

**TALENT MANAGEMENT AS A PREDICTOR OF POSITIVE
WORK RELATED OUTCOMES FOR ACADEMIC STAFF IN
SOUTH AFRICAN HEIs**

By

SAUROMBE MUSAWENKOSI DONIA

Student Number:

22625453

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MASTER OF COMMERCE IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

In the

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

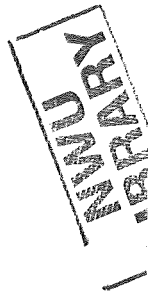
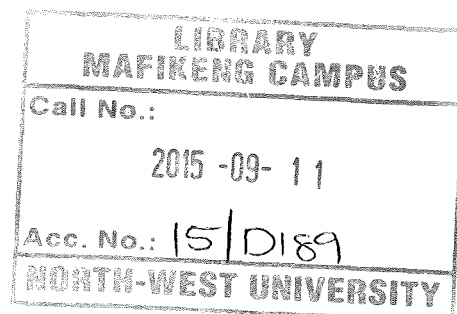
FACULTY OF COMMERCE AND ADMINISTRATION

At the

NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY (MAFIKENG CAMPUS)

Supervisor: Professor Nicolene Barkhuizen

Due date: November 2014



DECLARATION

I, **Musawenkosi Donia Saurombe**, declare that this study entitled “Talent Management as a predictor of positive work-related outcomes for academic staff in South African Higher Education Institutions”, for the Master’s Degree in Human Resource Management in the Department of Industrial Psychology, School of Management Sciences, Faculty of Commerce and Administration, at the North West University (Mafikeng Campus), hereby declare that, the submission of this thesis has not been submitted by me or anyone else for the Degree at this or any other University before, that this is my own work, and the materials consulted have been properly acknowledged.

SIGNATURE 

STUDENT NO 22625453

DATE 01/04/2015

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere gratitude goes to all the following wonderful individuals that have supported me throughout this journey in pursuit of my Master's degree:

- My supervisor, Professor Nicolene Barkhuizen, who has done a meticulous job at guiding me through my research. I have learnt so much from her and I am thankful for having been allowed the opportunity to work with her through my study. I am grateful for her having taken the time to further assist me with obtaining the results for my statistical analysis, as well as being patient and kind towards me. She has been a real support system and a star through it all, even if she may not realize this.
- All the participants who took time out of their busy schedules to willingly complete my questionnaire. I appreciate their efforts and honest responses;
- My best friend Bophelo Tekolo who assisted me with numbering my questionnaires and preparing a spreadsheet for statistical analysis from the questionnaires that I got back;
- My Higher Education Institution, North West University for providing me with additional funding in order to execute and complete this study;
- My parents who have seen me through this hectic research period by motivating me and going out of their way to assist me financially, despite the many struggles and challenges that they are faced with.
- Above all, I thank God for giving me this opportunity that has not been possible for many others who yearn for it. I am nothing without God.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my parents, Christina Saurombe and George Saurombe. You have sacrificed so much to provide me with a good education and a good starting point for my career. Without you, the completion of this dissertation would not have been possible and I thank you for all your support throughout my academic years. You have been my support system, encouraging me to carrying on even during the times when I felt weary and discouraged. You have forfeited several of your own desires in life, simply to ensure that I have a good foundation for life through education.

I thank you from the depths of my heart for all the money, time and effort you have invested on me, especially towards my education. Indeed it has not been easy, but you have always put me first. It is for this reason that this study has been conducted with zeal and excitement, knowing that it would make you proud. Even when I cannot find it within myself to carry on, you have been my anchor and as such, I have not relented.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xiii
ABSTRACT	xiv
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT	1
1.3 BRIEF HISTORICAL BACKGROUND ON TALENT MANAGEMENT	3
1.3.1 Talent Management of Academic Staff in Higher Education Institutions	5
1.3.2 Talent Management and Happiness	6
1.3.3 Talent Management and Meaningfulness.....	7
1.3.4 Talent Management and Turnover Intentions	7
1.3.5 A conceptual model of Talent Management, Turnover Intent, Happiness, and Meaningfulness.	9
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	10
1.5 EXPECTED CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY	11
1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	11
1.6.1 General objective.....	12
1.6.2 Specific objectives.....	12
1.7 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	13
1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN	14
1.9 Research Approach	15
1.9.1 Research Method.....	16
1.10 CHAPTER DIVISION.....	21
1.11 CONCLUSION.....	22
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	23

2.1 INTRODUCTION	23
2.1.1 Background	23
2.2 TALENT MANAGEMENT	25
2.2.1 Definition of talent management	26
2.2.2 Talent Management Practices	27
2.2.3 Talent management in an academic context.....	41
2.3 THE POSITIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND HAPPINESS.....	44
2.3.1 The positive impact of talent management on happiness.....	44
2.3.2 The positive returns of a happy workforce.....	45
2.4 THE POSITIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND MEANINGFULNESS.....	47
2.4.1 How meaningfulness is influenced by talent management	47
2.4.2 Meaningfulness in the workplace.....	48
2.4.3 Meaningfulness of work models	49
2.5 THE NEGATIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTION.....	51
2.5.1 Using talent management to reduce employee turnover	52
2.5.2 Talent management strategy as a key to retention	53
2.5.3 Turnover intention model.....	54
2.6 THE NEGATIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND TURNOVER INTENTION	55
2.7 THE NEGATIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEANINGFULNESS AND TURNOVER INTENTION	55
2.8 THE EXTENT TO WHICH HAPPINESS MODERATES THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS.....	57
2.9 THE EXTENT TO WHICH MEANINGFULNESS MODERATES THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS	59
2.9.1 Challenges associated with retaining talent.....	60
2.9.2 Why employees that are happy and find meaning in their work are your greatest sustainable advantage	61
2.10 DEVELOPMENT OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	63
2.11 CONCLUSION	70
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS	71

3.1 INTRODUCTION	71
3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM	71
3.3 DESCRIPTION OF INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN .	72
3.3.1 Description of the strategy of inquiry.....	72
3.3.2 The basic characteristics of quantitative research	73
3.4 A CLASSIFICATION OF THE PROPOSED STUDY’S OVERALL RESEARCH DESIGN	74
3.5 SAMPLING	76
3.5.1 Units of Analysis	76
3.5.2 Target population	76
3.5.3 Sampling method.....	77
3.6 DATA COLLECTION	78
3.6.1 Specific attributes and characteristics of the units of analysis	78
3.6.2 Factors that hamper access to the required data source.....	79
3.6.3 Specific approach, method and instruments to be used in the collection of the data	79
3.6.4 Specific form of data to be collected.....	81
3.6.5 Pre- / Pilot Testing.....	82
3.6.6 Who is involved with the collection of the data?	82
3.6.7 Length of the data collection period.....	83
3.6.8 Research Procedure	83
3.7 DATA ANALYSIS.....	84
3.7.1 Recording, storing and coding of the data gathered.....	84
3.7.2 Preparation of data for analysis	84
3.7.3 Analysis techniques	84
3.7.4 Specific statistical techniques to be used	86
3.8 ASSESSING AND DEMONSTRATING THE QUALITY AND RIGOUR OF THE PROPOSED RESEARCH DESIGN.....	87
3.8.1 Reliability	87
3.8.2 Validity	88
3.8.3 Rigour.....	88
3.8.4 Generalisability	88
3.8.5 Researcher bias.....	89
3.8.6 Limitations.....	89

3.9 RESEARCH ETHICS.....	90
3.10 CONCLUSION.....	91
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS.....	92
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	92
4.2 PHASE 1: SAMPLE DEMOGRAPHICS.....	92
4.3 PHASE 2: RESULTS RELATING TO THE INSTRUMENTS.....	102
4.3.1 Introduction.....	102
4.3.2 RESULTS: HUMAN CAPITAL INDEX.....	102
4.3.3 Sample Adequacy and Sphericity.....	102
4.3.4 Factor Analysis.....	103
4.3.5 Descriptive Statistics and Reliabilities of the HCI.....	105
4.3.6 Summary of Results.....	106
4.4 RESULTS: GENERAL HAPPINESS SCALE.....	107
4.4.1 Sample Adequacy and Sphericity.....	107
4.4.2 Factor Analysis.....	108
4.4.3 Descriptive Statistics and Reliabilities of the GHS.....	109
4.4.4 Summary of Results.....	110
4.5 Result: MEANING OF LIFE QUESTIONNAIRE.....	110
4.5.1 Sample Adequacy and Sphericity.....	111
4.5.2 Factor Analysis.....	111
4.5.3 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability of the MLQ.....	112
4.5.4 Summary of results.....	113
4.6 RESULT: EMPLOYEE RETENTION SCALE.....	114
4.6.1 Sample Adequacy and Sphericity.....	114
4.6.2 Factor Analysis.....	115
4.6.3 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability of the ERS.....	115
4.6.4 Summary of results.....	116
4.7 PHASE 3: TESTING OF HYPOTHESES.....	117
4.7.1 Hypothesis 1.....	117
4.7.2 Hypothesis 2.....	118
4.7.3 Hypothesis 3.....	120
4.7.4 Hypothesis 4.....	122
4.7.5 Hypothesis 5.....	123

4.7.6 Hypothesis 6	123
4.7.7 Hypothesis 7	124
4.7.8 Summary of Results	126
4.8 CONCLUSION.....	127
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS.....	128
5.1 INTRODUCTION	128
5.2 HYPOTHESIS 1: THERE IS A POSITIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND HAPPINESS.	128
5.3 HYPOTHESIS 2: THERE IS A POSITIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND MEANINGFULNESS	129
5.4 HYPOTHESIS 3: THERE IS A NEGATIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENT	129
5.5 HYPOTHESIS 4: THERE IS A NEGATIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND TURNOVER INTENTION.	130
5.6 HYPOTHESIS 5: THERE IS A NEGATIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEANINGFULNESS AND TURNOVER INTENTION	131
5.7 HYPOTHESIS 6: HAPPINESS MODERATES THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTION TO A CERTAIN EXTENT	132
5.8 HYPOTHESIS 7: MEANING MODERATES THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTION TO A CERTAIN EXTENT	133
5.8 CONCLUSION.....	134
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	135
6.1 INTRODUCTION	135
6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY	135
6.2.1 Purpose of the Study.....	135
6.2.2 Research Objectives	135
6.2.3 Content of the Study.....	135
6.3 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE STUDY	137
6.3.1 Conclusions from the Literature.....	137
6.3.2 Conclusions from Statistical Analysis.....	140
6.4 LIMITATIONS.....	140
6.4.1 Limitations as a Result of the Research Design.....	141
6.4.2 Limitations as a Result of the Data Collection Method	141

6.4.3 Limitations as a Result of the Sampling Method	142
6.4.4 Limitations Resulting from the Sample Size and Characteristics	142
6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....	143
6.5.1 The relationship between the concepts.....	143
6.5.2 Effect the study has on the organisation.....	144
6.5.3 Practical Applications of the outcome of the study.....	145
6.6 CONCLUSION	145

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1	Hypothesised Model of the Relationship between the Concepts of this Study.	9
Figure 2.1	The results commitment cycle	29
Figure 2.2	The Workforce Planning Cycle	32
Figure 2.3	A model encouraging the reduction of turnover of high-performing staff	43
Figure 2.4	Determining factors of how meaning is found in work	50
Figure 2.5	Organisational practices that nurture meaningfulness	51
Figure 2.6	Conceptual Model Showing Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment as Determining Factors of Intention to Quit	54
Figure 2.7	The positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Happiness	64
Figure 2.8	The positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Meaningfulness	65
Figure 2.9	The negative significant relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intention	66
Figure 2.10	The negative significant relationship between Happiness and Turnover Intent	67
Figure 2.11	The negative significant relationship between Meaningfulness and Turnover Intent	67
Figure 2.12	The extent to which happiness moderates the relationship between Talent management and Turnover Intent	68
Figure 2.13	The extent to which meaningfulness moderates the relationship between Talent management and Turnover Intent	69
Figure 4.1	The Correlation Coefficients as per the Hypotheses	127
Figure 5.1	The Acceptance and Rejections of the Hypotheses in the study	134

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1	Frequency Distribution for Gender	93
Table 4.2	Frequency Distribution for Marital Status	93
Table 4.3	Frequency Distribution for Ethnicity	94
Table 4.4	Frequency Distribution of Home Language	94
Table 4.5	Frequency distribution of Age	95
Table 4.6	Frequency Distribution of Highest Qualifications	95
Table 4.7	Frequency Distribution of Job Types	96
Table 4.8	Frequency Distribution of the Job Title	96
Table 4.9	Frequency Distribution of the Job Focus	97
Table 4.10	Frequency Distribution of Years at Current Institution	97
Table 4.11	Frequency Distribution of Years in Current Job	97
Table 4.12	Frequency Distribution of Promotions in Last 5 Years	98
Table 4.13	Frequency Distribution of Employment Basis	98
Table 4.14	The Frequency Distribution of Working Hours	99
Table 4.15	The Frequency Distribution of Semester-time only/ Not	99
Table 4.16	Frequency Distribution of Typical Weekly Work Hours	100
Table 4.17	Frequency Distribution of the Hours Worked 'Outside' Working Hours	100
Table 4.18	The Frequency Distribution of Full Annual Leave Entitlement Used	101
Table 4.19	KMO and Bartlett's test of inter-item correlation	103
Table 4.20	Total Variance Explained for HCI	104
Table 4.21	Rotated Component Matrix for HCI	104
Table 4.22	Descriptive Statistics of the HCI	106
Table 4.23	KMO and Bartlett's test of inter-item correlation	108
Table 4.24	Total Variance Explained for GHS	108
Table 4.25	Component Matrix for GHS	109
Table 4.26	Descriptive Statistics for GHS	109
Table 4.27	KMO & Bartlett's Test of the inter-item correlation of MLQ	111
Table 4.28	Total Variance Explained of MLQ	112
Table 4.29	Component Matrix for MLQ	112
Table 4.30	Descriptive Statistics of the MLQ	112

Table 4.31	KMO and Bartlett's test of inter-item correlation	114
Table 4.32	Total Variance Explained for the ERS	115
Table 4.33	Component Matrix for ERS	115
Table 4.34	Descriptive Statistics of the ERS	116
Table 4.35	Regression Analysis between Happiness and Talent Management Practices	117
Table 4.36	Regression Analysis for Talent Management and Meaningfulness	119
Table 4.37	Regression Analysis for Burnout and Dispositional Employability	120
Table 4.38	Regression Analysis for Happiness and Turnover Intention	122
Table 4.39	Regression Analysis for Meaning and Intention to Quit	123
Table 4.40	Regression Analysis for the effect of Happiness on the relationship between Talent Management and Intention to Quit	124
Table 4.41	Regression Analysis for the effect of Meaningfulness on the relationship between Talent Management and Intention to Quit	125

LIST OF ACRONYMS

CHE	Council on Higher Education
CIPD	The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ERS	Employee Retention Scale
GHS	General Happiness Scale
HCI	Human Capital Index
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HESA	Higher Education South Africa
HR	Human Resources
HRM	Human Resource Management
HRT	Hormone Replacement Therapy
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MLQ	Meaning of Life Questionnaire
N	Total Population
n	Sample Size
PAF	Principle Axis Factoring
P-O	Person-Organisation
SE	Standard Error
SHRM	Strategic Human Resource Management
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TM	Talent Management
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America

ABSTRACT

No subject in the past 15 years has received as much attention in the human resource management literature as talent management (Elegbe, 2010). In spite of a decade of debate around the importance of talent management for success in global business, much of the literature in this field is practitioner or consultancy based, not well grounded in research and often over-reliant on anecdotal evidence. Therefore, the concept of talent management is openly criticised as in need of adequate definition and theoretical development, principally in the global context (Scullion & Collings, 2011). This study aims to investigate talent management, happiness, meaningfulness, and intention to quit in academic staff in Higher Education Institutions.

A cross-sectional survey research design was followed with data collected from the academic staff members (n=160) from ten Higher Education Institutions in South Africa. The Human Capital Index, General Happiness Scale, Meaning of Life Questionnaire, as well as the Employee Retention Scale have been administered for the purpose of this study. Exploratory Factor Analysis, Reliability Analyses, Descriptive Analyses, as well as Regression Analysis were applied.

In line with the results that were obtained in this study, significant relationships exist between the following variables:

- A positive relationship between talent management and happiness.
- A positive relationship between talent management and meaningfulness.
- A negative relationship between talent management and turnover intention.
- A negative relationship between happiness and turnover intention.
- A positive relationship between meaningfulness and turnover intention.

The moderator results read as follows:

- From the Multiple Regression analysis conducted on the relationship between talent management and the intention to quit it has determined that happiness is statistically not a significant mediator for the relationship between talent management and the intention to quit.
- According to the Multiple Regression analysis conducted on the relationship between talent management and the intention to quit it has determined that meaningfulness is statistically not a significant mediator for the relationship between talent management and the intention to quit.

As far as could be concluded, there have not been voluminous studies conducted on the relationship between talent management, happiness, meaningfulness, and intention to quit in academic staff in Higher Education Institutions in South Africa. This study, therefore seeks to identify whether a significant relationship indeed exists between the concepts, and whether the study makes a substantial contribution towards the body of knowledge surrounding the relationship between the four concepts in a South African context. Moreover, the study of these measures of organisational energy, which can be applied in the South African context, will prove to be valuable to those interested in the relationship between talent management, happiness, meaningfulness and the intention to quit in the workplace.

The keywords used in this study are: Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness/Meaning of life, Turnover Intention /the Intention to quit, Higher Education Institution, Academic Staff.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a preview of what the overall study entails. Each arena that has been covered in the subsequent chapters is briefly outlined in this introductory chapter. The chapter outlines the problem statement, historical background, research questions, expected contribution of the study, research objectives, research hypotheses, research design, as well as the arrangement of all the research chapters as an introduction to the study.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Turnover intention is a critical concern for numerous organisations. Employees with high turnover intentions are usually most likely to leave the organisation, provide poor service to customers and may gravely undermine customer retention. The general notion is that when people leave their jobs it is because they are unhappy. Employee turnover has substantial costs for every organisation in terms of costs of lost productivity, training, lost business, and sourcing a replacement. In addition to the financial costs elucidated, turnover has also been made known to have a dramatic impact on workers who linger with the company. It has been determined that turnover can diminish organisational commitment among workers remaining with the company. So not only is turnover expensive comparative to displaced workers, there is also a potentially significant negative impact for organisations linked with their remaining workforce.

For those who plan to leave their employer, the key reasons reported for turnover are: unhappy relationship with the management and inability to fit in with the company culture. A recent study divulges that 10% of the global workforce is disenchanted with their organisations. These individuals have low intellectual, emotional, or motivational relations with the firm. As such, they are likely to leave the firm as soon as the opportunity arises (Hatun, 2010).

Career advancement is another major reason for the turnover of talented employees, lured by the inflated job titles and salary packages offered by firms desperate to attract talent (Scullion & Collings, 2011). This suggests that employees who are unhappy with the way, in which their career is progressing, are more likely to search for better opportunities, which lays out as a disadvantage for the organisation they would be working for. At present, it has become more crucial for individuals to find meaning and purpose in the work they do. Organisations which do not provide their employees with meaningful job prospects are more prone to experience turnover among their employees. Organisations can dramatically reduce employee turnover by refining the quality of employment conditions for their employees in order to keep them as happy and content as possible. The link between turnover and cost makes a clear business case of the need of tools and systems to support exceedingly strategic efforts at retention (Deb, 2005).

The meaningful workplace was thought to be the ideal collection of characteristics that makes a working individual feel happy, content, and fulfilled. Chalofsky's (2003) definition was adopted: "Meaning at work implies a relationship between the person and the organization or the workplace, in terms of commitment, loyalty, and dedication" (p. 73). In his book *Flow*, Csikszentmihalyi (1990) thought that a good reason for living is the happiness of human beings, or preferably that happiness is a good measure for a life well lived and meaningfulness. This is what the author termed creating of meaning – to bring order in the significance of things (the contents of the mind) and to have purpose. As a result, "unless a person takes charge of them, both work and free time, are likely to be disappointing" (p. 163).

Organisations need to decide how much it would be worth investing to reduce the cost of turnover intent. A best practice step that strategic leaders should take to understand retention or turnover drivers is to carefully assess their current workforce, especially the A-list players, for factors that both attract and repel them (Schiemann, 2009).

Managers must have the information necessary to understand and predict employee behaviour at any point in time and over time. Managers must also be able to assess and predict employees' intent to stay, especially critical employees' intent to stay (Nelms &

Mahan, 2012). Talent management is about taking a long term perspective. This calls for identifying and establishing a pool of talents within the organisation and this includes key roles. The scheme to succeed requires the support and commitment of top management and also needs to be pitched to the employees for them to aspire to be a part of the scheme. But talent management on its own will not help the cause of retention; it must be associated with other factors like career progression, more opportunities to demonstrate competence, encouraging networking among the participants and so on (Akanda, 2013).

1.3 BRIEF HISTORICAL BACKGROUND ON TALENT MANAGEMENT

No subject in the past 15 years has received as much attention in the human resource management literature as talent management (Elegbe, 2010). Organisations have always sought to employ the people they consider to be most suitable for the vacancy they hold. In this regard, the acquisition of talented individuals is not a new observable fact. However, the concept was officially born in 1997 when McKinsey commissioned research on the global “war for talent” to review the procedures companies in the United States were embracing on recruiting the best performing employees (Elegbe, 2010). It found that organisations were aggressively competing for talented people in the context of the favourable economic climate and what made the most difference was a deep belief held by leaders that competitive advantage could be accomplished from employing the best talent. The challenge was to manage the talent effectively. Since the research was published, academic curiosity in the subject has grown, and many organisations have sought to embrace talent management strategies.

Over the preceding 10 years many organisations have sought to develop talent management programmes to redress their recruitment and retention difficulties and to harness the skills of their finest employees. This is predominantly important in the global economy which is highly fleeting and fluid, and where supply shortages of skilled workers exist. Effective talent management strategies will improve profitability and increase shareholder value.

Human Resource (HR) managers today are expected to identify talent gaps and forecast shortfalls in advance based on their experience and based on the variations taking place in the organisation. They have to focus their plans and initiatives to help expand the availability of needed talent and knowledge. Recent surveys specify that more than 62% of HR managers are worried about the shortages of Talent Company-wide (The Economist, 2006). HR Managers should bear in mind the following factors which are responsible for employees changing jobs frequently:

1. Rapid changes in the world economy.
2. Strong and continuous economic growth.
3. Globalisation, making easy the business boundaries.
4. Most competitive job market.
5. New competency requirements.
6. Rise in the outsourcing and off shoring of expertise.
7. Unexpected economic meltdown and recession.
8. Cascading effect of the above factors on employment potential, causing wage cuts, lay offs, pink slips etc.

In spite of a decade of debate around the importance of talent management for success in global business, much of the literature in this field is practitioner or consultancy based, not well grounded in research and often over-reliant on anecdotal evidence. Therefore, the concept of talent management is openly criticised as in need of adequate definition and theoretical development, principally in the global context (Scullion & Collings, 2011). One of the key challenges which talent management has experienced in establishing its academic merits over the past decade has been the unresolved issue around its conceptual and intellectual boundaries (Scullion & Collings, 2011). Talent, top talent, critical talent, and talent management are all related to the topic in question. But therein lays a problem in discussing talent: it seems that everyone has their own idea of what the word talent describes or captures. Broadly speaking, talent refers to the skills or capabilities that allow a person to perform a certain task (Hatum, 2010).

According to Deb (2005), talent management can be defined as follows:

1. Talent management is a strategic approach to the optimisation and alignment of human capital. It symbolises the next step in the evolution of Human Resources. With the dawn of HR, we saw companies take a more professional approach to managing people, implementing recruiting and retention programmes, looking at outsourcing, etc.
2. Talent management is about programmes aimed at the people who occupy, or have the potential to occupy, key positions. These programmes comprise talent reviews, succession planning and leadership development aimed at the broader employee population.
3. Talent Management is an integrated process that proactively plans and forecasts future talent needs, builds an organisational image to attract top talent, accelerates new hires' time to contribution, helps to retain key players, keeps the entire workforce engaged, and facilitates the most effective deployment of talent within the organisation.

Talent management is primarily about identifying, developing and using people who can provide critical intellectual energy ingredients (Deb, 2005).

1.3.1 Talent Management of Academic Staff in Higher Education Institutions

South African Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) are not immune to the war for talent. A growing number of universities are running leadership programmes in reaction to sector challenges while facing hindrances within their own institutions. In the increasingly competitive and financially inhibited, higher education sector, universities and colleges are placing a growing emphasis on nurturing future leaders from within their ranks to gain an advantage over rival institutions. To this end, a number of institutions are introducing talent management programmes in the belief that a systematic style to developing new deans and heads of schools is vital to attracting and retaining the best students and academics (Cook, 2012).

However, introducing a talent management programme in a higher education setting is not without its challenges. A number of staff in charge of running talent management programmes acknowledge, privately, that many academics are reluctant to participate and perceive such initiatives as a distraction from their research activities, potentially elitist, diverse, and a concept that belongs in the corporate world rather than the field of higher education. Regardless of awareness of the contribution of talented faculty and staff in propelling institutional progress, little formal programming in higher education currently supports strategic talent management practices. As a result, universities lag behind industry in the development of practices to develop and retain talent (Evans & Chun, 2012).

In education, the ‘talent’ could be considered as the critical factor in school success. A focus on talent management will contribute to other strategic objectives, such as constructing a high-performance learning environment and constructing leadership in depth in the school. This is different from mere succession planning and filling typical hierarchical leadership roles that exist today, as it is a process of providing able and talented people who will create new and different leadership roles in the future (Davies & Davies, 2011).

Talent is at the core of the higher education enterprise. As research universities expand the borders of knowledge through creativity and innovation, talent is the driver that differentiates institutional outcomes. Creative capital permits the university to accelerate the pace of progress, prepare students for global citizenship and careers, and ultimately transform the fabric of society (Evans & Chun, 2012).

1.3.2 Talent Management and Happiness

According to Bakker (2013), Seligman’s book on authentic happiness acted as an important catalyst which sparked and popularised much of the contemporary interest in positive psychology. Seligman argues that there are three distinct forms of a happy life. The first being, the “pleasant life,” is based in hedonic principles, and originates from the pursuit and experience of positive emotions. The second form, the “good life,” originates from the

pursuit, experience, and enjoyment of the things that people value and are good at. Seligman categorised the “good life” in terms of engagement and flow. The third form, the “meaningful life,” provides for the highest and most lasting type of happiness. A meaningful life, according to Seligman, originates from the pursuit and experience of doing the things one values and believes in (Bakker, 2013). Unlike hedonism which is associated with the “pleasant life,” meaningfulness is associated with “eudemonia,” a form of happiness attained by living virtuously, engaging in meaningful activities and achieving goals that have intrinsic merit.

Although Seligman has in recent times extended the three forms of the happy life to include relationships and achievement, the eudemonic elements associated with engagement, meaning, purpose, and achievement remain recognised as core dimensions of happiness and well-being (Bakker, 2013). This is why custodians of Talent Management, are to manage their employees’ skills to an extent where employees find happiness in their job and working environment.

1.3.3 Talent Management and Meaningfulness

Meaningful work is fundamental to Positive Organisational Psychology (POS), and more generally to positive psychology (Cartwright & Holmes, 2006). Cartwright and Holmes (2006) argued that organisations need to address and comprehend the deeper needs of employees in order to preserve them and keep them motivated, engaged, and performing. Understanding how to create meaningful work provides powerful capability for achieving optimum and sustainable work outcomes for individuals and organisations (Steger & Dik, 2010). Effective Talent Management will lead to employees becoming more engaged, thus improving their performance and changing their purview of occupation therefore, ensuring that they find greater meaning and purpose in their work.

1.3.4 Talent Management and Turnover Intentions

High employee turnover can create apprehensions about an organisation’s image. Several studies propose that the lower the employee turnover intention, the higher the organisational efficiency (Bhatnagar, 2007; Cobb, 2014; Chew & Chan, 2008). According to the outcomes

of these studies talent management has meaningful direct impact on employee turnover intention and organisational efficiency. Therefore, corporate leaders of organisations in general and in the higher education sector in particular need to be more vigilant and mindful while developing succession and career development plans for the employees to upraise organisational efficiency and to retain talented and productive employees.

There is noteworthy economic impact when an organisation loses any of its critical employees, especially considering the knowledge that is lost with the employee's departure. The combined direct and indirect costs associated with turnover of one employee varies from a minimum of one year's pay and benefits to a maximum of two year's pay and benefits. Therefore, organisations need to create an environment in which employees would be willing to remain and continue to be productive (Deb, 2009).

Provided the difficulty in recruiting, developing and retaining managerial and professional talent numerous firms have turned to poaching as a quick fix. Indulged by a tight labour market, individuals are encouraged to look outside their company for better prospects. They also become less forbearing with their employer when their demands are not met. A study co-operatively conducted by Development Dimensions International (DDI) and Society for Human Resource Management (USA) on talent retention issues in China in 2006-2007 exhibited that staff turnover rate had amplified from 6-8 per cent a few years before to 14-20 per cent in 2007 (Scullion & Collings, 2011). Associated with this high staff turnover rate is a relatively high annual wage increase rate of the employees aged between 25 and 30 who were ready to leave their present employer. Worse still, only 8 per cent of the 862 employees surveyed were 'engaged' with their company (Scullion & Collings, 2011). In order to attract and retain talent, many firms have reported that they have to offer job candidates job titles, salaries and responsibilities that are well beyond their current capability and level of experience (Scullion & Collings, 2011).

1.3.5 A Conceptual Model of Talent Management, Turnover Intent, Happiness, and Meaningfulness

This research engages the following conceptual model:

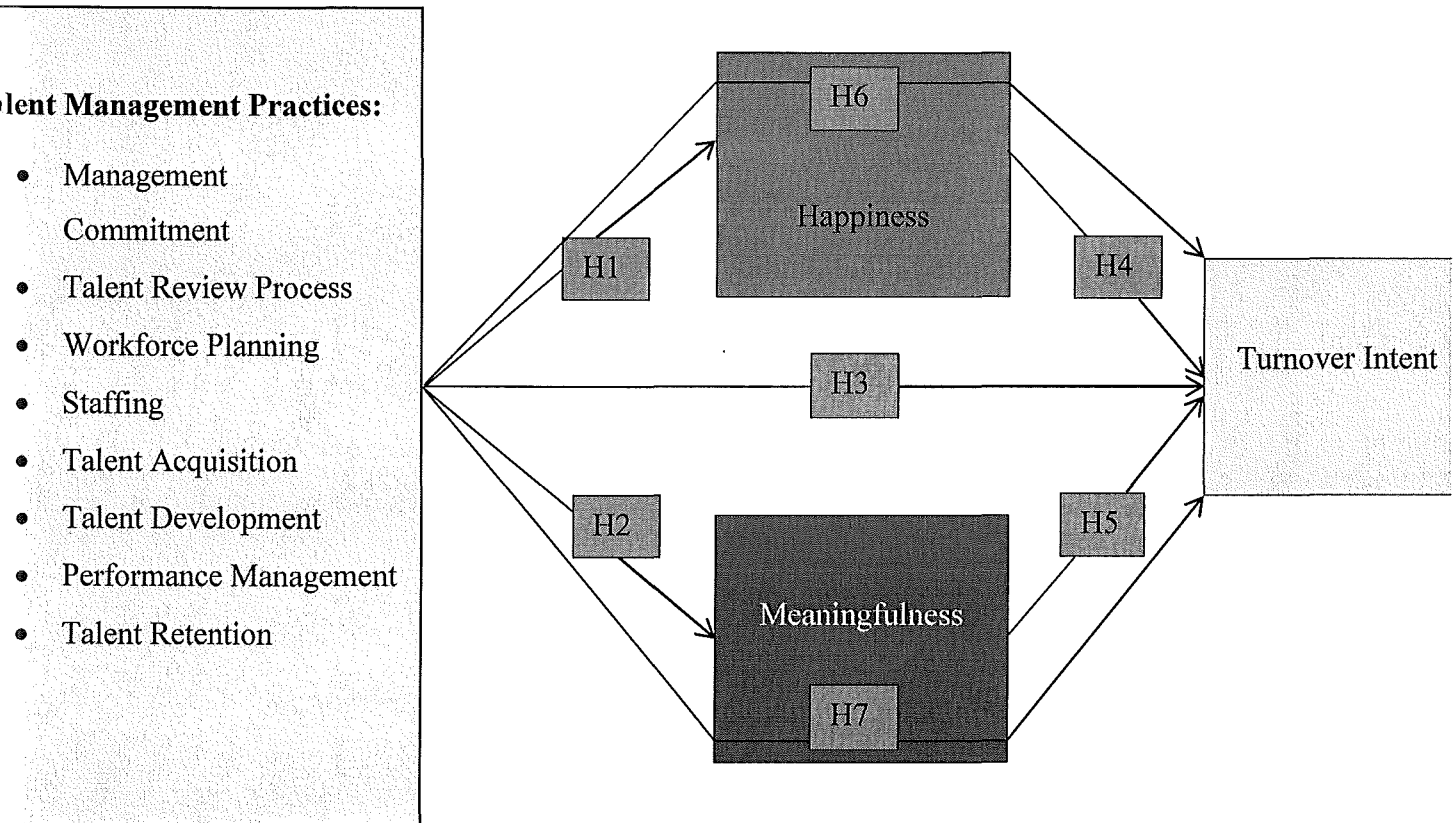


Figure 1.1 Hypothesised Model of the Relationship between the Concepts of this Study.

The model is a structural illustration of the relationship between talent management, happiness, meaning, and turnover intention, as hypothesised in this research. Effective talent management leads to happiness and meaningfulness of work, which ultimately results in a reduction in turnover intent. The assumption is based on hypothesis 1, 2 and 3. Hypothesis 4 assumes that happiness results in reduced turnover intent and is as a result of talent management. Hypothesis 5 assumes that meaningfulness also results in reduced turnover intent and is as a result of talent management. Hypothesis 6 assumes that happiness

moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention to a certain extent and hypothesis 7 assumes that meaningfulness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention to a certain extent. A revised model is developed in accordance with the outcomes of the research.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question of this research is: What is the relationship between Talent Management Practices, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and Turnover Intention among the academic staff in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)?

The sub-research questions of this study are:

- Is there a positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Happiness?
- Is there a positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Meaningfulness?
- Is there a negative significant relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intention?
- Is there a negative significant relationship between Happiness and Turnover Intention?
- Is there a negative significant relationship between Meaningfulness and Turnover Intention?
- To what extent does happiness moderate the relationship between talent management and turnover intention?
- To what extent does meaningfulness moderate the relationship between talent management and turnover intention?

1.5 EXPECTED CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

Talent Management goes beyond Human Resource Management, leadership development initiatives or succession planning. It is the collective approach to recruiting, retaining and developing talent within the organisation for its prospective benefit, and extends beyond the domains listed above to include strategy, organisational culture, and change management. The study plans to identify which factors are helpful in decreasing turnover intent among employees. The study also helps employees to discover how they can engage in meaningful work that makes them feel happier in their work environment.

The contribution of the study is to measure the effectiveness of the Institution in the implementation of Talent Management Principles and in the process make the Institution aware of the importance of implementing Talent Management practices in addressing the turnover intent among employees. In addition, the study emphasises the need for Higher Education Institutions to maintain a happy workforce and provide employees with meaningful work, if they are to meet the needs of their Institution.

In the past, studies have been conducted on Talent Management and its impact on Turnover Intent (see Deb, 2009; Cobb, 2014; Chew & Chan, 2008; Bhatnagar, 2007). However, there is inadequate research and models that have been constructed on linking the two concepts in order to provide employees with meaningful work, while improving their happiness simultaneously.

1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

According to Jonker and Pennink (2010), the research objective states what is to be accomplished by the research.

1.6.1 General Objective

The general objective of this research is to determine the impact of applying Talent Management Practices on academic employees, in a manner that addresses employee happiness and meaningfulness of work, as well as the extent to which a relationship exists between talent management practices, happiness, meaningfulness, and turnover intention.

1.6.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this research are:

- To determine whether there is a positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Happiness.
- To determine whether there is a positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Meaningfulness.
- To determine whether there is a negative significant relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intention.
- To determine whether there is a negative significant relationship between Happiness and Turnover Intention.
- To determine whether there is a negative significant relationship between Meaningfulness and Turnover Intention.
- To determine the extent to which happiness moderates the relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intention.
- To determine the extent to which meaningfulness moderates the relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intention.

1.7 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

A hypothesis can be defined as a statement linking the dependent and independent variable or variables in a study, and indicates the researcher's anticipation of what the study may find (Holland & Rees, 2010). This research is based on the following hypotheses:

H 1: There is a positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Happiness.

Rationale: Previous research in South Africa has shown that Talent Management Practices have helped increase the level of happiness within the South African context. Therefore, this research hypothesis is set in a directive manner (see Oakes & Galagan, 2011; Barning, 2014).

H 2: There is a positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Meaningfulness.

Rationale: Previous research in South Africa has shown that Talent Management Practices are a significant predictor of the level of engagement and contentment of employees. Therefore this research hypothesis is set in a directive manner (see Greasley et al., 2008; Lawler, Mohrman, & Benson, 2001; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Raub & Robert, 2010).

H 3: There is a negative significant relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intent.

Rationale: Previous research in South Africa has shown that Talent Management Practices are a significant predictor of the intention to quit of employees. Therefore this research hypothesis is set in a directive manner (see Bhatnagar, 2007; Cobb, 2014; Chew & Chan, 2008).

H 4: There is a negative significant relationship between happiness and turnover intention.

Rationale: Previous research implies that happiness can influence the turnover intention of employees (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010; De Villiers & Stander, 2011; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Warr, 2011). This hypothesis is therefore, stated in a directive manner.

H 5: There is a negative significant relationship between meaningfulness and turnover intention.

Rationale: Previous research in South Africa has shown that job dissatisfaction and disengagement, which lead to a lack of meaningfulness of work, have a direct impact on the intention to quit the organisation. Therefore, this research hypothesis is set in a directive manner (see Trauth, 2006; Svyantek & McChrystal, 2007; Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010; De Villiers & Stander, 2011; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Bhatnagar, 2012; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Baskin, 2007).

H 6: Happiness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention to a certain extent.

Rationale: Based on the information in the preceding hypotheses Happiness can moderate the relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intention.

H 7: Meaningfulness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention to a certain extent.

Rationale: Based on the information in the preceding hypotheses Meaningfulness can moderate the relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intention.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is the guide to how the research was constructed and carried out (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). Research design is like a tool to help researchers examine particular research questions. There are various research designs and each with different functions. It is an oversimplification to assume that there is one best kind of research design for every study.

Therefore, it is appropriate to consider what knowledge is already known in a particular or specific research area, and what kind of research question is being examined before one can select a research design. Thus the research maintains that the most instrumental question is, “what is the best research design for this particular problem at this time?” (Heppner, Wampold & Kivlighan, Jr, 2008: 67). A research design should include a brief literature review. Its major function is to link the proposed research to the current state of pertinent knowledge. Many areas of literature may need to be examined, for example, to provide the back-ground and justification for the research, and to select theory, research strategies and methods (Blaikie, 2010).

1.9 RESEARCH APPROACH

This research is conducted using a quantitative approach. Quantitative research aligns with the positivist paradigm. Quantitative research is “Explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics)” (Muijs, 2011: 1).

Basic descriptive statistics are used to describe variables in terms of distribution: frequency, central tendency and measures and form of dispersion. Descriptive statistics include averages, frequencies, cumulative distributions, percentages, variance and standard deviations, associations and correlations. Variables can be exhibited graphically by tables, bar or pie charts for instance. Descriptive statistics are also used to infer important general relationships between variables. The tests used are designed to assess if the results of the data collected are owed to chance or if there is an actual correlation going on.

The general structure for a quantitative design is based on the scientific method. It practices deductive reasoning, where the researcher forms a hypothesis, gathers data in an investigation of the problem, and then uses the data from the investigation, after analysis is made and conclusions are shared, to ascertain the hypotheses valid or false. Basic research is used to explore the fundamental bases of behaviour, without respect to how those bases are manifested in the real world. Basic research aims to explain, predict, and describe fundamental bases of behaviour. Unlike basic research, applied research purposes to address

and answer real-world problems. Essentially, applied research is, like basic research, based on preceding theory. Evaluation research is the systematic application of social research procedures for assessing the conceptualisation, design, implementation, and utility of social intervention programs (Clarke & Dawson, 1999). Analytical research design is generally appropriate for data that are quantitative and need statistical assistance to extract their meaning (Bayens & Roberson, 2011).

1.9.1 Research Method

According to Kothari (2004), research methods may be understood as all methods/techniques used for conducting research. Research methods or techniques thus refer to the methods the researchers use in execution operations. Kothari (2004), also states that research methodology is a way to systematically solve the research problem. It may be assumed as a science of studying how research is done scientifically. In this science, one studies several steps that are generally adopted by a researcher in addressing the research problem together with the logic behind them. It is essential for the researcher to discern not only the research methods/techniques but also the methodology.

1.9.1.1 Literature review

This research utilises a descriptive research method. A descriptive research method can provide a number of answers to several aspects being studied because one has to have the numerical element as well as the personal and observational element involved. It is also less expensive and less time consuming in comparison to other methods. This method allows one to collect a large amount of data for detailed studying as well as identify further areas of study in the recommendations and this is the advantage of using such an approach in research. This study utilises primary and secondary sources of research in order to come up with pertinent findings and to provide credible recommendations. Primary research data was obtained through questionnaire surveys, while secondary research data were obtained from previous studies on the same topic, books, journals and internet.

1.9.1.2 Research participants

Population

A population may be defined as a group of individuals of a species occupying a defined space at a particular time or a collective group of organisms of the same species occupying a particular space (Newman, 1995). The population of this study consists of all academic employees. The information is obtained from the three Campuses of a merged Higher Education Institution. Quantitative methods use large, randomly selected samples of participants, in order to allow the researcher to generalise to a larger population. The academic staff members of ten Higher Education Institutions in South Africa were selected to participate in this study, as a sample size. A random sample was used to collect data for this study within the Institutions. Sampling can be described as a process used in statistical analysis in which a predetermined number of observations are taken from a bigger population. The sample should be a representation of the overall population.

Measuring instruments

According to Mangal and Mangal (2013), a questionnaire is a data collection tool available in the shape of a form containing a set of appropriate questions meant for collecting necessary data from the subjects of the study by getting it filled in by the subjects themselves. A modified version of the Human Capital Index (Human Capital Institute of South Africa), a Happiness Questionnaire, a Meaningfulness Questionnaire and an Employee Retention Scale Questionnaire was used for the purpose of collecting data for this research.

Human Capital Index

The Human Capital Index (modified version) of the Human Capital Institute (2008) is used to quantify the perceived talent management practices and the significance of talent management practices in the organisation. The HCI Assessment of Talent Practices initially covered 75 talent practices. Due to the limitation of the study, 37 talent management practices were then nominated. These talent practices were limited to 37, to allow quick and honest responses from respondents. The index comprised of 37 items and measures Eight Management Practices namely: Management Commitment, Talent Review Process,

Workforce Planning, Staffing, Talent Acquisition, Talent Development, Performance Management and Talent Retention.

Dual scales were used in this study. First, respondents were required to rate the current Talent Management Practices in the Institution on a five-point Likert-type scale from Excellent (1), to Poor (5). Second, the respondents were required to rate the importance of the Talent Management Practices from Not (1), to Critical (5). This questionnaire has been validated in several South African studies (see Barkhuizen, 2013; Magolego et al., 2013; Mpofu & Barkhuizen, 2013; Mtila et al., 2013).

General Happiness Scale

A General Happiness Scale is used to evaluate the extent to which happiness of work exists within the Institution. This scale is made up of three items which are used to determine a person's extent of happiness. A seven point Likert-type scale ranging from Not a very happy person (1), to A very happy person (7), Less happy (1), to More happy (7), Not at all (1), to A great deal (7), A great deal (1), to Not at all (7), is utilised for the purpose of this research (Seligman, 2003).

Meaning in Life Questionnaire (MLQ)

This study uses a 10 item questionnaire designed to measure two dimensions of meaning in life: Presence of meaning (how much respondents feel their lives have meaning), and (2) Search for meaning (how much respondents strive to find meaning and understanding in their lives). Respondents answered each item on a 7 point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Absolutely Untrue) to 7 (Absolutely True) (Steger, Fraizer, Oishi & Kaler, 2006).

Employee Retention Scale

The final questionnaire used in the study is the Employee Retention Scale. This scale is made up of three items which are used to determine the managers' intent to quit the organisation.

The Respondents in the study were requested to rate the items on a seven point scale from Strongly Disagree (0) to Strongly Agree (6). This questionnaire has been validated for the South African context (Du Plessis, Stanz, & Barkhuizen, 2010).

The questionnaire for this study is divided into six sections; the first section is the cover letter or cover page which is an introductory note guaranteeing confidentiality and professionalism to the respondent. The second section covers the demographic details of the respondent such as gender, race, age, marital status, qualification and position or rank. The third section covers a whole range of structured questions about Talent Management, while the fourth section cover questions about Happiness, the fifth section covers questions about Meaningfulness and the sixth and last section covers questions on Turnover Intention in the Institution. All questions cover the scope of the objectives of the study and are administered to the Institution selected for this study.

1.9.1.2 Procedure in administration of questionnaires

Permission to conduct this research is requested from the relevant authorities of the Institution, through a letter of request which is granted to the student by the University. The written approval by the Institution should be granted to the student. The questionnaire used for this research is developed and presented to the employees of the Institution. Employees are randomly selected to complete the questionnaires. The questionnaires are self-administered and hand delivered, as well as electronically mailed to the Institution due to its proximity. Respondents are requested to return, or e-mail the completed questionnaires directly to the researcher.

1.9.1.3 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis is known to be the basis of any scientific inquiry or research. The purpose of statistical analysis is to increase and improve the conciseness, clarity and objectivity with which results are presented and interpreted, and where an analysis does not serve those ends it is probably not appropriate.

A statistical analysis software package known as SPSS is used for the purpose of this study. Pallant (2010), states that data analysis is only one part of the research process. Before one can make use of SPSS to analyse their data, there are a number of things that must happen. First, one has to design their study and choose appropriate data gathering instruments. Once the study has been conducted, the information obtained must be organised for entry into SPSS using something known as a 'codebook'. The reliability and validity of the measuring instruments are ascertained by means of Cronbach alpha coefficients. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is used to stipulate the relationship between the variables. Multiple regression analysis is used to achieve the test for the mediation/ moderation relationships between the variables in this research.

1.9.1.4 Ethical consideration

This research project was planned carefully so as to diminish any probability for misleading results. Secondly, the project was planned so that it meets the ethical acceptability required of it. Any doubts that may arise regarding questionable ethical procedures or methods were resolved by means of peer review or by means of consultation with appropriate parties. Lastly, steps were taken to protect and guarantee the dignity and welfare of all participants, including those who may be affected by the results of the research project.

Therefore, all research conducted for the sake of this project complies with state and federal laws and regulations. If the researcher discovers that any of the data published is erroneous, it is the researcher's responsibility to correct the error through retraction, an addendum, or other appropriate means. In addition, as an ethical researcher, all secondary sources used were duly acknowledged through correct referencing and citations.

According to Willig & Stainton-Rogers (2008), other ethical considerations to be adhered to in any study include:

Disclosure: Participants must be educated fully about the nature and purpose of the research, the procedures or interventions to be used and the expected benefits to participants or society.

Informed Consent: Research should only be executed after participants have given consent either orally or in written form.

Voluntary participation: Participant's consent to participate must be voluntary, and free of any coercion.

Deception: Participants must never be intentionally misled in order to get certain information.

Withdrawal from investigation: From the onset, participants should be informed that they have the right to withdraw from the research at any time irrespective of whether payment of incentives has been granted.

Protection of participants: Participants must be shielded from physical and mental harm during the course of the investigation. For example; research should not unnecessarily consume the time of participants or make them incur undue loss of resources and income.

Confidentiality: Participants must be assured that all information and records provided by participants or obtained directly or indirectly on/about participants is kept confidential.

1.10 CHAPTER DIVISION

Chapter 1: Introduction

The first chapter provides an outline of the introduction and background of the study, the definition of key concepts relevant to the study, the problem statement which includes the main problem and sub-problems, the objectives of the study, the ethical consideration of the study, the contribution of the study, research questions relevant to the study, the research hypotheses and finally the research design and research method of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature review

The literature review entails the overview of the study. This is where all literature relevant to the study of talent management and how it creates value and competitive advantage is critically discussed.

Chapter 3: Research Method

In the third chapter, the research method used in this study is outlined and discussed.

Chapter 4: Results

The fourth chapter entails an outline showing the presentation of the outcomes, results and statistics of the study.

Chapter 5: Discussion of Results

The fifth chapter entails an analysis and discussion of the results gathered from the research conducted.

Chapter 6: Conclusions, Limitations and Recommendations

In the sixth chapter, the overall summary of the study and its findings are discussed to conclude the study, as well as its limitations and recommendations which provide ways in which these limitations can be improved or overcome.

1.11 CONCLUSION

This study is very crucial in demonstrating the importance of having a sound talent management system that can reduce employee turnover intentions by promoting happiness and meaningfulness of work, in order to have a more effective organisation. This chapter outlined all the basic material to be used in the study and demonstrated how the study was executed. The chapter also established the research objectives and hypotheses, as a foundation for chapter two which explores and discusses in depth, the theoretical framework and all the concepts relevant to this study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter which entails the literature review of the study is a critical analysis of research done in Higher Education Institutions, specifically the three Campuses of a merged Institution, concerning talent management, turnover intentions, happiness, meaningfulness and the relationship between these variables. The literature review shows the origins of this study; therefore it locates the study within the context of published research knowledge internationally, regionally and locally.

2.1.1 Background

Organisations worldwide are faced with the challenge of how to effectively manage talent, which involves how to source, manage, develop, align and retain talent in a way that supports the organisation's strategic human capital and business needs. Talent is the predominant currency in the present era of economic globalisation. The term talent management, in numerous ways, embraces all that is at the heart of sound human capital management, with the difference that it is based on a focused strategy encompassing those employees who make a specific difference to the organisation and are central to its current and future business success.

Over the last 30 years there has been a substantial volume of writing in social science literature relating to happiness at work. Much of it is associated with working hours, stress, expectations, job characteristics and social recognition. Happier employees tend to take less sick leaves, are less often absent, have lesser turnover rates and are more committed. By tracing the history of happiness, examining the views of prominent philosophers and by probing the meaning of happiness, the discussion entailing the literature review will explore the revolving questions of happiness linked to workplace satisfaction.

Chalofsky (as cited in Dimitrov, 2012) gave a definition of meaning at work or meaningful work which states that it is the way we express the meaning and purpose of our lives through the work activities that comprise most of our working hours. Furthermore, the model of

“integrated wholeness” that Chalofsky (2003) introduced represents the meaning of work as an equation between the sense of self, which is what one brings to his workplace, the work itself, which includes challenge, creativity, learning, continuous growth, purpose, autonomy, and empowerment, and the sense of balance, meaning the balance between work and self, balance between self and others. Thus, the conclusion of the author was that, meaning of work is not just about the meaning of the paid work we perform; it is about the way we live our lives. It is the alignment of purpose, values, and the relationships and activities we pursue in life; it is about integrated wholeness (Chalofsky, 2003).

For the last few decades, employee retention has been of concern to researchers and employers in various fields. To stay competitive in the rapidly expanding global economy and to keep pace with technological advances calls for a workforce with robust institutional knowledge; therefore, employee retention is of utter most importance to business and academic communities. Researchers have developed a variety of conceptual frameworks to model the turnover process. A number of authors (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006; Jacobs, 2005; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Mobley, 1982; Morrell, Loan-Clarke, Arnold & Wilkinson, 2008; Petriglieri, 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Zeffane, 1994) have developed and tested models in an attempt to explain turnover intentions and related constructs. As iterated by Lambert, Hogan and Barton (2001), scholars speculate that employee turnover can be predicted using comprehensive measures of job satisfaction. This study examines whether Talent Management practices, Happiness, and Meaning can be predictors of employee turnover.

As noted earlier, previous studies revealed a link among the variables briefly discussed above, namely, talent management, happiness, meaningfulness and turnover intentions (see Oakes & Galagan, 2011; Barning, 2014; Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009; Cartwright & Holmes 2006; Castellano, 2014; Bux & Tay, 2010; Deb, 2009; Cobb, 2014; Chew & Chan, 2008; Catalyst, 2008; Happiness at Work, 2013; David Russo, 2010). However, none of these studies has achieved a specific analysis of the association between the four concepts. The trend has shown that organisations with effective talent management systems established tend to have happier employees, as well as employees that experience meaning in their work. This ultimately results in a significant reduction in the turnover intent of employees in most cases,

a result which this study seeks to extensively examine. New trends and the link between previous and current research are also revealed in this literature review.

2.2 TALENT MANAGEMENT

The term talent management was brought about by McKinsey & Company following a 1997 study (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Beth, 2001). It later proceeded to be the title of a book by Ed Michaels, Helen Handfield-Jones, and Beth Axelrod; nonetheless the connection between human resource development and organisational effectiveness has already been acknowledged since the 1970s.

Talent management is one of the largely debated themes in the field of human resource management (HRM) theory, as well as practice in the years that have elapsed (Thunnissen, Boselie & Fruytier, 2013). Lately, Thunnissen, Beselie and Fruytier (2013) directed a literature review in which they examined sixty-two academic publications concerning talent management that were published between the time frame of 2001 and 2012. The authors gather that up until 2012, the majority of the academic publications that are based on talent management have been conceptual and in a manner that approached the field from several angles. They also gather that, despite the progress that is being made, there still exists only a limited volume of empirical research based on talent management.

Organisations all over the world are confronted with the task of managing talent effectively (Meyers, van Woerkom & Dries, 2013). With regard to the economic downturn and unpredictable market environments, the concept of talent management has turned out to be an increasingly essential tool to obtain a sustained competitive advantage by means of human capital (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Tarique & Schuler, 2010). In spite of its importance, contemporary research conducted by practitioner-focused institutions like The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) has discovered that only a minute percentage of organisations, precisely 6%, deem their talent management structures to be appropriately effective (CIPD, 2012). The talent management section in the questionnaire used for this study seeks to determine whether or not academics consider the talent management practices

that are in place in their institutions to be appropriate. It further seeks to determine how important academics deem these talent management practices to be.

Incorporating talent management practices within organisations is pervasive and as a result, talent management has turned out to be an omnipresent phenomenon (Gelens, Dries, Hofmans & Pepermans, 2013). From all that has been discussed above, we are able to conclude that talent management as a facet of academic enquiry is still yet to reach the pinnacles of becoming a mature field. There are indications, nonetheless, which imply that the field is swiftly developing. A modern bibliometric analysis carried out by Gallardo-Gallardo, Nijs, Gallo, and Dries (2013) validates that an increase of research activity has been taking place around the issue of talent management between 2010 and 2013. Particularly when conference exhibitions and conventions are comprised in the analysis, it is apparent that authors and research departments worldwide are increasingly making a collective effort concerning talent management. In order for South Africa to also become a substantial contributor towards this worldwide effort, it is imperative that research similar to this study is conducted on a larger scale.

2.2.1 Definition of Talent Management

According to Silzer and Dowell (2010), even though talent management is becoming increasingly used worldwide, it does not have a solitary, clear definition. The following are a few definitions of talent management by different authors:

Talent management is a mindful, cautious and unhurried approach undertaken to attract, develop and retain people with the aptitude and abilities to meet current and future organisational requirements. Talent management embroils individual and organisational development in response to a stimulating complex operating environment. It comprises the creation and maintenance of a supportive, people oriented organisation culture (Vaiman & Vance, 2008).

Talent management is the strategic management of the manner in which talent flows through an organisation. Its purpose is to ensure that supply of talent is accessible to align the right people with the right jobs at the right time based on strategic business objectives (Gold, Thorpe & Mumford, 2010). Talent management is the methodical attraction, identification, development, engagement/retention and development of those particular individuals with high potential who are of specific value to an organisation (Davies & Davies, 2011).

2.2.2 Talent Management Practices

Internationally, the need for academic staff members in higher education institutions is growing, and is even further anticipated to carry on growing (Theron, Barkhuizen, & Du Plessis, 2014). Simultaneously, retention challenges and the intention to quit are aggravating the problem and a supposed academic 'retirement swell' is additionally apparent, leaving HEIs with no alternative other than to utterly examine the retention of academic staff (HESA 2011; Pienaar & Bester, 2008). This study does just that, by enquiring of academic staff concerning their intention to quit their institution using the employee retention scale.

There are numerous talent management practices that have been established to date. However, the following sub-section of this literature review only focuses on the eight specific talent management practices that have been embraced for the sake of carrying out this research. The Human Capital Index (adapted version) of the Human Capital Institute (2008) is used in this research to measure the perceived talent management practices by the research participants. The Index is particularly used to measure Management Commitment, Talent Review Process, Workforce Planning, Staffing, Talent Acquisition, Talent Development, Performance Management and Talent Retention.

2.2.2.1 Management commitment

Phillips and Connell (in Pienaar & Bester, 2008), are of the opinion that top management take too lightly the significance and severity of talent retention and as a result, the motives for and resolutions to labour turnover are not appropriately recognised. For instance, Netswera, Rankhumise and Mavundla (2005), discovered that HEI managers concentrate on profits,

business up keep as well as the justification of spending, meanwhile employees are motivated by personal interests including development, financial rewards and individual fulfilment. In order to test the accuracy of this discovery, the survey used in this study inquires what academics consider the level of management commitment to be towards them.

Management commitment generally refers to the top-management category and comprises its pledge or promise to allot resources and support to the learning and development effort. Commitment is essential for the purpose of securing the resources for a visible learning and development effort. The level of commitment differs with the size or nature of the organisation (Phillips, Phillips, & Hodges, 2004).

More often than not, the level of commitment is constant in the organisation prior to the learning and development manager's involvement with the function. It normally depends on how the function evolved, top management's attitude and philosophy where learning and development is concerned, as well as the way in which the function is administered. The answer to increasing commitment lies in the outcomes that it brings forth. Top-management commitment generally increases when programs yield the desired results. When a program is suggested, extra funding may be based only on the results the program is anticipated to yield. When management are more enthusiastically involved in programs, managers become more severely committed to learning and development (Phillips, 2005). This suggests a greater extent of accountability on the part of management in terms of developing their staff.

A professional and competent staff can also assist to improve commitment. The staff must be regarded as professional in all engagements, including accepting criticism, conforming to the changing needs of the organisation, sustaining productive relationships with other staff, and being exemplary to others (Phillips, 2005). This on the other hand, implies that employees are also to some extent accountable for whether management will show commitment towards them or not.

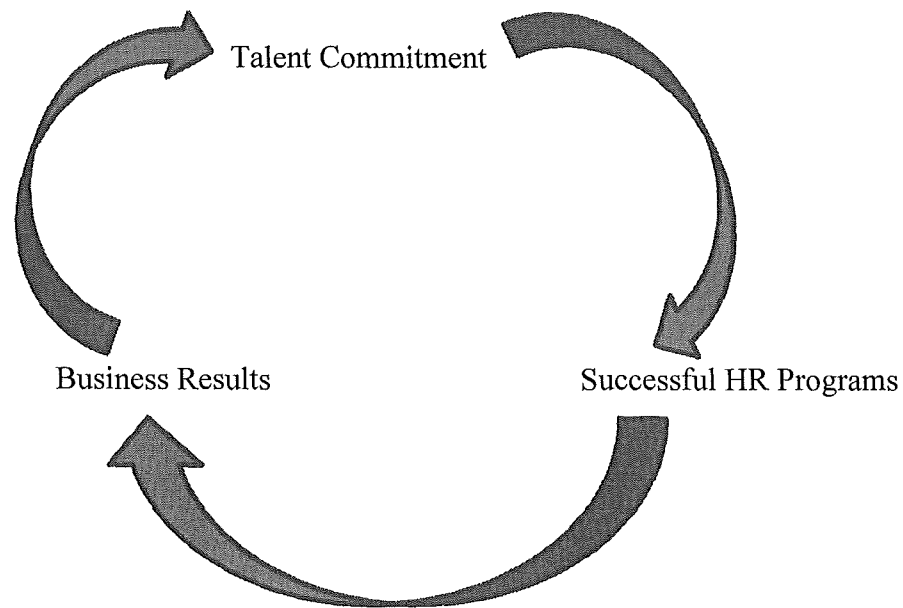


Figure 2.1 The results commitment cycle (Phillips, 2005: 240).

2.2.2.2 Talent review process

Distinguishing and asserting your people depends on insightful, robust assessments of them. An effective talent review process is as essential to a well-managed company as an effective budget process is. A sound process should evaluate your people against suitably high standards of leadership excellence. It should serve as the foundation for apportioning opportunities, compensation, and further development, and it should consent the company's leaders to discover the depths and weaknesses of every unit's talent pool. The talent review process is not similar as a traditional performance evaluation – the process that takes place annually between the boss and the subordinate. Instead, in a talent review process a leadership team considers each unit's talent pool so as to classify the highest and lowest performers and to determine how to strengthen the organisation (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001). The survey used in this study inquires whether academic staff members are aware of who the best performers in their institutions are.

Sims (2010), states that normally an organisation will implement a talent and succession management process in phases over a period of multiple years (unless the organisation is fortunate enough to have a whole team to plan and execute the strategy and to facilitate

several Talent Review Meetings within 1-2 years). Another strategy to an effective Talent Review process is to classify the levels and types of successors that are relevant to your organisation, and to distribute clear definitions of every single successor category. Sim (2010) further alludes that succession planning normally identifies:

- Successors for precise replacement positions.
- Talent pools for positions with related competencies.
- Competency discrepancies that must be addressed to develop future successors into prepared successors.

This study seeks to determine whether succession plans are established in the Higher Education Institutions for qualified academics for key positions and whether talent is segmented based on the performance, value, as well as potential of the employees. The study also considers whether the mainstream of talented academics is internally developed, as opposed to hiring from outside institutions.

2.2.2.3 Workforce planning

In terms of South African Higher Education, approximately half of the academic professoriate is projected to be retiring in under a decade from now and this has caused an apprehension that the academic pipeline is not adequate to make up for the retirement gap (HESA, 2011). This being the case, a critical shortage in the academic supply is anticipated and the increasing demand will not be catered for (Theron, Barkhuizen, & Du Plessis, 2014).

This study seeks to determine whether the jobs that create the most value for universities are identified, in order to assess if HEIs are on the right track in terms of their workforce planning function. Furthermore, the study seeks to determine whether the impact of impending retirements, as well as shortages of labour, is clearly understood in each academic

department. Another facet of workforce considered in this study, is the demand and supply of talent within the years to come.

The CIPD (as cited in Armstrong, 2012) came up with a definition of workforce planning, which states that workforce planning is a core process of human resource management that is fashioned by the organisational strategy and sees to it that the correct number of people with the correct skills, in the correct place at the correct time to accomplish the organisation's short and long-term objectives. The CIPD research proved that workforce planning in one way or another is occurring in many organisations. Workforce planning is an integral fragment of business planning. Workforce planning offers a basis for a systematic approach to gauging the number and kind of people required and, having taken into consideration information on the supply of labour and environmental scanning, for the preparation of recruitment, retention, management succession and talent management plans.

Workforce planning is imperative due to the fact that it inspires employers to develop clear and explicit associations between their business and HR plans and to integrate the two in a more effective manner. The chief complications that those involved in workforce planning face are the impact of change and forecasting the future. The approaches to workforce planning are namely: business planning, forecast activity levels, scenario planning, data collection, analysis, demand forecasting, supply forecasting, forecast of future requirements, action planning, implementation, and lastly, monitoring and evaluation (Armstrong, 2012).

Workforce planning is a discipline that directs an organisation through the cycle of managing and deploying talent, to analysing current and predicted utilisation. Workforce planning solutions address the principal issue of using time, talent, and management attention to craft a viable competitive advantage. Unrelenting movement through the workforce planning cycle, as depicted below, pushes organisations to maximise their use of time and talent, and offers management insight into any required corrective actions.

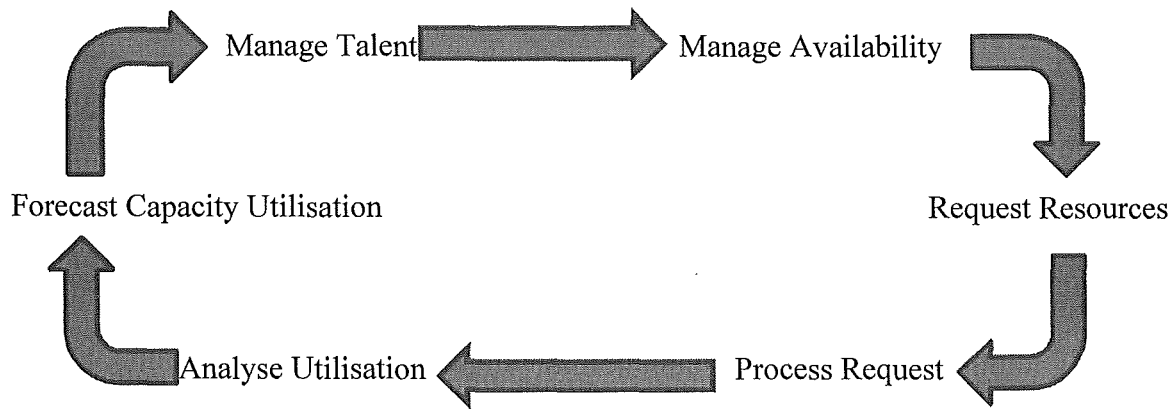


Figure 2.2 The Workforce Planning Cycle (Melik, 2007: 115).

Organisations dedicated to this discipline foster a strategic advantage. Being accountable for and making the most of time for a project workforce places higher demands on the systems used to manage how the correct people get to the correct places at the correct times.

According to Erasmus (2008), every now and then it is important to check on how well our workforce planning processes are functioning. We can accomplish this through the evaluation of plans and programmes and how things developed when we ultimately implemented them. Possible evaluation for workforce planning criteria or standards includes the measurement of:

- Actual staffing levels compared to established staffing requirements;
- Productivity levels compared to established goals;
- Actual personnel flow rates compared to desired rates;
- Implemented programmes compared to action plans;
- Programme outcomes compared to expected outcomes (for instance improved applicant flows, reduced quit rates, improved replacement ratios);
- Labour and programme costs compared to budgets; and

- Ratios of programme results/benefits, as compared to programme costs.

The information we assemble through evaluations such as these may then become a basis for refining and improving our workforce planning.

2.2.2.4 Staffing

All frontrunners in higher education need to address the main proficiencies and human characteristics that are necessary for effective academic careers, responsible citizenship, as well as a decent quality life (Chickering & Stewart, in Netswera et al., 2005). This implies that the talent mentality of higher education governance should concentrate on obtaining an all-inclusive understanding of attracting, developing and also sustaining academic talent (Salopek, in Netswera et al., 2005).

Van Tiem, Moseley, and Dessinger (2012) define staffing as the talent management function that forestalls and fills open positions throughout organisations. Staffing is a crucial talent management function, and both the organisation and the employee profit from vigilant planning. This study seeks to determine whether academic staff members are staffed at the right levels in their respective departments. Furthermore, the study considers the level of diversity in HEIs, as well as the competitiveness of compensation, in terms of the global market.

According to Burkholder, Edwards, Sr. and Sartain (2004), most organisations appreciate that having great people is the only way to build a sustainable, competitive advantage. Although staffing remains a core strategy only for a few distinguished organisations that have, not by coincidence, a reputation for acquiring top talent and yielding better outcomes for their stakeholders. In spite of the progress that has been achieved in this regard, staffing is not entirely considered as a strategic and valuable HR function around the world. Positions in staffing are commonly filled internally or as entry-level positions without any training offered; there is usually no clearly articulated recruiting or talent strategy; and there is hardly

ever a deliberate process to identify, assess, and develop top talent or to measure the usefulness of talent acquisition and development programs.

De St. Aubin and Carlsen (2008) suggest that a staffing plan can be defined as forecasting and preparing for changes in the workforce of the organisation. This comprises retirements, variations in job responsibilities and required skill groups. A strategic staffing plan is designed to achieve organisational goals. This process seeks to ensure that the demand for talent, which can vary at any particular time in the planning horizon, will be achieved with the suitable resources.

A strategic staffing plan entails the process of classifying and addressing the staffing implications of business plans. De St. Aubin and Carlsen (2008) state that this effort normally includes:

- Defining the number (staffing levels) and types (capabilities) of employees necessary in the future to implement business plans and strategies (demand);
- Identifying resources that are presently available;
- Forecasting the supply of talent to meet defined future needs (supply);
- Identifying the gaps between the predicted demand and expected supply; and
- Developing and implementing staffing plans and actions required to close talent gaps and eradicate surpluses.

Effective execution of a strategic staffing process transpires not with the manner in which the above steps are defined, but rather with the manner in which they are developed and implemented (De St. Aubin & Carlsen, 2008).

2.2.2.5 Talent acquisition

Talent acquisition consists of the processes related with recruiting and selecting resources. In some instances, these may be internal resources who are apportioned to the program (either on a full-time or part-time basis) for the period of time necessary to complete specific program work (Letavec, Rollins, & Altwies, 2008). In other instances, these resources may be obtained externally, either as contractors hired to complete specific activities or as permanent hires who are brought on to perform program work and who then linger as part of the organisation's staff (Letavec, Rollins, & Altwies, 2008). Considering how imperative it is for any organisation to acquire the best talent for its climate and culture, this study therefore, seeks to determine the ability of HEIs to attract the most talented academics. The study also considers the strength and compellability of the employment brand of the HEIs.

According to Chun and Evans (2014), the internal talent acquisition process needs to consist of individuals who may not have ascended to organisational attention previously but have possibly been hampered by a lack of supervisory sustenance or opportunities to exhibit their expertise. The external talent acquisition process necessitates aggressive and creative recruitment practices to address underrepresentation, anticipate workforce needs, and develop diverse talent streams that satisfy strategic operations. Strategies that promote diversity recruitment include development of wider job requirements to acknowledge diverse and non-traditional backgrounds, establishment of diverse search committees, and emphasising the positive attributes of organisational affiliation comprising talent development and overall rewards programs and an inclusive work environment.

According to Clampitt and DeKoch (2011), the talent acquisition question enquires whether the organisation or team makes use of the right net, casts it in top-notch spots, and latches the right people. Answering this question calls for a candid evaluation of latest hiring decisions as well as forfeited hiring opportunities. Clampitt and DeKoch (2011), state that talent acquisition blunders and shortfalls can usually be attributed to the following questions. First, are we distinct on the kind of employees we wish to hire? Second, are we producing the correct pool of candidates? Third, are our selection criteria spot on? Experts believe, for instance, that only 50% of interviews end in the correct hiring decisions. We either hire the

wrong person or we unsuspectingly screen out a skilled talent. Fourth, are we losing good people because we can't provide them with concrete opportunities? Any one of these questions may hinder successful talent acquisition. Progressive people devise a strategy to ensure that this does not happen to their organisation.

Oakes and Galagan (2011) state that talent acquisition functions in a competitive environment where external entities are provoking them day by day. The isolation of talent acquisition is compounded when other talent management professionals look at acquisition activities as substitutions to their talent augmentation solutions and create barriers to integration. Talent acquisition leaders who have effectively overcome these concerns usually began by identifying and recognising them. They then assisted the organisation to understand how each departmental activity, when coordinated at a more superior level, could produce a greater advantage than optimising each individually.

2.2.2.6 Talent development

The majority of HEIs struggle with revolutionising and altering staff development in the direction of national requirements (Theron, Barkhuizen, & Du Plessis, 2014). Battles of interest are apparent in the emphasis in terms of staff development in the national requirements of HEIs (Botha & Potgieter, 2009). The HESA (2011) report displays that the budget apportionment and financing by the government are inadequate to provide for staff, as well as student development. Inadequate career prospects and scarce academic staff development pose implications with regard to the career motivation, career accomplishment as well as the employability of academics, which ultimately has the potential to result in the depreciation of the professoriate (Bitzer, 2008; Buddeberg-Fischer, Stamm & Buddeberg, 2009). This study assesses whether top performers in HEIs are challenged to enhance their skills and upgrade their careers. The availability of coaching and mentoring development approaches are also considered in this study. The frequency, effectiveness and meaningfulness of communication to academics, by management, is also assessed in the study.

Van der Sluis and van de Bunt-Kokhuis (2009) state that today's globalised world is faced with a rising deficiency of talent. Countless companies sense the urgency to invest in the continuous development of their young (potential) and more senior talent. It is debated that talent development is motivated by both technological and multicultural realities of the 21st century. Talent development is regarded here, in the context of the lifelong learning where talented people of diverse ages are elicited to get the most out of their learning journey of life, study, as well as work. Life, study, and work are comprehensive elements of the same journey towards human fulfilment and consequently, talent development. Companies must facilitate talented employees in order to acquire the necessary comprehensive competencies and contribute with success to talent development schemes during the course of their lives. Throughout childhood, in adult life, as well as in the world of work, diverse key competencies are required.

According to Lawler, III (2008), an imperative consideration in talent management is the question of whether the organisation is committed to talent development. If it is, then it needs to pay attention to the balance between education in the classroom and job experience. One of the obvious talent advantages that build-oriented, high-involvement organisation possesses, is in this very capacity, in that it can afford to take a longer-term outlook of talent development and use job experiences as a way in which to develop its human capital.

Caplan (2013) states that talent management is not merely aiming to harness people's talents and assisting them to become the best that they can become, although that is part of it. It goes beyond having people available to occupy key roles, even though that too is part of it. It is a method of thinking and doing things that gets to the core of relationships within the organisation. It includes people in the vision and direction of the business so that they contribute their ideas and enthusiastically seek to create opportunities and realise them. It includes people in decisions that are made concerning them or that have an impact on them, so that leadership and management are multi-way processes and people have increased control over their destinies. It is also about how staff, managers and HR cooperate to craft an innovative, creative, skilled and adaptable workforce that is eager to learn.

2.2.2.7 Performance management

It is obvious that South African HEIs are unable to afford the luxury of losing treasured and talented academic staff members if they are to chip in to the continuous development of the nation including its people in the long run (Netswera et al., 2005; Piennaar & Bester, 2008). In cases whereby top-performing employees leave, they often also leave a void that is quite costly to fill and also difficult to manage (Robison, 2008).

Van Dooren, Bouckaert, and Halligan (2010), state that performance management is a kind of management that integrates and utilises information on performance for decision making. Pulakos (2009) further states that performance management is known as the “Achilles’ Heel”, (p. 3) of human capital management, and that it is the most challenging HR system to implement in organisations. In fact, performance management is steadily one of the lowest, if not the lowest rated section in employee satisfaction surveys. This study seeks to determine the quality of performance management that exists in HEIs by assessing whether there is congruence between academic employees’ jobs and the strategic goals of their institutions. Furthermore, the study seeks to determine the extent to which monetary, as well as non-financial rewards are used to reinforce outstanding performance.

According to Bourne and Bourne (2011), performance management is a process which is a very beneficial tool to aid leaders in running their businesses. Nevertheless, the manner in which they use it will determine whether the system is considered to be a bureaucratic inhibition to performance or as a mechanism for directing action and acquiring employee commitment to accomplishing the goals of the business (Bourne and Bourne, 2011). Several businesses are fooled into treating their performance management processes simply as a ‘tick-box’ exercise, something which can support and run alongside the implementation of their strategy. In fact, if it is to be effective, it has to be an inherent part of strategy formulation as well as being incorporated into daily business. It should involve an extensive range of people with diverse skills and it should cover every employee. Nonetheless, numerous businesses waste significant amounts of money, time and employees’ goodwill on half-hearted processes that either do not work, or incite more trouble because they direct the business in the wrong direction (Bourne and Bourne, 2011).

There are genuine explanations why both managers and employees have problems with performance management. Managers try to evade performance management activities, especially giving developmental feedback to employees because they do not want to risk injuring relationships with the same individuals who they rely on to get work done (Pulakos, 2009). Employees try to evade performance management activities, particularly discussing what they require in terms of their development with managers, because they do not want to put their pay or advancement at risk (Pulakos, 2009). Furthermore, numerous employees feel that their managers are unskilled when it comes to discussing their performance and coaching them on how to improve (Pulakos, 2009). Such attitudes, both on the part of managers and employees result in deprived performance management processes that just do not work well. Another challenge is that several managers and employees do not comprehend the advantages of effective performance management. They usually perceive it as a paperwork drill required by human resources, where ratings are to be submitted on a yearly basis for record-keeping reasons, a necessary evil that warrants the least investment of time (Pulakos, 2009).

What several managers do not understand is that performance management is the most essential tool they possess for getting work done. It is vital for high performing organisations, and one of their most essential responsibilities. Executed correctly, performance management has the ability to communicate what is significant to the organisation, energise employees to achieve imperative goals, and implements the organisation's strategy. The businesses that exert time and effort into getting their systems right can obtain a considerable competitive advantage.

2.2.2.8 Talent retention

Council on Higher Education (2008) and Higher Education South Africa (2011) both agree that compensation is one of the main reasons for academics leaving HEIs. They also agree that compensation systems should be tailored in such a way that retains academics. In HESA's opinion, the salary discrepancies between the private sector and HEIs are significant and increasing. Collegial remuneration packages end up in academics being plundered by the private sector. An additional noteworthy challenge is the reality that universities situated in sub-Saharan Africa carry on operating under circumstances that are inadequately resourced,

which poses substantial difficulties for the scholars in question (HESA, 2011; Mouton, 2010). All these challenges being considered, this study seeks to determine the extent to which HEIs are able to retain their best performers, as well as whether the reasons why people leave are recorded and addressed, particularly in the case of top talent. The study also assesses the extent to which management is held accountable for losing top talent.

Silzer and Dowell (2010) explain that over the last few decades, the attitude towards retention in several organisations has progressed from an emphasis on measuring voluntary versus involuntary turnover in order to gain a better view of the reason for the losses. More recently, companies have segmented this further by classifying the turnover of high-performing or high-potential talent in order to address the precise issues for these critical employees. Organisations should go further than the macro measures of turnover, to looking at turnover within strategic pools of talent. This is the talent that is considered most imperative to the future of the organisation and where retention is considered the most critical. Successful retention efforts sometimes entail hastening a career move or providing a key individual with access to senior executives in other areas of the business. The retention action could consist of the expansion of existing responsibilities or the solicitation to take part in a noteworthy learning program. Invariably, the retention strategy will go further than compensation and will be custom-made to what is most likely to stimulate and engage the individual or groups of crucial talent.

Phillips and Edwards (2009), state that the talent retention issue becomes even more important, when the economy is faced with a temporary decline. Most experts and executives, who provide strategies to combat recession in business, offer three rules not to forget:

1. Avoid the lay-off of crucial talent at all costs.
2. Continue recruiting, making sure that talent channels are open.
3. Keep talent development programs in progress.

These rules emphasise on the long outlook, acknowledging the significance of recruiting quality talent during a recession while continuing to invest in their development. In several organisations, executives are crafting integrated talent retention policies using internal and external data to nurture intensive retention solutions. In some organisations, the onus for managing this effort lies with a chief talent officer. Talent retention is one of the most important talent management practices due to the fact that its ineffective management will have high cost implications on the organisation. These costs go beyond the monetary aspect.

2.2.3 Talent Management in an Academic Context

Administrations in higher education can really profit from achievements that talent management has had on organisations within other industries. Regardless of the notion of wanting to be different from the business world, institutions must recognise that growing talent from within can be of significant benefit, especially given the present economic climate, more and more competitive environment for human capital, and the on-going need of being accountable to its constituents.

2.2.3.1 Why talent management is important in higher education institutions.

Clunies (2007) agreed that innovative colleges and universities are investigating the value of talent development as a cost effective process to the transitioning of power and authority. Consider any institution's strategic plan or the mission statement of any human resource division in higher education. Most likely, employees will be viewed as essential assets in order for the college or university to attain lasting success. In spite of this, why is the practice of talent management implemented so seldom on the administrative side of the higher education setting? Evidently it is not because of a lack of planning skills. Every institution functions based on a strategic plan, its financial future is centred on a comprehensive fundraising plan, and facilities are not created or renovated without the presence of a campus master plan (Christie, 2005). Thus, could there be value to having a plan for selecting and preparing high potential talent?

Most institutions in the present economy cannot afford to lose a senior officer or a high potential administrator without an appropriate replacement given the tremendous costs related to hiring a candidate from outside the institution (Clunies, 2007). Colleges and universities, now more than ever, need to make sure that the right person is serving in the right position (Heuer, 2003). Establishing this type of stability in talent delivers confidence to both internal and external stakeholders (Marsh, 2008). Colleges and universities that take on the challenge to build talent from within to meet impending leadership requirements will surely gain an advantage on peer institutions in this competitive setting (Mackey, 2008).

The significance of talent management to higher education is beginning to attract more interest from human resource practitioners who are looking at the implications of high turnover rates and poor fit within current positions (Bisbee, 2005). Nevertheless, while talent management is high on the list of priorities among human resource departments within corporations, this practice is still yet to fully drift into the higher education environment in determining future administrative leaders. In spite of some proactive institutions that realise the significance associated with the number of impending retirements, the cost of external recruiting, and the significance of retaining high potential personnel, most are opting to use the wait and see approach to talent management. That is, they identify a potential replacement only when an incumbent's intention to leave is imminent. This replacement is often evaluated based on the incumbent's leadership characteristics, rather than on how an organisation wishes to see the position evolve over time (Carroll, 2004).

Regardless of the countless studies on the impending retirements of baby boomers, only a trivial number of these studies have analysed talent management strategies in the higher education context. Previous studies of Mackey (2008), Christie (2005), and Korb (2004) focused on the community college setting. While the exertions from these scholars differ from this study to varying extents, it is imperative to acknowledge and learn from their work.

2.2.3.2 A model promoting turnover reduction of high-performing staff and managing succession planning

With the aid of effective talent management architecture, schools are more likely to reduce turnover of high-performing staff and manage their leadership succession planning. It is of uttermost importance that effective processes, programmes and pathways are established. In order to accomplish setting up the architectures for identifying talent, recording talent development and outlining future needs from an organisation and an individual perspective, it is essential that we put the talent architecture within the wider school context (Davies & Davies, 2011). It is vital that a school is able to:

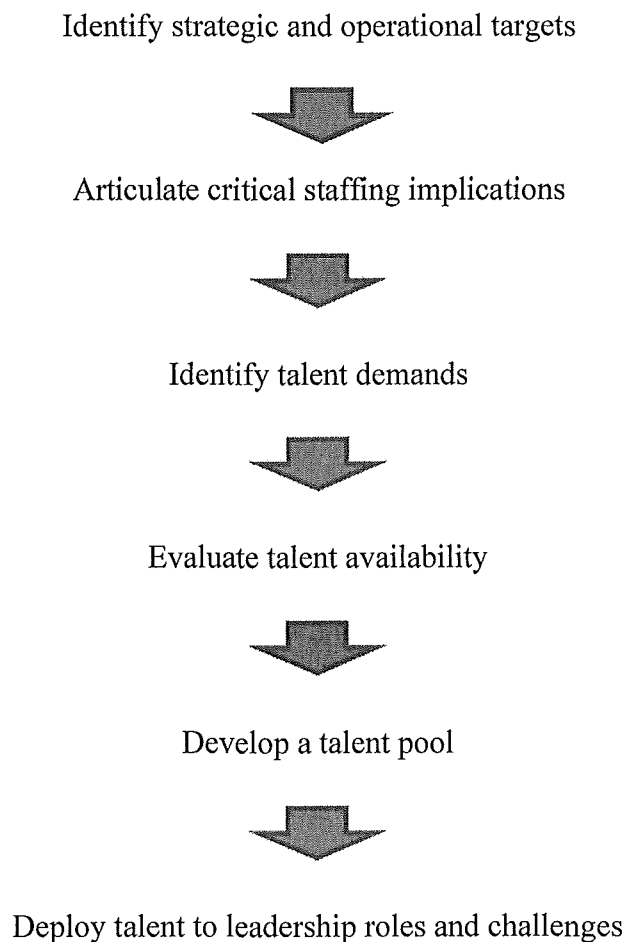


Figure 2.3 A model encouraging the reduction of turnover of high-performing staff (Davies & Davies, 2011).

Despite the fact that the above model provides a theoretical and conceptual framework, we further need to consider how schools operationalise this into a practical process for the evaluation and development of staff (Davies & Davies, 2011).

2.3 THE POSITIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND HAPPINESS

Happiness in general refers to the overall relative satisfaction that a person experiences over a long period of time, in terms of all aspects of the person's life. Happiness in the workplace can be characterised by the extent or degree of overall satisfaction which an employee is able to derive from their work or job. This thus implies that the greater the extent of overall satisfaction derived by an individual from their job, the greater will be the extent of happiness experienced by that particular individual and vice versa.

2.3.1 The Positive Impact of Talent Management on Happiness

Most people are not able to differentiate the idea of being happy from how satisfied they are at work. Given the tough economic conditions of the past few years, paired with expectations that employees must do more with much less, many find their jobs less than fulfilling.

Barning (2014), states that according to positive psychologists, talent management and an investment in learning and development, can increase employee happiness. It is not the soft flower power happiness from the seventies, criticising capitalistic values like working hard, making money and making a career. Quite differently, it is a notion of happiness based on those values. By forming an environment in which employees are happy, employers automatically form an environment in which they are productive, and vice versa; being productive makes people happy (Barning, 2014).

Barning (2014) also reiterates what Professor Arnold Bakker of Erasmus University Rotterdam states in his inaugural address, that research depicts positive emotions can help you cope with difficult clients or deadlines and result in you being healthier. Most of all, they are contagious, in other words one or two happy colleagues can uplift a whole team.

International research illustrates that the happiness of employees in terms of being inspired and doing a meaningful job has a positive influence on performance and financial results. According to Barning (2014), Professor Bakker states that positive things like feedback by colleagues and executives, autonomy, coaching, education and development opportunities, which all fall under talent management, make employees more creative and innovative. And as a result those 'happy' employees are more likely to benefit from HR instruments presented by their employer.

The most imperative lesson companies can learn from 'positive psychologists' however, is that it is much better to focus on the positive, than to spend in preventing or curing the negative. As an alternative of dealing with burnout and focusing on the uninspired and cynical part of your workforce, take heed of the happy ones.

2.3.2 The Positive Returns of a Happy Workforce

Riordan (2013) states that in 2012, the Conference Board reported historic lows in job satisfaction among employees in the US and during the same year the Sloan Center on Aging & Work discovered only moderate satisfaction among employees in the UK. With such changes in satisfaction, research on happiness in the workplace is thriving. In a March 2013 report, the Conference Board proposed that the study of happiness should include areas such as employee engagement, job satisfaction, and attachment to the organisation (Riordan, 2013). Such areas fall under talent management practices.

The definition of happiness continues to expand. When asked what makes them happy at work, employees cite a variety of factors. As one might presume, sufficient pay and adequate benefits to live comfortably make part of the list. Once those simple needs are met, other factors play an integral role in employees' happiness at work. According to Riordan (2013), psychologists have recognised three different pathways to this elusive state of mind:

Making a difference and contributing to a greater purpose - Employees want to be able to make a difference in the company or society and pursue work that has meaning. They want to be a part of something that has a vision and a greater purpose.

Using one's talents - Many employees cite being able to use their skills and abilities and achieving results in their job as vital factors related to their happiness at work. These employees say that they relish making unique contributions and accumulating value to the organisation. As essentially, employees want their supervisors and co-workers to recognise and acknowledge their contributions. In short, they want to use their talents to profit the organisation.

Working in a positive environment - Employees want a positive work relationship with their boss, the absence of negative or harmful work elements, the necessary tools and resources to be fruitful and to be part of a positive team. Employees want to work in an atmosphere where they can do their best work.

A happy and engaged workforce conveys a positive return on investment for organisations and individuals. Shawn Achor, author of the *Happiness Advantage*, pulls together decades of research to illustrate the positive impact of happiness on organisations (Riordan, 2013). He notes that happiness at work escalates sales, productivity and accuracy. Research also validates that happiness has a positive effect on the health of employees, career success and perceptions about the quality of life. Organisations can and should implement activities to nurture employee satisfaction. The Society of Human Resource Management recommends that organisations can still increase employee satisfaction by focusing on creating a positive environment and motivating employees, despite the stress of a shifting financial environment.

Employees themselves must take control of their own happiness. Aristotle wrote that "Happiness depends upon ourselves" and, ultimately, the meaning of happiness remains deeply personal (Riordan, 2013). While we can identify patterns across groups of employees, each person defines what makes him/her happy. What constitutes happiness to one person might not constitute happiness to another. Rebecca Ray, senior vice-president at the Conference Board, notes; "Employees need to proactively reflect on how to add value to their

organisations. They need to cooperatively be the master of their own destiny, continuously develop their skills and make their own happiness” (Riordan, 2013).

The grass is not always greener nevertheless. Sonja Lyubomirsky, the author of *The Myths of Happiness*, points out that individuals adjust to the things that make them happy, but then endeavour for something different (Riordan, 2013). Therefore, what once made us happy, no longer makes us happy. She cites a seminal study that followed managers’ satisfaction before and after a voluntary job change. The researchers found that the managers experienced a significant increase in job satisfaction immediately following the job change but quickly returned to the levels of satisfaction which they had prior to the move. Managers who did not change jobs experienced consistent levels of satisfaction throughout the same period (Riordan, 2013).

2.4 THE POSITIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND MEANINGFULNESS

Employees are inspired by the meaning of their work and the compatibility with their role, by the qualitative work relationships that they foster by means of achievements, as well as appropriate compensation.

2.4.1 How Meaningfulness Is Influenced By Talent Management

According to Banayan (2014), the meaningful life guides past actions through the present, to the future, giving one a sense of direction. It provides ways to value good and bad alike, and gives us validations for our aspirations. From achieving our goals to viewing ourselves in a positive light, a life of meaningfulness is considerably different than mere happiness.

The meaning of work approach is founded on the thought that employees are more motivated by elements other than money and other extrinsic rewards. Fundamentally, there are two overarching elements that construct a sense of meaningfulness. Firstly, the work itself to the

degree to which the work satisfies intrinsic motivators, such as challenging work, personal growth, responsibility and recognition. Secondly, the degree to which the job allows the employees to realise life purpose, have a social impact and the degree to which the job is viewed as important. Furthermore, Chalofsky and Krishna (2009) elaborate on the meaning of work by differentiating between sense of self, the work itself and a sense of balance. The sense of self should be obtained by permitting employees to bring their whole selves (mind, body, emotion and spirit) to work, which should be facilitated by acknowledging and appealing to the employees' values and trying to align these with those of the organisation. The work itself should emphasise on responsibility, empowerment, development, and provide a "sense of meaning and purpose, sense of choice, sense of competence, and sense of progress" (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009: 196).

Therefore, the work itself should have a social impact, be viewed as significant, provide responsibility, involvement, challenge, and develop the individual. A sense of balance should be attained by balancing the time spent on work, leisure, family and so forth. Thus, supportive work environments that provide flexible working conditions and awareness of creating a work-life balance are imperative (Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009; Cartwright & Holmes 2006).

From the above discussion, it is apparent that the 'meaning of work' approach can be used as an umbrella term for engagement, as this concept includes some of the essential drivers of engagement such as, employee development, organisational support, employee involvement, reflect personal values, work-life balance and meaningfulness. These essential drivers fall under talent management practices, therefore, we can safely say that meaningfulness can be as a result of effective talent management practices.

2.4.2 Meaningfulness in the Workplace

There is a large body of research validating the meaningfulness of work as a condition of engagement. Employees who see the bearing of their work and believe in the organisation's mission invest more of themselves when performing work. Within this body of research, job enrichment and work role fit were positively connected to meaningfulness. One experiences

meaningfulness as a feeling of getting a return on investment of one's self in a currency of physical, cognitive, or emotional energy. People furthermore experience their work as meaningful when they perceive it to be challenging, worthwhile and rewarding (Castellano, 2014).

The International Conference on Advanced Education and Management (2014) states that several consequences of talent management were underlined in different research, but what is the psychological outcome of the talent management is another question that needs to be answered. Kahn highlighted the relation of psychological matters to human capital management (Bux & Tay, 2010). He discovered that a desirable outcome could be expected if psychological meaningfulness and psychological safety exist, and when the employees themselves were more psychologically available (Bux & Tay, 2010).

When leaders empower their employees through the delegation of authority to them, sharing information, developing and coaching employees, consenting greater decision-making power and holding employees liable, such employees will feel increasingly competent and in control, which will result in them experiencing meaning in their work. Prior studies and validate the fact that when leaders empower instead of control their employees, such employees will experience psychological empowerment, which comprises meaningfulness (Greasley et al., 2008; Lawler, Mohrman, & Benson, 2001; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Raub & Robert, 2010).

2.4.3 Meaningfulness of Work Models

According to Wrzesniewski (2003), experiencing meaning in work is critically dependent upon three factors (see **Figure 2.4**):

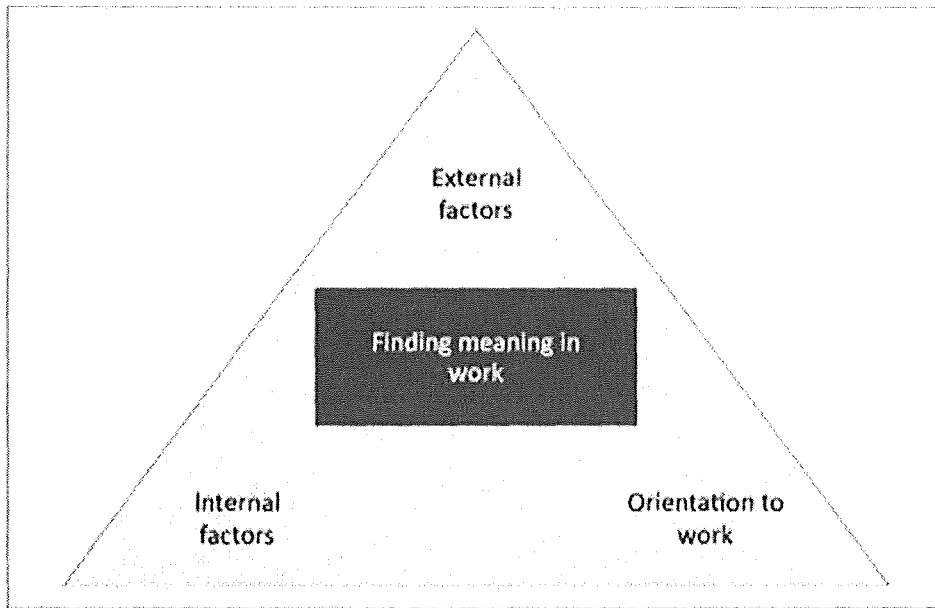


Figure 2.4 Determining factors of how meaning is found in work (Wrzesniewski, 2003).

The individual's internal factors have a role, that is, the person's personality and individual needs, demographic factors, and socio-economic background. Secondly, external factors such as the job and the wider organisational environment are involved. Finally, the individual employee's orientation where their work is concerned, which assists to determine his or her thoughts, feelings, and behavioural attitude towards work, has a significant impact on whether they view their work as meaningful or not (Wrzesniewski, 2003).

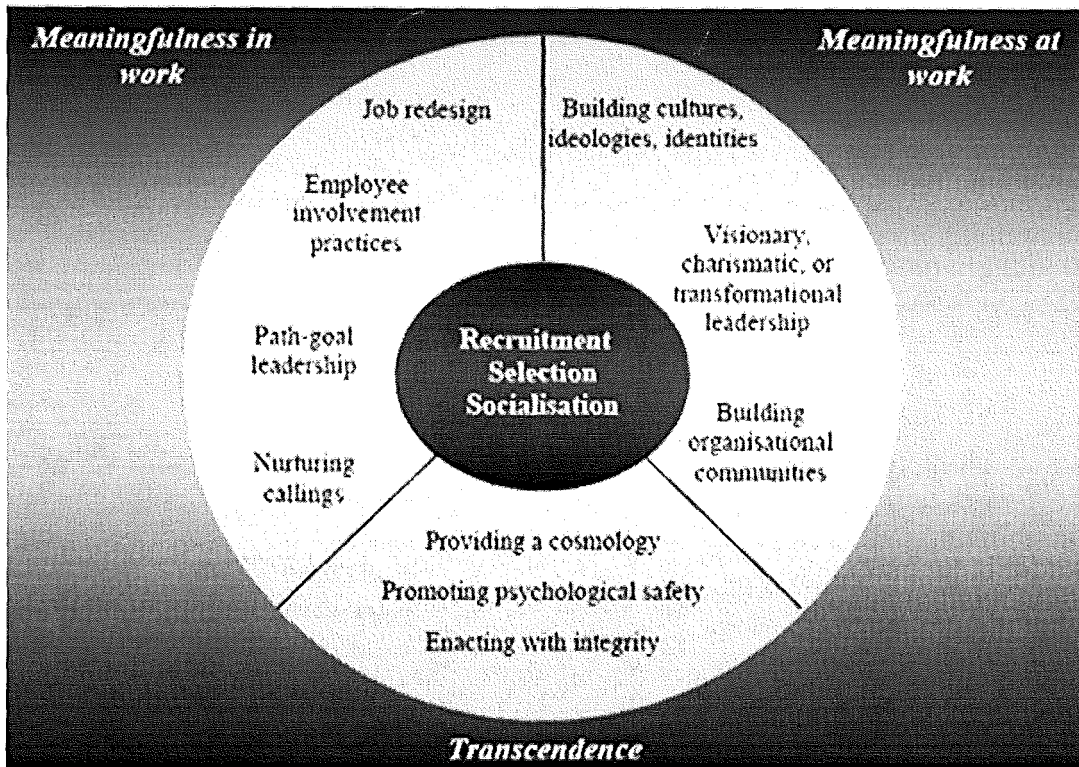


Figure 2.5 Organizational practices that nurture meaningfulness (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003).

One model that may be of value in identifying the interventions requires the creation of a positive organisational context, in other words, one in which meaning can more easily be experienced. In this model, depicted above in **Figure 2.5**, a contrast is made between meaning in work and meaning at work. Whereas the former entails finding meaning in what one does, in other words, one's roles, the latter entails one's sense of belonging, or finding meaning in the people that one surrounds oneself with as part of organisational affiliation, and/or in the goals, values, and beliefs that the organisation advocates (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003).

2.5 THE NEGATIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTION

Van Schalkwyk, Du Toit, Bothma and Rothmann (2010) are of the impression that the significance of comprehending turnover intention is crucial when taking the war for talented

employees among companies into consideration. Deb (2009) states that employee retention factors vary with countries/regions owing to various socio-economic and cultural factors.

In developed countries, due to general affluence, compensation is vital, but it is not the only critical retention factor. Nevertheless, in developing countries like South Africa, due to economic considerations, compensation is one of the most imperative retention criteria because of variance in employee's need structure and social environments as compared to developed countries (Deb, 2009). According to Chew and Chan (2008), the intention to stay was also found to be considerably related to P-O fit, remuneration, recognition, training and career development, all of which can be categorised under talent management practices.

2.5.1 Using talent management to reduce employee turnover

According to Cobb (2014), in the hotel industry, great employee turnover can have a direct impact on your bottom line. Not only does it cost your organisation in terms of recruitment, on-boarding and training, it influences your ability to provide consistent, high-quality service to your clientele. Historically, the turnover rate in the hotel industry has been great, usually at double that of other industries. In 2008 only, the turnover for all industries was 18.7%, while it was pegged at 36.9% during the same time frame for hospitality. This high turnover rate results in a number of challenges for hotel executives as well as the sheer cost. A 2006 Cornell University study of the lodging business projected that turnover cost was \$6,000 for low complexity jobs and \$10,000 for high complexity jobs. Additionally, the same study identified five major cost categories to the overall cost of replacing an employee – pre-departure, recruitment, selection, orientation/training and lost productivity.

Cobb (2014), states that talent management programs provide the hotel industry with a proven and practical way to considerably improve employee satisfaction and retention in order to reduce turnover and its associated costs. Additionally, happier, more productive employees deliver high levels of customer service and help to deliver strong general business results. There are numerous talent management best practices that have been shown to significantly improve employee satisfaction and retention (Cobb, 2014).

2.5.2 Talent Management Strategy as a Key to Retention

Bhatnagar (2007) states that talent management is quickly gaining top priority among organisations across the world. Trends for talent management, talent wars, talent raids and talent shortage, talent metrics retention and concerns for talent strategy are articulated as being major apprehensions, across various countries including the USA, the UK, South Africa, Australia, Japan, China, India, and across Asia, to mention a few (Bhatnagar, 2007). Talent management was originally designed to expand the process for recruiting and developing people with the necessary skills and aptitude to meet current organisational needs. The different aspects of talent management are recruitment, selection, on-boarding, mentoring, performance management, career development, leadership development, replacement planning, career planning, recognition and reward. Competition and the lack of availability of highly talented and skilled employees make finding and retaining talented employees, main priorities for organisations. In order to attract and retain the best talent anywhere in the world, an organisation must have a strong and positive employer brand. Employer brand interventions in current research indicate that talent management is a key driver for this strategy, and is on the agenda for HR executives in 2007 and further (Bhatnagar, 2007).

Talent has become the main differentiator for human capital management and for leveraging competitive advantage. Grounded within strategic HRM, the management of talent seems to be one of the key roles that HRM is playing strategically in organisations. Recent research shows that the war for talent is intense due to labour market shortages, yet very little research attention has been aimed at competitive talent management strategies. Recent research further, reflects that the typical HRM/talent mind-set, which looks at performance results as an opportunity for an assessment of ability, results in lower performance and unhappy staff who do not realise their potential and thus would reflect low talent engagement (Bhatnagar, 2007). Employees that are disengaged are more likely to quit the organisation.

2.5.3 Turnover Intention Model



Figure 2.6 Conceptual Model Showing Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment as Determining Factors of Intention to Quit (Martin & Kaufman, 2013).

According to Martin and Kaufman (2013), it is important to consider employee intent to quit as a factor affecting actual turnover. Research has shown that intent to quit is the best forecaster of actual turnover behaviour and has been discovered to be highly correlated to both job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Human resource practices hold a significant role as well as depicted in **Figure 2.6**. Nine of the facets of job satisfaction are known to include pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, co-workers, nature of work, and communication. An employee's affective or attitudinal response to these facets regulates job satisfaction. Organisational commitment studies previously carried out categorised commitment as a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and a definite desire to maintain organisational membership (Martin & Kaufman, 2013).

up to 213% of annual salary for highly educated executive jobs (Happiness at Work, 2013). These are approximations of a direct cost of turnover. Nonetheless, there are also indirect costs to be considered, such as: the hiring process, training costs, lost productivity, exit costs, administrative costs, lower engagement of the remaining employees and the effect on company culture (Happiness at Work, 2013). Moreover, the position in question is unproductive for 3 months in full (1 month prior to leave, month of leave and 1 month after leave) (Happiness at Work, 2013).

The percentage of American workers who vacate their jobs voluntarily has risen to the highest level in four years. Recurrent voluntary turnover can have a negative effect on the morale of the remaining employees, as was recently discovered in a Happy Case Study (Happiness at Work, 2013). However, having dissatisfied employees who are afraid to leave or haven't made this decision yet is not good for employee morale either. They will have a lower involvement and reduced productivity. The bulk of turnover, 52%, occurs, on average, in the first year of employment, peaking around the 12th month (Happiness at Work, 2013). That is because employers do not invest enough in a sound selection and on boarding process, which leaves the new employee feeling lost, as well as unfit.

Enhancing retention in the first year can make a big difference. If threshold productivity increases on average at the 6 month mark, anyone who leaves with less time on the job is, to some extent, a financial loss (Happiness at Work, 2013). That is why it is important that employers build a retention strategy, focusing on the early months, to get people engaged with the company. After the first year of employment, the next critical point for 54% of companies is the three year mark. According to research conducted by TalentKeepers, 50 % of employees claim a lack of upward career advancement opportunities. That's 7% more than 2012 (Happiness at Work, 2013). A constant communication policy, that permits managers to know what employees' expectations and aspirations are, can increase retention and minimise turnover costs. All over the world, engagement levels are estimated at 13% and Gallup approximates that active disengagement in the United States costs US\$450 billion to \$550 billion per year (Happiness at Work, 2013).

According to TalentKeepers, employee engagement and talent retention are becoming increasingly embedded as a core talent management practice and, more importantly, an integral business strategy (Happiness at Work, 2013). Quantum Workplace structured a model for employee engagement, defining both engagement anchors and engagement drivers. Anchors aid to measure the engagement level within a company. Unlike drivers, they don't provide any answers as to how that level can be improved. These anchors are Advocacy, Discretionary Effort and Intent to Stay. Engagement drivers provide an actionable summary and can be listed as Teamwork, Manager Effectiveness, Trust in Senior Leaders, Trust in Co-workers, Retention, Alignment with Goals, Feeling Valued, Individual Contribution, Job Satisfaction and Benefits (Happiness at Work, 2013).

As can be concluded from the above discussion extracted from the happy white paper, engagement indeed does moderate the relationship between talent management and turnover intention. Talent management results in engagement and when employees are engaged, they are much less likely to quit the organisation. However, previous research on the direct moderation of the relationship between talent management and turnover intention, by specifically happiness, seems to be lacking. It is therefore anticipated that this study will be able to shed more light on the precise condition of this relationship.

2.9 THE EXTENT TO WHICH MEANINGFULNESS MODERATES THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

It is obvious that retention is influenced by a multiplicity of different aspects and that the four fundamental concepts for retention overlap. Consequently, some of the important aspects in retention can be thought to be: Perceived organisational support, good supervisory relationships, recognition, personal growth, two-way communication, identification with organisational values, challenging and meaningful work (Saks, 2006; Wollard & Shuck, 2011; Gibbons, 2006; Chalofsky & Krishna, 2009; Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006).

2.9.1 Challenges Associated With Retaining Talent

These days organisations are more dependent on their top performers than ever before (Ware & Fern, 1997). Retaining valuable employees is thus crucial in the current difficult economic climate. To ensure that top performing talent has the longing to stay at an organisation is becoming more and more difficult given the current world of work. Current organisations face several challenges. These difficulties include widespread labour shortages, increased knowledge-work, altering workforce demographics, downsizing, acquisitions and mergers, volatile markets and globalisation (Ployhart, 2006).

These challenges have resulted in a progressively more competitive labour market which is constantly changing. Consequently, employees experience much lesser job security, small salary increases and greater uncertainty. This has resulted in a drop in employee loyalty, a lack of motivation and finally, an increase in the intent of many employees to leave the organisation. Employee turnover has a disturbing effect on organisations around the world. Turnover annually costs South African organisations several millions of Rands because of reductions in productivity, the loss of skills and company knowledge, along with low employee morale (Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2006). Low employee morale normally results in employees being disengaged, which thus hinders the process of them finding meaning in the work that they do. Furthermore, tremendously high labour costs related to the recruitment, selection, socialisation and training of new employees are incurred. The costs of replacing an employee are expected to vary from 29 to 46 per cent of an individual employee's annual salary (Grobler *et al*, 2006).

It is therefore obvious that retention and the optimisation of human capital should include a key component of any organisation's strategy. However, understanding the causes of retention may be difficult given that the reasons why an employee decides on staying at an organisation tend to vary across jobs, industries and geographical locations. In a continuously changing global village, attraction and retention strategies are fundamental focal points on the agendas of highly competitive companies (Ulrich, Brockbank, Johnson, Sandholtz & Younger, 2008). The effective management of human capital generates a major competitive

advantage for companies and leaders, therefore boards and their committees have to be ever more thoughtful and meticulous concerning how they monitor their organisation's human capital strategy (Ashford & Dieck, 2012; Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008).

Prosperous organisations possess one major quality distinguishes them from unsuccessful organisations, which is dynamic and effective leadership (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Sauer, 2003). In an age where nothing is more assured than change, leaders are not only accountable for assisting their employees to meander through change (De Poel, Stoker, & Van Der Zee, 2012) but they increasingly play a vital role in structuring a robust and resilient pool of talent that is the core of organisational success (Bhatnagar, 2007; Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Luthans & Youssef, 2007; Yukl & Becker, 2006). Nowack (2005) is of the impression that leadership and management practices are fundamental to a psychologically healthy workplace and distinctly result in measurable and meaningful business outcomes. Successful and effective leadership is imperative since it is closely linked with organisational outcomes such as improved employee attitudes, improved performance and motivation (Kelloway, Turner, Barling, & Loughlin, 2012).

2.9.2 Why Employees That Are Happy and Find Meaning in Their Work Are Your Greatest Sustainable Advantage

David Russo (2010) states that people have a natural and inherent desire to make a contribution: to be part of something greater than themselves, something of significance. Second, they want to do something that is worthwhile and notable, something they can be proud of and attach their names to. Third, they want to be recognised for their efforts and for the results. And fourth, they want all this to happen in an environment worthy of their efforts, in other words, a place that is respected and respectable. He further states that money is by no means the leading motivator for most of the talented, good people in today's workforce. What they value more and perhaps even most, is meaningful work. Russo (2010) additionally suggests that what brings people to work and keeps them there is that their employment is an opportunity for them to do what they have been educated and trained to do at the highest level of success possible. It is where they can grow and achieve, and also produce exemplary results, and be recognised as worthy and special while doing it with others with similar talent,

spirit, and professionalism. All this, he says, occurring in an entity that respects them and is worthy of high regard (Russo, 2010).

By means of a social exchange perspective, Alfes, Shantz, Truss and Soane (2013) recently proved that the associations between experiencing a sense of meaning and turnover intention was moderated by perceived organisational support and by the relationship with the supervisor. This thus implies the fact that meaningful work moderates the relationship between management commitment – which is a talent management practice as discussed under heading 2.2.2 of this literature review – and turnover intention. More precisely, when engaged employees felt supported by their organisation and when they maintained a good relationship with their supervisor, they tended to display less intention to quit.

It is imperative for organisations to focus on the development of leaders who have the ability to empower and amplify happiness and meaningfulness levels which will result in better retention of talent. Mare (2007) and Van Schalkwyk et al. (2010) discovered that if leadership empowerment behaviour increases, turnover intention declines. Improved psychological empowerment, according to Seibert, Wang and Courtright (2011) and Bhatnager (2012), results in reduced turnover intention. When leaders thus increase the degree of authority of their employees, decision-making and accountability, sharing of information and provision of support, as well as the development and coaching of employees for innovative performance, employees will begin to experience feelings of being more in control. When individuals feel as though their inputs are appreciated and that they make a meaningful contribution towards the impact of business strategy, they will find greater meaning and happiness in their work. When individuals experience meaning, a sense of self-efficacy, control, as well as autonomy, this will have a great influence on their commitment and intention to stay in the organisation (Albrecht & Andreeta, 2010; Baskin, 2007; De Villiers & Stander, 2011; Mare, 2007; Mendes & Stander, 2010).

Christensen (2009) also states that findings proved that meaningfulness and organisational commitment mediated fully the association between possibility for development and turnover. Thus, we are able to conclude that talent management could somehow assist people

in finding the meaning of work for which they search. This usually means that employees will be more engaged and are thus less likely to quit the organisation. Studies precisely indicating or proving whether meaning mediates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention have however, not been conducted. It is therefore assumed based on the literature found on similar relationships that the mediation of meaning does exist between talent management and turnover intention.

2.10 DEVELOPMENT OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

From this literature review it has been depicted that the research objectives stated in chapter 1, under heading 1.5 have been achieved. These research objectives are deliberated below in more detail. The research objectives have been used in order to cultivate a visual model of the manner in which they are related to one another and this will be used in explaining the research objectives better.

The diagram **Figure 1.1** as depicted in chapter 1 has been broken down into smaller sections below. Each of these smaller sections is further discussed separately. The purpose of each of these sections is to discuss the diverse hypotheses that were developed and are to be tested in this study. The first diagram to be discussed, which is **Figure 2.7**, focuses on the positive significant relationship between talent management and happiness. The second diagram, which is **Figure 2.8**, focuses on the positive significant relationship between talent management and meaningfulness. The third diagram, which is **Figure 2.9**, considers the negative significant relationship between talent management and turnover intention. The fourth diagram, which is **Figure 2.10**, illustrates the negative significant relationship between happiness and turnover intentions. The fifth diagram, which is **Figure 2.11**, illustrates the negative significant relationship between meaningfulness and turnover intention. The sixth diagram, which is **Figure 2.12**, focuses on the extent to which happiness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention. The seventh and final diagram, which is **Figure 2.13**, focuses on the extent to which meaningfulness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention. Finally this section will discuss the research question stated at the start of the study and it will discuss how these concepts fall into the overall study.

The first research objective is to determine whether there is a positive significant relationship between talent management and happiness, as demonstrated in **Figure 2.7**. This relationship is proven through the research done by Barning (2014), who states that according to positive psychologists, talent management and an investment in learning and development can increase employee happiness. Making sure that our organisation’s leadership and talent management initiatives take heed of and develop people every day should eliminate barriers, silos, and disengagement, thus eliminating discontentment or unhappiness (Oakes & Galagan, 2011).

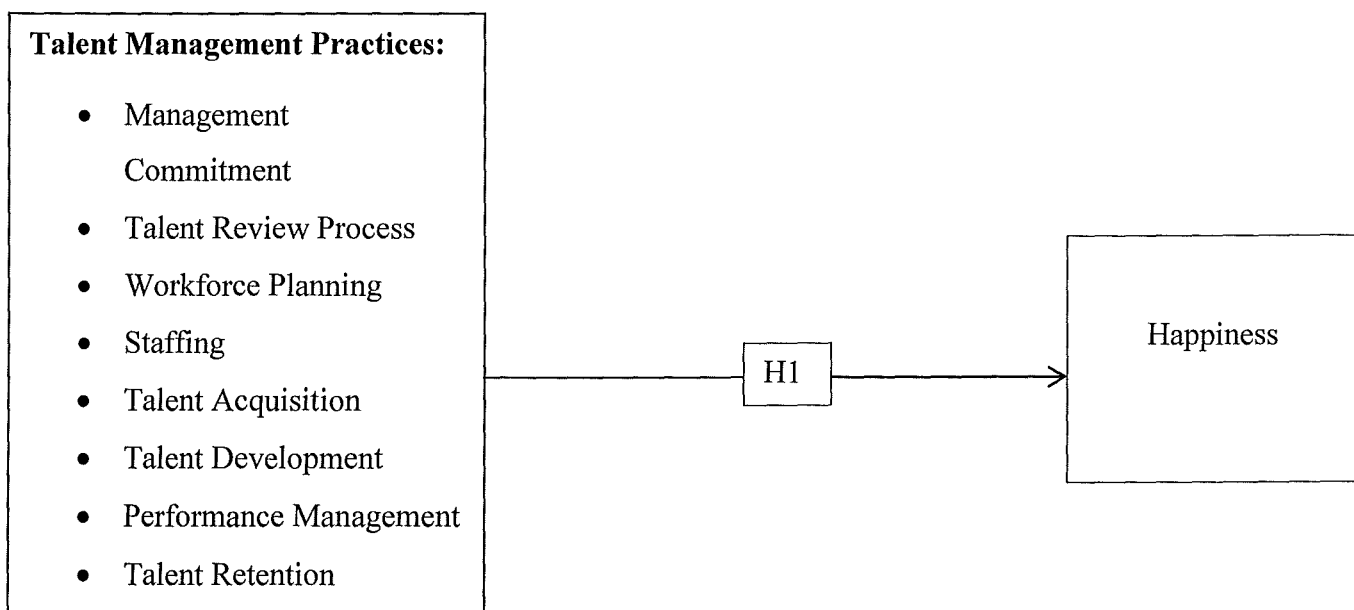


Figure 2.7 The positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Happiness.

The following hypothesis to be proven by this research is developed from the model **Figure 2.7**:

H₁: There is a positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Happiness.

The second research objective is to determine whether there is a positive significant relationship between talent management and meaningfulness, as demonstrated in **Figure 2.8**.

Prior studies and validate the fact that when leaders empower instead of control their employees, such employees will experience psychological empowerment, which comprises meaningfulness (Greasley et al., 2008; Lawler, Mohrman, & Benson, 2001; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Raub & Robert, 2010).

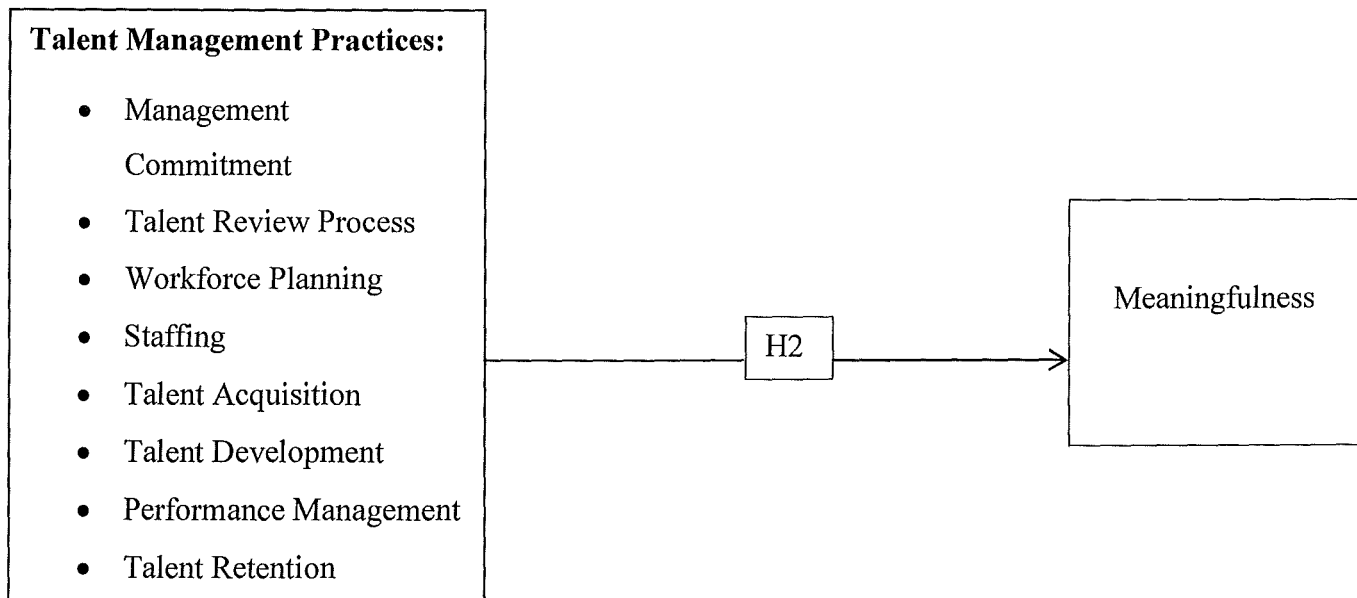


Figure 2.8 The positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Meaningfulness.

The following hypothesis to be proven by this research is developed from **Figure 2.8**:

H₂: There is a positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Meaningfulness.

The third research objective is to determine whether there is a negative significant relationship between talent management and turnover intention, as demonstrated in **Figure 2.9**. This relationship was proven through the numerous talent management best practices that have been shown to significantly improve employee satisfaction and retention (Cobb, 2014). Intention to stay was also found to be considerably related to P-O fit, remuneration, recognition, training and career development (Chew & Chan, 2008). It was also found that in

order to attract and retain the best talent anywhere in the world an organisation must have a strong and positive employer brand. Employer brand interventions in current research indicate that talent management is a key driver for this strategy, and is on the agenda for HR executives in 2007 and further (Bhatnagar, 2007).

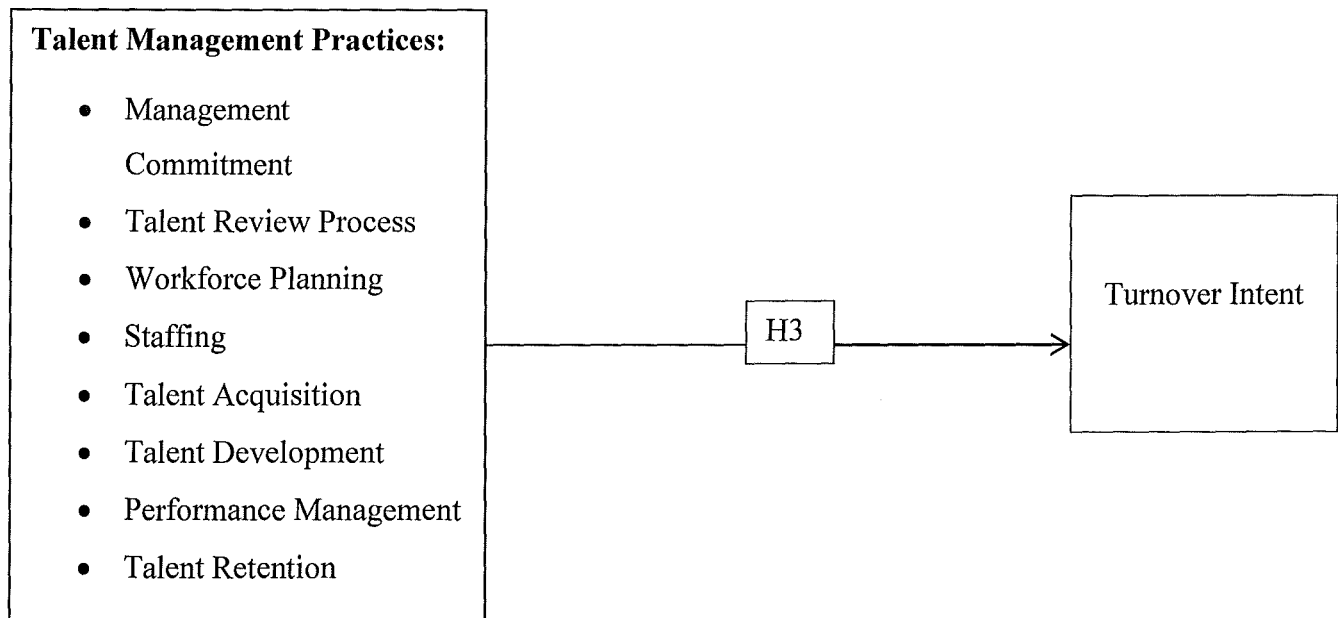


Figure 2.9 The negative significant relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intention.

The following hypothesis to be proven by this research is developed from **Figure 2.9**:

H₃: There is a negative significant relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intent.

The fourth research objective is to determine whether there is a negative significant relationship between happiness and turnover intention, as shown in **Figure 2.10**. This relationship could not be distinctly proven through previous research, therefore it is anticipated that this research hopefully proves it.

The following hypothesis to be proven by this research is developed from **Figure 2.11**:

H₅: There is a negative significant relationship between meaningfulness and turnover intention.

The sixth research objective is to determine whether happiness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention to a certain extent, as depicted in **Figure 2.12**. This relationship could not be distinctly proven through previous research, therefore it is anticipated that this research hopefully proves it.

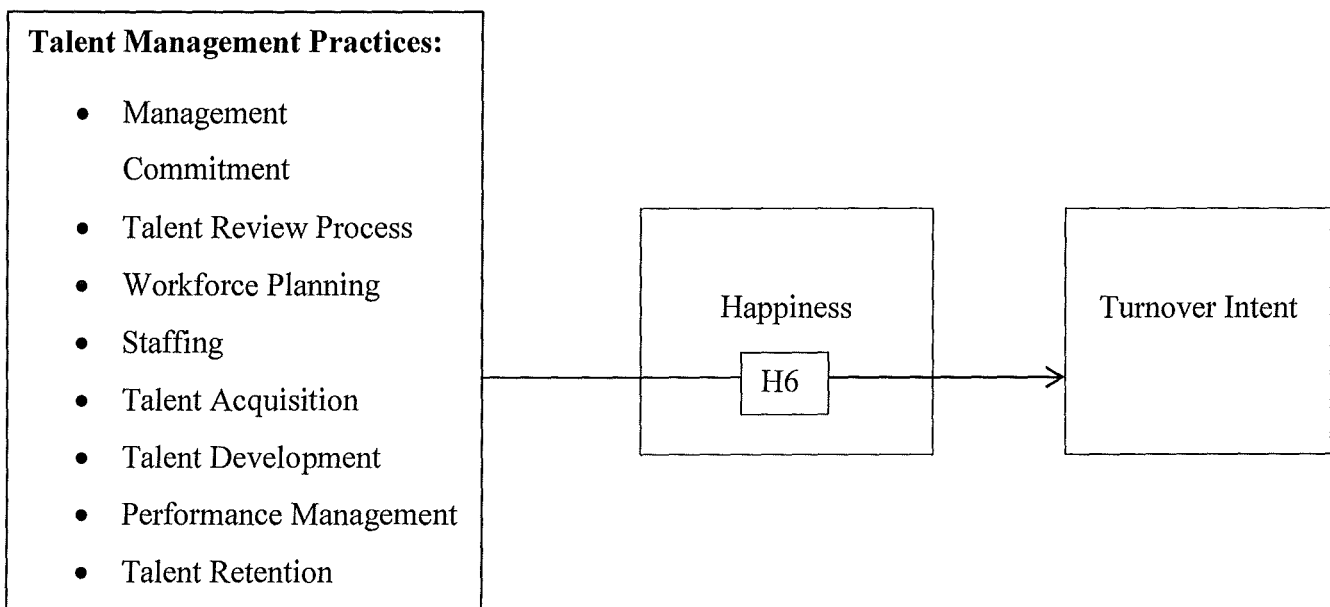


Figure 2.12 The extent to which happiness moderates the relationship between Talent management and Turnover Intent.

The following hypothesis to be proven by this research is developed from **Figure 2.12**:

H₆: Happiness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention to a certain extent.

The seventh research objective is to determine the extent to which meaningfulness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention, as depicted by **Figure 2.13**. This relationship was proven through the research done by Alfes, Shantz, Truss and Soane (2013) which recently proved that the associations between engagement and turnover intention was moderated by perceived organizational support and by the relationship with the supervisor. When individuals feel as though their inputs are appreciated and that they make a meaningful contribution towards the impact of business strategy, they will feel more engaged. Individuals will experience meaning, a sense of self-efficacy, control, as well as autonomy, which will have a great influence on their commitment and intention to stay in the organisation (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010; Baskin, 2007; De Villiers & Stander, 2011; Mare, 2007; Mendes & Stander, 2010). Christensen (2009) also states that findings proved that meaningfulness and organisational commitment mediated fully the association between possibility for development and turnover.

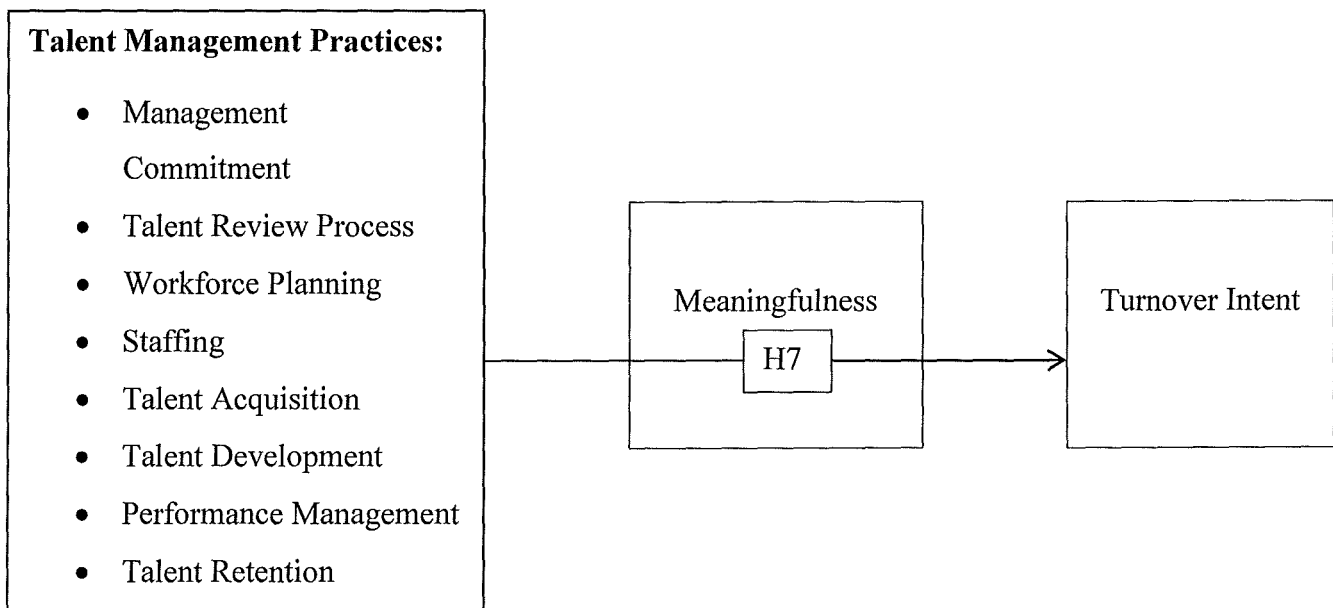


Figure 2.13 The extent to which meaningfulness moderates the relationship between Talent management and Turnover Intent.

The following hypothesis to be proven by this research is developed from **Figure 2.13**:

H₇: Meaningfulness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention to a certain extent.

From these sections that have just been discussed above, we are able perceive how all the relationships that this study seeks to prove, as stated in the research objectives in chapter 1, under subheading 1.5, have indeed been proven in this literature review. This also shows that substantial research has been done concerning these relationships, which further increases the likelihood of this study confirming what has been determined by previous research, as well as providing a few more discoveries which previous research may not have noted.

2.11 CONCLUSION

If South African organisations are to retain talented and skilled staff, they must consider the psychological requirements of employees and their predictors. In this study, the main focus is on happiness and meaningfulness as being the main psychological needs that increase the intention to stay of employees. The effective retention of skilled employees is essential in organisations in South Africa. Nonetheless, studies on the psychological processes (and specifically the satisfaction of psychological needs), through which manager relations could promote the retention of staff, are essential. Organisations should take very seriously the process of implementing sound talent management practices that will prove to be effective in the long run, in terms of keeping turnover intent among employees under control.

It should be taken into consideration that, even though a literature review is essential, it also conveys some dangers. One may be influenced by the results of prior research, or one may accept with no criticism, their chosen characteristics and explanations so that one fails to recognise new possibilities and to observe without preconceptions or expectations. One may develop the tendency to emphasise mainly what has been brought to one's attention or to work within the quarantines of an already established framework, rather than discovering new opportunities. The next chapter discusses the research method used in this study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Research design is directly related to the testing of hypotheses. It is a specification of the most adequate operations to be performed so as to test a particular hypothesis, under the given conditions. It should not, however, be confused with research management, which is a plan to direct the researcher through the actual research process. The imperative question facing the scientist is: What steps should be taken so as to demonstrate that a particular hypothesis is true and that all other conceivable hypotheses must be rejected? (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006).

Chapter three illustrates the methods of research used in this study. The rationale encompassing the methodology that is used and how the research is carried out are clarified in this chapter. The research design, research paradigm, description of enquiry strategy, sampling, collection of data, research ethics and further details on the method and measures which were undertaken to distribute the questionnaire, including the analysis of data are also discussed.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

According to Stoppani (2011), a paradigm is a singular case that is secluded from its context only insofar as, by demonstrating its own singularity, it makes understandable a new ensemble, whose similarity it on its own, constitutes. A research paradigm is a viewpoint about research held by a community of researchers that is founded on a set of shared assumptions, concepts, values, and practices. Basically, it is an approach to pondering on and doing research (Johnson & Christensen, 2012).

Wimmer and Dominick (2012) identify three distinct approaches to social science research: positivist, interpretive, and critical. Each of these signifies a model or a paradigm for research. The positivist paradigm is the oldest and still the most commonly used in mass media research. The positivist paradigm entails such concepts as quantification, hypotheses, and objective measures. The purpose of the interpretive paradigm is to comprehend how

people in everyday natural settings create meaning and interpret the happenings of their world, while the critical paradigm pulls on analysis models used in the humanities (Wimmer & Dominick, 2012). Critical researchers are fascinated by such concepts as the distribution of power in society and political ideology. However, this research uses the positivist paradigm in its approach.

The positivist paradigm is appropriate for this study as it seeks to find a relationship between constructs stated for this study and also makes use of objective measurement instruments for the data collecting and analysis procedures. The paradigm is furthermore appropriate in terms of the study making use of a questionnaire/survey design which is aimed at quantifying the attributes related to Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness and the Turnover Intention among academic staff in ten Higher Education Institutions. The study additionally aims to obtain results from the target sample that will be relatable to the general population of academics in HEIs, considering that the results have the potential to be valuable to Higher Education Institutions and add to the narrow literature on this topic in South Africa. The assumptions on which this study is based align well with the paradigm the researcher adopts (Wimmer & Dominick, 2012).

3.3 DESCRIPTION OF INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN

The following section outlines the description of this study's strategy of inquiry and the basic characteristics of quantitative research.

3.3.1 Description of the Strategy of Inquiry

This study mainly relies on questionnaires as its research data collection method. The researcher uses non-experimental research in this study in order to provide a numerical (quantitative) description of attitudes, opinions or trends of a population by studying a sample of the population.

Non-experimental research designs are classically used in cases where it is not practical, possible, feasible, or desirable to manipulate an independent variable as would be necessary

in experimental research. Non- experimental research is also used to examine the knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours of people. Furthermore, relationship-type questions can be answered by means of non-experimental research (Cottrell & McKenzie, 2011).

The researcher uses a non-experimental design as the strategy of inquiry to answer each of the research questions posed in Chapter 1. This strategy is selected as the researcher seeks to determine the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and Turnover Intention among academic staff at ten Higher Education Institutions. The non-experimental design is selected as this research cannot be conducted using an experimental design. Non-experiments include any design that uses statistical controls (Langbein & Felbinger, 2006). Turnover Intentions, if induced by a lack of happiness and meaningfulness, appear differently for each individual. Therefore, if the test is run in a controlled laboratory and only the test group is influenced by happiness, meaningfulness, and talent management practices and not the control group, the results of this study could not be generalised to the greater population of academic staff in the Higher Education industry, as this would not reflect the real world.

3.3.2 The Basic Characteristics of Quantitative Research

Quantitative research generally involves collecting and converting data into a numerical form so that statistical calculations can be made and conclusions can be drawn from them. Quantitative research usually uses what might be called a “narrow-angle lens”, (p. 35) since the focus is on only one or a few causal factors simultaneously (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Quantitative researchers endeavour to hold constant the factors that are not being studied. Quantitative researchers endeavour to operate under the assumption of objectivity. They assume that there is a reality to be observed and that rational observers who view the same phenomenon will essentially agree on its existence and its characteristics. They attempt to remain as neutral or value-free as possible, and they try to shy away from human bias whenever possible. In a way, quantitative researchers try to study the phenomena that interest them the most from a distance. For instance, standardised questionnaires and other quantitative measuring equipment are often used to measure carefully what is observed (Johnson & Christensen, 2012).

Data is collected by numerous means, following a strict procedure, and prepared for statistical analysis. Nowadays, this is done with the aid of sophisticated statistical computer packages. The analysis allows the researcher to determine to what extent there is a relationship between two or among more than two variables. This could be a simple association (e.g. people who exercise on a daily basis have lower blood pressure) or a causative relationship (e.g. daily exercise actually leads to lower blood pressure). Statistical analysis enables researchers to discover complex causative relationships as well as to determine to what extent one variable influences another, (Alzheimer Europe Research Methods: Types of Research, 2009).

3.4 A CLASSIFICATION OF THE PROPOSED STUDY'S OVERALL RESEARCH DESIGN

The following are fitting descriptors that best describe the wider research design of the proposed study:

Cross-sectional: According to Hall (2008), a cross-sectional survey assembles data to make inferences relating to a population of interest (universe) at a specific point in time. Cross-sectional surveys are labelled as snapshots of the populations they collect data from. Cross-sectional surveys may be repeated every so often; nonetheless, in a recurrent cross-sectional survey, respondents to the survey at one point in time are not deliberately sampled again, even though a respondent to one administration of the survey could be randomly nominated for a subsequent one. Vogt, Gardner and Haefele (2012) state that, the enormous advantage of a cross-sectional study is that one only needs to gather data once. One of the first stages in carrying out a cross-sectional study is to determine the target population. This study targets a mere snapshot of a larger population in the higher education academic field of ten Higher Education Institutions at one point in time and data is collected only once.

Non-experimental: Non-experimental designs comprise research designs in which an experimenter merely either describes a group or observes relationships between pre-existing

groups. Non-experimental designs are basically intended to respond to questions concerning groups or determining whether group differences are present (Salkind, 2010). Punch (2014) states that in the non-experiment, the concept of naturally occurring treatment groups is expanded to naturally occurring variation in the independent variable due to the fact that the comparison groups as such are either completely not clear-cut or non-existent. The conclusions made from non-experimental research are predominantly descriptive in nature, which applies to the conclusions of this research.

Primary Data: Lamb, Hair and McDaniel (2011) explain that primary data, or information gathered for the first time, is used for elucidating the specific problem being investigated. They further expound that the chief advantage of primary data is that they will answer a specific research question that secondary data is unable to answer, moreover, primary data are current, and researchers are well aware of the source. Although primary methods allow researchers to collect data that suit the needs of the research and can be customised in harmony with research design, the gathering of primary data can be very taxing on one's resources and may call for substantial money and time (Aparasu & Bentley, 2014). This study utilises a substantial amount of primary data.

Empirical Research: Jain, Sinha and Vitharana (2011) state that empirical research outcomes have the ability to trigger design-oriented research by providing insights into and pointing to interesting and pertinent phenomena.

Descriptive Research: Mitchell and Jolley (2012) state that descriptive research enables you to describe behaviour precisely and that the key to descriptive research is to quantify and record your variables correctly using a representative sample. They also state that even though descriptive research cannot assert if one variable elicits changes in another, it could possibly suggest, cause and effect (causal) hypotheses that one could examine in an experiment. The main aim of this research is to generate a description of the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and Turnover Intention.

Quantitative Data (Numeric Data): Quantitative data pertains to the numbers used as data or the outcomes of the numeric processes that the research has gone through (Greener, 2011). Data analysis in quantitative research is deductive, meaning that it entails testing hypotheses using numerical data and statistical tests (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Walker, 2013). The data collection technique used for this research is questionnaires, which generate numerical data. This study seeks to find a relationship by means of correlation analysis which is a statistical analysis technique, which explains why the use of numerical data was necessary. Conclusions are drawn from the statistical analysis.

3.5 SAMPLING

In order to answer the research questions and hypotheses stated, the researcher has selected a non-experimental strategy of inquiry. This successively requires the researcher to select a non-experimental data collection method. The purpose of selecting the non-experimental method is so that the researcher is able to determine the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and Turnover Intention among academic staff at ten Higher Education Institutions. This kind of study cannot be conducted by means of an experimental research design.

3.5.1 Units of Analysis

The units of analysis of a study point towards the entities which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions on. The units of analysis may be based on individuals, families, organisations and any other groupings or entities (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). This study uses academic staff in a ten various South African Universities for the purposes of testing the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and Turnover Intention among this sampling population.

3.5.2 Target Population

According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2013), a target population is the set of elements about which information is sought and estimates are wanted. Practical considerations may decree that some units are excluded (e.g., institutionalised individuals, the homeless, or those that cannot be accessed without incurring excessive cost).

The target population for this study is the academic employees of Higher Education Institutions in South Africa. One hundred and sixty (160) academics have been selected for the purpose of this research. This is the target population which is sampled for data collection. [n= 160]

3.5.3 Sampling Method

In order to craft the most accurate generalisation of the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness and Turnover Intention, the researcher attempted to use the largest sample group possible. To accomplish this, the researcher made arrangements with the Higher Education Institutions concerned, so that their employees could be used. Only employees who meet the population requirements were selected for this research. This study embraces the random sampling technique.

According to P. B. Stark (2013), a random sample is a sample whose members are selected at random from a particular population in such a way that the chance of obtaining any particular sample can be computed. The number of units in the sample is known as the sample size, generally denoted n , while the number of units in the general population is denoted N . Random samples can be drawn with or without substituting objects between draws; that is, drawing all n objects in the sample at the same time (a random sample without replacement), or drawing the objects one at a time, substituting them in the population between draws (a random sample with replacement) (Stark, 2013). In a random sample with replacement, any particular member of the population can come about in the sample more than once. In a random sample without replacement, any particular member of the population can be in the sample only once. A random sample without replacement in which every subset of n of the N units in the population is equally likely is also known as a simple random sample (Stark, 2013). The term random sample with replacement symbolises a random sample drawn in such a way that every n -tuple of units in the population is equally likely (Stark, 2013).

3.6 DATA COLLECTION

This study uses questionnaires as data collection methods. According to the Miriam Webster Dictionary (2013), a questionnaire is a set of questions for obtaining statistically useful or personal information from individuals. The following section explains the precise attributes and characteristics of the units of analysis, as well as the factors that hindered the access to the essential data. The section further discusses the specific approach, method and instruments used in the collection of data. Thereafter, the exact forms of data collection as well as the pilot testing done for the study are discussed. To conclude this section there is a discussion pertaining to who was involved in the data collection and the length of time that it took to complete the data collection process.

3.6.1 Specific Attributes and Characteristics of the Units Of Analysis

Academic staff members are identified as the units of analysis for this research. The precise characteristics and attributes of the units of analysis are assembled through the primary data collection method. To comprehend the results obtained from the study, it is essential to discuss and describe the sample population, for the sake of ensuring that generalisations made on the population are accurate.

In order to comprehend the association between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness and Turnover Intention, the population is first divided in terms of the field of work they work in. The participants were requested to state the precise type of academic role which they possess (Junior Lecturer, Lecturer, Senior Lecturer, Associate Professor or Professor) and the specific work they do (Lecturing, Research, or both Lecturing and Research). By stating one of these the researcher is able to determine which particular type of work had the highest levels of Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness and Turnover Intention. By stating the work field the researcher is also able to determine which position has the highest levels of Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness and Turnover Intention. This specification of job position and job description is used as an evaluation tool to provide better generalisations about the population.

The second attribute and characteristic gathered from the sample is the gender of the participants. This attribute is used to determine if there is any dissimilarity concerning the association between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness and Turnover Intention in males as compared to in females. This was done to provide the researcher with a well-defined understanding of the division of the respondents.

Some of the additional attributes and characteristics that were measured in the study are marital status, home language, age, current level of qualification, ethnicity, work experience, working in current job, promotions, employment basis, hours worked per week, travel time to and from work, as well as the entitlement of leave. These were also used to assess if there are any noteworthy trends that play a role in the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness and Turnover Intention.

3.6.2 Factors That Hamper Access to the Required Data Source

Regardless of the best intentions, glitches generally arise in gathering data and information (Ferrell & Hartline, 2012). The researcher is faced with the task of obtaining permission from the relevant organisation. Even after requesting the organisation for permission to conduct the research by means of writing a letter, the researcher still has an even greater task that lies ahead of actually gaining the participation of the target population within the organisation, once permission has been granted. This is described as the process of gaining physical access or entry. Such a process can be hindered by a considerable number of factors such as the unwillingness or reluctance of the employees to participate in the survey. Potential participants may also perceive such a research exercise as a waste of time, which they could otherwise be utilising to perform their jobs, as was the case with some of the participants in this study who returned incomplete questionnaires.

3.6.3 Specific Approach, Method and Instruments to Be Used In the Collection of the Data

The following section discusses the exact approach used to gather the data necessary for this research as well as the precise measurement instruments used in the collection of the necessary data.

3.6.3.1 Specific Research Method

Questionnaires are used as the method of data collection in this research. These questionnaires are all self-administered questionnaires because using a self-administered questionnaire can be a cheap and easy way to get honest answers from thousands of people (Mitchell & Jolley, 2012). The questionnaires were either administered manually (hand-to-hand), or electronically via the internet. The most effective ways found for asking participants to complete the questionnaires for the purpose of this study were through the completion of a hard copy questionnaire document, hand delivered to participants' offices and secondly, electronically, using an email explaining how to take on answering the questionnaires as well as a link to where they could access the website in order to answer the questionnaires. This research was conducted in a cross-sectional manner due to restricted availability of time.

3.6.3.2 Measurement Instruments

The following questionnaires were administered to the participants for the purposes of this study. These questionnaires are a modified version of the Human Capital Index, a Happiness Questionnaire, a Meaningfulness Questionnaire and finally, the Employee Retention Scale.

Human Capital Index

Dual scales are used in this study. Firstly, respondents are required to rate the current Talent Management Practices in the Institution on a five-point scale from Excellent (1), to Poor (5). Secondly, the respondents are required to rate the importance of the Talent Management Practices from Not (1), to Critical (5). This questionnaire has been validated in several South African studies (see Barkhuizen, 2013; Magolego et al., 2013; Mpofu & Barkhuizen, 2013; Mtila et al., 2013).

General Happiness Scale

A General Happiness Scale is used to evaluate the extent to which happiness of work exists within the Institution. This scale comprises of three items which are used to determine a

person's extent of happiness. A seven point Likert-type scale ranging from Not a very happy person (1), to A very happy person (7), Less happy (1), to More happy (7), Not at all (1), to A great deal (7), A great deal (1), to Not at all (7), is utilised for the purpose of this study (Seligman, 2003).

Meaningfulness of Life Questionnaire

This study uses a 10 item questionnaire designed to measure two dimensions of meaning in life: Presence of meaning (how much respondents feel their lives have meaning), and (2) Search for meaning (how much respondents strive to find meaning and understanding in their lives). Respondents answer each item on a 7 point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Absolutely True) to 7 (Absolutely Untrue) (Steger, Fraizer, Oishi & Kaler, 2006).

Employee Retention Scale

The final questionnaire used in the study is the Employee Retention Scale. This scale is made up of three items which are used to determine the managers' intent to quit the organisation. The Respondents in the study were requested to rate the items on a seven point scale from Strongly Disagree (0) to Strongly Agree (6). This questionnaire has been validated for the South African context (Du Plessis, Stanz, & Barkhuizen, 2010).

3.6.4 Specific Form of Data to Be Collected

The reason for opting to use primary data as the specific type of data for this study was the fact that there were no concrete sources of secondary data available for this particular study. After intense searching the researcher asserts that there is minimal research conducted on the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness and Turnover Intention among academic staff in the Tertiary Education industry. As a result of such a realisation, the researcher chose to collect primary data, informed by the fact that this was the best approach to achieving the most accurate results for this particular research project.

3.6.5 Pre- / Pilot Testing

Supino and Borer (2012) explain that pilot testing is crucial to the development of a valid and useful scale. No matter what level of caution is taken in developing and screening items, some are bound to be misinterpreted by respondents. The above mentioned authors state that pilot testing entails administering the preliminary questionnaire (including the cover letter and directions) to respondents who, once more, are as alike as possible to members of the target population. Supine and Borer (2012) further advise that the pilot should be performed, to the greatest extent possible, under conditions that reflect the conditions under which the final survey will be carried out. It should ask respondents to discover flaws that exist in the survey.

For the purpose of this research, the questionnaire was given to experts on the subject matter within the field of survey testing, academic professionals, as well as employees from the target population to be analysed. This was done to ensure that the questionnaires in fact, measure what is necessary to be measured in the study. The individuals consulted in the pre-testing phase of the study did not participate in the final phase of study. Factors such as the time taken to complete the survey, the clarity of the directions provided to assist in answering the questions, the appropriateness of the format adopted, the possibility of intrusiveness or redundancy of questions, as well as the applicability of questions, are all taken into consideration during the pre-testing phase. The appropriate measures were taken to rectify any of these hindering factors that may arise during the pilot test.

3.6.6 Who Is Involved With the Collection of the Data?

For the purpose of this study, the researcher was solely responsible for the questionnaires that were distributed and collected manually, from respondents after a specified period of time allocated for them to respond; hence facilitators were not needed. For the web based questionnaires, facilitators were also not considered to be necessary, since there was no need for physical contact. There was no specific equipment required either for the questionnaires administered electronically or manually. The necessary equipment for the participants to complete the questionnaire was a computer and an internet connection, which most academic staff have access to because of the nature of their work.

3.6.7 Length of the Data Collection Period

As the sample pool consists completely of academic staff and they are continuously very busy, it is considered befitting to have a relatively long data collection period. The data collection period for this research was set to last from the 4th August 2014 till the 26th September 2014. During this time frame, the researcher made weekly follow ups on the hand delivered, hard copy questionnaires and weekly notifications were sent to managers to remind them to fill in the electronic questionnaires, including a web-link attached, directing them to where they may complete the questionnaires.

3.6.8 Research Procedure

Prior to the data collection process, the researcher sought permission from the organisation to use its employees in academic positions. The sampling process began immediately after permission was granted. The participants were identified by means of the purposive convenience method. In order to observe protocol as well as maximise the effectiveness and participation of respondents in the study, the applicable reporting and communication channels were followed.

The purpose of the study, as well as the rights of the participant where the study is concerned were explained in the email for those that were sent electronically, and on the covering letter for those that were distributed manually. The participants were informed about the anonymity of the study as well as their rights to retract their participation from the study at any time without an explanation required. By returning a completed version of the questionnaire, the participant attested their informed consent which ensured voluntary participation.

Confidentiality of information provided by the participants was guaranteed as the survey was conducted in absolute anonymity, since the researcher did not at any time request, nor record the respondent's identity. As soon as the individual clicks on the submit button provided on the online questionnaire, the data is directly sent to the administration data bank of the Lime Survey database programme. The Lime Survey database programme has the functionality of exporting data recorded from the questionnaire into diverse tools, specifically SPSS which is used for data analysis.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

The core objective of the entire study is to ultimately answer the research objectives. This section discusses the data analysis process, as well as the nature of the analysis of the data gathered. Data collected from the study is analysed by means of quantitative techniques.

3.7.1 Recording, Storing and Coding of the Data Gathered

Responses collected from the online questionnaires are recorded electronically in the Lime Survey database. These results are then exported into the statistical program known as SPSS. The data received from the study is stored on two separate computers, as well as on an external hard-drive in order to reduce the risk of the data getting lost. Considering the fact that the data gathering process is completely anonymous, there is very minimal need to secure the data.

3.7.2 Preparation of Data for Analysis

In order to use SPSS for the purpose of computing descriptive statistics, it is necessary for a data file to be prepared (Verma, 2012). Pallant (2010) suggests that one should keep careful records of what they do, when using SPSS to conduct their analysis. She also advises that plenty of time should be allocated towards data entry and data analysis stages, as these usually take longer than expected during the research process. Before any statistical analysis can be done on the collected data, it is important to screen and clean data (Maree, 2010). This is done by SPSS, which shows the researcher errors including missing data, incorrect data entered, irregular distributions and other scores with extreme values which may possibly end up distorting statistics and generating incorrect conclusions.

3.7.3 Analysis Techniques

Statistical analysis is an aspect of intelligence that entails the collection, and scrutiny of data, as well as the reporting of trends. Statistical analysis scrutinises every single data sample in a population (the set of items from which samples can be drawn), as compared to a cross sectional representation of samples as less sophisticated methods do. According to Gibilisco (2012), statistical analysis can be fragmented into five discrete steps, as follows:

- Describe the nature of the data to be analysed.
- Explore the relation of the data as compared to the underlying population.
- Create a model to summarise understanding of how the data relates to the underlying population.
- Prove, or disprove the validity of the model.
- Employ predictive analytics to anticipate future trends.

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to improve the harnessing of the properties of the data, as well as to identify any detrimental inaccuracies that may arise from the data. The focal types of descriptive data are the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, counts and the skewness as well as kurtosis of the data gathered (Field, 2009). In this study these statistics are used to explore data, describe the sample and make certain that the correct tests are used.

Inferential statistics and analysis

Maree (2010) agrees that the purpose of most research is to use the data assembled from the sample in order to generalise the findings back to the population. Due to this explicit reason, the use of inferential statistics and analysis is imperative in this study. The field of statistical inference profoundly depends on probability theory (Maree, 2010), since inferences are made by means of probability statements. Inferential statistics are distributed into parametric and non-parametric statistics. The first denotes a broad range of statistical procedures or tests that necessitate data to meet certain expectations of which normality of sample distribution is most important (Field, 2009).

The second type, namely the non-parametric, denotes the range of statistical tests for determining relationships between variables, without having to meet any assumptions concerning distribution or the nature of the data. Parametric procedures are known to possess greater statistical power than their non-parametric counterparts (Field, 2009). In this study as far as possible it has been attempted to make use of parametric tests and procedures. However, in the event whereby the data has been found not to conform to the assumptions set by the specific test, the non-parametric alternative has been used to analyse the data gathered.

3.7.4 Specific Statistical Techniques to be used

Pallant (2010) suggests that data analysis is only one part of the research process. Before one can use SPSS for analysing their data, there are several things that must happen. Initially, one has to design their study and choose appropriate data collection instruments. Once the study has been conducted, the information obtained must be prepared for entry into SPSS using something known as a 'codebook'.

A modified version of the Human Capital Index, a General Happiness Scale, a Meaningfulness Questionnaire and an Employee Retention Scale are used for the purpose of collecting data for this research. Descriptive statistics are conducted on the different variables which include means, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis (Maree, 2010). This study also makes use of linear and Multiple Regression Analyses to analyse the relationship between the dependent variables and the independent variables.

3.7.4.1 Advantages of SPSS

According to Carolan (n.d.), the advantages of SPSS are that:

- It reduces/eliminates errors in calculation.
- Data management is made easier, e.g., add variables and observations, recode variables, etc.
- Graphical utilities are available.

- Multiple users can work with the same data file.
- It is faster and more efficient.
- A wide range of measures of association may be calculated.

3.7.4.2 Disadvantages of SPSS

According to Carolan (n.d.), the disadvantages of SPSS are that:

- The programming language for SPSS can be difficult to master.
- The program has much more functionality than one typically requires.
- There is a lag between new versions and existing documentation.

At times analyses generate output that often reports results that one doesn't need/understand (Carolan, n.d.).

3.8 ASSESSING AND DEMONSTRATING THE QUALITY AND RIGOUR OF THE PROPOSED RESEARCH DESIGN

The following section provides a description of the research philosophy and design, including the sampling, data collection and data analysis methods used in this study. Additionally, the quality and rigour of the study is discussed, as well as the ethics applicable to the study.

3.8.1 Reliability

Kumar (2014), states that the reliability of an instrument pertains to its ability to generate consistent measurements every single time. Kumar (2014) further explains that when one administers an instrument under the same or similar conditions to the same or a similar population and receives similar results, they should consider that instrument reliable, therefore, the greater the similarity between the results, the greater the reliability. Cronbach's correlation coefficient is used to test the reliability of this research. The statistical program SPSS is used to determine the Cronbach's correlation coefficient for this study.

3.8.2 Validity

The prerequisite for validity is reliability. In quantitative studies, it is easy to demonstrate that the validity of a measurement must not surpass the square root of its reliability, in other words, if observations are inconsistent and undependable, then they are likely to be inaccurate (Thyer, 2010). Since this study makes use of questionnaires that have been previously developed and the validity is known, a pilot study is done to determine if the questionnaires are in fact applicable to what the study aims to test.

A scale or measuring instrument is said to possess validity to the extent to which differences in measured values mirror actual differences that exist in the characteristic or property that is being measured (Krishnaswamy, Sivakumar, & Mathirajan, 2009). Two forms of validity are identified in research literature; the first being the external validity of research findings which entails the extent to which they are generalisable to the larger population, and the second being the internal validity of a research instrument which depicts its ability to measure what it is intended to measure (Krishnaswamy, Sivakumar, & Mathirajan, 2009).

3.8.3 Rigour

In the context of research, rigour is defined in terms of a classification of criteria against which the quality of the research is determined, of which such criteria are usually well elaborated in most research texts (Siu & Comerasamy, 2013). The challenge of ensuring methodological rigour is quite eminent in several postgraduate studies.

The rigour for this research is ensured by using the correct sampling strategy to select the sample, as well as using the correct application of statistical analysis. Any type of statistical analysis could be used to get the desired results from the data; however, using the precise statistical analysis relevant to this study ensures that the results obtained from the target sample are a more accurate reflection of the larger or general population.

3.8.4 Generalisability

It can be agreed that if a practitioner who is working in an environment similar to the one being examined in this research is able to relate the association between Talent Management,

Happiness, Meaningfulness, and Turnover Intention to that in the outcomes of this research, then generalisability has thus been somewhat achieved (Kumar, 2008). This research is conducted in a quantitative manner; therefore it is easier to search for generalisation in the results obtained from the survey.

3.8.5 Researcher Bias

Belk (2006) states that the researcher's bias restricts data analysis and interpretation, so do the biases inherent in the audience to whom the story is presented. Research bias impacts on the validity of research and thus, rightful consideration should be forthcoming. By offering opportunities for active participation and facilitating the empowerment of voices, many of the research biases can be mitigated (Özerdem & Bowd, 2010). Coincidence and confounding can be quantified and/or eradicated through appropriate study design and data analysis. Nonetheless, only the most meticulously conducted trials can entirely exclude bias as an explanation for an association. Unlike random error, which happens as a result of sampling variability and which reduces as sample size increases, bias is independent of both sample size and statistical significance. Bias can result in estimates of association being either larger or smaller than the true association. In extreme cases, bias can result in a perceived association which is directly opposite of the true association. For instance, before 1998, several observational studies demonstrated that hormone replacement therapy (HRT) decreased the risk of heart disease among post-menopausal women. All the same, more recent studies, meticulously designed to minimise bias, have discovered the opposite effect (i.e., an increased risk of heart disease with HRT). The researcher may influence the study when expressing their intentions and expectations to the participants by addressing what the main purposes of the research is and what they intend to do with the results.

3.8.6 Limitations

The limitations of the study are simply shortcomings in the study that may affect the accuracy of the results. Stommel and Wills (2004) state that many studies undergo specific limitations in design and measurement, normally unavoidable, which must be acknowledged by those who want to make use of the research findings to guide practice. Furthermore, much of individual research studies conducted do not prove, beyond a reasonable doubt, the suggestions that are being tested. This is due to the fact that every research project has

limitations in design or sampling or measurement, which influence what and how much can be learnt, based solely on that study.

3.9 RESEARCH ETHICS

In research there is a powerful variance between the investigator and the participants in the research. While the majority of researchers may be well-intentioned as well as honest people, there is always the likelihood for the rights of research participants to be violated, either knowingly or unknowingly. Often, issues arise that may affect participants adversely but are not considered or well thought out by the investigator. This issue is so imperative to researchers worldwide that a code of ethics has been developed over many years. This code of ethics for research is extensively recognised throughout the world, (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006).

Honesty, truthfulness, as well as full disclosure are imperative in the presentation of research. It is the researcher's responsibility to publish valid data, to analyse the data objectively and dispassionately, as well as to present a just and unbiased interpretation to readers. Inferences should be supported by the data. Authors need to recognise the power of inference and refrain from misleading the reader. On their part, the reader is mandated to use data ethically without distortion (Monsen & Van Horn, 2008).

The records of participation are to be viewed by people, making sure the research is conducted properly for academic purpose including supervisor and external examiner. Due to the fact that there is no right or wrong answer, participants may not be absolutely certain of answers, which is understandable when answering questionnaires. Participants should also feel at liberty not to answer any questions of a sensitive nature, which they are not comfortable with answering. This research is solely for academic purposes, (Gregory 2003). The researcher followed all the cautionary measures to ensure that the participants were not exposed to any undue physical or psychological harm.

3.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter deliberated on the procedures, tools and techniques to be followed in quantitative research. It has been established which employees or participants were brought on board for this research, as well as the approach used for conducting the research. The following chapter entails an outline showing the presentation of the outcomes, results and statistics of the study.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter graphically depicts the results from the data analysis which has been performed through the software application known as SPSS, in line with what has been discussed in the research design and methodology in Chapter 3. This chapter evaluates the results obtained from the empirical statistical tests that have been performed on the data, in relation with the objectives that have been established for the purpose of the study, as well as the pertinent hypotheses.

This chapter is arranged in three separate phases, namely:

Phase 1: The presentation of the sample demographics and the descriptive statistics.

Phase 2: The analysis of the data measurement instruments which are the Human Capital Index (HCI), the General Happiness Scale (GHS), the Meaning in Life Questionnaire (MLQ), and the Employee Retention Scale (ERS), respectively.

Phase 3: Hypothesis testing

4.2 PHASE 1: SAMPLE DEMOGRAPHICS

The upcoming section displays the demographics of the sample group that has been used for the purpose of this study, relating to the biographical information that has been supplied by the respondents. Academic staff members have been identified as the units of analysis for the purpose of this study. The precise characteristics and attributes of the analysis units that were gathered by means of primary data assortment are first of all, the academic category in which academics fall under (e.g. Junior Lecturer, Lecturer, Senior Lecturer, Associated Professor, and Professor.), and then their specific focal responsibility within academia (Research, Lecturing, both.). By stating one of these, the researcher has managed to determine which job title in the study has the uppermost levels of talent management practices, happiness, meaningfulness, as well as the intention to quit.

The sampling techniques used in the study have resulted in an assorted group of respondents. Three hundred and seventy six (376) questionnaires were sent out and distributed to a South African Higher Education Institution. One hundred and ninety six (196) responses were initially received, a **52.1%** response rate, however, only one hundred and sixty (160) were in working order for the purpose of the study, bringing the ultimate response rate to **42.6%**. The following section offers further insight into the biographical configuration of the sample group.

Table 4.1 epitomises the gender distribution of the sample group. It is evident that male respondents are the minority at **33.1%**, while female respondents make up for **66.9%** of the sample group.

Table 4.1: Frequency Distribution for Gender

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Female	107	66.9	66.9
Male	53	33.1	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

The relationship status of the sample group has also been taken into consideration in terms of the biographical information. As can be seen in **Table 4.2**, more than half of the respondents in the survey are married (**55.0%**), furthermore, **23.1%** of the respondents are either single, widowed, or a widower, and **8.1%** of the respondents are either in a relationship, or engaged. Eleven respondents (**6.9%**) indicated that they are divorced and five participants (**3.1%**) indicated that they are separated. Three of the respondents (**3.8%**) responded indicating that they are remarried.

Table 4.2: Frequency Distribution for Marital Status

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Single/Widow/Widower	37	23.1	23.1
Engaged/ in a relationship	13	8.1	31.3
Married	88	55.0	86.3
Divorced	11	6.9	93.1

Separate	5	3.1	96.3
Remarried	6	3.8	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

An assortment of ethnicities is represented by participants in this study as depicted in **Table 4.3**, with the prevalent scope of participants being of Black (**61.3%**) and White (**25.6%**) descent. Thirteen of the participants are coloured (**8.1%**), while four of the respondents are Asian (**2.5%**), which is the same number as the respondents who fall under other at **2.5%** as well.

Table 4.3: Frequency Distribution for Ethnicity

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Black	98	61.3	61.3
Coloured	13	8.1	69.4
Asian	4	2.5	71.9
White	41	25.6	97.5
Other	4	2.5	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

As epitomised in **Table 4.4** below, the participant's home languages are encapsulated within the following groups: Afrikaans, English and African Languages. One hundred and four participants (**65.0%**) indicated that their home language is one of the African languages recognised as official languages in South Africa. An additional **25.6%** stated in their response that their home language is Afrikaans, and **9.4%** indicated that their home language is English.

Table 4.4: Frequency Distribution of Home Language

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Afrikaans	41	25.6	25.6
English	15	9.4	35.0
African languages	104	65.0	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

The biographical information also takes into consideration, the participants' age, as shown in **Table 4.5**. The greater portion of the respondents (**33.1%**) in this study lies between the ages of 30 and 39 years. Furthermore, **23.8%** of the respondents are noted to be between the ages of 50 – 59 years, while thirty seven respondents (**23.1%**) fall between the ages of 40-49 years. The least portion of the participants ranges between the ages of 20-29 years (**10.0%**) and 60 years and above (**10.0%**) respectively.

Table 4.5: Frequency distribution of Age

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
20 – 29	16	10.0	10.0
30 -39	53	33.1	43.1
40 – 49	37	23.1	66.3
50 -59	38	23.8	90.0
60 and above	16	10.0	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

The categorisation of participants in accordance with the highest qualification which they have disclosed in their responses, as shown in **Table 4.6** indicates that the mainstream of participants possess a Master's degree (**46.3%**) followed by those respondents who indicated that they have a Doctoral Degree (**39.4%**). **14%** of the respondents hold a four year University Degree (Honours). The remnants of the respondents are noted to hold a three year Degree (**5.0%**) and only one of the respondents possesses a five to seven year degree (e.g. medicine), which makes up for **0.6%** of the target group used for the purpose of this study.

Table 4.6: Frequency Distribution of Highest Qualifications

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
3 year degree	8	5.0	5.0
4 year degree or honours	14	8.8	13.8
5 to 7 year degree (e.g. medicine)	1	0.6	14.4
Master's degree	74	46.3	60.6
Doctoral degree	63	39.4	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

Respondents were required to indicate their job type within the organisation when completing the survey. As depicted by **Table 4.7**, the mainstream of respondents has indicated that their job type is being an Academic, accounting for **90.6%** of the sample group and the lesser portion of the sample group indicated that their job type is as a Researcher, which accounts for **9.4%** of the sample group.

Table 4.7: Frequency Distribution of Job Types

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Academic	145	90.6	90.6
Researcher	15	9.4	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

The biographical information moreover deliberates on the specific job title held by each of the respondents, as depicted in **Table 4.8**. The majority of the participants (**40.6%**) are noted to be lecturers. This percentage denomination is followed by the senior lecturer category, which makes up for **29.4%** of the sample group. As clearly shown in Table 4.8, **16.9%** of the respondents are Professors and fourteen participants (**8.8%**) hold the job title of junior lecturer. The minority of the participants (**4.4%**) hold the job title of Associated Professor.

Table 4.8: Frequency Distribution of the Job Title

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Junior Lecturer	14	8.8	8.8
Lecturer	65	40.6	49.4
Senior Lecturer	47	29.4	78.8
Associated Professor	7	4.4	83.1
Professor	27	16.9	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

Table 4.9 below outlines the frequency distribution of the job focus that respondents have in their Institution. **68.1%** of the respondents have a job focus on both lecturing and research, **29.4%** have a job focus solely on lecturing, and **2.5%** of the respondents have a job focus solely on research.

Table 4.9: Frequency Distribution of the Job Focus

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Research	4	2.5	2.5
Lecturing	47	29.4	31.9
Both research and lecturing	109	68.1	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

According to **Table 4.10**, the biographical information in terms of years at current Institution reflects that **69.4%** of the sample group lies between 0 – 10 years, while 34 (**21.3%**) participants fall under the 11 – 20 years category, and 15 (**9.4%**) participants lie between 21 – 30 years.

Table 4.10: Frequency Distribution of Years at Current Institution

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
0 - 10 years	111	69.4	69.4
11 - 20 years	34	21.3	90.6
21 - 30 years	15	9.4	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

The years in current job variable as seen in **Table 4.11** shows that the mainstream of the respondents (**59.4%**) lies between 0 – 10 years, while thirty nine participants (**24.4%**) have spent 11 – 20 years in their current job, and twenty six respondents at **16.3%** have been in their current job for 21 – 30 years.

Table 4.11: Frequency Distribution of Years in Current Job

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
0 - 10 years	95	59.4	59.4
11. - 20 years	39	24.4	83.8
21 - 30 years	26	16.3	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

The biographical information moreover takes into account the number of promotions that respondents have had in the last five years, as demonstrated in **Table 4.12**. More than half of the sample group (**55.6%**) has not had a promotion at all in the last five years, while fifty five participants (**34.4%**) have had one promotion opportunity, eleven participants (**6.9%**) have had exactly two promotion opportunities, four respondents (**2.5%**) have had three chances at being promoted, and one respondents has had an impressive four opportunities at being promoted within the last five years, accounting for **0.6%** of the entire sample group.

Table 4.12: Frequency Distribution of Promotions in Last 5 Years

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
0	89	55.6	55.6
1.0	55	34.4	90.0
2.0	11	6.9	96.9
3.0	4	2.5	99.4
4.0	1	0.6	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

Another facet of the biographical information that has been considered in this study is the employment basis of respondents, as depicted in **Table 4.13**. Slightly more than half (**56.9%**) of the survey partakers indicated that they are employed on a permanent basis, while **23.8%** stated that they are employed on an hourly-pay basis, **11.3%** of the participants have an fixed-term employment status, and **8.1%** of the respondents are noted to be employed on a temporary basis.

Table 4.13: Frequency Distribution of Employment Basis

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Permanent	91	56.9	56.9
Temporary	13	8.1	65.0
Fixed-term	18	11.3	76.3
Hourly paid	38	23.8	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

The next biographical variable which has been considered is the frequency distribution of the respondents' working hours, as shown in **Table 4.14**. The mainstream of the respondents, noted at **94.4%**, indicated that they work on a full-time basis, while the remainder of the respondents are recorded to be working on a part-time basis, which accounts for **5.6%** of the target sample group.

Table 4.14: The Frequency Distribution of Working Hours

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Full-time	151	94.4	94.4
Part-time	9	5.6	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

The subsequent biographical variable which has been considered is the frequency distribution of whether the respondents work only during the semester or not, as seen in **Table 4.15**. The mainstream of the respondents, which is **90.0%**, indicated that they work throughout the year and not only during the semester, while the remainder of the respondents are reported to be working during semester time only, which accounts for **10.0%** of the target sample group.

Table 4.15: The Frequency Distribution of Semester-time only/ Not

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Yes	16	10.0	10.0
No	144	90.0	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

The biographical information has also taken into consideration, the number of hours typically worked weekly by the respondents, as shown in **Table 4.16**. Three of the respondents indicated that they work between 21 – 29 hours per week (**1.9%**) and six respondents indicated that they work between 11-20 hours (**3.8%**) respectively per week, while the mainstream (**61.3%**) of the employees work between 41-50 hours each week. Thirty eight participants (**23.8%**) work between 31 to 40 hours every week, while the remainder of the participants indicated that they work for more than fifty one hours weekly (**9.4%**).

Table 4.16: Frequency Distribution of Typical Weekly Work Hours

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
11-20	6	3.8	3.8
21-30	3	1.9	5.6
31-40	38	23.8	29.4
41-50	98	61.3	90.6
51 or more	15	9.4	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

As depicted in **Table 4.17**, the biographical information has furthermore taken into account, the number of hours that the respondents work per week, outside their regular or contracted working hours. A majority of seventy seven participants work between 11 to 20 additional hours per week (**48.1%**). Furthermore, **33.1%** participants indicated that they work only up to 10 extra hours every week, while **8.8%** work between 21 – 30 additional hours per week. **5.6%** of the respondents have been noted as working between 41 - 50 extra hours each week, **3.8%** of the respondents have been recorder as employees who work between 31 – 40 additional hours per week, and only one respondent (**0.6%**) has stated that they work over fifty one extra hours in a week.

Table 4.17: Frequency Distribution of the Hours Worked ‘Outside’ Working Hours

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Up to 10	53	33.1	33.1
11-20	77	48.1	81.3
21-30	14	8.8	90.0
31-40	6	3.8	93.8
41-50	9	5.6	99.4
51 or more	1	0.6	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

The ultimate biographical question which has been inquired of the respondents is their annual leave entitlement, as depicted in **Table 4.18**. The mainstream of the respondents (**57.5%**) noted that they sometimes use their entire allotment of annual leave entitlement, while **31.3%** of the respondents respectively cited that they always make use of their leave, and **11.3%** participants indicated that they never use their leave entitlement at all.

Table 4.18: The Frequency Distribution of Full Annual Leave Entitlement Used

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Never	18	11.3	11.3
Sometimes	92	57.5	68.8
Always	50	31.3	100.0
Total	160	100.0	

This paragraph, as well as the following one, summarises the dominating frequencies in terms of the biographical information of the respondents who participated in this study. The biographical data displays that the majority of the respondents are female. The majority of the participants indicated that they are married, as reflected by more than half of the population. The larger number of respondents is recorder to be of a black ethnicity. Consequently, the most dominant home language recorded amongst the respondents is African languages. The most frequent age category in the survey is the 30 – 39 age groups. The majority of the respondents are holders of Master’s degrees. The most popular job type among respondents is as an Academic, while the larger portion of the target sample group has the title of lecturer. Furthermore, the majority of the respondents focus on both lecturing and research in their job. Most of the participants have been with their current Institution for 0 – 10 years and subsequently, the respondents have been in their current job for the same range of years (0 - 10 years).

Most of the respondents have not had a single promotion within the last five years. Additionally, the mainstream of the respondents are employed on a permanent basis, as well as work on a full-time basis. A much larger portion of the respondents works throughout the year and not only during the semesters, as stipulated by the South African tertiary school

calender. Moreover, the majority of respondents typically work between 41 -50 hours per week, while most of them work an additional 11-20 hours every week, outside their contracted working hours. Finally, most of the respondents indicated that they use their leave entitlement only sometimes. The questionnaire analysis executed in this study is considered and discussed in detail in the section that follows.

4.3 PHASE 2: RESULTS RELATING TO THE INSTRUMENTS

The current section entails the graphical presentation of the demographics of the research sample that has been used in this study. The section is presented as the second phase (phase 2), in which the results relating to the data collection instruments are discussed.

4.3.1 Introduction

This section illustrates the results obtained from the measuring instruments. The measuring instruments being the Human Capital Index (HCI), the General Happiness Scale (GHS), the Meaning of Life Questionnaire (MLQ), and lastly, the Employee Retention Scale (ERS). The data obtained from each measuring instrument is discussed according to its acceptability for analysis, factor analyses, reliability as well as descriptive statistics of the subscales.

4.3.2 Results: HUMAN CAPITAL INDEX

This section focuses on the statistical analysis of the data obtained from the Human Capital Index in order to establish whether there are Talent Management Practices in place within the Higher Education Institutions. This also assists with determining the reliability of the measuring instrument, as well as the data obtained from using the measuring instrument. In order to achieve this desired outcome, the following statistical techniques are applied:

4.3.3 Sample Adequacy and Sphericity

The Sampling Adequacy and Sphericity of the inter-item correlation matrix has been determined by means of applying the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling

adequacy as well as the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity to the inter-item correlation matrix of the HCI. The results of the KMO for the HCI are illustrated in **Table 4.19** below.

Table 4.19: KMO and Bartlett’s test of inter-item correlation

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.876
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2457.939
	Df	351
	Sig.	0.000

As depicted in **Table 4.19** above, the KMO measure confirmed the sampling adequacy for factor analysis, due to the fact that the value of KMO is **0.876** which exceeds the 0.6 cut off point established by Pallant (2005) as well as Hair *et al.* (2010). Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is significant ($p < 0.05$), confirming that correlations between items are satisfactory enough for the purpose of a factor analysis. Consequently, the sample is rendered suitable for additional analysis by means of a factor analysis.

4.3.4 Factor Analysis

An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) by means of the Principle Axis Factoring (PAF) extraction method has been performed on the 37 items of the Management Practices. The Principle Axis Factor Analysis had originally given rise to eight factors. However, a closer assessment of the pattern matrix specified that the items principally loaded onto a decreased six factors. A Principle Factor Analysis has been performed by means of the Direct Oblimin Rotation so as to specify the six components. Ten items have been excluded owing to low and problematic component loadings. The six factors have been labelled Talent Acquisition and Development (Component 1), Talent Retention (Component 2), Management Commitment (Component 3), Performance Management (Component 4), Workforce Planning (Component 5), Staffing (Component 6). The six factors explained **67.643%** of the variance. The outcomes of the factor analysis, including the Pattern Matrix, are shown below in **Table 4.20** and **Table 4.21**. The item loadings are acceptable for the six identified factors.

Table 4.20: Total Variance Explained for HCI

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.997	37.024	37.024	9.997	37.024	37.024
2	2.482	9.192	46.217	2.482	9.192	46.217
3	2.115	7.833	54.049	2.115	7.833	54.049
4	1.377	5.101	59.150	1.377	5.101	59.150
5	1.265	4.684	63.835	1.265	4.684	63.835
6	1.028	3.808	67.643	1.028	3.808	67.643
7	0.910	3.370	71.013			
8	0.762	2.823	73.836			
9	0.716	2.653	76.489			
10	0.685	2.538	79.027			
11	0.604	2.239	81.265			
12	0.592	2.192	83.457			
13	0.544	2.013	85.471			
14	0.486	1.801	87.272			
15	0.407	1.507	88.778			
16	0.368	1.363	90.141			
17	0.363	1.346	91.487			
18	0.322	1.193	92.680			
19	0.310	1.149	93.829			
20	0.275	1.019	94.848			
21	0.267	0.988	95.836			
22	0.248	0.918	96.754			
23	0.232	0.860	97.614			
24	0.200	0.740	98.354			
25	0.169	0.626	98.980			
26	0.145	0.539	99.519			
27	0.130	0.481	100.000			

Table 4.21: Rotated Component Matrix for HCI

	Component					
	Talent Acquisition and Development	Talent Retention	Management Commitment	Performance Management	Workforce Planning	Staffing
MCC1	0.276	0.091	0.737	0.202	-0.113	0.157
MCC2	0.354	0.076	0.664	0.239	0.090	0.329
MCC3	0.062	0.201	0.768	0.247	0.178	0.077

MCC4	0.282	0.205	0.655	0.161	0.319	-0.111
MCC5	0.260	0.092	0.577	0.250	0.276	0.093
TRPC1	0.059	0.058	0.199	0.770	0.135	0.089
TRPC2	0.256	0.040	0.271	0.650	0.308	0.183
TRPC3	0.282	-0.101	0.411	0.664	0.171	0.160
WPC3	0.183	0.191	0.329	0.253	0.474	0.196
WPC4	0.106	0.189	0.087	0.124	0.830	0.202
WPC5	0.178	0.076	0.153	0.057	0.815	0.123
STAFFC2	0.482	0.237	-0.051	0.196	-0.257	0.523
STAFFC3	0.024	-0.008	0.179	-0.023	0.359	0.749
STAFFC4	0.018	0.322	0.160	0.007	0.234	0.755
TACQC1	0.587	0.436	0.142	0.255	-0.192	0.061
TACQC2	0.695	0.358	0.265	0.236	-0.032	0.009
TACQC3	0.652	0.303	0.238	0.068	0.230	0.070
TACQC4	0.669	0.343	0.307	0.073	0.138	-0.134
TDevC1	0.616	0.118	0.344	0.173	0.076	-0.016
TDevC2	0.670	0.079	0.050	0.154	0.368	0.088
TDevC3	0.604	0.145	0.186	0.080	0.278	0.234
PMC4	0.163	0.371	0.118	0.696	0.027	-0.197
PMC5	0.169	0.420	0.242	0.620	-0.189	-0.136
TRetC1	0.278	0.710	0.218	0.122	-0.084	0.069
TRetC2	0.216	0.732	0.132	-0.004	0.175	0.130
TRetC3	0.264	0.741	0.125	0.153	0.192	0.096
TRetC4	0.139	0.745	-0.006	0.130	0.201	0.134

4.3.5 Descriptive Statistics and Reliabilities of the HCI

Descriptive statistics have been used in order to examine the data. **Table 4.22** below offers the descriptive statistics of the HCI depicted when the items had been grouped together, before the performing of a Factor Analysis.

A five-point response scale ranging from “Poor” to “Excellent” for the current status of the Management Practices was utilised and a five-point scale ranging from “Not” to “Critical” has also been utilised for the importance of the Management Practices. The mean values for the respondents range between **2.4088** and **3.0652**. This signifies that the respondents in this study have a tendency of answering toward the middle of the range. On average it seems that the respondents perceive a greater level of Talent Acquisition and Development, as compared to Talent Retention.

Table 4.22: Descriptive Statistics of the HCI

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach Alpha
Talent Acquisition and Development	3.0652	0.79899	-0.525	0.025	0.876
Talent Retention	2.4088	0.81783	-0.041	-0.685	0.832
Management Commitment	3.0025	0.80439	-0.346	-0.085	0.860
Performance Management	3.1597	0.83976	-0.464	-0.015	0.827
Workforce Planning	2.6308	0.90339	0.312	-0.272	0.808
Staffing	2.9748	0.82553	0.009	-0.110	0.638

Table 4.22 offers a summary of the number of valid cases (N=160) per group for each one of the 6 grouped items, measures of central tendency as well as dispersion. The sample group comprises of a total of one hundred and sixty (160) respondents.

Standard Deviation values for the groups range between 0.799 and 0.903, representing a slight degree of dispersion. The skewness values among the groups ranges between **-0.525** and **0.312**, demonstrating a positively skewed distribution. The kurtosis values shown among the components are between **-0.685** and **0.025**.

The Cronbach Alpha Coefficients range between **0.638** for Staffing and **0.876** for Talent Acquisition and Development, and accordingly the relationships range between an acceptable and an excellent level of reliability (George & Mallery, 2003).

4.3.6 Summary of Results

To summarise the information presented in the previous section (section 4.3), the outcomes of the statistical analysis of the HCI can be condensed as follows:

- The KMO of the Sampling Adequacy and Sphericity inter-item correlation is noted to be at a great level and there is an evident correlation amongst the items according to the Bartlett's test;

- The EFA has been performed on the HCI and it has been determined in line with the Principle Axis Factor Analysis that there are eight (8) main factors. The Direct Oblimin Rotation has condensed the 8 factors into four main factors, which displays **67.643%** of the cumulative variances;
- The aggregate value of Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient specifies an excellent level of reliability for Talent Acquisition and Development, and an acceptable level for Staffing;
- And the reliability statistics for all the sub-scales are indicated to be very good.

4.4 RESULTS: GENERAL HAPPINESS SCALE

The importance of this section is positioned on the statistical analysis of the General Happiness Scale (GHS) data in order to determine whether there is happiness within Higher Education Institutions. This is moreover used to determine whether the instrument, as well as the data received from using the instrument, is reliable. In order to achieve this outcome the following statistical techniques have been applied:

- The Keyser-Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy as well as the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity;
- Exploratory Factor Analysis;
- Reliability Analysis of all the data received from the questionnaire.

4.4.1 Sample Adequacy and Sphericity

The Sampling Adequacy and Sphericity of the inter-item correlation matrix in this study has been determined by means of applying the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy as well as the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to the inter-item correlation matrix of the GHS. The outcomes of the KMO for the GHS are displayed in **Table 4.23** below.

Table 4.23: KMO and Bartlett's test of inter-item correlation

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.778
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	367.158
	Df	6
	Sig.	0.000

As proven in **Table 4.23** above, the KMO measure confirmed the sampling adequacy for factor analysis, as seen by the value of KMO which is **0.778** which lies above the 0.6 cut off point established by Pallant (2005) and Hair *et al.* (2010). It can be perceived to be a good inter-item correlation. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity in the study is significant ($p < 0.05$), signifying correlations between items that are great enough for a factor analysis. Therefore the sample is suitable for further analysis through a factor analysis.

4.4.2 Factor Analysis

An EFA has been performed on the 4 items of the GHS by means of applying the Principle Axis Factoring extraction method. It is apparent from the preliminary results that only one factor can be specified for the GHS. Consequently, all the items have been loaded onto one factor of the factor matrix. Two items have been noted to be problematic and therefore got excluded because of low factor loadings. The one factor specified in the EFA is labelled Happiness. The one loaded factor explains **73.602%** of the variance. The outcomes of the factor analysis, including the Factor Matrix are presented below in **Table 4.24** and **Table 4.25**. The item loadings are acceptable for the one factor of Happiness.

Table 4.24: Total Variance Explained for GHS

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.944	73.602	73.602	2.944	73.602	73.602
2	0.559	13.973	87.575			
3	0.313	7.823	95.398			
4	0.184	4.602	100.000			

Table 4.25: Component Matrix for GHS

	Component
	1
HAP.1	0.868
HAP.2	0.915
HAP.3	0.877
HAP.4	0.765

4.4.3 Descriptive Statistics and Reliabilities of the GHS

Descriptive statistics have been used to examine the data. **Table 4.26** below offers the item descriptive statistics of the GHS when the items were grouped together, prior to performing the Factor Analysis.

Table 4.26 offers a summary of the number of valid cases (N) in terms of the one grouped item, showing the measure of central tendency and dispersion. The sample group is made up of a total of 160 participants; however, one participant has been excluded due to invalid data, bringing the number down to 159.

Table 4.26: Descriptive Statistics for GHS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach Alphas
Happiness	159	5.5566	1.06361	-0.876	0.364	0.872
Valid N (listwise)	159					

A seven point Likert-type scale ranging from Not a very happy person (1), to A very happy person (7), Less happy (1), to More happy (7), Not at all (1), to A great deal (7), A great deal (1), to Not at all (7), has been utilised. The mean value for the respondents is recorded to be **5.5566**. This shows that respondents' answers have the tendency to fall toward the upper quartile of the answer range. This implies that many concur with the statements and furthermore experience a relatively high level of happiness.

The Standard Deviation value for the group is reported to be at **1.06361**, signifying a small degree of dispersion. The skewness value for the group is seen to be **-0.876**, signifying a negatively skewed distribution. The kurtosis value is recorded at **0.364**. The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for Happiness is **0.872** which implies that the general value is at a very good level of reliability; as a result it can be believed that Happiness is at a very good level of reliability.

4.4.4 Summary of Results

The results of the statistical analysis of the GHS can be summarised as thus:

- The KMO of the Sampling Adequacy as well as the Sphericity inter-item correlation is recorded to be at a good level and there is a significant correlation between the items in accordance with the Bartlett's test.
- The EFA has been run and it has been determined according to the Principle Axis Factor Analysis, through The Direct Oblimin Rotation that there is one main factor. It is reported that the main factor has **73.602%** of the cumulative variances.
- The overall Cronbach's Alpha value shows a very good level of reliability for Happiness.

4.5 RESULT: MEANING OF LIFE QUESTIONNAIRE

The importance of this section is positioned on the statistical analysis of the Meaning of Life Questionnaire (MLQ) data to determine whether there is Meaningfulness of Life within the Higher Education Institutions. This is further used to determine whether the instrument as well as data received from using the instrument, is reliable. In order to achieve this outcome, the following statistical techniques have been applied:

- The Keyser-Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity;
- Exploratory Factor Analysis; and

- The Reliability Analysis of the factors based on the questionnaire.

4.5.1 Sample Adequacy and Sphericity

The Sampling Adequacy and Sphericity of the inter-item correlation matrix has been determined by means of applying the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to the inter-item correlation matrix of the MLQ. The outcomes of the KMO for the MLQ are exhibited in **Table 4.27** below.

Table 4.27: KMO & Bartlett's Test of the inter-item correlation of MLQ

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.787
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	584.927
	df	28
	Sig.	0.000

As can be seen in **Table 4.27** above, the KMO measure confirmed the sampling adequacy for factor analysis, due to the fact that the value of KMO is **0.787** which lies above the 0.6 cut off point established by Pallant (2005) and Hair *et al.* (2010). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for the MLQ is significant ($p < 0.05$), signifying that correlations between items are large enough for a factor analysis. Consequently, the sample is suitable for further analysis by means of applying a factor analysis.

4.5.2 Factor Analysis

An EFA, by means of applying the Principle Axis Factoring extraction method has been performed on the 10 items of the Meaning of Life Questionnaire. The Principle Axis Factor Analysis originally only gave rise to one factor, thus, the items loaded onto the one factor. A Principle Factor Analysis has been performed using the Direct Oblimin Rotation to specify the one factor. Two items were excluded because of low and problematic factor loadings. The one factor has been labelled Meaningfulness. The one factor explained **44.350%** of the variance. The results of the Factor analysis, including the Pattern Matrix are presented below in **Table 4.28** and **Table 4.29**. The item loadings are acceptable.

Table 4.28: Total Variance Explained of MLQ

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.548	44.350	44.350	3.548	44.350	44.350
2	1.975	24.683	69.033			
3	0.753	9.413	78.446			
4	0.481	6.011	84.458			
5	0.398	4.977	89.434			
6	0.309	3.869	93.303			
7	0.299	3.736	97.039			
8	0.237	2.961	100.000			

Table 4.29: Component Matrix for MLQ

	Component
	1
MEAN.2	0.781
MEAN.3	0.835
MEAN.4	0.397
MEAN.5	0.493
MEAN.6	0.401
MEAN.7	0.803
MEAN.8	0.738
MEAN.10	0.700

4.5.3 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability of the MLQ

Descriptive statistics have been employed to explore the data. **Table 4.30** below offers the item descriptive statistics of the MLQ, when the items had been grouped together prior to the Factor Analysis being conducted.

Table 4.30: Descriptive Statistics of the MLQ

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach Alphas
Happiness	158	5.3101	0.94565	-1.163	2.111	0.815
Valid N (listwise)	158					

Table 4.30 offers a summary of the number of valid cases (N) for the one grouped item, measures of central tendency as well as dispersion. The sample group consists of a total of 158 respondents, since two have been excluded due to problematic data.

A seven point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Absolutely Untrue) to 7 (Absolutely True) has been utilised. The mean value for the participants is **5.3101**. This points out that the respondents in this study have a tendency to have answers which are more toward the top of the range.

The Standard Deviation value for the group is **0.94565**, signifying a relatively small degree of dispersion. The skewness value for the group is **-1.163**, signifying a high negatively skewed distribution. The kurtosis value for the range is **2.111**.

The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for Meaningfulness is **0.815** which implies that the general value is at a high level of reliability; as a result it can be believed that the Meaning of Life Questionnaire is at a high level of reliability.

4.5.4 Summary of Results

The outcomes of the statistical analysis of the MLQ can be thus summarised:

- The KMO of the Sampling Adequacy and Sphericity inter-item correlation is at a pretty good level at **0.787** and there is a significant correlation between the items in accordance with the Bartlett's test.
- The EFA was run and it has been determined in line with the Principle Axis Factor Analysis that there is one main factor. The Direct Oblimin Rotation has determined that the one main factor accounts for **44.350%** of the cumulative variances.
- The **0.815** value of Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient signifies a pretty good level of reliability for Meaning of Life.

4.6 RESULT: EMPLOYEE RETENTION SCALE

The main focus of this section is statistical analysis pertaining to the Employee Retention Scale data, it evaluates if an intention to quit exists within the Higher Education Institutions. The statistics obtained from the ERS are also used to determine whether the measuring instrument, as well as the data received by means of using the measuring instrument is reliable. In order to achieve these outcomes, the following statistical techniques have been employed:

- The Keyser-Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity;
- Exploratory Factor Analysis;
- Reliability Analysis of the data received from the questionnaire in its entirety.

4.6.1 Sample Adequacy and Sphericity

The Sampling Adequacy and Sphericity of the inter-item correlation matrix has been determined by means of applying the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy as well as the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity to the inter-item correlation matrix of the Intention to Quit (ITQ). The results of the KMO for the ITQ are depicted in **Table 4.31** below.

Table 4.31: KMO and Bartlett's test of inter-item correlation

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	0.648	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	268.010
	df	3
	Sig.	0.000

Table 4.31 above reflects that, the KMO measure confirmed the sampling adequacy for factor analysis, as supported by the fact that the value of KMO is **0.648** which is over the 0.6 cut off point established by Pallant (2005) and Hair *et al.* (2010). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is indeed also significant ($p < 0.05$), demonstrating the reality that correlations between items

are large enough for a factor analysis to be performed. The sample is therefore rendered suitable for further analysis by means of a factor analysis.

4.6.2 Factor Analysis

An Exploratory Factor Analysis has been carried out using the Principle Axis Factoring extraction method on each of the 3 items in the Employee Retention Survey. The results indicated that one factor can be identified. This one factor was loaded and labelled as the Intention to quit. The factor explained **76.718%** of the variance. The results of the factor analysis including the Component Matrix are revealed below in **Table 4.32** and **Table 4.33**.

Table 4.32: Total Variance Explained for the ERS

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.302	76.718	76.718	2.302	76.718	76.718
2	0.557	18.553	95.271			
3	0.142	4.729	100.000			

Table 4.33: Component Matrix for ERS

	Component
	1
ITQ.1	0.920
ITQ.2	0.933
ITQ.3	0.766

4.6.3 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability of the ERS

Descriptive statistics have been used to examine the data. **Table 4.34** below offers the item descriptive statistics of the ERS, when the items have been grouped together, prior to conducting the Factor Analysis.

Table 4.34 offers a summary of the number of valid cases (N) per group for the grouped item, including the measure of central tendency and dispersion. The sample group comprises of a total of 160 respondents. A seven-point response scale ranging from (0) “Strongly Disagree” to (6) “Strongly Agree” has been utilised. The mean value for the participants is

2.8792. This shows that respondents in this study have a tendency of answering toward the bottom of the range.

Table 4.34: Descriptive Statistics of the ERS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach Alpha
Quit	160	2.8792	1.61427	0.019	-0.578	0.842
Valid N (listwise)	160					

The Standard Deviation value for the group is reported to be **1.61427**, signifying a medium degree of dispersion. The skewness value for the group is **0.019**, showing a very slightly positively skewed distribution. The kurtosis value for the range is **-0.578**. The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for Retention is **0.842** which suggests that the general value is at a sound level of reliability; therefore it can be believed that Retention is at a good level of reliability.

4.6.4 Summary of Results

The results obtained from the statistical analysis of the ERS can be summarised as thus:

- The KMO of the Sampling Adequacy and Sphericity inter-item correlation is recorder to be at an acceptable level with the result of **0.648** and there is also a significant correlation between the items as implied by the Bartlett's test.
- The EFA has been carried out and it has been determined according to the Principle Axis Factor Analysis, by means of running The Direct Oblimin Rotation, that there is one leading factor, which is recorded to be **76.718%** of the cumulative variances.
- Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient is at an overall value which postulates a good level of reliability for Retention.

4.7 PHASE 3: TESTING OF HYPOTHESES

Seven hypotheses have been formulated for the purpose of this research. The statistical tests that have been run for these hypotheses are briefly outlined below.

4.7.1 Hypothesis 1

H₁: There is a positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Happiness.

A simple linear regression analysis has been performed on the data in order to assess whether Happiness can be predicted by each of the six Practices of Talent Management, namely Talent Acquisition and Development, Talent Retention, Management Commitment, Performance Management, Workforce Planning, and Staffing. The results of the regression analysis are exhibited in **Table 4.35**.

Table 4.35: Regression Analysis between Happiness and Talent Management Practices

Model	Un-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	P (Sig)	R	R ²	ΔR ²
	B	SE	Beta					
Talent Acquisition and Development, and Happiness						0.172 ^a	0.030	0.024
(Constant)	4.855	0.331		14.690	0.000			
Talent Acquisition and Development	0.229	0.104	0.172	2.193	0.030			
Talent Retention and Happiness						0.155 ^a	0.024	0.018
(Constant)	5.072	0.262		19.339	0.000			
Talent Retention	0.203	0.103	0.155	1.958	0.052			
Management Commitment and Happiness						0.099 ^a	0.010	0.004
(Constant)	5.163	0.326		15.847	0.000			
Management Commitment	0.131	0.105	0.099	1.250	0.213			
Performance Management and Happiness						0.082 ^a	0.007	0.000
(Constant)	5.225	0.332		15.748	0.000			
Performance Management	0.105	0.102	0.082	1.030	0.304			

Workforce Planning and Happiness					0.046 ^a	0.002	-0.004
(Constant)	5.688	0.262		21.709	0.000		
Workforce Planning	-0.054	0.094	-0.046	-0.572	0.568		
Staffing and Happiness					0.040 ^a	0.002	-0.005
(Constant)	5.400	0.318		16.981	0.000		
Staffing	0.051	0.103	0.040	0.497	0.620		

Table 4.35 above highlights that, Talent Management is a significant predictor of Happiness. This is due to the fact that Talent Acquisition and Development and Talent Retention are shown to be significant predictors of Happiness. It also shows that Management Commitment, Performance Management, Workforce Planning and Staffing, are not significant predictors of Happiness. The results are discussed below:

- The prediction model for Talent Acquisition and Development and happiness was statistically significant, $F(1, 157) = 4.809$, $p=0.030$ and accounted for approximately **3%** of the variance of happiness ($R^2 = .030$, Adjusted $R^2 = .024$). The relationship was positive which implies that talent acquisition and development towards talent will increase the happiness of employees. The effect was small.
- The prediction model for Talent Retention and happiness was statistically significant, $F(1, 156) = 3.833$, $p=0.052$, and accounted for approximately **2.4%** of the variance of happiness ($R^2 = .024$, Adjusted $R^2 = .018$). The relationship was positive which implies that management commitment towards talent will increase the happiness of employees. The effect was small.

4.7.2 Hypothesis 2

H₂: There is a positive significant relationship between Talent Management and Meaningfulness.

Subsequently, a simple linear regression analysis has been performed on the data in order to assess whether Talent Management predicts Meaning of Life. The results of the regression analysis are exhibited in **Table 4.36**.

Table 4.36: Regression Analysis for Talent Management and Meaningfulness

Model	Un-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	P (Sig)	R	R ²	ΔR ²
	B	SE	Beta					
Talent Acquisition and Development, and Meaning						0.136 ^a	0.019	0.012
(Constant)	4.925	0.264		18.665	0.000			
Talent Acquisition and Development	0.143	0.083	0.136	1.718	0.088			
Talent Retention and Meaning						0.155 ^a	0.024	0.018
(Constant)	4.979	0.208		23.917	0.000			
Talent Retention	0.161	0.082	0.155	1.956	0.052			
Management Commitment and Meaning						0.139 ^a	0.019	0.013
(Constant)	4.928	0.257		19.152	0.000			
Management Commitment	0.145	0.083	0.139	1.752	0.082			
Performance Management and Meaning						0.051 ^a	0.003	-0.004
(Constant)	5.202	0.264		19.681	0.000			
Performance Management	0.052	0.081	0.051	0.635	0.526			
Workforce Planning and Meaning						0.043 ^a	0.002	-0.005
(Constant)	5.477	0.208		26.367	0.000			
Workforce Planning	-0.039	0.075	-0.043	-0.529	0.597			
Staffing and Meaning						0.005 ^a	0.000	-0.006
(Constant)	5.348	0.254		21.024	0.000			
Staffing	0.005	0.082	0.005	0.057	0.955			

Table 4.36 above depicts that talent retention is a significant predictor of meaning. The results are described in the subsequent section:

- The prediction model for Talent Retention and meaning was statistically significant, $F(1, 155) = 3.827$, $p=0.052$, and accounted for approximately **2.4%** of the variance of meaning ($R^2 = .024$, Adjusted $R^2 = .018$). The relationship was positive which implies that Talent Retention towards talent will increase the meaning of employees. The effect was small.

4.7.3 Hypothesis 3

H₃: There is a negative significant relationship between Talent Management and Turnover Intent.

A simple linear regression analysis has been performed on the data to determine whether Talent Management predicts the Intention to Quit. The results of the regression analysis are displayed in **Table 4.37** below.

Table 4.37: Regression Analysis for Talent Management and the Intention to Quit

Model	Un-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	P (Sig)	R	R ²	ΔR ²
	B	SE	Beta					
Talent Acquisition and Development and the Intention to Quit						0.202 ^a	0.041	0.035
(Constant)	4.128	0.499		8.280	0.000			
Talent Acquisition and Development	-0.407	0.157	-0.202	-2.588	0.011			
Talent Retention and the Intention to Quit						0.249 ^a	0.062	0.056
(Constant)	4.068	0.389		10.453	0.000			
Talent Retention	-0.494	0.153	-0.249	-3.227	0.002			
Management Commitment and the Intention to Quit						0.204 ^a	0.042	0.036
(Constant)	4.111	0.486		8.465	0.000			
Management Commitment	-0.410	0.156	-0.204	-2.626	0.009			
Performance Management and the Intention to Quit						0.109 ^a	0.012	0.006
(Constant)	3.534	0.499		7.078	0.000			
Performance Management	-0.210	0.153	-0.109	-1.372	0.172			
Workforce Planning and the Intention to Quit						0.169 ^a	0.028	0.022
(Constant)	3.676	0.393		9.356	0.000			
Workforce Planning	-0.302	0.141	-0.169	-2.136	0.034			
Staffing and the Intention to Quit						0.166 ^a	0.028	0.022
(Constant)	3.850	0.476		8.080	3.850			
Staffing	-0.326	0.154	-0.166	-2.115	-0.326			

Table 4.37 above indicates that, Talent Acquisition and Development, Talent Retention, Management Commitment, Workforce Planning, and Staffing are substantial predictors of the Intention to Quit. Performance Management is not a significant predictor of the Intention to quit. The results are described in the subsequent section:

- The prediction model for Talent Acquisition and Development and the Intention to quit was statistically significant, $F(1, 158) = 6.699$, $p=0.011$ and accounted for approximately **4.1%** of the variance of happiness ($R^2 = .041$, Adjusted $R^2 = .035$). The relationship was negative, which implies that Talent Acquisition and Development towards talent will decrease the Intention to quit of employees. The effect was small.
- The prediction model for Talent Retention and the Intention to quit was statistically significant, $F(1, 157) = 10.411$, $p=0.002$, and accounted for approximately **6.2%** of the variance of happiness ($R^2 = .062$, Adjusted $R^2 = .056$). The relationship was negative which implies that talent retention towards talent will decrease the Intention to quit of employees. The effect was small.
- The prediction model for Management Commitment and the Intention to quit was statistically significant, $F(1, 158) = 6.895$, $p=0.009$, and accounted for approximately **4.2%** of the variance of happiness ($R^2 = .042$, Adjusted $R^2 = .036$). The relationship was negative which implies that management commitment towards talent will decrease the Intention to quit of employees. The effect was small.
- The prediction model Workforce Planning and the Intention to quit was statistically significant, $F(1, 156) = 4.563$, $p=0.034$, and accounted for approximately **2.8%** of the variance of happiness ($R^2 = 0.028$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.022$). The relationship was negative which implies that workforce planning towards talent will decrease the Intention to quit of employees. The effect was small.

- The prediction model for Staffing and the Intention to quit was statistically significant, $F(1, 157) = 4.473$, $p=0.036$, and accounted for approximately **2.8%** of the variance of happiness ($R^2 = 0.028$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.022$). The relationship was negative which implies that applying appropriate staffing towards talent will decrease the Intention to quit of employees. The effect was small.

4.7.4 Hypothesis 4

H₄: There is a negative significant relationship between happiness and turnover intention.

A simple linear regression analysis has also been performed on the data in order to determine whether Happiness predicts Turnover Intention. The results of the regression analysis are demonstrated in **Table 4.38**.

Table 4.38: Regression Analysis for Happiness and Turnover Intention

Model	Un-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	P (Sig)	R	R ²	ΔR ²
	B	SE	Beta					
Happiness and Turnover Intention						0.215 ^a	0.046	0.040
(Constant)	4.705	0.671		7.012	0.000			
Happiness	-0.328	0.119	-0.215	-2.764	0.006			

Table 4.38 above indicates that, the total score of Happiness is a substantial predictor of the Intention to Quit. The results are described below:

- The prediction model for Happiness and the Turnover Intention was statistically significant, $F(1, 157) = 7.642$, $p=0.006$ and accounted for approximately **4.6%** of the variance of happiness ($R^2 = .046$, Adjusted $R^2 = .040$). The relationship was negative, which implies that happiness among talent will decrease the Intention to quit of employees. The effect was small.

4.7.5 Hypothesis 5

H₅: There is a negative significant relationship between meaning and turnover intention.

A simple linear regression analysis has also been performed on the data to determine whether Meaning predicts the Intention to Quit. The results of the regression analysis are exhibited below in **Table 4.39**.

Table 4.39: Regression Analysis for Meaning and Intention to Quit

Model	Un-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	P (Sig)	R	R ²	ΔR ²
	B	SE	Beta					
Meaning and Intention to Quit						0.178 ^a	0.032	0.025
(Constant)	1.043	0.823		1.268	0.207			
Meaning	0.342	0.151	0.178	2.258	0.025			

Table 4.39 above reflects that the total score of Meaning is a substantial predictor of the Intention to quit. The results are described below:

- The prediction model for Meaning and the Turnover Intention was statistically significant, $F(1, 156) = 5.097$, $p=0.025$ and accounted for approximately **3.2%** of the variance of happiness ($R^2 = 0.032$, Adjusted $R^2 = 0.025$). The relationship was positive, which implies that meaning among talent will increase the Intention to quit of employees. The effect was small.

4.7.6 Hypothesis 6

H₆: Happiness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention to a certain extent.

Another simple linear regression analysis has been performed on the data in order to examine whether happiness moderates the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to Quit. The results of the regression analysis are displayed below in **Table 4.40**.

Table 4.40: Regression Analysis for the effect of Happiness on the relationship between Talent Management and Intention to Quit

Model	Un-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	P (Sig)	R	R ²	ΔR ²
	B	SE	Beta					
Talent Management and Intention to Quit						0.248 ^a	0.062	0.055
(Constant)	4.760	0.605		7.870	0.000			
TM	-0.654	0.206	-0.248	-3.178	0.002			
Talent Management, Happiness, and Intention to Quit						0.308 ^a	0.095	0.083
(Constant)	6.168	0.842		7.327	0.000			
TM	-0.598	0.206	-0.226	-2.909	0.004			
Happiness	-0.283	0.119	-0.185	-2.386	0.018			
Talent Management, Happiness, Talent Management X Happiness, and Intention to Quit						0.312 ^a	0.097	0.079
(Constant)	7.954	2.963		2.684	0.008			
TM	-1.257	1.068	-0.475	-1.177	0.241			
Happiness	-0.607	0.529	-0.398	-1.147	0.253			
TM X Happiness	0.119	0.189	0.348	0.628	0.531			

From **Table 4.40** it is evident that Happiness explains **6.2%** of the variance in the Intention to quit, while Happiness and Talent Management collectively explains **9.5%** of the variance of the Intention to quit. However, totalling the interaction of Happiness and Talent Management in the multiple regression analysis did not bring about a significant increase in the percentage of variance explained in the Intention to quit. Therefore one can determine that Happiness does not moderate the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to quit.

4.7.7 Hypothesis 7

H₇: Meaningfulness moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention to a certain extent.

A supplementary, simple linear regression analysis has been performed on the data in order to determine whether meaningfulness has an effect on the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to Quit. The results of the regression analysis are showcased below in **Table 4.41**.

Table 4.41: Regression Analysis for the effect of Meaning on the relationship between Talent Management and Intention to Quit

Model	Un-standardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	P (Sig)	R	R ²	ΔR ²
	B	SE	Beta					
Talent Management and Intention to Quit						0.248 ^a	0.062	0.055
(Constant)	4.760	0.605		7.870	0.000			
TM	-0.654	0.206	-0.248	-3.178	0.002			
Talent Management, Meaning, and Intention to Quit						0.315 ^a	0.099	0.087
(Constant)	2.866	0.958		2.992	0.003			
TM	-0.706	0.205	-0.267	-3.436	0.001			
Meaning	0.379	0.150	0.196	2.529	0.012			
Talent Management, Meaningfulness, Talent Management X Meaning, and Intention to Quit						0.325 ^a	0.106	0.088
(Constant)	7.140	4.283		1.667	0.098			
TM	-2.230	1.503	-0.843	-1.484	0.140			
Meaning	-0.396	0.772	-0.205	-0.513	0.608			
TM X Meaning	0.276	0.269	0.738	1.024	0.307			

From **Table 4.41** it is evident that Meaning explains **6.2%** of the variance in the Intention to quit, while Meaning and Talent Management collectively explains **9.9%** of the variance of the Intention to quit. However, totalling the interaction of Meaning and Talent Management in the multiple regression analysis did not bring about a significant increase in the percentage of variance explained in the Intention to quit. Therefore one can determine that Meaning does not moderate the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to quit.

4.7.8 Summary of Results

The results pertaining to the statistical analysis of the relationship between Talent Management Practices, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit can be thus summarised:

- A statistically significant relationship exists between the six recorded Talent Management Practices and Happiness, in terms of the results of a Simple Linear Regression analysis.
- Talent Management Practices are statistically not a significant predictor of the Meaning of Life, in terms of the results of a Simple Linear Regression analysis.
- A statistically significant relationship exists between the Talent Management and Intention to Quit dimensions, which has been determined from the results of a Simple Linear Regression analysis.
- In line with the results of a Simple Linear Regression analysis, it has been proven that a statistically significant relationship exists between Happiness and the Intention to quit.
- The consideration of the results of a Simple Linear Regression analysis has shown that a statistically significant relationship exists between Meaningfulness and the Intention to Quit.
- According to the Multiple Regression analysis performed it has been determined that Happiness is not a statistically significant moderator for the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to quit.
- According to the Multiple Regression analysis performed on the data it has been determined that Meaning is not a statistically significant moderator for the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to quit.

In **Figure 4.1** below, the inclusive correlation coefficients are depicted in the manner in which they have been achieved during the process of the Simple Linear and Multiple Regression analysis of the data gathered from the research questionnaires.

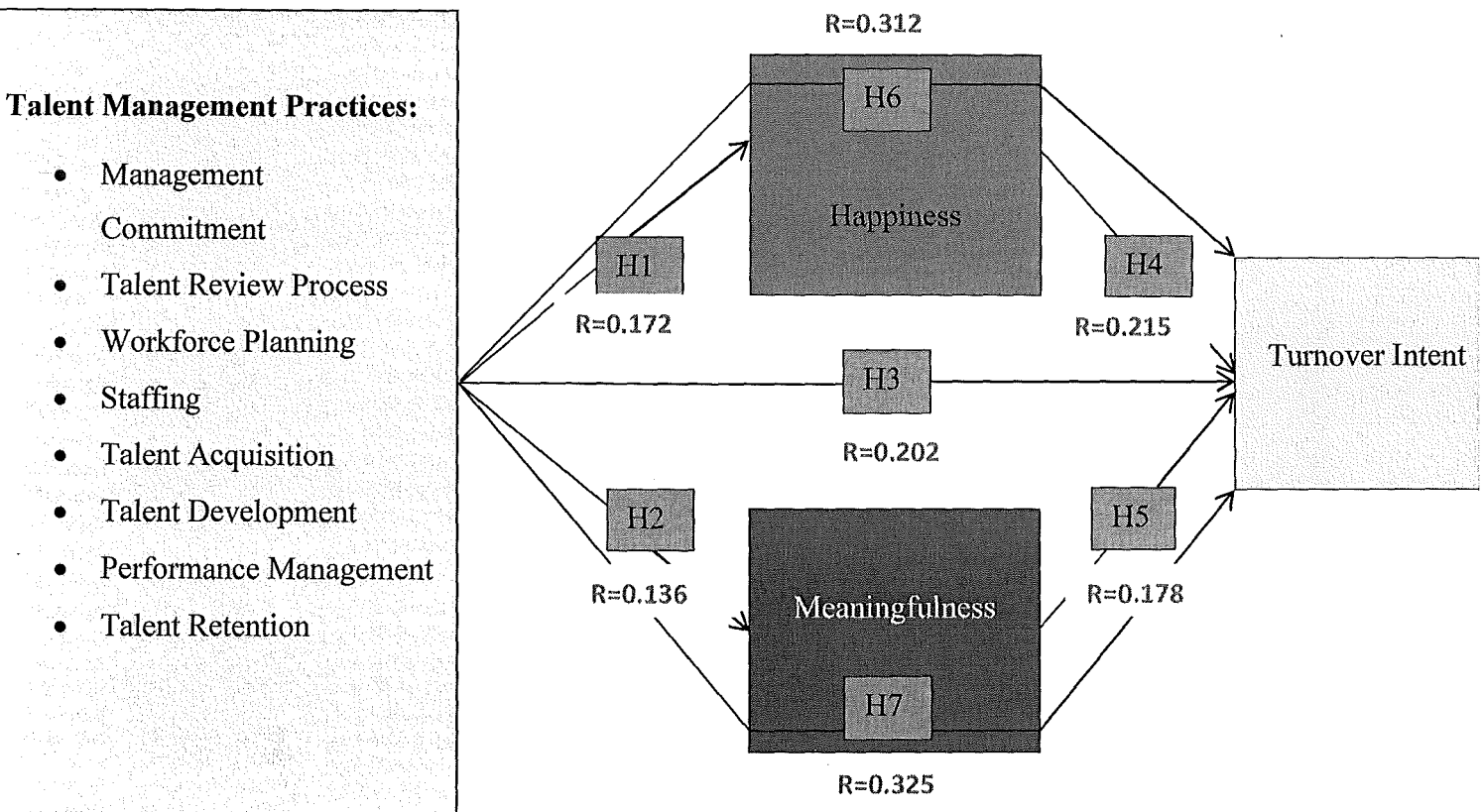


Figure 4.1: The Correlation Coefficients as per the Hypotheses

4.8 CONCLUSION

In summary, this chapter has presented the results of the statistical analysis that have been performed on measures concerning the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit. A summary of the statistical techniques applied in the study has been provided, prior to presenting the results of the statistical analysis of the measures. A presentation of the statistical findings pertaining to the relationships between the various concepts which have been examined prior to concluding the chapter has also been outlined.

The succeeding chapter encompasses a discussion pertaining to the implications of the statistical results presented in this chapter. Furthermore, the hypotheses that have been previously outlined in Chapter 2 are further explored in detail.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Seven research hypotheses have been articulated for the purpose of this research, based on the existing literature on the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit, as well as prior empirical studies. These research hypotheses have been empirically tested through the use of statistical data analysis techniques, and the results have been demonstrated in the preceding chapter. The main focus of this chapter is the discussion of the empirical results attained, including the implications that exist in terms of the research hypotheses. The seven research hypotheses articulated for the study are presented, shadowed by a discussion concerning the implications of the statistical results. The ensuing section entails a discussion of the empirical evidence in connection with the substantiation of the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit.

5.2 HYPOTHESIS 1: THERE IS A POSITIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND HAPPINESS.

In order for the results of the Simple Regression analysis to be considered as being significant at 95%, the p value is required to be either smaller than or equivalent to 0.05 (Field, 2009). The outcome of $p = 0.030$ for Talent Acquisition and Development, and $p = 0.052$ for Talent Retention implies that a significant relationship exists between Talent Management and Happiness, in terms of the $p \leq 0.05$. Research has proven that the larger the t value is and the lesser the p value is, the bigger the influence of the predictor (Fields, 2009). Consequently, with the $t = 2.193$ for Talent Acquisition and Development, and $t = 1.958$ actually being such great values and the p value actually being such a small value, it can be said that Talent Management is a relatively great influence in the predicting of Happiness. Seeing as though the t value is a positive value, it can thus be expected that Talent Management has a positive influence on Happiness. This suggests that the more Talent Management Practices that exist, the greater the likelihood that the individual experiences Happiness. Research conducted by Oakes & Galagan, 2011; and Barning, 2014, reveals that these two concepts exhibit a positive relationship. Barning (2014), states that according to positive psychologists, talent management and an investment in learning and development, can increase employee happiness. It was further noted in the literature that making sure that our organisation's

leadership and talent management initiatives take heed of and develop people every day should eliminate barriers, silos, and disengagement, thus eliminating discontentment or unhappiness (Oakes & Galagan, 2011).

From this it can therefore be determined that Hypothesis 1 is partially accepted.

5.3 HYPOTHESIS 2: THERE IS A POSITIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND MEANINGFULNESS

The results that have been obtained through performing a Simple Linear Regression Analysis state that a significant relationship exists between one Talent Management Practice, namely Talent Retention, and Meaning. This statement has been verified through the value of $p = 0.052$. The t value is positive ($t = 1.956$), therefore, there is seen to be a positive relationship between the two concepts, with a relatively large effect. It can therefore be expected that when Talent Retention increases, Meaning also increases. When examining the dimensions of Talent Management with Meaning, they have been seen to be somewhat significant. Research that has been conducted by Greasley et al., 2008; Lawler, Mohrman, & Benson, 2001; Mendes & Stander, 2011; and Raub & Robert, 2010, states that these two concepts exhibit a converse or correlating relationship by emphasising that when leaders empower instead of control their employees, such employees will experience psychological empowerment, which comprises meaningfulness.

Therefore Hypothesis 2 is therefore, partially accepted.

5.4 HYPOTHESIS 3: THERE IS A NEGATIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENT

Judging by the results received from the Simple Linear Regression Analysis performed on the relationship between Talent Management and Intention to Quit, it has been determined that a significant relationship exists between the two concepts. This has been determined by the p value which is $p \geq 0.05$ at $p = 0.011$ for Talent Acquisition and Development, $p = 0.002$ for Talent Retention, $p = 0.009$ for Management Commitment, $p = 0.034$ for Workforce

Planning, and $p = -0.326$ for Staffing. The t value is a negative one for all the above mentioned variables ($t = -2.588, -3.227, -2.626, -2.136, \text{ and } -2.115$ respectively), therefore it can be said that a negative relationship exists between the two concepts Talent Management and the Intention to quit. Since the relationship is significant, it can be said that when Talent Management increases then, the Intention to quit decreases, based on the assumption that they exhibit an inverse relationship. While analysing the dimensions of Talent Management with the Intention to Quit, they were understood to be significant.

Bhatnagar, 2007; Cobb, 2014; and Chew & Chan, 2008, state that these two concepts exhibit an inverse relationship. Cobb (2014) expresses that there are numerous talent management best practices that have been shown to significantly improve employee satisfaction and retention. This has been confirmed in this study as indicated by the results from the Simple Linear Regression analysis. Bhatnagar (2007) also mentions that the trends for talent management, talent shortages and talent retention are considered as major apprehensions by many countries across the globe. Chew and Chan (2008) further stated that the intention to stay was also found to be considerably related to P-O fit, remuneration, recognition, training and career development, all of which can be categorised under talent management practices.

As the result is seen to be significant, Hypothesis 3 is therefore partially accepted.

5.5 HYPOTHESIS 4: THERE IS A NEGATIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND TURNOVER INTENTION.

Judging by the results obtained from the Simple Linear Regression Analysis performed, it can be concluded that a significant relationship exists between Happiness and the Intention to Quit. This relationship has been confirmed through the significant value of $p = 0.006$. It can therefore be said that Happiness has an inverse influence on the prediction of the Intention to quit, since $t = -2.764$. Because the t value is a negative value, it can be confirmed that Happiness and the Intention to quit have a negative relationship, due to the fact that when Happiness increases, the Intention to quit will consequently decrease. This suggests that the more that employees experience Happiness, is the lesser the likelihood that the individual will have an intention to quit the Institution. Warr (2011) also states that it has frequently been found that people who subsequently leave a job are inclined to have been less satisfied or less content to some extent. This research has thus succeeding in achieving one of its objectives of

determining whether a lack of happiness directly affects turnover intention, rather than job satisfaction in general.

It can therefore be concluded that Hypothesis 4 is accepted.

5.6 HYPOTHESIS 5: THERE IS A NEGATIVE SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEANINGFULNESS AND TURNOVER INTENTION

The results obtained from the Simple Linear Regression Analysis imply that a significant positive relationship exists between Meaningfulness and the Intention to quit. This relationship has been verified through the significant value of $p = 0.025$. It can be said that Meaning has a small influence on the predictor of the Intention to quit, since $t = 2.258$. Because the t value is a positive one, it has been shown that the relationship between Meaningfulness and an employee's Intention to quit is positive. This suggests that when Meaningfulness increases, then the Intention to quit among employees consequently also increases.

In Bhatnagar's (2007) opinion, employee engagement, which emanates from a sense of meaning, is the most effective way in which to retain talent. Numerous studies have demonstrated that low employee engagement, as characterised by a lack of meaning, results in the intention to leave (Albrecht & Andreetta, 2010; De Villiers & Stander, 2011; Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). The research conducted by Gregory, Albritton, and Osmonbekov (2010), implies that employees experiencing psychological empowerment feel as though their contributions are meaningful and that they hold the ability to shape their work environment. Bhatnagar (2012) and De Villiers and Stander (2011) found similar results in their studies and are of the impression that psychologically empowered employees are more engaged, more loyal, experiencing a greater sense of meaning and thus, less likely to be involved in turnover intention. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), Baskin (2007), and Du Plooy and Roodt (2010) established that engagement, which results in meaningful work, was a substantial forecaster of turnover intention.

Due to the fact that a significant relationship exists between the two concepts, it can therefore be stated that Hypothesis 5 is accepted.

5.7 HYPOTHESIS 6: HAPPINESS MODERATES THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTION TO A CERTAIN EXTENT

The sixth hypothesis that Happiness moderates the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to quit has also been analysed in this study by means of a Multiple Regression Analysis. The results that were obtained showed that there is no significant moderator relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, and the Intention to quit. The p value was indicated to be $p = 0.531$ and the t value to be $t = 0.628$. If a significant relationship had been indicated, it would have proven that Talent Management has a positive effect on employees' Intention to quit due to the presence of happiness.

It was concluded from a discussion extracted from the happy white paper, that engagement indeed moderates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention (Happiness at Work, 2013). Catalyst (2008) states that prior research provides persuasive evidence that effective talent management leads to greater employee engagement, which ultimately affects company performance. In *Leaders in a Global Economy: Finding the Fit for Top Talent*, the alignment between what leaders value is made known, that is, work goals, and effective workplaces leads to leaders' engagement and lower intent to leave the company (Catalyst, 2008). However, previous research on the direct moderation of the relationship between talent management and turnover intention, by specifically happiness, seems to be lacking. This study therefore proves that no significant moderation relationship exists between Talent Management, Happiness, and the Intention to quit, nevertheless, further research will need to be conducted to confirm this finding.

From the above discussion it can therefore be decided that Hypothesis 6 is rejected.

5.8 HYPOTHESIS 7: MEANING MODERATES THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTION TO A CERTAIN EXTENT

The final hypothesis that Meaning moderates the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to quit was as well analysed by means of a Multiple Regression Analysis. The results obtained indicated that there is no significant moderator relationship between Talent Management, Meaning and the Intention to quit. The p value was indicated to be $p = 0.307$ and the t value to be $t = 1.024$. If there had been a significant mediator relationship between the variables, it would have proven that Talent Management has a positive impact on the employee's Intention to quit due to the presence of meaning.

Alfes *et al* (2013) recently proved that the associations between experiencing a sense of meaning and turnover intention was moderated by perceived organisational support and by the relationship with the supervisor. This thus implies the fact that meaningful work moderates the relationship between management commitment – which is a talent management practice – and turnover intention. Christensen (2009) also states that findings proved that meaningfulness and organisational commitment mediated fully the association between possibility for development and turnover. Studies precisely indicating or proving whether meaning mediates the relationship between talent management and turnover intention have however, not been conducted. This study therefore shows that no significant mediator relationship exists for the variables talent management, meaning, and the intention to quit, however, further research is required in order to confirm this finding.

From the above argument it can therefore be decided that Hypothesis 7 is rejected.

Figure 5.1 below depicts a graphical representation of which hypotheses have been analysed in this study, emphasising those that have been accepted, as well as those that have been rejected.

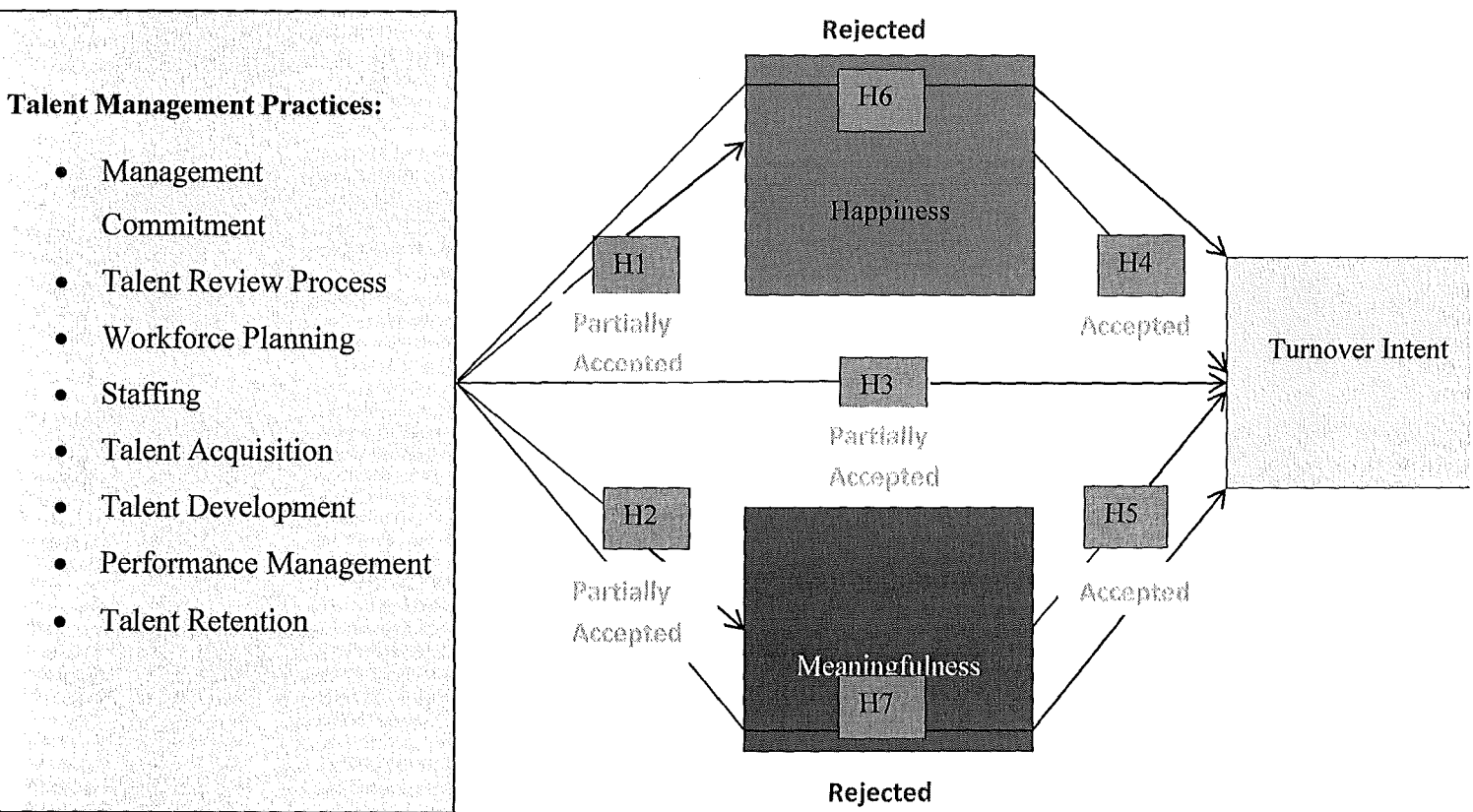


Figure 5.1: The Acceptance and Rejections of the Hypotheses in the study.

5.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided a meticulous discussion pertaining to the seven research hypotheses which have been articulated in terms of the existing literature on the relationship that can be observed between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit. In order to render a report on the research objectives of the study, the seven research hypotheses have been empirically tested by means of using the statistical data analysis techniques that are demonstrated in Chapter 5. Through the use of this empirical information, the researcher has embarked on a discussion pertaining to the empirical results that have been obtained, including the kind of implications that these results pose for the research hypotheses. The ensuing chapter provides an overview pertaining to the study in its entirety, and further deliberates on the conclusions, limitations, as well as likely future research capacities associated with this study.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter provides an overview of the study. The findings that are considered to be most noteworthy, garnered from the literature are offered, including a summary relating to the empirical results. The limitations of this research are also deliberated upon and specific recommendations for additional study in the field of Talent Management are rendered.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The subsequent section provides an overview in line with the purpose of the study, the focal research objectives articulated in the study and lastly, it offers an overall outlook regarding the contents of the study.

6.2.1 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to scrutinise and observe the relationship that exists between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit of academic employees in a selected South African Higher Education Institution. The study in its entirety has sufficiently demonstrated this relationship, and as such, the purpose of the study has been fulfilled.

6.2.2 Research Objectives

Through the literature that has been assembled in chapter two and through the statistical results that have been obtained in chapter four, by means of applying the techniques described in chapter three, the researcher has succeeded in answering the research questions, as articulated under subheading 1.3, as well as accomplishing the research objectives, as articulated under subheading 1.5. This therefore implies that the researcher has managed to achieve the main aim of this research.

6.2.3 Content of the Study

The upcoming section encapsulates the content of the study, while emphasising the manner in which the six chapters of the study have been arranged in this document.

Chapter 1 introduced the relationship that exists between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit. The first chapter further outlined all the basic material to be used throughout the study, including how develop, implement, and execute the research. The problem statement, research question, research objectives, and hypotheses were established. An explanation of the significance, as well as the benefits of the study was likewise provided.

Chapter 2 provided an in depth discussion on the literature selected for the study, as well as a critical analysis based on prior research done in Higher Education Institutions, concerning talent management, turnover, happiness, meaningfulness, the Intention to quit, and finally, the relationship that exists between these variables. This literature evaluated in chapter 2 illustrates the pedigrees of this study; consequently it contextualised the study within internationally, regionally and locally published research knowledge, by means of simplifying and applying the hypotheses that have been articulated from the first chapter.

Chapter 3 illustrated the methods of research that were used in the study. The rationale surrounding the methodology used, including the manner in which the research was carried out, was clarified and explicated in the third chapter. The research design, research paradigm, description of enquiry strategy, sampling, collection of data, research ethics, as well as further details concerning the method and measures which were undertaken to distribute the questionnaire, including the analysis of data were also discussed in chapter three.

Chapter 4 graphically depicts the results that were received from the data analysis which was performed in connection with what was discussed in the research design and methodology in Chapter 3. The fourth chapter further assesses the results obtained in their entirety from the empirical statistical tests that have been performed on the data, in relation with the objectives that were established for the purpose of the study, as well as the pertinent hypotheses developed in chapter 2.

Chapter 5 focused on discussing the empirical results attained, as displayed in chapter 4, including the implications that exist in terms of the research hypotheses. The seven research hypotheses articulated for the study were presented in chapter five, shadowed by a discussion concerning the implications of the statistical results.

Chapter 6 gives an overview of the research findings of the study in relation to the literature reviewed, as well as the statistical analysis carried out. The limitations of the study are addressed and recommendations are made for further study in the arenas of Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit. Work Wellness and the Intention to quit are carefully chosen.

6.3 CONCLUSIONS DRAWN FROM THE STUDY

The upcoming section encapsulates the conclusions which can be written up from the study, while highlighting the conclusions that have been drawn from the literature, as well as those conclusions that have been drawn from the empirical results.

6.3.1 Conclusions from the Literature

We are able to conclude the following from the literature review:

- There have not been many studies that have been conducted on the relationship between Talent Management and Happiness. Nevertheless, Barning (2014), states that according to positive psychologists, talent management and an investment in learning and development, can increase employee happiness. It is not the soft flower power happiness from the seventies, criticising capitalistic values like working hard, making money and making a career. Quite differently, it is a notion of happiness based on those values. By forming an environment in which employees are happy, employers automatically form an environment in which they are productive. And vice versa: being productive makes people happy (Barning, 2014).
- It has been noted that a substantial number of articles and studies exist relating to the relationship between Talent Management and Meaningfulness (Greasley et al., 2008; Lawler, Mohrman, & Benson, 2001; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Raub & Robert, 2010). Kahn (1990) highlighted the relation of psychological matters to human capital management. He discovered that a desirable outcome could be expected if psychological meaningfulness and psychological safety exist, and when the employees themselves were more psychologically available (Bux & Tay, 2010). When leaders empower their employees through the delegation of authority to them, sharing information, developing and coaching employees, consenting greater decision-making power and holding

employees liable (Talent Management Practices), such employees will feel increasingly competent and in control, which will result in them experiencing meaning in their work and general life.

- Through previous research conducted, it has been proven that the Intention to quit is indeed impacted by Talent Management. When there is a lack of Talent Management Practices in the workplace, an individual is more likely to consider leaving the organisation. Cobb (2014), states that talent management programs provide the hotel industry with a proven and practical way to considerably improve employee satisfaction and retention in order to reduce turnover and its associated costs. Additionally, happier, more productive employees deliver high levels of customer service and help to deliver strong general business results. There are numerous talent management best practices that have been shown to significantly improve employee satisfaction and retention (Cobb, 2014). Furthermore, Van Schalkwyk, Du Toit, Bothma and Rothmann (2010) are of the impression that the significance of comprehending turnover intention is crucial when taking the war for talented employees among companies into consideration. Bhatnagar (2007) also states that talent management is rapidly gaining top priority among organisations across the world. Trends for talent management, talent wars, talent raids and talent shortage, talent metrics retention, including concerns for talent strategy are expressed as being major frustrations, across various countries comprising the USA, the UK, South Africa, Australia, Japan, China, India, and across Asia, to mention a few.
- The literature revealed that not much research has been conducted concerning the relationship between Happiness and Turnover Intention. Nevertheless, Warr (2011) states that it has frequently been found that people who subsequently leave a job are inclined to have been less content or happy to some extent. Warr (2011) also expresses how he reckons that research into employee unhappiness and turnover would benefit from a more targeted examination of precise forms of well-being, as well as other constructs. This plea has therefore been somewhat satisfied through the carrying out of this study.
- Substantial research exists based on the relationship between Meaningfulness and Turnover Intention. According to Trauth (2006), researchers have previously found meaningfulness of work to be a strong predictor of the intention to leave, particularly for

women. Svyantek and McChrystal (2007) further state that theory and research also support a proposed relationship between meaningful work and organisational commitment. In other words, meaningful work has the potential or likelihood to reduce employees' intention to quit an organisation. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), Baskin (2007), and Du Plooy and Roodt (2010) also established that engagement, which results in meaningful work, was a substantial forecaster of turnover intention. The research conducted by Gregory, Albritton, and Osmonbekov (2010), additionally implies that employees experiencing psychological empowerment feel as though their contributions are meaningful and that they hold the ability to shape their work environment.

- It had been earlier concluded from the literature specifically extracted from the happy white paper, engagement indeed does moderate the relationship between talent management and turnover (Happiness at Work, 2013). Talent management results in engagement and when employees are engaged, they are much less likely to quit the organisation. In *Leaders in a Global Economy: Finding the Fit for Top Talent*, the alignment between what leaders value is made known, that is, work goals, and effective workplaces leads to leaders' engagement and lower intent to leave the company (Catalyst, 2008). However, previous research on the direct moderation of the relationship between talent management and turnover intention, by specifically happiness, seems to be lacking. This study has therefore succeeded in shedding more light on the precise condition of this relationship, as indicated by the result which showed that happiness does not mediate the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to quit.
- According to the literature it had been established that turnover annually costs South African organisations several millions of Rands because of reductions in productivity, the loss of skills and company knowledge, along with low employee morale (Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2006). Low employee morale normally results in employees being disengaged, which thus hinders the process of them finding meaning in the work that they do. By means of a social exchange perspective, Alfes, Shantz, Truss and Soane (2013) recently proved that the associations between experiencing a sense of meaning and turnover intention was moderated by perceived organisational support and by the relationship with the supervisor. Christensen (2009) also states that findings proved that meaningfulness and organisational commitment mediated fully the

association between possibility for development and turnover. Previous research in terms of this relationship did not distinctly prove the mediation of meaning between the relationship of talent management and the intention to quit; it was only proven in terms of similar relationships. The statistical results obtained in this study therefore indicated that no mediation in terms of the above mentioned exists.

6.3.2 Conclusions from the Statistical Analysis

The following can be concluded from the statistical analysis conducted in the study, based on the results obtained from the Simple Linear Regression analysis:

- A statistically significant relationship exists between the six recorded Talent Management Practices and Happiness.
- Talent Management Practices are statistically not a significant predictor of Meaning.
- A statistically significant relationship exists between the Talent Management and Intention to quit dimensions.
- It has been proven that a statistically significant relationship exists between Happiness and the Intention to quit.
- A statistically significant relationship exists between Meaning and the Intention to Quit.
- Happiness is statistically not a significant mediator of the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to Quit.
- Meaning is statistically not a significant mediator of the relationship between Talent Management and the Intention to Quit.

6.4 LIMITATIONS

The ensuing section below deliberates on the limitations of this study.

6.4.1 Limitations as a Result of the Research Design

A cross-sectional research design has been made use of in the study. This sort of study embroils studying a specific phenomenon, at a specific point in time. This implies that any associations noted on the relationship that exists between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit in academic employees, can only be noted at that particular point in time. A drawback in this regard turned out to be that the researcher was unable to investigate and scrutinise the variations and development that may have occurred in the relationship over a relatively longer time frame, as would have been made possible while using a longitudinal study. Applying a longitudinal study to the research may have proven advantageous in terms of this study, by possibly eliminating the elements that could probably have made the relationship between the concepts to be more susceptible to being hampered.

6.4.2 Limitations as a Result of the Data Collection Method

Research by means of using questionnaires, as has been the medium used in this study, has been known from experience to be somewhat misleading at times due to their closed-ended nature, which many a time causes the quality of the information received from them to be disparaged. Because the questionnaire used in this study was in a closed-ended form, this did not give participants the opportunity to absolutely express their opinions and perceptions, which of course posed a limitation to the study as a whole. The researcher made an effort to solicit participants to be at liberty to exercise their absolute honesty in their answers. Due to such factors that sometimes render questionnaires a much criticised method of data collection, it is imperative that the questionnaires employed are fashioned and administered suitably in order to guarantee that a high standard and quality of data is achieved. This was accomplished in this study through the application of a rigorous research design, as stipulated mainly in the third chapter of this document.

Due to the relatively long distances between the researcher's University and the other Universities that were surveyed, the collection of data at the other Universities that were not within the researcher's proximity turned out to be more tedious as participants felt less obligated to complete the questionnaire since the researcher was not physically be there to convince nor remind them. It thus as well became more difficult to provide or clarify instructions of how the questionnaire should be completed, for those who may have experienced difficulty in comprehending the instructions attached. This study was also met

with resistance from those who were supposed to serve as the key participants, thus possibly compromising the viability of the study. There was also the challenge of participants leaving questionnaires incomplete. The limited time within which the research must be completed further hindered the prospects of discovering more insightful findings and theories related to this research. The sample size may also not adequately demonstrate all the characteristics of the larger population.

6.4.3 Limitations as a Result of the Sampling Method

This study employed non-probability sampling techniques, particularly the purposive convenience sampling method. Using this kind of sampling technique made it possible for the researcher to incorporate a diverse pool of participants in order to ensure that a sufficient sample size for performing the factor analysis could be achieved. Nonetheless, it is imperative to take heed of the fact that the fraction of responses assembled through this method has a significant bearing on the sample representation and consequently, the generalisability of the sample. Additionally, involvement in the survey was made voluntary. The fact that a combination of non-probability sampling techniques and the voluntary style of involvement have been employed in the study implies that the outcomes of the study can merely be generalised to comparable organisations or environments.

6.4.4 Limitations Resulting from the Sample Size and Characteristics

As elucidated above, the sample size proved to be an important contemplation because of the usage of factor analysis. Gathering a satisfactory sample turned out to be a struggle. Three hundred and seventy six (376) questionnaires were sent out to academic employees in the large Institution. One hundred and ninety six (196) of those individuals responded, of which only one hundred and sixty (160) were in working order for the purpose of the study, since thirty six questionnaires were returned incomplete. It is imperative to discern that sampling was not measured in terms of demographics such as home languages and ethnicities, but rather through academic roles. A precarious outcome came about with respects to the sample characteristics. In the Higher Education Institutions, the number of males in academia is more dominant than the number of females. Nevertheless, the larger portion of respondents was in fact female (66.9%).

According to the information received from the questionnaires, Associated Professors in the study have been found to be the happiest group of employees in the Higher Education Institutions, followed by Lecturers, Professors, Junior Lecturers and finally, Senior Lecturers, who are recorded to be the least happy of all the academic employee groups. Furthermore, it has been determined that Junior Lecturers experience the greatest meaning in life, followed by Associated Professors, Professors, Senior Lecturers and finally, Lecturers, who are recorded to experience the least meaning in life out of all the academic employees. Additionally, the data received shows that Junior Lecturers display the highest intention to quit the Institution, followed by Professors, Lecturers, Senior Lecturers and finally, Associated Professors, who are recorded to display the least intention to quit.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The outcomes relating to this study have offered valued insights into the relationship that exists between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit. Nevertheless, it is apparent that further research is imperative so as to determine the magnitude of the existence of a relationship between these concepts, and in addition, the bearing which they can possibly have on an organisation. Questions are specifically posed as to what capacities of research are necessary to focus on, in order to supplement the body of information that is already available on the subject. The recommendations to be noted for future research have been allocated into three crucial parts, to be precise: the relationship existing between the concepts, the influence they may hold on the organisation and lastly, the practical implementation of the outcomes of the study.

6.5.1 The Relationship between The Concepts

The researcher recommends that in future, a larger sample which represents more Higher Education Institutions in South Africa should be used in order to address some of the confines that have confronted the current study, as well as to acquire added insight into the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit in academic employees in the Higher Education industry in South Africa. A sample like this should as well seek to assemble more data from an extensive spectrum of biographical characteristics in the organisation. This will make way for a more detailed study of biographical characteristics as well as the understanding of the relationship between the concepts. Applying a bigger sample size to the study could assist with the closer examination

of the relationship existing between the concepts, seeing as though a wider continuum of data from which to form better conclusions and further obtain assumptions that are more generalisable to the larger population, will be made available.

Owing to the fact that this study was executed in a cross-sectional manner, the relationship between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit could only be seen at a precise period in time. It is therefore recommended that supplementary research concerning this relationship should be conducted in a longitudinal manner, due to the fact that the outcomes of the relationship between these concepts do not occur overnight. In order to fully comprehend the relationship that exists between these concepts, the researcher should possess a degree of control over the variables in the study, devoid of disturbing the research procedure itself. This will aid in avoiding any possible skewing of results that may occur as a result of significant factors in the research environment being undetermined.

6.5.2 Effect the Study has on the Organisation

Numerous organisations perceive employees to be inanimate objects that only fit the role of working and of course, complaining that they are not sufficiently compensated. Organisations are many a time oblivious to the fact that when many employees ever so often leave, this results in the organisation or Institution experiencing high recruitment costs in the process of employing new employees. What several organisations neglect to realise is the fact that a lack of happiness and meaning in life can have an unpleasant bearing on productivity and in concurrence with low talent management, employees are more inclined to quit in an attempt to find work in alternate fields that are less strenuous. If organisations took more precise heed, they would discover that if they give more thought to the relationship that exists between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit, they may have the capacity to diminish their overhead recruitment costs and in turn, heighten productivity. This supposition is derived from the fact that when employees possess the ability to cope or manage with regard to their working environments, they naturally become increasingly productive and much less probable to leave.

The imminent recommendation posed to organisations is that they contemplate on other courses of action, contrary to overburdening employees with work, in order to increase their levels of productivity. They are required to ponder upon the relationship that exists between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit and craft, as well as make use of interventions in order to aid the difficulties noted in highly demanding situations within the organisation.

6.5.3 Practical Applications of the Outcome of the Study

This kind of study has been used in an attempt to determine whether a relationship exists between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, as well as the Intention to quit. This relationship transpires in several organisations all around the globe. It is advocated that organisations are to take heed of this relationship and essentially make use the results in an effort to elucidate any difficulties, particularly in association with Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness, and the Intention to quit.

The results that have emanated from this particular study are intended to be applied as a foundation, in concurrence with additional sources, in order to craft intercessions to combat the perceptible trend of unhappiness and a lack of meaning in life in the Higher Education Institutions in which the study was run.

6.6 CONCLUSION

It is anticipated that the empirical substantiation demonstrated in this study has validated the importance of the relationship that exists between Talent Management, Happiness, Meaningfulness and the Intention to quit in academic employees in Higher Education Institutions in South Africa, and how it is imperative to keenly manage the relationship that exists between these Institutions and their employees to the advantage of both parties. In order to reduce the bearing which the negative aspects noted in the relationship and in turn, exploit the positive aspects, the Institution is required to pay heed to their employees and furthermore, take note of any variations that may occur within the workforce. A hale and hearty, minimally unhappy workforce tends to be a more productive workforce.

REFERENCES

- Akanda, A. (2013). *The Practicalities of Human Resources: For HR Practitioners' fresh Perspective*. UK: AuthorHouse.
- Albrecht, L. S., & Andreetta, M. (2010). The influence of empowering leadership, empowerment and engagement on affective commitment and turnover intentions in community health service workers: Test of a model. *Leadership in Health Services, 3*, 228–237.
- Alfes, K., Shantz, A., Truss, C., & Soane, E. (2013). The link between perceived human resource management practices, engagement and employee behaviour: A moderated mediation model. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 24*, 51-330.
- Alzheimer Europe Research Methods: Types of Research. (2009). Retrieved June 20, 2014, from <http://www.alzheimer-europe.org/Research/Understanding-dementia-research/Types-of-research/Research-methods>
- Aparasu, R. R., & Bentley, J. P. (2014). *Principles of Research Design and Drug Literature Evaluation*. Burlington, MA: Jones & Bartlett Publish
- Armstrong, M. (2012). *Armstrong's Handbook of Human Resource Management Practice* (12th ed.). UK: Kogan Page Limited.
- Arnold, J. A., Arad, S., Rhoades, J. A., & Drasgow, F. (2000). The empowering leadership questionnaire: The construction and validation of a new scale for measuring leader behaviours. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 21*, 249–269.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Sorensen, C., & Walker, D. A. (2013). *Introduction to Research in Education* (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning.
- Ashford, O., & Dieck, E. (2012). A heightened interest in human capital as strategic asset. Retrieved June 25, 2014, from <http://www.directorship.com/a-heightened-interest-in-human-capital-as-a-strategic-asset/>
- Avey, J. B., Hughes, L. W., Norman, S. M., & Luthans, K. W. (2008). “Using positivity, transformational leadership and empowerment to combat employee negativity”. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 29*, 110–126.

- Bakker, A. B. (Ed.) (2013). *Advances in Positive Organizational Psychology, Volume 1*. Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Bakker, A. B., & Bal, P. M. (2010). Weekly work engagement and performance: A study among starting teachers. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83, 189–206.
- Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2008). Positive organizational behaviour: Engaged employees in flourishing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29, 147–154.
- Bakker, A.B., & Demerouti, E. (2006). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 309–328.
- Balnaves, M., & Caputi, P. (2001). *Introduction to Quantitative Research Methods: An Investigative Approach*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Banayan, A. (2014). "Happiness" vs "Meaningfulness" -- The Surprising Difference. Retrieved June 11, 2014, from <http://www.linkedin.com/today/post/article/20140110134529-80844253--happiness-vs-meaningfulness-the-surprising-difference>
- Barning, T. (2014). Happiness can be profitable. *HR future*. Retrieved June 10, 2014, from <http://www.hrfuture.net/latest-opinions/happiness-can-be-profitable.php?Itemid=641>
- Barning, T. (2014). Happiness can be profitable. *HR future*. Retrieved June 10, 2014, from <http://www.hrfuture.net/latest-opinions/happiness-can-be-profitable.php?Itemid=641>
- Baskin, B. (2007). Vigor, dedication, absorption: Work engagement among secondary English teachers in Indonesia. Paper presented at the annual AARE Conference, Fremantle, Perth, Australia.
- Bayens, G. J., & Roberson, C. (2011). *Criminal Justice Research Methods: Theory and Practice* (2nd ed.). USA: Taylor and Francis Group, LLC.
- Belk, R. W. (2006). *Handbook of Qualitative Research Methods in Marketing*. UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

- Bhatnagar, J. (2007). Talent management strategy of employee engagement in Indian ITES employees: Key to retention. *Employee Relations*, 29, 640–663. doi: 10.1108/0142540710826122
- Bhatnagar, J. (2012). Management of innovation: role of psychological empowerment, work engagement and turnover intention in the Indian context. *Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23, 928–951.
- Bisbee, D. C. (2005). *Current practices of land grant universities for identifying and training academic leaders*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Arkansas, United States -- Arkansas. Retrieved June 18, 2008, from Dissertations & Theses: A&I database. (Publication No. AAT 3201486).
- Bitzer, E. M. (2008). The Professoriate in South Africa: Potentially Risking Status Inflation. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 22, 265-281.
- Blaikie, N. (2010). *Designing Social Research* (2nd ed.). UK: Polity Press.
- Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C., & Kagee, A. (2006). *Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An American Perspective* (4th ed.). Cape Town, South Africa: Juta & Co. Ltd.
- Botha, L. S. & Potgieter, F. J. (2009). Understanding Skills Development in South African Higher Education Institutions. *SA Journal of Higher Educations*, 23(2), 246-263.
- Bourne, M., & Bourne, P. (2011). *Handbook of Corporate Performance Management*. West Sussex, UK: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
- Bruce, N. (2014). The top 10 talent management trends for 2014. Retrieved June 11, 2014, from <http://blog.lumesse.com/2014/01/the-top-10-talent-management-trends-for-2014-.html>
- Buddeberg-Fischer, B., Stamm, M., & Buddeberg, C. (2009). Academic Career in Medicine - Requirements and Conditions for Successful Advancement in Switzerland. *BMC Health Serv Res*, 9(70), 1-14.
- Burkholder, N. C., Edwards, Sr. P. J., & Sartain, L. (Eds.). (2004). *On Staffing: Advice and Perspectives from HR Leaders*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

- Bux, S. R., & Tay, A. (2010). The Relationship of Psychological Empowerment, Talent Engagement and Talent Outcomes. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 6 (1), 215-227.
- Caplan, J. (2013). *Strategic Talent Development: Develop and Engage All Your People for Business Success* (2nd ed.). Great Britain: Kogan Page Publishers.
- Carolan, B. V. (n.d.). Using Computer Programs for Quantitative Data Analysis. Retrieved October 6, 2013, from <http://www.montclair.edu/media/montclair.edu/graduateschoolthe/students/graduateconference9-17docs/dataanalysis.pdf>
- Carroll, C. (2004). Succession planning: Developing leaders for the future of the organization. *Leadership Abstracts*, 17(2). League for Innovation in the Community College.
- Cartwright, S., & Holmes, N. (2006). The meaning of work: The challenge of regaining employee engagement and reducing cynicism. *Human Resource Management Review*, 16, 199-208.
- Castellano, W. G. (2014). *Practices for Engaging the 21st Century Workforce: Challenges of Talent Management in a Changing Workplace*. New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Catalyst. (2008). *Leaders in a Global Economy: Talent Management in European Cultures*. New York: Author.
- Chalofsky, N. (2003). An emerging construct of meaningful work. *Human Resources Development International*, 6 (1), 69-83.
- Chalofsky, N., & Krishna, V. (2009). Meaningfulness, Commitment, and Engagement: The Intersection of a Deeper Level of Intrinsic Motivation. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 11, 189-203.
- Chew, J., & Chan, C. C. A. (2008). Human resource practices, organizational commitment and intention to stay. *International Journal of Manpower*, 29 (6), 503-522.
- Cho, J., Spence-Laschinger, H. K., & Wong, C. (2006). Workplace empowerment, work engagement and organisational commitment of new graduate nurses. *Nursing Leadership*, 19, 43-60.

- Christensen, M. (Ed.). (2009). *Validation and Test of Central Concepts in Positive Work and Organizational Psychology: The Second Report from the Nordic Project Positive Factors at Work*. Copenhagen, Denmark: Nordic Council of Ministers.
- Christie, D. (2005). *Learning to grow our own: A study of succession planning at Douglas College*. Masters thesis, Royal Roads University (Canada), Canada. Retrieved June 18, 2014, from Dissertations & Theses: A&I database. (Publication No. AAT MR05124).
- Chun, E., & Evans, A. (2014). *The New Talent Acquisition Frontier: Integrating HR and Diversity Strategy in the Private and Public Sectors and Higher Education*. Sterling, Virginia: Stylus Publishing, LLC.
- Clampitt, P. G., & DeKoch, R. J. (Eds.). (2011). *Transforming Leaders Into Progress Makers: Leadership for the 21st Century*. California: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Clarke, A., & Dawson, R. (1999). *Evaluation Research: An Introduction to Principles, Methods and Practice*. London: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Clunies, J. P. (2007). Benchmarking Succession Planning and Executive Development in Higher Education: Is the Academy Ready Now to Employ these Corporate Paradigms? *Academic Leadership: The Online Journal*, 2 (4). Retrieved June 18, 2014, from http://www.academicleadership.org/emprical_research/Benchmarking_Succession_Planning_Executive_Development_in_Higher_Education.shtml
- Cobb, A. (2014). Using Talent Management to Reduce Employee Turnover. *Hotel Business Review*. Retrieved June 5, 2014, from <https://hotelexecutive.com/newswire/39999/using-talent-management-to-reduce-employee-turnover>
- Cook, B. (2012). 'Leadership is Part of Academic Work': talent development in universities. *The Higher Education Network*. Retrieved May 28, 2014, from <http://www.theguardian.com/higher-education-network/blog/2012/nov/06/academic-leadership-talent-management-programme>
- Cottrell, R., & McKenzie, J. F. (2011). *Health Promotion & Education Research Methods: Using the Five Chapter Thesis/ Dissertation Model* (2nd ed.). Canada: Jones and Bartlett Publishers.

- Council on Higher Education (CHE). (2008). *The State of Higher Education in South Africa*. Higher Education Monitor No. 8. Pretoria: Council on Higher Education.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience*. New York, NY: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc.
- Davies, B., & Davies, B. J. (2011). *Talent Management in Education*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- De Poel, F. M., Stoker, J. I., & Van der Zee, K. I. (2012). Climate control? The relationship between leadership, climate for change, and work outcomes. *The International Journal of Human Resources Management*, 23, 694–713.
- De St. Aubin, D., & Carlsen, B. J. (2008). *Attract, Engage & Retain Top Talent: 50 Plus One Strategies Used by the Best*. Bloomington, IN: AuthorHouse.
- De Villiers, J. R., & Stander, M. W. (2011). Psychological empowerment, work engagement and turnover intention: The role of leader relations and role clarity in a financial institution. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 21, 405–412.
- Deb, T. (2005). *A Conceptual Approach to Strategic Talent Management*. New Delhi: INDUS PUBLISHING COMPANY.
- Deb, T. (2009). *Managing Human Resource and Industrial Relations*. New Delhi: Anurag Jain for Excel Books.
- Dimitrov, D. (2012). Sources of meaningfulness in the workplace: a study in the US hospitality sector. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 36 (2/3), 351 – 371.
- Druskat, V. U., & Wheeler, J. V. (2003). Managing from the boundary: The effective leadership of self-managing work teams. *Academy of Management Journals*, 46, 435–457
- Du Plessis, L., Stanz, K., & Barkhuizen, E.N. (2010). *The relationship between Perceived talent management practices, Perceived Organizational Support POS, Perceived Supervisor Support PSS and Intention to quit amongst Generation Y employees in the Recruitment Sector*. Paper presented at the 3rd Annual People and Organization's Conference, Wharton School, McGill University.

- Du Plooy, J., & Roodt, G. (2010). Work engagement, burnout and related constructs as predictors of turnover intentions. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 36, 1–13. doi: 10.4102/sajip.v36i1.910
- Elegbe, J. A. (2010). *Talent Management in the Developing World: Adopting a Global Perspective*. Great Britain: Gower Publishing Limited.
- Erasmus, B. J. (2008). Workforce Planning. In B, Swanepoel (Ed.). *South African Human Resource Management: Theory & Practice* (4th ed.) (pp, 227-253). Cape Town: Juta & Co Ltd.
- Evans, A., & Chun, E. (2012). Creating a Tipping Point: Strategic Human Resources in Higher Education. *ASHE Higher Education Report*, 38 (1), 45-46.
- Ferrell, O. C., & Hartline, M. (2012). *Marketing Strategy* (6th ed.). Mason, OH: Cengage Learning
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (3rd ed.). London: Sage.
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2003). *SPSS for Windows step by step: A simple guide and reference* (4th ed., 11.0 Update ed.). Boston: Pearson: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gibbons, J. (2006). Employee engagement – A Review of Current Research and Its Implications. [Research report]. *The Conference Board, Inc.* Retrieved June 11, 2014, from <http://montrealoffice.wikispaces.com/file/view/Employee+Engagement+-+Conference+Board.pdf>
- Gibilisco, S. (2012). Statistical Analysis. Retrieved June 20, 2014, from <http://whatis.techtarget.com/definition/statistical-analysis>
- Gold, J., Thorpe, R., & Mumford, A. (2010). *Gower Handbook of Leadership and Management Development*. England: Gower Publishing Limited.
- Greasley, K., Bryman, A., Dainty, A., Price, A. Naismith, N., & Soetanto, R. (2008). Understanding empowerment from an employee perspective. *Team Performance Management*, 14, 39–55. doi: 10.1108/13527590810860195
- Greener, I. (2011). *Designing Social Research: A Guide for the Bewildered*. London: SAGE Publications, Ltd.

- Grego, P. (2006). Leader empowering behaviours, staff nurse empowerment and work engagement/burnout. *Nursing Leadership, 19*, 41–56.
- Gregory, B. T., Albritton, M. D., & Osmonbekov, T. (2010). ‘The mediating role of psychological empowerment on the relationships between P-O Fit, job satisfaction, and in-role performance. *Journal of Business Psychology, 25*, 639–647.
- Gregory, I. (2003). *Ethics in Research*. Great Britain: MPG Books Ltd, Bodmin, Cornwall.
- Grobler, P., Wörnich, S., Carrell, M. R., Elbert, N. F., & Hatfield, R. D. (2006). *Human resource management in South Africa* (3rd ed.). Cape Town: Thompson.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: a global perspective* (7th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education.
- Hall, J. (2008). Cross-Sectional Survey Design. In P. J. Lavrakas (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Survey Research Methods* (pp. 173-174). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Happiness at work. (2013). Retrieved June 10, 2014, from <http://www.gethppy.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/12/Happiness-At-Work-Hppy-White-Paper.pdf>
- Hatum, A. (2010). *Next Generation Talent Management: Talent Management to Survive Turmoil*. Great Britain: PALGRAVE MACMILLAN.
- Heppner, P., Wampold, B., & Kivlighan, D. Jr. (2008). *Research Design in Counseling* (3rd ed). USA: Thomson Learning, Inc.
- HESA. (2011). *A generation of growth: Proposal for a national programme to develop the next generation of academics for South African higher education*. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Heuer, J. J. (2003). *Succession planning for key administrators at Ivy-Plus universities*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, United States -- Pennsylvania. Retrieved June 18, 20014, from Dissertations & Theses: A&I database. (Publication No. AAT 3084871).
- Hewit Associates and Human Capital Institute. (2008). *The State of Talent Management: Today's Challenges, Tomorrow's opportunities*. Washington D. C: Author.

- Holland, K., & Rees, C. (2010). *Nursing Evidence-Based Practice Skills*. USA: Oxford University Press.
- ICAEM. (2014). *International Conference on Advanced Education and Management*. USA: DEStech Publications, Inc.
- Jacobs, E.J. (2005). *The development of a predictive model of turnover intentions of professional nurses*. Unpublished DCom thesis, University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg.
- Jain, H., Sinha, A. P., & Vitharana, P. (Eds.). (2011). *Service-Oriented Perspectives in Design Science Research: 6th International Conference, DESRIST 2011, Milwaukee, WI, USA, May 5-6, 2011, Proceedings*. Berlin: Springer.
- Johnson, B. & Christensen, L. (2012). *Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Approaches*. New Delhi: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Jonker, J., & Pennink, B. (2010). *The Essence of Research Methodology: A Concise Guide for Master and PhD*. Germany: Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg.
- Kaminiski, M., Kaufman, J. S., Graubarth, R., & Robins, T. G. (2000). How do people become empowered? A case study of union activists. *Human Relations*, 53, 1357–1383.
- Kelloway, E. K., Turner, N., Barling, J., & Loughlin, C. (2012). Transformational leadership and employee psychological well-being: The mediating role of employee trust in leadership. *Work and Stress: An International Journal of Work, Health and Organisations*, 26, 39–55.
- Knippenberg, D. V. & Sleebos, E. (2006). Organisational identification versus organisational commitment: Self-definition, social exchange, and job attitudes. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 27, 571-584.
- Korb, J. L. (2004). *Community college leadership at a crossroads: Where crisis intersects opportunity*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, United States – Kansas. Retrieved May 15, 2009 from Dissertations and Theses: A&I database. (Publication No. 3185181).

- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques* (2nd ed.). New Delhi: New Age International (P) Ltd., Publishers.
- Krishnaswamy, K. N., Sivakumar, A. L., & Mathirajan, M. (2009). *Management Research Methodology: Integration of Principles, Methods and Techniques*. Patparganj, Delhi: Dorling Kindersley (India) Pvt. Ltd, Pearson Education.
- Kumar, C. R. (2008). *Research Methodology*. New Delhi: S. B. Nangia.
- Kumar, R. (2014). *Research Methodology: A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners* (4th ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE.
- Lamb, C., Hair, J., & McDaniel, C. (2011). *Essentials of Marketing*. Mason, OH: Cengage Learning.
- Lambert, E.G., Hogan, N.L., & Barton, S.M. (2001). The impact of job satisfaction on turnover intent: A test of a structural measurement model using a national sample of workers. *Social Science Journal*, 38(2), 233–250.
- Lawler, E. E., Mohrman, S. A., & Benson, G. (2001). *Organizing for high performance: Employee involvement, TQM, reengineering, and knowledge management in the Fortune 1000*. San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass.
- Lawler, III, E. E. (2008). *Talent: Making People Your Competitive Advantage*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Lee, T.W., & Mitchell, T.R. (1994). An alternative approach: The unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover. *Academy of Management Review*, 19(1), 51–89.
- Letavec, C. J., Rollins, S. C., & Altwies, D. (2008). *Program Management Professional (PgMP): A Certification Study Guide with Best Practices for Maximizing Business Results*. Fort Lauderdale, FL: J. Ross Publishing, Inc.
- Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2007). Emerging positive organizational behaviour. *Journal of Management*, 33, 321-349.
- Mackey, J. A. (2008). *Community college leadership succession: Perception and plans of community college leaders*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Arizona. Retrieved

June 18, 2014, from Dissertations & Theses: A&I database. (Publication No. UMI 3318486).

Magolego, H., Barkhuizen, E.N., & Lesenyeho, D.L. (2013). Talent Management and Job Performance: The Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction. In S.M. Lee & G. Roodt (Eds.), *30th Pan Pacific Conference, Johannesburg, South Africa* (pp. 132-135), ISBN: 1-931649-27-3. PPBA

Mangal, S., K. & Mangal, S. (2013). *Research Methodology in Behavioural Sciences*. New Delhi: PHI Learning Private Limited.

Mare, Z. (2007). *Leadership empowerment behaviour, organisational commitment and turnover intention in the gold mining industry* (Unpublished master's dissertation). North-West University, Potchefstroom.

Maree, K. (2010). *First steps in research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Marsh, C. (2008). The succession fix. *Talent Management*, 4(6), 42-46.

Martin, M. J., & Kaufman, E. K. (2013). Do Job Satisfaction and Commitment to the Organization Matter When It Comes to Retaining Employees? *Journal of Extension*, 51(4)

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2005). Stress and burnout: The critical research. In C. L. Cooper (Ed.). *Handbook of stress medicine and health*. London: CRC Press.

Melik, R. (2007). *The Rise of the Project Workforce: Managing People and Projects in a Flat World*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Mendes, F., & Stander, M. W. (2011). Positive organisation: The role of leader behaviour in work engagement and retention. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37, 1–13.

Merriam-Webster, Incorporated (2013). Questionnaire – Definition and More from the Free Merriam-Webster Dictionary. Retrieved August 20, 2014, from <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/questionnaire>

Michaels, E. D., Handfield-Jones, H., & Axelrod, B. (2001). *The War for Talent*. Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Press.

- Mitchell, M. L., & Jolley, J. M. (2012). *Research Design Explained* (8th ed.). Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning.
- Mobley, W.H. (1982). Some unanswered questions in turnover and withdrawal research. *Academy of Management Review*, 7, 111–116.
- Monsen, E, R., & Van Horn, L. (2008). *Research: Successful Approaches* (3rd ed.). USA: Diana Faulhaber, American Dietetic Association.
- Morrell, K., Loan-Clarke, J., Arnold, J., & Wilkinson, A. (2008). Mapping the decision to quit: A refinement and test of the unfolding model of voluntary turnover. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 57(1), 128–150.
- Mouton, J. (2010). *African Experience with Collaborative Graduate Programmes*. Research Report. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.
- Mpofu, L., & Barkhuizen, E.N. (2013). The Impact of Talent Management Practices on Employees in a Government Institution. In S.M. Lee & G. Roodt (Eds.), *30th Pan Pacific Conference, Johannesburg, South Africa* (pp. (129-131) ISBN: 1-931649-27-3. PPBA.
- Mtila, J., Barkhuizen, E.N., & Mokgele, R. (2013). Exploring the Application of Talent Management Practices in a Local Government Institution, *30th Pan Pacific Business Association Conference, Johannesburg, South Africa*.
- Muijs, D. (2011). *Doing Quantitative Research in Education with SPSS* (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Nelms, D. A., & Mahan, T. F. (2012). *The Why Factor: Winning with Workforce Intelligence*. USA: WestBow Press.
- 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. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v3i2.64>
- Newman, M. C. (1995). *Quantitative Methods in Aquatic Ecotoxicology*. USA: CRC Press, Inc.

- Nowack, K. (2005). Leadership, emotional intelligence and employee engagement: Creating a psychologically healthy workplace. *Training and Development Journal*, 45, 69–73.
- Oakes, K., & Galagan, P. (Eds.). (2011). *The Executive Guide to Integrated Talent Management*. Danvers, MA: American Society for Training & Development Press.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2013), Glossary of Statistical Terms. Retrieved June 19, 2014, from <http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=2645>
- Özerdem, A., & Bowd, R. (2010). *Participatory Research Methodologies: Development and Post-Disaster/Conflict*. England: Ashgate Publishing Limited.
- Pallant, J. (2005). *SPSS Survival manual* (2nd ed.). United Kingdom: Open University Press.
- Pallant, J. (2010). *SPSS Survival Manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS* (4th ed.). Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill International.
- Petriglieri, J.L. (2011). Under threat: Responses to and the consequences of threats to individuals' identities. *The Academy of Management Review*, 36(4), 641–662.
- Phillips, J. J. (2005). *Investing in Your Company's Human Capital: Strategies to Avoid Spending Too Little – or Too Much*. New York: AMACOM.
- Phillips, J. J., & Edwards, L. (2009). *Managing Talent Retention: An ROI Approach*. San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.
- Phillips, J. J., Phillips, P. P., & Hodges, T. K. (2004). *Making Training Evaluation Work: Show Value and Communicate Results, Select the Right Model and Find Resources, Get Management Buy-in and Overcome Resistance*. USA: American Society for Training and Development Press.
- Pienaar, C., & Bester, C. L. (2008). The Retention of Academics in the Early Career Phase: Empirical Research. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 6(2), 32-41.
- Ployhart, R. E. (2006). Staffing in the 21st century: New challenges and strategic opportunities. *Journal of Management*.
- Pratt, A., & Ashforth, B.E. (2003). Fostering meaningfulness in working and at work. *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline*, 309-327.

- Pulakos, E. D. (2009). *Performance Management: A New Approach for Driving Business Results*. West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Punch, K. F. (2014). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Raub, S., & Robert, C. (2010). Differential effects of empowering leadership on in-role and extra-role employee behaviours: Exploring the role of psychological empowerment and power values. *Human Relations*, *63*, 1743–1770. doi: 10.1177/0018726710365092
- Riordan, C. (2013). The positive returns of a happy workforce. *Financial Times*. Retrieved June 9, 2014, from <http://www.ft.com/cms/s/2/41f990f0-b955-11e2-bc57-00144feabdc0.html#axzz347hqGlak>
- Robinson, J. (2008). Turning Around Employee Turnover: Costly Churn can be Reduced if Managers Know What to Look for - and They Usually Don't. *Gallup Management Journal Online*, 08 May, 1-6.
- Russo, D. (2010). *17 Rules Successful Companies Use to Attract and Keep Top Talent: Why engaged employees are your greatest sustainable advantage*. USA: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *21*, 600-619.
- Salkind, N. J. (Ed.). (2010). *Encyclopedia of Research Design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Sauer, D. (2003). *Psychological empowerment, leadership empowerment and job insecurity within a steel-manufacturing environment* (Unpublished master's dissertation). North-West University, Potchefstroom.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2004). Job demand, job resources and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *25*, 293–315.
- Schiemann, W. A. (2009). *Reinventing Talent Management: How to Maximize Performance in the New Marketplace*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

- Schuler, R. S., Jackson, S. E., & Tarque, I. (2011). Global talent management and global talent challenges: Strategic opportunities for HRM. *Journal of World Business, 46*: 506-516.
- Scullion, H., & Collings, D. G. (2011). *Global Talent Management*. New York: Taylor & Francis.
- Seibert, S. E., Wang, G., & Courtright, S. H. (2011). Antecedents and consequences of psychological and team empowerment in organisations: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*, 981–1003.
- Seligman, M. E. P. (2003). *AUTHENTIC HAPPINESS: Using the new positive psychology to realise your potential for lasting fulfilment*. Great Britain: Nicholas Brealey Publishing.
- Silzer, R., & Dowell, B. E. (2010). *Strategy-Driven Talent Management: A Leadership Imperative*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Sims, D. (2010). *The Talent Review Meeting Facilitator's Guide*. USA: AuthorHouse.
- Siu, C., & Comerasamy, H. (2013). *Doing a Research Project in Nursing and Midwifery: A Basic Guide to Research Using the Literature Review Methodology*. London: SAGE Publications, Ltd.
- Steger, M. F., Fraizer, P., Oishi, S., & Kaler, M. (2006). The Meaning in Life Questionnaire: Assessing the presence of and search for meaning in life. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 53*, 80-93.
- Stommel, M., & Wills, C. (2004). *Clinical Research: Concepts and Principles for Advanced Practice Nurses*. Philadelphia, USA: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- Stoppani, T. (2011). *Paradigm Islands: Manhattan and Venice: Discourses on Architecture and the City*. USA: Routledge.
- Supino, P. G., & Borer, J. S. (Eds.). (2012). *Principles of Research Methodology: A Guide for Clinical Investigators*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Svyantek, D. J., & McChrystal, E. (Eds.). (2007). *Refining Familiar Constructs: Alternative Views in OB, HR, and I/O*. Charlotte, NC: IAP – Information Age Publishing, Inc.

- The Economist. (2006). The battle for brainpower. Retrieved May 28, 2014, from www.economist.com/node7961894
- Theron, M., Barkhuizen, N., & Du Plessis, Y. (2014). Managing the academic talent void: Investigating factors in academic turnover and retention in South Africa. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology/SA Tydskrif vir Bedryfsielkunde*, 40(1), Art. #1117, 13 pages. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1117>
- Thyer, B. (Ed.). (2010). *The Handbook of Social Work Research Methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Trauth, E. M. (Ed.). (2006). *Encyclopedia of Gender and Information Technology*. Hershey, PA: Idea Group Reference.
- Vaiman, V., & Haslberger, A. (2013). *Talent Management of Self-Initiated Expatriates: A Neglected Source of Global Talent*. UK: PALGRAVE MACMILLAN.
- Vaiman, V., & Vance, C. (2008). *Smart Talent Management: Building Knowledge Assets for Competitive Advantage*. UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Van der Sluis, L., & van de Bunt-Kokhuis, S. G. M. (2009). *Competing for Talent*. Grafische verzorging: Koninklijke Van Gorcum, Assen.
- Van Dooren, W., Bouckaert, G., & Halligan, J. (2010). *Performance Management*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Van Schalkwyk, S., Du Toit, D. H., Bothma, A. S., & Rothmann, S. (2010). Job insecurity, leadership empowerment behaviour, employee engagement and intention to leave in a petrochemical laboratory. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8, 234–241. doi: 10.4102/sajhrm.v8i1.234
- Van Tiem, D., Moseley, J. L., & Dessinger, J. C. (2012). *Fundamentals of Performance Improvement: Optimizing Results through People, Process, and Organisations* (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.
- Verma, J. P. (2012). *Data Analysis in Management with SPSS Software*. New Delhi: Springer.

- Vogt, W. P., Gardner, D. C., & Haefele, L. M. (2012). *When to Use What Research Design*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Warr, P. (2011). *Work, Happiness, and Unhappiness*. East Sussex, UK: Psychology Press.
- Willig, C., & Stainton-Rogers, W. (2008). *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research in Psychology*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Wimmer, R., & Dominick, J. (2012). *Mass Media Research: An Introduction* (10th ed.). USA: Cengage Learning.
- Wollard, K. K., & Shuck, B. (2011). Antecedents to Employee Engagement: A Structured Review of Literature. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 13, 429-446.
- Wrzesniewski, A. (2003). Finding positive meaning in work. *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline*, 296-308.
- Yukl, G. A. & Becker, W. S. (2006). Effective empowerment in organisations. *Organisation Management Journal*, 3, 210-231.
- Zeffane, R.M. (1994). Understanding employee turnover: The need for a contingency approach. *International Journal of Manpower*, 15(9/10), 22-37.
- Zhang, X., & Bartol, K. M. (2010). Linking empowering leadership and employee creativity: The influence of psychological empowerment, intrinsic motivation and creative process engagement. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53, 107-128.