maximise human potential; and “public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation”. In addition, according to Section 196 (4) (c) of the Constitution, powers and functions of the Public Service Commission include proposing “measures to ensure effective and efficient performance within the public service” (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).

In addition, the Heads of Public Service Organisations are empowered by the Public Service Regulations to address a number of mandatory elements and key principles on which recruitment, retention, utilisation and development of human resources must be based. In this regard the model will assist the Heads of Public Service Organisations in that;

(a) Appropriate policies regarding retention of employees can be put in place to ensure that a conducive and fertile environment is created. The findings of the study as they relate to the retention of Senior managers can provide an insight into what would constitute an ideal work environment that will promote long tenure.

(b) Executive coaching should be made mandatory for all employees at senior management levels. As part of providing support to newly appointed senior managers, the organisation should ensure that they are enrolled into the executive coaching programme. Similarly, existing senior managers should attend executive coaching programmes and thereafter should be afforded an opportunity undergo refresher sessions.

(c) Executive coaching should be made mandatory for the entire employee career cycle within the organisation

(d) Partnerships should be formed between organisations to ensure that where group coaching can be undertaken, such be implemented consistently.

(e) Monitoring of turnover trends by members of senior managers would provide an indication whether the interventions are yielding results.

(b) Executive coaches

Executive coaches with their substantial knowledge of the South African public sector, can work on fostering personal growth by addressing retention issues as highlighted by Senior Managers which include organisational culture, leadership, work-life balance, job satisfaction, as well as growth and development issues.

(c) Senior Managers

Senior Managers need to participate in the executive coaching programme and provide their inputs based on their experiences.

- i. enter into an executive coaching agreement
- ii. attend sessions
- iii. provide evaluation of the programme

Senior managers forms the core of the executive programme and its success is dependent on their participation and commitment.

5.4 Role of other stakeholders

5.4.1 Academics

It is recommended that the academic community should continue to investigate retention and coaching as possible interventions that can assist in building a capable state. The academic fraternity plays an important role in public service because some of the research conducted informs the policies of the government.

5.4.2 Policymakers

The policymaker in the public service is the Department of Public Service and Administration. It is charged with the responsibility of developing policy frameworks and guidelines on human resource practices. It is recommended that Executive Coaching should be included in the broader government policies as part of the Human Resource strategy of the government. It should be implemented as a prerequisite for all Senior Managers. The intended outcome of the coaching programme is improved service delivery, as well as retention.

5.4.3 HR Practitioners

It is recommended that Human Resource Practitioners should review their Human Resource plans and include Executive Coaching as a strategic intervention for members of Senior Management.

5.4.4 Cabinet

The Office of the Public Service in its study of turnover in the public sector found that the highest movement occurred at the Senior Management, particularly at CEOs or Heads of Departments levels. The cabinet appoints most Heads of Departments and CEOs; it is recommended that part of their recruitment should include a coach.

5.4.5 Potential Senior Managers and Executives

It is recommended that once the Senior Managers are appointed in the public service, they should request that part of their development plan should include executive coaching.

5.5 Suggestions for further research

The research study focused on the retention of Senior Managers in the SA public service, and the implications for coaching. The study investigated the organisational implications, there is a need for further research on the following;

- (a) Theoretical implications of coaching for Senior Managers employed within the public sector
- (b) Research implications of coaching for Senior Managers within the South African public service;
- (c) Executive coaching and the changing generation face of the South African public service; and
- (d) What are other retention factors concerning Senior Managers within the South African public service that may be included in the coaching programme of Managers

5.6 Conclusion

Retention remains a challenge for many organisations in both sectors, i.e., the public and private. The introduction of technological advances and the advent of the fourth industrial revolution exacerbates the need for organisations to implement measures that will enable them to retain skills that they already have. With globalisation, employees have many choices, such as freedom of location and time. The traditional methods that were prevailing in organisations, such as standard working hours, prescribed office location, etc., are becoming irrelevant

in the ever-changing world of work. It is, therefore, necessary for organisations to keep their finger on the pulse to understand the changing needs of their employees as well as those in the labour market and adapt strategies, interventions, policies accordingly.

Executive coaching is proving to be one of the solutions that organisations are using to, amongst others, improve their productivity levels, improve the skills levels of the leadership of the entity. The intervention could be used to reduce turnover rates and thereby improve retention of managers both in the private and public sectors.

REFERENCES

- Abassi SM, & Hollman KW (2000). Turnover: the real bottom line, *Public Personnel Management*, 2 (3),333-342.
- Agarwal, A. & Knoeber, C. (1996). Firm Performance and Mechanisms to Control Agency Problems between Managers and Shareholders, *Journal of Financial and Quantitative Analysis*, 31, 377-397.
- Aguenza, B. B., & Som, A. P. M. (2012). Motivational factors of employee retention and engagement in organisations. *International journal of advances in management and economics*, 1(6), 88-95.
- Ahmad, N., Iqbal, N., & Sheeraz, M. (2012). The effect of internal marketing on employee retention in Pakistani banks. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2(8), 270-272.
- Ahmed, Z., Sabir, S., Khosa, M., Ahmad, I., & Bilal, M. A. (2016). Impact of Employee Turnover on Organisational Effectiveness in Tele Communication Sector of Pakistan. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, 18(11), 88-96.
- Ajayi, O., & De Vries, M. (2019). Diagnostic assessment of service delivery health in South Africa: a systematic literature review. *South African Journal of Industrial Engineering*, 30(1), 24-36.
- Akter, K., Ali, M., & Chang, A. (2019). Work–life programmes and organisational outcomes: the role of the human resource system. *Personnel Review* 49(2), pp. 516-536.
- Al Mamun, C. A., & Hasan, M. N. (2017). Factors affecting employee turnover and sound retention strategies in business organisation: A conceptual view. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, (15, Iss. 1), 63-71.
- Allen, D.G. (2008). *Retaining talent: A guide to analyzing and managing employee turnover. Effective Practice Guidelines Series, 1–43*. Alexandria, VA: Society for Human Resource Management.
- Andersen, L.B., Heinesen, E. & Pedersen, L.H. (2014), How Does Public Service Motivation Among Teachers Affect Student Performance in Schools? *Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory*, first published online January 29, 2014.
- Anderson, M. C., & MetrixGlobal, L. L. C. (2001). *Case study on the return on investment of executive coaching*. Online: http://www.coachcentral.info/Merrill_study.htm. Available:<http://www98.griffith.edu.au/dspa>

- Anderson, V., Rayner, C., & Schyns, B. (2009). *Coaching at the sharp end: the role of line managers in coaching at work*. London: CIPD Publications.
- Arthur, J. A. (2016). *The African diaspora in the United States and Europe: the Ghanaian experience*. Routledge.
- Ashford, S, Lee, C. & Bobko, P. (1989). Content, causes, and consequences of job insecurity: A theory-based measure and substantive test. *Academy of Management Journal.*, 32, 803-829
- Athanasopoulou, A., & Dopson, S. (2018). A systematic review of executive coaching outcomes: Is it the journey or the destination that matters the most? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 29(1), 70-88.
- Atkinson, S., & Butcher, D. (2003). Trust in the context of management relationships: an empirical study. Society for Advancement of Management (SAM) International Business Conference, Orlando, Florida.
- Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The leadership quarterly*, 16(3), 315-338.
- Azeez, S. A. (2017). Human resource management practices and employee retention: A review of literature. *Journal of Economics, Management and Trade*, 1-10.
- Aziri, B. (2011). Job satisfaction: a literature review. *Management Research & Practice*, 3(4).
- Baarspul, H. C., & Wilderom, C. P. (2011). Do employees behave differently in public-vs private-sector organisations? A state-of-the-art review. *Public management review*, 13(7), 967-1002.
- Baek-Kyoo, J. (2005). Executive coaching: A conceptual framework from an integrative review of practice and research. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4(4), 462-488.
- Baldwin, J.N (1987). Public versus private: Not that different, not that consequential. *Public Personnel Management*, 16.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy. The exercise of control*. New York: W.H.Freeman
- Barkhuizen, N. (2014). How relevant is talent management in South African local government institutions?. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(20), 2223.
- Barney, J. B. (1986). Organisational culture: can it be a source of sustained competitive advantage?. *Academy of management review*, 11(3), 656-665.

- Barratt, M., Choi, T. Y., & Li, M. (2011). Qualitative case studies in operations management: Trends, research outcomes, and future research implications. *Journal of Operations Management*, 29(4), 329-342.
- Basit, T. (2003). Manual or electronic? The role of coding in qualitative data analysis. *Educational research*, 45(2), 143-154.
- Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European journal of work and organisational psychology*, 8(1), 9-32.
- Berkshire, J.C. (2008). Potential charity leaders see top job as unappealing, new survey reveals. *Chronicle of Philanthropy*, 20(10), 14.
- Berry, L.L. (1981), The Employee as Customer, *Journal of Retail Banking*, 3(1), 33-40.
- Bhatia, A., & Kaur, L. (2014). Global training & development trends & practices: An overview. *International Journal of Emerging Research in Management & Technology*, 3 (8), 75 - 78
- Bogler, R. (2001). The influence of leadership style on teacher job satisfaction. *Educational administration quarterly*, 37(5), 662-683.
- Bowles, S. V., Cunningham, C. J. L., De La Rosa, G. M., & Picano, J. J. (2007). Coaching leaders in middle and executive management: Goals, performance, buy-in. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*,
- Boysen, S., Cherry, M., Amerie, W., & Takagawa, M. (2018). Organisational Coaching Outcomes: A comparison of a practitioner survey and key findings from the literature. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 16(1), 159.
- Bozer, G., Sarros, J. C., & Santora, J. C. (2014). Executive coaching: Guidelines that work. *Development and Learning in Organisations: An International Journal*. 28(4), 9-14,
- Brinckerhoff, P. C., & Hyman, V. L. (2007). *Generations: The challenge of a lifetime for your non-profit*. St Paul, MN.: Fieldstone Alliance.
- Brockbank, A. (2008). Is the coaching fit for purpose? A typology of coaching and learning approaches. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 1(2), 132-144.
- Brunetto, Y., Farr-Wharton, R., & Shacklock, K. (2012). Communication, training, wellbeing, and commitment across nurse generations. *Nursing Outlook*, 60(1), 7-15.
- Caillier, J. G. (2011). I Want to Quit: A Closer Look at Factors That Contribute to the Turnover Intentions of State Government Employees. *State and Local Government Review*, 43(2), 110-122.

- Cain, R. (2009). Business strategy-Developing A Values-Driven Organisation-Companies that are driven by values rather than dollar signs are always successful. *World Trade*, 22(4), 46.
- Campell, D.T. & Fiske, D.W. (1959), Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix, *Psychological Bulletin*, 56(2), 81-105.
- Carman, J. G., Leland, S. M., & Wilson, A. J. (2010). Crisis in leadership or failure to plan? *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 21(1), 93-111.
- Chan, S. H., Mai, X., Kuok, O. M., & Kong, S. H. (2016). The influence of satisfaction and promotability on the relation between career adaptability and turnover intentions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 92, 167-175.
- Chatman, J. A., & Cha, S. E. (2003). Leading by leveraging culture. *California management review*, 45(4), 20-34.
- Chen, M. (2014). *The Effect of Training on Employee Retention*. 2014 International Conference on Global Economy, Commerce and Service Science (GECSS-14). Atlantis Press.
- Chen, M-F., Lin, C-P., & Lien, G-Y. (2010). Modeling job stress as a mediating role in predicting turnover intention. *The Service Industries Journal*, 1743-9507.
- Chiboiwa, M., Samuel, M. O., & Chipunza, C. (2010). An examination of employee retention strategy in a private organisation in Zimbabwe. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(10), 2103-2109.
- Chudzikowski, K. (2012). Career transitions and career success in the 'new'career era. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 81(2), 298-306.
- Cloutier, O., Felusiak, L., Hill, C. & Pemberton-Jones, E. J. (2015). The Importance of Developing Strategies for Employee Retention. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability & Ethics*, 12(2).
- Clutterbuck, D. (2005). Succession planning: a developmental approach. *Development and Learning in Organisations: An International Journal*, 19(5), 11-13.
- Cooper, D. R., Schindler, P. S., & Sun, J. (2011). *Business research methods* (Vol. 9). New York: McGraw-hill.
- Cox, E., Bachkirova, T., & Clutterbuck, D. A. (Eds.). (2014). *The complete handbook of coaching*. Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage.
- Cranny, C.J., Smith, C. P. & Stone, E.F. (1992), The construct of job satisfaction, in Cranny, C.J., Smith, P.C. and Stone, E.F. (Eds), *Job Satisfaction*, New York, NY: Lexington Books.
- Cregård, A., & Corin, L. (2019). Public sector managers: the decision to leave or remain in a job. *Human Resource Development International*, 22(2), 158-176.

- Creswell, J. W. (2007). Five qualitative approaches to inquiry. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*, Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage, 2, 53-80.
- Creswell, J. W., Hanson, W. E., Plano Creswell, V. L., & Morales, A. (2007). Qualitative research designs: Selection and implementation. *The Consulting Psychologist*, 35 (2), 236-264.
- Creswell, JW, & Miller, DL (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into practice*, 39(3), 124-130.
- Crossan, M., Vera, D., & Nanjad, L. (2008). Transcendent leadership: Strategic leadership in dynamic environments. *The leadership quarterly*, 19(5), 569-581.
- Crowe, S., Creswell, K., Robertson, A., Huby, G., Avery, A., & Sheikh, A. (2011). The case study approach. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 11(1), 100.
- Cully, M., Woodland, S., O'Reilly, A. and Dix, G. (1999), *Britain at Work: As Depicted by 1998 Workplace Employee Relations Survey*, London: Routledge.
- Dagley, G. (2006). Human resources professionals' perceptions of executive coaching: Efficacy, benefits and return on investment. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 1(2), 34-45.
- Das, H. (1996). Retention Policy: Whom to Retain Anyway? *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 32(2), 223-232.
- Davies, D., Taylor, R., & Savery, L. (2001). The role of appraisal, remuneration and training in improving staff relations in the Western Australian accommodation industry: a comparative study. *Journal of European Industrial Training*. Volume 25 Issue 7.
- Davis, K. & Nestrom, J.W. (1985). *Human Behaviour at work: Organisational Behaviour*. 7th Edition, New York: McGraw Hill.
- Day, D. V., Harrison, M. M., & Halpin, S. M. (2008). An Integrative Approach to Leader Development: Connecting Adult Development. *Identity, and Expertise*. London: Routledge.
- de Haan, E., & Duckworth, A. (2013). Signalling a new trend in executive coaching outcome research. *International Coaching Psychology Review*, 8(1), 6-19.
- de Haan, E., Culpin, V., & Curd, J. (2011). Executive coaching in practice: what determines helpfulness for clients of coaching? *Personnel Review*, 40(1), 24-44.
- de Haan, E., Duckworth, A., Birch, D., & Jones, C. (2013). Executive coaching outcome research: The contribution of common factors such as relationship, personality match, and self-efficacy. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 65(1), 40.
- De Meuse, K. P., Dai, G., & Lee, R. J. (2009). Evaluating the effectiveness of executive coaching: beyond ROI? *Coaching: An international journal of theory, research and practice*, 2(2), 117-134.

De Villiers, R. (2006). Alumni talent: How losing the retention battle can help win the talent war. *Civil Engineering*, 14(1), 15.

Deal, T. W. & Kennedy, A. A. (1982). *Corporate cultures*. Reading, MA.: Addison-Wesley.

Deaton, A. V., Wilkes, S. B., & Douglas, R. S. (2013). Strengthening the Next Generation: A Multi-faceted Program to Develop Leadership Capacity in Emerging Nonprofit Leaders. *Journal of Nonprofit Education and Leadership*, 3(1), 34-46.

Denton, K. D. (1992), *Recruitment, Retention and Employee Relations*, Connecticut: Quorum Books.

Department of Home Affairs Annual report 2018/2019 financial year. Republic of South Africa

Desmarais, C., & Abord de Chatillon, E. (2010). Are There Still Differences Between the Roles of Private and Public Sector Managers? 1. *Public Management Review*, 12(1), 127-149.

Devers, K., & Frankel, R. (2000). Study design in qualitative research—2: Sampling and data collection strategies. *Education for health*, 13(2), 263-271.

Dexter, J., Dexter, G., & Irving, J. (2011). *An Introduction to Coaching*. London: Sage.

Dey, I. (1993). *Creating categories. Qualitative data analysis*. London: Routledge.
Doh, J., Stumpf, S. & Tymon, W. (2011). Responsible Leadership Helps Retain Talent in India. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 98(1), 85-100.

Doh, J.P., Smith, R.R., Stumpf, S.A., & Tymon, W.G., Jr. (2011). Pride and professionals: Retaining talent in emerging economies. *Journal of Business Strategy*, 32(5), 35–42.

Douglas, C. A., & McCauley, C. D. (1999). Formal developmental relationships: A survey of organisational practices. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 10(3), 203-220.

Du Plessis, L., Barkhuizen, N., Stanz, K., & Schutte, N. (2015). The management side of talent: Causal implications for the retention of generation Y employees. *Journal of Applied Business Research (JABR)*, 31(5), 1767-1780.

Edwards, J., Snowden, M., & Halsall, J. P. (2017). The example of coaching in the public sector: a quantitative case study. *International Journal of Society Systems Science*, 9(2), 89-104.

Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Building theories from case study research. *Academy of management review*, 14(4), 532-550.

- Eisenhardt, K. M., & Graebner, M. E. (2007). Theory building from cases: Opportunities and challenges. *Academy of management journal*, 50(1), 25-32.
- Ellinger, A. D., Ellinger, A. E., & Keller, S. B. (2003). Supervisory coaching behavior, employee satisfaction, and warehouse employee performance: A dyadic perspective in the distribution industry. *Human resource development quarterly*, 14(4), 435-458.
- Ely, K., Boyce, L. A., Nelson, J. K., Zaccaro, S. J., Hernez-Broome, G., & Whyman, W. (2010). Evaluating leadership coaching: A review and integrated framework. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(4), 585-599.
- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American journal of theoretical and applied statistics*, 5(1), 1-4.
- Eva, N., Robin, M., Sendjaya, S., van Dierendonck, D., & Liden, R. C. (2019). Servant leadership: A systematic review and call for future research. *The leadership quarterly*, 30(1), 111-132.
- Evers, W. J. G., Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2006). A quasi-experimental study on management coaching effectiveness. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 58, 174–182. doi:10.1037/1065-9293.58.3.174
- Farrokhi, F., & Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, A. (2012). Rethinking Convenience Sampling: Defining Quality Criteria. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies*, 2(4).
- Feldman, D. C., & Lankau, M. J. (2005). Executive coaching: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of management*, 31(6), 829-848.
- Feldman, D.C. (2001). Career coaching: What HR professionals and managers need to know. *Human Resource Planning*, 24(2).
- Firth L, Mellor, D.J, Moore, K.A. & Loquet, C. (2007). How can managers reduce employee intention to quit? *J. Psychol.* 19 (2): 170-187.
- Fischer, R. L., & Beimers, D. (2009). "Put me in, Coach": A pilot evaluation of executive coaching in the nonprofit sector. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership*, 19(4), 507-522.
- Fortado, B., & Fadil, P. (2012). The four faces of organisational culture. *Competitiveness Review: an international business journal*.
- Freedman, S. (2009). Effective mentoring. *IFLA journal*, 35(2), 171-182.
- Friedman, S. D., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2000). *Work and family--allies or enemies?: what happens when business professionals confront life choices*. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Fry, L. W., & Cohen, M. P. (2009). Spiritual leadership as a paradigm for organisational transformation and recovery from extended work hours cultures. *Journal of business ethics*, 84(2), 265-278.
- Fry, L. W., & Slocum, J. W. (2008). Maximizing the triple bottom line through spiritual leadership. *Organisational dynamics*, 37(1), 86.
- Galanaki, E. (2019). Effects of employee benefits on affective and continuance commitment during times of crisis. *International Journal of Manpower*. Volume 41 Issue 2.
- Gardner, B. B., & Moore, D. G. (1945). *Human Relations in Industry*. Chicago: Richard D. Irwin.
- Gasson, S. (2004). Rigor in grounded theory research: An interpretive perspective on generating theory from qualitative field studies. In *The handbook of information systems research* (pp. 79-102). New York: IGI Global.
- Gatling, A. R., Castelli, P. A., & Cole, M. L. (2013). Authentic leadership: the role of self-awareness in promoting coaching effectiveness. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Management Research and Innovation*, 9(4), 337-347.
- Gazioglu, S., & Tansel, A. (2006). Job satisfaction in Britain: individual and job related factors. *Applied economics*, 38(10), 1163-1171.
- Geertz, Clifford. 1973. *The Interpretation of Cultures*. New York: Basic Books.
- Gegner, C. (1997). *Coaching: Theory and practice*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of San Francisco, California.
- Gentry, W. A., Eckert, R. H., Stawiski, S. A., & Zhao, S. (2013). *The Challenges Leaders Face Around the World More Similar than Different*. Published by the Center for Creative Leadership. Retrieved January, 6, 2015.
- George, J. M., Jones, G. R., & Sharbrough, W. C. (2005). *Understanding and managing organizational behavior*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Gerring, J. (2004). What is a case study and what is it good for? *American political science review*, 98(02), 341-354.
- Gerring, J., Seawright, J., & Avenburg, A. The Inference in Causal Inference: A Psychology for Social Science Methodology.
- Giannikis, S. K., & Mihail, D. M. (2011). Flexible work arrangements in Greece: a study of employee perceptions. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(02), 417-432.

- Gilbert, J. A., Carr-Ruffino, N., Ivancevich, J. M., & Konopaske, R. (2012). Toxic versus cooperative behaviors at work: the role of organisational culture and leadership in creating community-centered organisations. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 7(1), 29-47.
- Giridharan, K. (2016). A Review of the Significance of Work-Life Balance. *Scope International Journal of Science, Humanities, Management and Technology*. Vol.2 Issue 3 (2016) 54-61.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The qualitative report*, 8(4), 597-606.
- Golden, L. (2008), Limited Access: Disparities in Flexible Work Schedules and Work-at-home, *Journal of Family Economic Issues*, 29, 86–109.
- Goldenhar, D. (2003). *The benefits of flexible work arrangements*. New York: Advancing Women Professional and The Jewish Community.
- Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. *Harvard business review*, 78(2), 4-17.
- Goleman, D. (2004). *What makes a leader*. Cambridge, MA.: Harvard Business School Publishing Corporation.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York. Bantam
- Gormley, H., & van Nieuwerburgh, C. (2014). Developing coaching cultures: a review of the literature. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 7(2), 90-101.
- Gottlieb, B. H., Kelloway, E. K., & Barham, E. J. (1998). *Flexible work arrangements: Managing the work-family boundary*. Hoboken, NJ.: Wiley.
- Graham, S., Wedman, J. F., & Garvin–Kester, B. (1993). Manager coaching skills: Development and application. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 6(1), 2-13.
- Grant, A. (2005a). *Theories and techniques of coaching psychology: PSYC 4721 Lecture 1* (pp. 16-33). Sydney: Coaching Psychology Unit, School of Psychology, University of Sydney, Australia
- Grant, A. M. (2007). Enhancing coaching skills and emotional intelligence through training. *Industrial and commercial training*. Volume 39(5), 257 -266
- Grant, A. M. (2012). ROI is a poor measure of coaching success: towards a more holistic approach using a well-being and engagement framework. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 5(2), 74-85.

- Grant, A. M., & Green, R. M. (2018). Developing clarity on the coaching-counselling conundrum: Implications for counsellors and psychotherapists. *Counselling and Psychotherapy Research*, 18(4), 347-355.
- Grant, A. M., Curtayne, L., & Burton, G. (2009). Executive coaching enhances goal attainment, resilience and workplace well-being: A randomised controlled study. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 4(5), 396-407.
- Greenleaf, R. K. (2008). Who is the servant-leader? *The International Journal of Servant-Leadership*, 4(1), 29-37.
- Gregory, J. B., & Levy, P. E. (2011). It's not me, it's you: A multilevel examination of variables that impact employee coaching relationships. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 63(2), 67.
- Griffeth RW, Hom PW, & Gaertner S (2000). A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover: update, moderator tests, and research implications for the next millennium, *J. Manage.* 26 (3): 463-88.
- Gubrium, J. F., & Holstein, J. A. (2002). From the individual interview to the interview society. *Handbook of interview research: Context and method*, 3-32. Sage.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley
- Hagen, M. & Gavrilova-Aguilar, M. (2012). The impact of managerial coaching on learning outcomes within the team context: An analysis, *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 23, pp. 363-388.
- Hamadamin, H.H & Atan, T. (2019). The Impact of Strategic Human Resource Management Practices on Competitive Advantage Sustainability: The Mediation of Human Capital Development and Employee Commitment. *Sustainability*, 11(20), 5782;
- Handy, L.W. (2008). *The importance of the work environment variables on the transfer of training*. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Department of Education, University of North Carolina State University, Carolina, USA.
- Hannafey, F. T., & Vitulano, L. A. (2013). Ethics and Executive Coaching: An Agency Theory Approach. *Journal of business ethics*, 115(3), 599-603.
- Hashish, E.A.A. (2019), "The effect of career awareness on perceived career and talent development self-efficacy and career barriers among nursing students", *Journal of Research in Nursing*, 24 (3/4), 233-247

- Head, T., Sorensen, P., & Yaeger, T. (2007). *Organisation Behaviour and change: Managing Human Resources for Organisational Effectiveness*, 14th Edition. Champaign: Stipes Publishing.
- Heller, D., Judge, T. A., & Watson, D. (2002). The confounding role of personality and trait affectivity in the relationship between job and life satisfaction. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, 23(7), 815-835.
- Heneman III, H. G., & Judge, T. A. (2009). Internal Recruitment. *Staffing Organisations*, 6, 265-301.
- Herzberg, F. (1971). The motivation-hygiene theory. *Work and the nature of man*, 4. New York: Irwin Professional Publishing.
- Herzberg, F. (1976). *The managerial choice: To be efficient and to be human*. New York: Irwin Professional Publishing.
- Heskett, J. L., & Schlesinger, L. A. (1994). Putting the service-profit chain to work. *Harvard business review*, 72(2), 164-174.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture and organisations. *International Studies of Management & Organisation*, 10(4), 15-41.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences*. Beverly Hills, CA.: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Empirical models of cultural differences*. Beverly Hills, CA.: Sage.
- Holmes, S., & Marsden, S. (1996). An exploration of the espoused organisational cultures of public accounting firms. *Accounting Horizons*, 10(3), 26.
- Hong, E.N, Hao, L.Z., Kumar R, Ramendran C, Kadiresan V. (2012). An effectiveness of human resource management practices on employee retention in institute of higher learning: A regression analysis. *International Journal of Business Research and Management*.3(2), 60-79.
- Hoppock, R. (1935). *Job Satisfaction*, New York: Harper and Brothers.
- Hussein, A. (2009). The use of triangulation in social sciences research: Can qualitative and quantitative methods be combined. *Journal of comparative social work*, 1(8), 1-12.
- Ibidunn, S., Osibanjo, A. O., Adeniji, A. A., Salau, O. P., & Falola, H. O. (2015). Talent retention and organizational performance: A competitive positioning in Nigerian banking sector. *Periodica Polytechnica Social and Management Sciences*, 24(1), 1-13.
- Idris, A. (2014). Flexible working as an employee retention strategy in developing countries: Malaysian bank managers speak. *Journal of Management Research*, 14(2), 71.

- Irving, J. A., & Williams, D. I. (1999). Personal growth and personal development: concepts clarified. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 27(4), 517-526.
- Jackson, P.Z. & McKergow, M. (2012). *The Solutions Focus: Making Coaching & Change Simple*. London: Nicholas Brealey
- Jarvis, J. (2004). *Coaching and buying coaching services: A guide* London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.
- Jeffrey Hill, E., Grzywacz, J. G., Allen, S., Blanchard, V. L., Matz-Costa, C., Shulkin, S., & Pitt-Catsouphes, M. (2008). Defining and conceptualizing workplace flexibility. *Community, Work and Family*, 11(2), 149-163.
- Jick, T. D. (1979). Mixing qualitative and quantitative methods: Triangulation in action. *Administrative science quarterly*, 24(4), 602-611.
- Johennesse, L. A. C., & Chou, T. K. (2017). Employee Perceptions of Talent Management Effectiveness on Retention. *Global Business & Management Research*, 9(3).
- Jones, R. A., Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. A. (2006). The executive coaching trend: Towards more flexible executives. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*. Vol. 27 No. 7, pp. 584-596
- Jones, R. J., Woods, S. A., & Guillaume, Y. R. (2016). The effectiveness of workplace coaching: A meta-analysis of learning and performance outcomes from coaching. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology*, 89(2), 249-277.
- Joo, B. K. B. (2005). Executive coaching: A conceptual framework from an integrative review of practice and research. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4(4), 462-488.
- Joo, Sushko & McLean (2012). Multiple Faces of Coaching: Manager-as-coach, Executive Coaching, and Formal Mentoring. *Organisational Development Journal*. 30 (1),19 – 39
- Jorgensen, B. (2005). Attract, retain and innovate: a workforce policy architecture adapted to modern conditions. *Foresight*, 7(5), 21-31.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of applied psychology*, 89(5), 755.
- Judge, W. Q., & Cowell, J. (1997). The brave new world of executive coaching. *Business Horizons*, 40(4), 71-78.
- Jules, C. (2009). Feedback as a unit of work: A data-driven approach to organisational coaching. *OD Practitioner*, 41(3), 8-12.
- Kaiser, R.B., & Hogan, R. (2010). How to (and how not to) assess the integrity of managers. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 62(4), 216–234.

- Kaliski, B.S. (2007). *Encyclopedia of Business and Finance*, Second edition, Detroit: Thompson Gale.
- Kampa-Kokesch, S., & Anderson, M. Z. (2001). Executive coaching: A comprehensive review of the literature. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 53(4),
- Kamunya, M., & Nzulwa, J. (2020). Influence of Coaching on Employee Retention in Commercial Banks in Kenya. *Human Resource and Leadership Journal*, 5(1), 29-50.
- Kanter, R. M. (1977). *Work and family in the United States: A critical review and agenda for research and policy*. New York. Russel Sage Foundation.
- Kaouache, R., Brewer, G. A., & Kaouache, D. E. (2020). Existing and preferred organisational culture in public organisations: The case of an electricity power plant in Algeria. *Journal of Transnational Management*, 25(2), 154-171.
- Keesing, R. M. (1974). Theories of culture. *Annual review of anthropology*, 3(1), 73-97.
- Kent, P., Siu, M., & Walker, J. (2001). The structure of middle management remuneration packages: An application to Australian mine managers. *Australian Journal of Management*, 26(2), 107-124.
- Kerr, J. L., & Slocum, J. W. (1987). Linking reward systems and corporate cultures. *Academy of Management Executive*, 1(2), 99-108.
- Kilburg, R. R. (1996). Toward a conceptual understanding and definition of executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 48(2), 134.
- Kim, S., Egan, T. M., Kim, W., & Kim, J. (2013). The impact of managerial coaching behavior on employee work-related reactions. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 28(3), 315-330.
- Kim, S., Tam, L., Kim, J. N., & Rhee, Y. (2017). Determinants of employee turnover intention. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*. Vol. 22 No. 3, pp. 308-328
- Kinicki, A., & Fugate, M. (2012). *Organisational behaviour: Key concepts, skills and best practices*. (5th edn.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Knies, E., & Leisink, P. (2018). People management in the public sector. In *HRM in mission driven organisations* (pp. 15-46). Cham.:Palgrave Macmillan.

- Kock, R., & Burke, M. (2008). Managing talent in the South African public service. *Public Personnel Management, 37*(4), 457-470.
- Koketso, L. P., & Rust, A. B. (2012). Perceived challenges to talent management in the South African public service: An exploratory study of the City of Cape Town municipality. *African Journal of Business Management, 6*(6), 2221-2233.
- Kombarakaran, F. A., Yang, J. A., Baker, M. N., Fernandes, P. B. (2008). Executive Coaching: It Works! *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 60*(1), 78-90.
- Kralj, M. M. (2001). Coaching at the top: Assisting a chief executive and his team. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 53*(2), 108.
- Kroukamp, H., & Cloete, F. (2018). Improving professionalism in South African local government. *Acta Academica, 50*(1), 61-80.
- Kumar, R. & Arora, R. (2012). Determinants of talent retention in BPO industry. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations, 259-273*
- Kwenin, D. O., Muathe, S., & Nzulwa, R. (2013). The influence of employee rewards, human resource policies and job satisfaction on the retention of employees in Vodafone Ghana Limited. *European Journal of Business and Management, 5*(12), 13-20.
- Lane, K.A., Esser, J., Holte, B., & McCusker, M.A., (2010). A study of nurse faculty job satisfaction in community colleges in Florida. *Teach. Learn.Nurs.*, 5:16-26.
- Latha, K. L. (2017). *A study on employee attrition and retention in manufacturing industries*. Available at: www.bvimsr.com/documents/publication/2013V5N1/09.pdf (accessed 6 February 2020).
- Lee, C., Liu, J., Rousseau, D.M., Hui, C., & Chen, Z.X. (2011). Inducements, contributions and fulfilment in new employee psychological contracts. *Human Resource Management, 50*(2), 201–226. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.20415>
- Letchmiah, L., & Thomas, A. (2017). Retention of high-potential employees in a development finance company. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 15*(1), 1-9.
- Levenson, A. (2009). Measuring and maximizing the business impact of executive coaching. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 61*(2), 103.
- Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J., Lioa, C., & Meuser, J.D. (2014). Servant leadership and serving culture: Influence on individual and unit performance. *The Academy of Management Journal, 57*(5), 1434–1452.

Locke, E.E. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction, in Dunnette, M.D. (Ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organisational Psychology*, Chicago, IL.: Rand McNally, pp. 1297-349.

Lockwood, N.R. (2003) Work/life balance: challenges and solutions, *Society for Human Resource. USA*

Lyons, S., & Kuron, L. (2013). Generational differences in the workplace: A review of the evidence and directions for future research. *Journal of Organisational Behavior*, 35, S139–S157. doi:10.1002/job.1913

Madill, A., & Gough, B. (2008). Qualitative research and its place in psychological science. *Psychological methods*, 13(3), 254.

Managa, A. (2012). Unfulfilled promises and their consequences: A reflection on local government performance and the critical issue of poor service delivery in South Africa. African Institute of South Africa. *Management: Research Quarterly*, 2(1),1–12.

Mano, R-N, & Tzafirir, S.S. (2004). Job search modes and Turnover *Career development international*. (5), 442-446

Mansell, A., Brough, P., & Cole, K. (2006). Stable predictors of job satisfaction, psychological strain, and employee retention: An evaluation of organisational change within the New Zealand Customs Service. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 13(1), 84.

Martin, J.F. (2015). *Ascending to the C-suite*. New York: McKinsey & Company.

Martin, T. N., & Ottemann, R. (2016). Generational workforce demographic trends and total organisational rewards which might attract and retain different generational employees. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 16(2), 1160.

Mash, R., De Sa, A., & Christodoulou, M. (2016). How to change organisational culture: Action research in a South African public sector primary care facility. *African journal of primary health care & family medicine*, 8(1), 1-9.

Masibigiri, V., & Nienaber, H. (2011). Factors affecting the retention of Generation X public servants: An exploratory study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*,9(1), 44–54.

Mathison, S. (1988). Why triangulate?. *Educational researcher*, 17(2), 13-17.

Matlay, H., Rae, D., Audet, J., & Couteret, P. (2012). Coaching the entrepreneur: features and success factors. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*.

- Maxwell, J. (1992). Understanding and validity in qualitative research. *Harvard educational review*, 62(3), 279-301.
- Mayo, G. E. (1933). *The human problems of an industrial society*. New York: Macmillan.
- Mbugua, G. M., Waiganjo, E. W. & Njeru, A. (2015). Relationship between strategic performance management and employee retention in commercial banks in Kenya. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 6(1), 53-62.
- McCrensky, E. (1964). Improving recruitment and retention of public health personnel. *American Journal of Public Health and the Nation's Health*, 54(4), 624-626.
- McDowall, A., & O'Broin, A. (2014). How do we know whether coaching actually works? Furthering our evidence base. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 7(1), 1-3.
- McGuffin, A. A., & Obonyo, E. (2010). Enhancing performance: A case study of the effects of employee coaching in construction practice. *Construction Management and Economics*, 28(2), 141-149.
- McGuire, M., Houser, J., Jarrar, T., Moy, W., & Wall, M. (2003). Retention: It's All About Respect. *The Health Care Manager*, 22(1), 38-44.
- Mdlongwa, E. T. (2014). Local government at the heart of poor service delivery: 20 years of democracy. *Rhodes journalism review*, 2014(34), 39.
- Mead, George H. 1934. *Mind, Self, and Society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Mensah, J.K. and Bawole, J.N. (2017), "Person–job fit matters in parastatal institutions: testing the mediating effect of person–job fit in the relationship between talent management and employee outcomes", *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, pp. 1-17,
- Merriam, S. B. (1995). What can you tell from an N of 1?: Issues of validity and reliability in qualitative research. *PAACE Journal of lifelong learning*, 4, 51-60.
- Messmer, B.M. (2004). Retaining your top performers. *Strategic Finance*, 85(10),11–13.
- Messmer, M. (1999). Culture wars. *Journal of Accountancy*, 188(6), 53.
- Messmer, M. (2006). Four keys to improved staff retention. *Strategic Finance*, 88(4), 13-14.
- Michael, S. O. (2008). *Using motivational strategy as panacea for employee retention and turnover in selected public and private sector organisations in the*

Eastern Cape Province of South Africa (Doctoral dissertation, University of Fort Hare).

Miller, N. G., Erickson, A., & Yust, B. L. (2001). Sense of place in the workplace: The relationship between personal objects and job satisfaction and motivation. *Journal of Interior Design*, 27(1), 35-44.

Mine Health and Safety Council Annual report 2018/2019 financial year. Republic of South Africa

Mintek Annual report 2018/2019 financial year. Republic of South Africa

Mitchell, T. R., & Albright, D. (1971). *Expectancy Theory Predictions of Job Satisfaction, Job Effort, Job Performance, and Retention of Naval Aviation Officers*. Organisational Research University of Washington Seattle, Washington, TR 71-17, 1-25.

Mitchell, T. R., Holtom, B. C., & Lee, T. W. (2001). How to keep your best employees: Developing an effective retention policy. *Academy of Management Executive*, 15(4), 96-108.

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.

Mohamed, R. K. M. H., Nor, C. S. M., & Dahalan, N. (2014). The Relationship between Human Resource Management Practices, Leader member exchange, Psychological contract Fulfillment, Trade Union and Employee Retention Behaviour. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 4(6), 174-185.

Molinaro, M. (2019). Retention. *The Review: A Journal of Undergraduate Student Research*, 20(1), 3.

Moncarz, E., Zhao, J., & Kay, C. (2009). An exploratory study of US lodging properties' organisational practices on employee turnover and retention. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 21(4) 437-458

Morrow, S. L. (2005). Quality and trustworthiness in qualitative research in counseling psychology. *Journal of counseling psychology*, 52(2), 250.

Mousa, M. and Ayoubi, R.M. (2019), "Inclusive/exclusive talent management, responsible leadership and organizational downsizing: a study of academics in Egyptian public business schools". *Journal of Management Development*, 38 (2), 87-104.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (2013). *Employee—organisation linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*. Boston: Academic Press.

Muleya, D., Ngirande, H., & Rachidi, M. P. (2016). Human resource practices as determinants of employees' Intention to leave: a study from a selected South African institution. *Investment management and financial innovations*, 13(3 (contin. 2)), 403-409.

Murray R A (1999). *Job Satisfaction of Professional and Paraprofessional Library Staff at Chapel Hill, North Carolina*. University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

Murtin, F., Mackenbach, J., Jasilionis, D., & d'Ercole, M. M. (2017). Inequalities in longevity by education in OECD countries: Insights from new OECD estimates.

Muyia, M. H., Wekullo, C. S., & Nafukho, F. M. (2018). Talent development in emerging economies through learning and development capacity building. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 20(4), 498-516.

Nadeem, M.S. (2009). The impact of work life conflict on job satisfaction of employees in Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 4(5), 63–83.

Natale, S. M., & Diamante, T. (2005). The five stages of executive coaching: Better process makes better practice. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 59, 361–374.

Naz, S., & Sharma, H. (2017). Job satisfaction among different working organisations: A literature review. *Research Journal of Social Science and Management*, 7(6), 29-37.

Ndevu, Z., & Muller, K. (2017). A conceptual framework for improving service delivery at local government in South Africa. *African Journal of Public Affairs*, 9(7), 13-24.

Netswera, F.G., Rankhumise, E.M. & Mavundla, T.R. 2005. 'Employee retention factors for South African higher education institutions: A case study', *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 3(2): 36–40. New York.

Ng'ethe, J. M., Namusonge, G. S., & Iravo, M. A. (2012). Influence of leadership style on academic staff retention in public universities in Kenya. *International journal of business and social science*, 3(21), 297-303.

Ngobeni, E. K., & Bezuidenhout, A. (2011). Engaging employees for improved retention at a higher education institution in South Africa. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(23), 9961.

Nguyen, C., & Duong, A. (2020). The Impact of Training and Development, Job Satisfaction and Job Performance on Young Employee Retention. *International Journal of Future Generation Communication and Networking*, 13(3), 373-386.

Nwokocha, I., & Iheriohanma, E. B. J. (2015). Nexus between leadership styles, employee retention and performance in organisations in Nigeria. *European Scientific Journal*, 11(13).

Nzukuma, K.C.C., & Bussin, M. (2011). Job-hopping amongst African Black senior management in South Africa. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management/SATydskrif vir Menslikehulpbronbestuur*, 9(1), 12. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm>.

Oakley, K. (2004). *Developing the evidence base for support of cultural and creative activities in South East England*. Guildford,, UK: South East England Cultural Consortium.

O'Brion, A., & Palmer, S. (2010). Exploring key aspects in the formation of coaching relationships: Initial indicators from the perspective of the coachee and the coach. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 3(2), 124-143.

Office of the Auditor General of South Africa (2016;2017;2018). Pretoria: The AG

Office of the Public Service Commission (2008), *The turnover rate of Heads of Departments and its implications for the Public Service*. Pretoria: The Commission.

Office of the Public Service Commission (2009), *Annual Report of the Office of the Public Service Commission*. Pretoria: The Commission.

Office of the Public Service Commission (2017). *Recruitment, retention, career pathing and utilization of senior management services members 'expertise and skills in public service*. Public service commission. Pretoria:

Office of the Public Service Commission (2018), *Pulse of the Public Service*. Pretoria: The Commission.

Oldham, G. R., Hackman, J. R., & Pearce, J. L. (1976). Conditions under which employees respond positively to enriched work. *Journal of applied psychology*, 61(4), 395.

Olivero, G., Bane, K. D., & Kopelman, R. E. (1997). Executive coaching as a transfer of training tool: Effects on productivity in a public agency. *Public Personnel Management*, 26, 461–469.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2005). On becoming a pragmatic researcher: The importance of combining quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8(5), 375-387.

O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. A. (1996). *Culture as social control: Corporations, cults, and commitment*. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews*, Vol. 18 (p. 157–200). Elsevier Science/JAI Press

O'Reilly, C. A., Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. F. (1991). People and organisational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organisation fit. *Academy of management journal*, 34(3), 487-516.

Osatuke, K., Yanovsky, B., & Ramsel, D. (2017). Executive coaching: New framework for evaluation. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 69(3), 172.

Oseghale, R.O., Malik, A., Nyuur, R.B., Pereira, V. and Ellis, F.Y.A. (2018), "Drivers of training and talent development: insights from oil and gas MNCs in Nigeria", *Human Resource Development International*, 21(5) 509-531.

Othman, A.A.E. and Khalil, M.H.M. (2018a), "Lean talent management: a novel approach for increasing creativity in architectural design firms", *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, 25 (10),1355-1375.

Ott, J. S. (1989). *The organisational culture perspective*. Belmont, CA.: Dorsey Press.

Paige, H. (2002). Examining the effectiveness of executive coaching on executives. *International Education Journal*,3(2),61 -70

Parasuraman, S., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2002). Toward reducing some critical gaps in work–family research. *Human resource management review*, 12(3), 299-312.

Parker-Wilkins, V. (2006). Business impact of executive coaching: demonstrating monetary value. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 38 (3),122-127

Passmore, J., & Fillery-Travis, A. (2011). A critical review of executive coaching research: a decade of progress and what's to come. *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 4(2), 70-88.

Patton, M.Q. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *Health Sciences Research*, 34, 1189-1208.

Paul, G.W., & Berry, D.M. (2013). The importance of executive leadership in creating a postmerged organisational culture conducive to effective performance management. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(1), 1–15.

Perkins, R. D. (2009). How executive coaching can change leader behaviour and improve meeting effectiveness: An exploratory study. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 61, 298–318. doi:10.1037/a0017842

- Perrow, C. (1979). *Organisational theory in a society of organisations*. Paris: Ecole Nationale d'Administration Publique.
- Peterson, D. B. (1993). *Measuring change: A psychometric approach to evaluating individual coaching outcomes*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology, San Francisco, CA.
- Pliopas, A. (2017). Drawing the triangle: How coaches manage ambiguities inherited in executive coaching. *BAR-Brazilian Administration Review*, 14(4).
- Pollard, C. W. (1996). *The soul of the firm*. Grand Rapids, MI.: Zondervan.
- Ponterotto, J. G. (2005). Qualitative research in counseling psychology: A primer on research paradigms and philosophy of science. *Journal of counseling psychology*, 52(2), 126.
- Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. (1973). Organisational, work, and personal factors in employee turnover and absenteeism. *Psychological bulletin*, 80(2), 151.
- Potgieter, I. L., & Snyman, A. M. (2018). Personal factors in talent retention in the South African banking industry. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 28(6), 455-461.
- Price, J. L. (1977). *The study of turnover*. Iowa City: Iowa State Press.
- Proctor, J. H., Lassiter, W. E., & Soyars, W. B. (1976). Prediction of Young U. S. Naval Officer Retention. *Personnel Psychology*, 29(4), 567-581.
- Pyszka, A., & Pilat, M. (2011). Applying Trompenaar's typology of organisational culture to the implementation of CSR strategy. *Journal of Intercultural Management*, 3(2), 113–125.
- Ramlall, S. (2003). Organisational application managing employee retention as a strategy for increasing organisational competitiveness. *Applied HRM research*, 8(2), 63-72.
- Reichheld, FF (1996). *The loyalty effect: The hidden force behind growth, profits, and lasting value*. Bain & Company, Inc, Boston
- Rekalde, I., Landeta, J., & Albizu, E. (2015). Determining factors in the effectiveness of executive coaching as a management development tool. *Management Decision*, 53 (8), 1677-1697
- Resnik, D. B. (2011). Scientific research and the public trust. *Science and engineering ethics*, 17(3), 399-409.
- Richardson, Frederick & Walker, C. (1948). *Human Relations in expanding company*. New Haven: Yale University

- Richman, A. L., Civian, J. T., Shannon, L. L., Hill, J. and Brennan, R. T. (2008), The Relationship of Perceived Flexibility, Supportive Work-life Policies, and Use of Formal Flexible Arrangements and Occasional Flexibility to Employee Engagement and Expected Retention, *Community, Work & Family*, 11(2): 183–197.
- Rincy, V. M., & Panchanatham, N. (2018). Influence of family related issues on work life balance. *South Asian Journal of Marketing & Management Research*, 8(3), 27-42.
- Rohlen, T. (1974). *For harmony and strength Japanese white-collar organisation in Anthropological perspective*. Berkeley: University of California Press
- Rondeau, K.V., & Wager, T.H. (2001). Impact of human resource management practices on nursing home performance. *Health Service Management Research*, 14(3),192–202.
- Runciman, C., Alexander, P., Rampedi, M., Moloto, B., Maruping, B., Khumalo, E., & Sibanda, S. (2016). *Counting police-recorded protests: based on South African Police Service data*. Johannesburg: Social Change Research Unit, University of Johannesburg, 13.
- Russell, R. F., & Stone, A. G. (2002). A review of servant leadership attributes: Developing a practical model. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 23(3), 145-157.
- Rust, R. T., Stewart, G. L., Miller, H., & Pielack, D. (1996). The satisfaction and retention of frontline employees. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 7(5), 62-80
- Ryan, R. (2010). Hanging onto high potentials. *Accounting Today*, 24, 10-38.
- Sabiu, M. S., Mei, T. S. & Joarder, M. H. R. (2016). Mediating effect of ethical climates on HRM practices and organisational performance: a proposed theoretical framework. *Asian Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies*, 8819(7), 95-101.
- Saffold, G. S. (1988). Culture traits, strength, and organisational performance: Moving beyond “strong” culture. *Academy of management review*, 13(4), 546-558.
- Samuel, M. O., & Chipunza, C. (2009). Employee retention and turnover: Using motivational variables as a panacea. *African Journal of Business Management*, 3(8), 410-415.
- Schein, E. H. (1985). *Organisational culture and leadership San Francisco*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schein, E. H. (1996). Leadership and organisational culture. *The leader of the future*, 11, 116.

- Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organisational culture and leadership* (Vol. 2). Hoboken, NJ.:John Wiley & Sons.
- Schein, E. H. 1985. *Organisational Culture and Leadership: A Dynamic View*. San Francisco. Sage
- Schein, Edgar H. 1992. *Organisational Culture and Leadership*. San Francisco. Sage
- Schlosser, B., Steinbrenner, D., Kumata, E., & Hunt, J. (2007). The Coaching impact study: measuring the value of executive coaching with commentary. *The International Journal of Coaching in Organisations*, 5(1), 140-160.
- Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel psychology*, 40(3), 437-453.
- Schneider, B., Guzzo, R. A., & Brief, A. P. (1992). Establishing a climate for productivity improvement. *Maynards Industrial Engineering Handbook*, 4th Edition New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Seawright, J., & Gerring, J. (2008). Case selection techniques in case study research a menu of qualitative and quantitative options. *Political Research Quarterly*, 61(2), 294-308.
- Seidman, I. (2006). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*. New York: Teachers college press.
- Seopa, N., Wöcke, A., & Leeds, C. (2015). The impact on the psychological contract of differentiating employees into talent pools. *Career Development International*.
- Sheridan, J. E. (1992). Organisational Culture And Employee Retention. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35(5), 1036-1056.
- Sheridan, R., & Howard, K. A. (2009). *Enhancing nonprofit leadership through coaching* LeaderSpring's executive coaching project. Retrieved from <http://www.leadershipthatworks.com/Public/OrganisationalTransformation/>
- Shipper, F., & Weer, C. (2011). A longitudinal investigation of the impact of positive and negative coaching on team effectiveness. In *2011 Academy of Management Annual Meeting*.
- Simmons, A. (2016). *Exploring millennial retention strategies and methods in the workplace*. Walden University Scholar Works
- Singh, D. (2019). A Literature Review on Employee Retention with Focus on Recent Trends, *International Journal of Scientific Research in Science and Technology (IJSRST)*, 6(1), 425-431.

- Singh, D. (2019). A literature review on employee retention with focus on recent trends. *International Journal of Scientific Research in Science and Technology*, 6(1), 425-431.
- Smith, P. C., Kendall, L. M., & Hulin, C. (1969). *The measurement of satisfaction in work and behavior*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Smither, J. W., London, M., Flautt, R., Vargas, Y., & Kucine, I. (2003). Can working with an executive coach improve multisource feedback ratings over time? A quasi-experimental field study. *Personnel Psychology*, 56, 23–44. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2003.tb00142.x
- Sokoya, S K (2000). Personal Predictors of Job Satisfaction for the Public Sector Manager. Implications for Management Practice and Development in a Developing Economy. *Journal of Business in Developing Nations*, 4(1), 40-53
- Sonesh, S., Coultas, C., Marlow, S., Lacerenza, C., Reyes, D., & Salas, E. (2015). Coaching in the wild: Identifying factors that lead to success. *Consulting Psychology Journal Practice and Research*, 67(3), 189-217.
- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences* (Vol. 3). Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage publications.
- State Diamond Trader Annual report 2018/2019 financial year. Republic of South Africa
- Stein, H. F. (2017). *Listening deeply: An approach to understanding and consulting in organisational culture*. Missouri: University of Missouri Press.
- Stern, L. R. (2004). Executive coaching: A working definition. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 56(3), 154–162.
- Stober, D. R. (2006). Coaching from the humanistic perspective. *Evidence based coaching handbook*. Hoboken, NJ.: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Stone, E.F. (Eds), *Job Satisfaction*. New York: Lexington Books.
- Sulaymonov, A. (2020). Flexible Working Practices: Urgency or Future?. *Modern Economy*, 11(07), 1342.
- Sun, P.Y.T., & Anderson, M.H. (2012). The importance of attributional integrity for transformational leadership studies. *Journal of Management Studies*, 49, 1001–1022.
- Taştan, S. B. (2017). Toxic Workplace Environment: In Search for the Toxic Behaviours in Organisations with a Research in Healthcare Sector. *Postmodern Openings*, 8(1), 83-109.

- Tekin, A. K., & Kotaman, H. (2013). The epistemological perspectives on action research. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 3(1), 81-91.
- Terblanche, N. N. H., Albertyn, R. M., & van Coller-Peter, S. (2017). Designing a coaching intervention to support leaders promoted into senior positions. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(1), 1-10.
- Thach, E. C. (2002). The impact of executive coaching and 360 feedback on leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 23(4), 205-214.
- Theeboom, T., Beersma, B., & Van Vianen, A. (2013). Does coaching work? A meta-analysis on the effects of coaching on individual level outcomes in an organisational context. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 9(1), 1–18.
- Thite M, & Russel B. (2010). Work organisation, human resource Practices and employee retention in Indian call centers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*. 48(3), 356-374.
- Thompson, C., & Gregory, J. B. (2012). Managing Millennials: A framework for improving attraction, motivation, and retention. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, 15, 237-246. doi:10.1080/10887156.2012.730444
- Tietze, S. & Musson, G. (2002), When 'Work' meets 'Home': Temporal Flexibility as Lived Experience, *Time & Society*, 11(2/3): 315–334.
- Tomlinson, A. (2002). High Technology workers want Respect, Survey Canadian *Human Resources Reporter*, 15(3), 2.
- Tourangeau, A. E., Wong, M., Saari, M., & Patterson, E. (2015). Generation-specific incentives and disincentives for nurse faculty to remain employed. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 71, 1019-1031. doi:10.1111/jan.12582
- Turner, E. and Hawkins, P. (2016). Multi-stakeholder contracting in executive/business coaching: an analysis of practice and recommendations for gaining maximum value. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching and Mentoring*, 14(2), 48-65. Retrieved 13 September 2016 from <http://ijebcm.brookes.ac.uk/>
- Vaiman, V., Scullion, H., & Collings, D. (2012). Talent management decision making. *Management Decision*, 50(5),925-941
- Van Rooij, B., & Fine, A. (2018). Toxic corporate culture: Assessing organisational processes of deviancy. *Administrative Sciences*, 8(3), 23.
- Veloso, E. F. R., da Silva, R. C., Dutra, J. S., Fischer, A. L., & Trevisan, L. N. (2014). Talent retention strategies in different organisational contexts and intention of talents to remain in the company. *Journal on Innovation and Sustainability*, 5(1), 49-61.

- Vidal, M.E.S., Valle, R.S., & Aragon, B.M.I. (2007). Antecedents of repatriates' job satisfaction and its influence on turnover intentions: Evidence from Spanish repatriated managers. *Journal of Bus.Res.*,60, 1272-1281.
- Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York: Wiley.
- Wakabi, B. M. (2016). Leadership style and staff retention in organisations. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 5(1), 412-416.
- Wales, S. (2003). Why coaching? *Journal of Change Management*, 3(3), 275-282.
- Walker-Fraser, A. (2011). An HR perspective on executive coaching for organisational learning. *International Journal of Evidence Based Coaching & Mentoring*, 9(2).
- Wanberg, C. R., Welsh, L., & Hezlett, S. (2003). Mentoring: A review and directions for future research. *Research in personnel and human resources management*, 22(2), 39-124.
- Warner, W.L. & Low, J (1947). *The social system of modern factory*. New Haven: Yale University Press
- Wasylyshyn, K. (2003). Executive coaching: An outcome study. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 55(2), 94-106.
- Wasylyshyn, K. M., Shorey, H. S., & Chaffin, J. S. (2012). Patterns of leadership behaviour: Implications for successful executive coaching outcomes. *The Coaching Psychologist*, 8(2), 74-85.
- Weber, M. 1930. *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*. New York: Scribners.
- Whitmore, J. (2009). 'Business coaching international: unlocking the secrets and the power, *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, 2(2), 176-179.
- Whittemore, R., Chase, S. K., & Mandle, C. L. (2001). Validity in qualitative research. *Qualitative health research*, 11(4), 522-537.
- Whyte, W.F. (1949). The social structure of the restaurant. *American Journal of Sociology*. 54, 302 -310
- Wilkes, C. G. (1996). *Jesus on leadership: Becoming a servant leader*. Nashville, Tenn.: LifeWay Press.
- Wilkins, A. L., & Ouchi, W. G. (1983). Efficient cultures: Exploring the relationship between culture and organisational performance. *Administrative science quarterly*, 468-481.
- Williams, H. E. (2012). Influential Managers in the Public Sector: How Can OD Prepare Managers in the Public Sector for Today's Challenging Working Environment. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Ethics*, 9(5), 125-136.

Wilson, J., & Gislason M. (2010). *Coaching skills for non-profit managers and leaders: Developing people to achieve your mission*. San Francisco: Compass Point Non-profit Services, Jossey-Bass.

Yadav T., & Rani S. (2015). Work life balance: Challenges and opportunities. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 1(11), 680-684

Yin, R. K. (1989). Case study research: Design and methods, revised edition. *Applied Social Research Methods Series*, 5. York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Zaitouni, M. (2016). Creating positive outcomes through perceived investment in employee development: Evidence from Kuwait. *International Journal of Business and Social Research*, 6(1), 10-21.

Zeithaml, V. A., Parasuraman, A., & Berry, L. L. (1985): Problems and Strategies in Services Marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 49 (Spring 1985): 33–46.

Zuber A (2001). A career in food service cons: high turnover, *Nations Restaurant News*, 35 (21),147-148.

APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Introduction

The researcher will introduce herself and authenticate her research through a letter from the University. At this stage, the research will outline the purpose of the research and the reason why it is necessary to be undertaken, what the benefits will be for the different stakeholders that are involved including the research participant. The researcher will then provide a detailed process of how the information obtained from the study will be processed and eventually published. It is at this stage that the researcher will confirm whether the research participant is still willing to continue with the study. In order to deal with ethical considerations, the researcher will indicate to the participant that their participation will remain anonymous and confidential. The discussions between the researcher and participant will be recorded. A consent form will be signed by the research participant.

SECTION A: RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- Give a brief background about your career and the reasons why you decided to work for the public service?
- What is your understanding of retention and how is it influenced your staying in the organisation
- Taking me through some of the factors that contribute to your staying with the public service
- What are some of the key elements that you consider important when it comes to retention factors? How has your experiences been regarding this factors?
- What is your understanding of executive coaching, tell me of your experiences where you were coached and you coached others. What type of coaching did you receive. In your view do you think coaching can influence one's decision to either stay of leave an organisation
- Being a senior manager/executive, would you recommend coaching as an intervention on the public service (why) and to who and by who.

- What do you think are some of the benefits of coaching and how would the public service benefit or not benefit , please provide reasons for your answer

SECTION B: EXECUTIVE COACHING

- For how long have you been coached by either an external or internal coach?
- Please tell me more about your experience of executive coaching?
- What were your objectives in taking up coaching?
- What were the barriers, if any, to learning from learning?
- What were the outcomes of the coaching process that you noticed?
- How did coaching influence your stay with the organisation?
- How long have you been with the organisation since you were coached?

SECTION C: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

The researcher will confirm the following details with the research participant;

- (a) Position
- (b) Tenure

The researcher thanks the participant and request that if there are areas of further clarity, the participant will be informed and contacted for assistance.

APPENDIX B: LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This serves to confirm that Ms ML Nkhumishe is a registered student for the Masters in Management: Business & Executive Coaching at the University of Witwatersrand. She is pursuing a research study with the following topic: **The retention of Senior Managers in the South African public sector: implications for coaching.**

Should you require further information on her research project please do not hesitate to contact the University at the following (011) 717 3000.

Faculty Office
Law, Commerce and Management

APPENDIX C: MM RESEARCH CONSENT FORM

THE RETENTION OF SENIOR MANAGERS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SECTOR: IMPLICATIONS FOR COACHING

Who I am

Hello, I am (Linda Nkhumishe), I am conducting research for the purpose of completing my Masters in Management: Business and Executive Coaching at Wits Business School

What I am doing

I am conducting research on the role of coaching interventions on retention of senior managers and executives in the public sector. I am conducting a qualitative study with (16 participants to establish to establish whether coaching interventions have an influence on the retention factors relevant to Senior Managers/ Executives in the Public Sector.

Your participation

I am asking you whether you will allow me to conduct one interview with you. If you agree, I will ask you to participate in one interview for approximately one hour. I am also asking you to give us permission to tape record the interview. I tape record interviews so that I can accurately record what is said.

Please understand that **your participation is voluntary** and you are not being forced to take part in this study. The choice of whether to participate or not, is yours alone. If you choose not take part, you will not be affected in any way whatsoever. If you agree to participate, you may stop participating in the research at any time and tell me that you don't want to go continue. If you do this there will also be no penalties and you will NOT be prejudiced in ANY way.

Confidentiality

Any study records that identify you will be kept confidential to the extent possible by law. The records from your participation may be reviewed by people responsible for making sure that research is done properly, including my academic supervisor/s. (All of these people are required to keep your identity confidential.)

All study records will be destroyed after the completion and marking of my thesis. I will refer to you by a code number or pseudonym (another name) in the thesis and any further publication.

Risks/discomforts

At the present time, I do not see any risks in your participation. The risks associated with participation in this study are no greater than those encountered in daily life.

Benefits

There are no immediate benefits to you from participating in this study. However, this study will be extremely helpful to us in understanding (*insert research objective*).

If you would like to receive feedback on the study, I can send you the results of the study when it is completed sometime after April 2016.

Who to contact if you have been harmed or have any concerns

This research has been approved by the Wits Business School. If you have any complaints about ethical aspects of the research or feel that you have been harmed in any way by participating in this study, please contact the Research Office Manager at the Wits Business School, Mmabatho Leeuw Meisie.Moya@wits.ac.za

If you have concerns or questions about the research you may call my academic research supervisor Mrs Esther Wallace (011 717 3000).

CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research on Retention of Senior Managers in the public sector: implications for coaching. I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop participating at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally in the immediate or short term.

I understand that my participation will remain confidential.

.....

Signature of participant

Date:.....

I hereby agree to the tape-recording of my participation in the study.

.....

Signature of participant

Date:.....

APPENDIX D: LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

Position of participant	Organisation (A, B, C, D)
Chief Executive Officer (s)	X 2
Executive Mangers	X 4
Senior Managers	X 10
Total	16