UNLOCKING THE "BLACK BOX" IN THE TALENT MANAGEMENT EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE RELATIONSHIP: EVIDENCE FROM THE GHANAIAN BANKING SECTOR

James Kwame Mensah

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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation	Unlocking the "Black Box" in the Talent Management Employee Performance Relationship: Evidence from the Ghanaian Banking Sector
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Recent years have witnessed ever-increasing focus on the effective management of people that represent special significance to their organisations' success, and perhaps this has been one of the most important developments in human resource management (HRM). Specifically, talent management (TM) has been the focus and centre of attention of both HRM scholars and practitioners since it entered the managerial lexicon in the 1990s. From the work of the McKinsey consultants, the field of TM has gain much respect and attention across corporate functions, industries, and national boundaries and has consistently grown from infancy to adolescence.

However, while there is now a sufficient body of evidence that indicates that TM practices are related to employee performance and the intention to quit, it is still unclear how these practices affect such outcomes. This study fills this gap by empirically examining the mediating mechanisms through which TM affects four dimensions of employee performance, as well as the intention to quit in the Ghanaian Banking Sector. Thus, this study developed a conceptual model that explains the relationship between TM and four dimensions of employee performance, as well as employee intention to quit, through the mediating role of TM outputs (perceived organisational support [POS], and commitment and satisfaction), taking into account the effect of business strategy on TM.

Using a sample of 232 talented employees in three Ghanaian banks, a partial mediation model is outlined and tested using structural equation modelling (SEM).

The individual constructs, measurements, and structural models were validated through SEM and all achieved adequate fit. The findings revealed that quality and innovative business strategies were positively related to TM, while the cost leadership strategy was negatively related to TM. Also, the findings showed that TM has a significant positive relationship with the four dimensions of employee performance: task, contextual, and adaptive and counterproductive work behaviours. TM has a positive and significant relationship with POS, which then positively affects employee satisfaction and commitment. Again, TM has a significant relationship with TM outputs (POS, satisfaction, and commitment). However, TM has no significant relationship with intention to quit. Whereas POS has a significant relationship with the intention to quit, commitment and satisfaction do not.

Furthermore, the results also showed that whereas commitment and satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between TM and the four dimensions of employee performance, POS does not mediate this relationship. Lastly, POS fully mediates the relationship between TM and quit intentions while satisfaction and commitment do not. Therefore, the findings suggest that TM affects the four dimensions of employee performance directly and indirectly through commitment and satisfaction. TM appears not to be the solution or key to a reduced intention to quit; however, POS may help reduce the intention to quit. Finally, the social exchange theory (SET), the ability, motivation, and opportunity (AMO) theory, and the signally theory (ST) provide a useful way of explaining the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance, thereby increasing our understanding of the phenomena of TM.

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Jesus looked at them and said, with man this is impossible, but with God all things are possible **(Mathew, 19: 26). I believe this.**

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ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations	Equivalence
AMO	Ability, Motivation and Opportunity
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GMA	General Mental Ability
GTM	Global Talent Management
HCT	Human Capital Theory
HPWP	High Performance Work Practices
HR	Human Resources
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRM	Human Resource Management
IHRM	International Human Resource Management
IWP	Individual Work Performance
MLE	Maximum Likelihood Estimation
MNCs	Multinational Corporations
POS	Perceived Organizational Support
RBV	Resource-Based View
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SHRM	Strategic Human Resource Management
ST	Signalling Theory
SET	Social Exchange Theory
TM	Talent Management

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is to introduce and frame the direction of the study. The chapter begins with the background to the study and the statement of the research problem. This discussion clearly emphasises the importance of talent management (TM) in relation to employee performance and demonstrates the crucial gaps in the extant literature that need to be filled. The research questions and objectives as well as the scope and significance of this study are clearly stated in this chapter. In brief, the purpose of this chapter is to provide a guide to the nature and structure of the argument being constructed in this dissertation.

1.2 Background to the Study

Today's businesses face increasing competition and unforeseen events. In this current global and technological environment, information and data are flying freely around the world at the speed of light; hence, competitors can catch up quickly to any single advance. This means that innovation must be ongoing and continuous in order to maintain market leadership. The only way this can happen is through the supply and management of the most talented and creative employees. Indeed, companies are now focusing their attention on their human capital in order to provide them with a competitive advantage and improved performance. This is based on the resource-based view (RBV) of the firm. This view states that a firm gain competitiveness from resources that are imitable, rare, non-transferable and non-substitutable (Barney, 1991; 2001). Talent and human capital are resources and capabilities that have generally been agreed as meeting these criteria (Becker and Huselid, 2006).

As a result, recent debate on the relationship between human resource management (HRM) and performance has shifted from the traditional HRM to TM perspective (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Cheese, Thomas and Craig, 2008; Vance and Vaiman, 2008; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Collings, Scullion and Vaiman, 2011; Cooke, Saini and Wang, 2014; Farndale, Pai, Sparrow and Scullion, 2014). Because the resources and performance of a firm are tied to the capabilities of talented individuals (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Chadee and Raman, 2012), organisations benefit by focusing on and managing talented employees (Ariss, Cascio and Paauwe, 2014; Cappelli and Keller, 2014; Cooke et al., 2014; Farndale et al., 2014; Sidani and Ariss, 2014).

Hence, firms struggle unremittingly to recruit and retain talented and high-performing employees and avoid low efficient ones (Schumpeter, 2011; Shahl et al., 2011). The importance attached to talented employees brings us to the fact that the assets of any organisation can perhaps be divided into two parts: its people (talented people) and everything else. In other words, a firm consists of the human beings that create value. Handfield-Jones, Michaels and Axelrod (2001: xii) defined talent as "the sum of a person's abilities; his or her intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, judgement, attitude, character and drive". Embedded in this definition is the aroma of creativity, of thinking outside the box, and of a distinctive aptitude to solve a problem. In fact, today's intensely-competitive open market accept no automatons or computerized time card punchers that devotedly perform the same task for many years and hope to retire with good pension benefits.

Companies, regardless of their size and location have become dexterous, innovative and prepared to discard the previous dependable techniques when confronted by the rigid competition and technologies. Hence, most firms have grasped the concept of TM (Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries and González-Cruz, 2013; Ariss et al., 2014; Meyers and Woerkom, 2014; Schiemann, 2014; Sonnenberg, van Zijderveld and Brinks, 2014) with the view that talent is an asset of the firm and must be managed and invested in as it continues to become the key productive force regarding change, differentiation, and competitive advantage.

Since the 1990s when TM entered the managerial lexicon, interest in the concept by researchers, human resource managers, and management consultants has

proliferated (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Björkman et al., 2013; Nijs, Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries and Sels, 2014; Gallardo-Gallardo, Nijs, Dries and Gallo, 2015). This much talk about TM is driven largely by the fact that while conventional approaches to HRM have served organisations well in the 20th century, the present-day business environment calls for new and innovative approaches to the development and deployment of human resources (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Caligiuri, 2006; Lengnick-Hall and Andrade, 2008).

Of concern is talent recruitment and retention, which are increasingly becoming one of the biggest challenges for many organisations (Axelrod, Handfield-Jones and Michaels, 2002; Makela, Bjorkman and Ehrnrooth, 2010; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Shuler, Jackson and Tarique, 2011). Of even greater interest is the fact that highly-talented employees contribute to plus 37 percent while average and low-talented employees contribute to plus 4 percent and minus 7.6 percent of organisational profit and growth respectively (Lunn, 1992; Groysberg, 2010).

The point is that it has been acknowledged in the extant literature that TM is related to employee performance (Tansley et al., 2007; Groysberg, 2010; Shannon, Sarah and Valerie, 2011; Shrimali and Gidwani, 2012; Schiemann, 2014; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015) and ultimately organisational performance (Blass, 2009; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Bethke-Langenegger, Mahler and Staffelbach, 2011; Chadee and Raman, 2012; Meyers and Woerkom, 2014; Ulrich and Allen, 2014). It is therefore not surprising that the concept of TM, talent wars, talent raids, talent shortage, talent retention and talent strategy has gained popularity in the literature across various industries and countries. As a matter of fact, many researchers regard TM as the managerial strategic priority of the 21st century (Farndale, Scullion and Sparrow, 2010; Makela et al., 2010; Mensah, 2015).

Even though there is still no consensus on the meaning of TM (Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Tansley, 2011; Dries, 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries and Gonzalex-Cruz, 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015), it has been broadly defined as an integrated set of processes and programs in an organisation planned and implemented to identify pivotal positions, attract, develop, deploy, motivate and retain talented employees to attain strategic objectives and meet future business needs (Lockwood, 2006; Warren, 2006; Tansley et al., 2007; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Iles, Chuai and

Precee, 2010; Silzer and Dowell, 2010; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). Whatever one defines TM, managing talented employees is believed to lead to disproportionately higher performance (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Collings and Melahi, 2009; Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011; Chadee and Raman, 2012; Ulrich and Allen, 2014; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015).

Employee performance is an important construct in organisational studies and this is reflected in the volume of literature devoted to it (Sonnentag and Frese, 2002; Viswesvaran, 2001). Employee performance has been variously defined, but the central idea revolves around the effective discharge of one's duty for good results, the fulfilment of the requirements of the job as well as accomplishing a standard that is set by the organisation (Campbell, 1990; Maathis and Jackson, 2000; Bohlander, Snell and Sherman, 2001; Sonnentag and Frese, 2002). In this regard, TM has been seen as a differentiated human resource (HR) system used to improve the performance of talented employees in pivotal positons (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Chadee and Raman, 2012; Mensah, 2015).

The extant literature clearly indicates that TM leads to employee performance (Ashton and Morton, 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Shannon et al., 2011; Chadee and Raman, 2012; Kaur, 2013; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015) as talented employees are smart, innovative, efficient and effective and ultimately, the last true competitive differentiator (Tansley et al., 2007; Baublyte, 2010; Elegbe, 2010; Groves, 2011; Randall, 2011; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). That is, performance depends to some extent on TM. Furthermore, TM has been generally agreed to reduce the employee's intention to quit and increases the likelihood of retaining talented employees (Bhatnagar, 2007; Hughes and Rogs, 2008; Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011; Hanif and Yunfei, 2013; Chami-Maelab and Garavan, 2013; Festing and Schafer, 2014).

Similarly, investment in TM practices is associated with a multiplicity of outcomes, such as perceived organisational support (POS), and employee satisfaction, engagement, motivation, and commitment (Lockwood, 2006; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Anand, 2011; Vural, Vardarlier and Aykir, 2012; Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013; Barkhuizen, Welby-Cooke, Schutte and Stanz, 2014; Gelens, Dries, Hofmans and Pepermans, 2015; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015). An

increasingly-popular idea within the TM literature is that TM should be connected to the business strategy of a firm (Ashton and Morton, 2005; Ulrich and Brockbank, 2005; Guthridge, Komm and Lawson, 2006; Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Beechler and Woodward, 2009; Avedon and Scholes, 2010; Ernst and Young, 2010; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; McDonnell, 2011) and that organisations that have succeeded in TM have often aligned it to their business strategy (Tansley et al., 2007; Beechler and Woodward, 2009; Ernest and Young, 2010). Indeed, McCauley, and Wakefield (2006) maintained that an integrated TM strategy that is aligned to the business strategy helps to achieve performance, cope with the increasing rapid pace of change, and sustain success.

Besides much research that has linked TM to performance, there are several organisational development theories that seek to explain how TM is related to performance. Obvious theories that begin to show a relationship between TM and employee performance include social exchange theory (SET), the ability, motivation and opportunity (AMO) theory, and the Signally Theory (ST). The proponents of SET argue that where employees perceive that their organisation sees them as talented and provides them with well-designed and interconnected TM practices, they will be more committed to the organisation and willing to demonstrate extra role behaviours and performance (Takeuchi, Chen and Lepak, 2009; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman and Taylor, 2000).

The AMO theory states that employees' performance can be improved through improving their ability and motivation, and by providing them with the opportunities to participate in value creation (Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Bailey, Berg and Sandy, 2001; Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg, 2000). Signalling theory argues that identification or designation as talent sends a strong signal of organisational support, thereby leading to favourable employee behaviour such as satisfaction, commitment, POS, and performance (Hoglund, 2012). In other words, individuals that feel valued will want to contribute to the success of the organisation and continue to stay with it.

Therefore, organisations are and will continue to search for talented individuals that can effectively perform in the complex, challenging, changing, and often ambiguous business environment (Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Björkman et al., 2013; Gelens et al., 2015; Mensah, 2015). This study will be conducted on the

banking sector of Ghana. The Ghanaian banking sector has had a significant impact on the economy. With the liberalisation and universalisation of the Ghanaian banking sector, it now provides all products and services which enable firms and households to cope with economic uncertainties by hedging, pooling, sharing, and pricing risks. An efficient banking sector decreases the cost and risk of producing goods and services and thus makes a significant contribution to increasing standards of living.

However, efficient banking can only be achieved through talented employees that generate ideas, products, and services that meet the needs of their clients. The banking sector now requires a highly-effective, efficient team and appropriate talented employees. Indeed, the banking goals are translated into viable realities and profits through talented employees that perform their due role in achieving the desired results. In other words, efficient banking for national development cannot be achieved without the "talent equation". Thus, even today's highly automations require talented individuals behind the machine to make things happen.

1.3 Statement of the Research Problem

TM has become increasingly popular (Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Dries, 2013) and has grown from infancy to adolescence (Thunnissen, Boselie and Fruytier, 2013). As such, interest in TM research has surged over the last two decades (Bjorkman et al., 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Gelens et al., 2015). While admitting that this has contributed to our understanding of TM in the scholarly and professional world, a number of gaps remain to be explored to further the field of TM research, both academically and professionally.

First, even though empirical evidence has begun to rise (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015), most TM research has been built on anecdotal evidence and literature reviews to prescribe best practices (Ashton and Morton, 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Thunnissen et al., 2013; Ariss et al., 2014; Cappelli and Keller, 2014; Nijs et al., 2014; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015). That is, such studies have adopted a normative approach and typically list a set of best practices by management experts and "gurus" (Vinkenburg and Pepermans, 2005; Dries, 2013; Collings, 2014).While these accounts are suggestive and fruitful sources of

hypotheses, their prominence in the literature is a testimony to the paucity of systematic empirical research on the relationship between TM and performance (Mensah, 2015). Because of the strong academic and practitioner belief that TM is effective, it is crucial for research to demonstrate this by conducting a detailed empirical study to advance our understanding of the relationship between TM and employee performance.

Second, TM research has focused on the design, drivers, implementation, and operations of TM systems (Iles et al., 2010; Mellahi and Collings, 2010; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Sidani and Ariss, 2014). Similarly, studies have been conducted on the various strategies of TM (Chugh and Bhatnagar, 2006; Baum, 2008; Poocharoen and Lee, 2013), while others concentrate on measures to attract and retain talented employees (Bhatnagar, 2007; Hughes and Rog, 2008; Kim, 2008; van Dijk, 2008). Also, attention has been focused on the challenges of TM (Cappelli, 2008; Schuler, Jackson and Tarique, 2011) and global TM (Boussebaa and Morgan, 2008; Hartmann, Feisel and Schober, 2010; McDonnell, Lamare, Gunningle and Lavelle, 2010; Makela et al., 2010; Mellahi and Collings, 2010; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Schuler et al., 2011; Furusawa and Brewster, 2015). However, few studies have been carried out on the relationship between TM and employee performance. Hence, there is the need to research thoroughly this relationship.

Third, despite calls for examining the relationship between TM and performance (Gelens et al., 2013; Meyers, van Woerkom and Dries, 2013; Ariss et al., 2014; Mensah, 2015), only few researchers have studied this relationship (Dries and Pepermans, 2008; Chami-Malaeb, 2012; Björkman et al., 2013; Bish and Kabanoff, 2014; Sonnenberg et al., 2014; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015). Thus, Tarique and Schuler (2010) asserted that most TM research has been at the macro level (Chadee and Raman, 2012; Sheehan, 2012; Joyce and Slocum, 2012; Sonnenberg et al., 2014) rather than the micro level. However, in order to enhance organisational performance, individual performance is paramount (Collings and Mellahi 2009; Hoglund 2012; Mensah, 2015) because it is individual performance that leads to organisational performance.

In support of the above, studies (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Gelens et al., 2013; Mensah, 2015) have argued that research should focus on the translation of TM

to performance in specific organisational contexts at the individual level. Similar recommendations for research into the multi-level analysis of TM as a predictor of both employee and organisational performance have been made (Collings and Mellahi, 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Meyers et al., 2013; Meyers and Woerkom, 2014). These calls are legitimate because TM has become increasingly popular, growing from infancy to adolescence (Thunnissen et al., 2013). Does TM lead to employee performance? This study has arisen from intellectual restlessness and awakened me to answer this question. In fact, this certainly is not the first time that a researcher has wondered about this question; amazingly, few have dared to attempt it to date. Consequently, this study seeks to examine the relationship between TM and employee performance.

Fourth, studies on the relationship between TM and employee performance (Dries and Pepermans, 2008; Chami-Malaeb, 2012; Björkman et al., 2013; Bish and Kabanoff, 2014; Sonnenberg et al., 2014; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015) appear not show how TM relates to the various dimensions of employee performance, such as task, contextual, adaptive and counterproductive, and it is not clear which of the performance dimensions have been studied previously. While I do not doubt the findings of these studies, it appears that not all of the dimensions of employee performance have been studied. Therefore, the measures used to show that TM impacts employee performance appear to be less valid and reliable, as they have not captured all of the dimensions of employee performance. Employee performance is multi-dimensional consisting of task and contextual, adaptive, and counterproductive behaviours (Borman and Motowildo, 1993; Sonnnentag and Frese, 2002; Koopmans et al., 2011). Hence, there is a need to broaden our understanding by studying how TM relates to the various dimensions of employee performance.

Fifth, although TM is becoming a growing field of research and practice, only a few studies have examined the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015). Thus, most studies have ignored the mechanisms and interconnected processes through which TM leads to performance. In fact, psychology is seen as a missing link between the TM and performance relationship in that, employee perceptions, attitudes, and attributions are crucial mediators of this relationship (Dries, 2013;

Mensah, 2015). In other words, research dealing with the mechanisms through which TM leads to performance is quite lacking and the question of the mechanisms through which TM leads to performance remains unanswered.

As a result, Tarique and Schuler (2010) are of the view that future theory-driven research is needed to examine the causal chain that explains how the components of TM impact performance both at the individual and organisational level. This is similar to the processes involved with how HRM systems impact organisational performance. This process, as described in the HRM literature, suggests that HRM systems, in general, do not lead directly to performance; rather they influence intermediate employee outcomes and behaviours that in turn lead to improved performance. This is referred to as the "black-box" of strategic human resource management (SHRM). Therefore, Tarique and Schuler (2010) argue that TM studies can borrow from the SHRM literature to describe the mechanisms through which TM impacts performance. Indeed, Collings and Mellahi (2009) recommend future research in order to understand the underlying mechanisms that mediate the TM and performance relationship. By doing this, we can understand and explain why TM leads to employee performance.

Sixth, although the number of empirical studies on TM has begun to increase (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015), qualitative methodologies of interviews, case studies, and focus groups (Chuai, Preece and Iles, 2008; Hartman et al., 2010; Makela et al., 2010; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Anand, 2011; Preece, Iles and Chuai, 2011; Guerci and Solari, 2012; Joyce and Slocum, 2012; Festing, Schäferand Scullion, 2013; Cooke et al., 2014) are still dominant (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015) and even the quantitative studies (McDonnell et al., 2010; Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011; Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013; Sonnenberg et al., 2014; Ulrich and Allen, 2014; Lopes, Sarraquca, Lopes and Duarte, 2015), with the exception of a few (Asag-Gau and Dierendonck, 2011; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015) have not used complex, rigorous, or robust statistical techniques such as structural equation modelling (SEM). Although these methodologies have contributed enormously to what we know today, it is important to use complex, rigorous, and robust statistical technique to establish relationships in TM research. This study will examine this complex relationship between TM and employee performance with the use of SEM. SEM allows for model

testing and validation and is much more reliable, valid, and complete than other statistical techniques.

Seventh, studies on TM and performance (Chami-Malaeb, 2012; Chadee and Raman, 2012; Sheehan, 2012; Bish and Kabanoff, 2014; Sonnenberg et al., 2014; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015) have ignored the impact of business strategy on TM and how TM relates to employee intention to quit, which has been recommended for further research (Dries, 2013; Tansley, Kirk and Tietze, 2013). Thus, the practitioner literature has argued that organisations that have succeeded in TM have linked their business strategy to it (Ashton and Morton, 2005; McCauley and Wakefield, 2006; Beechler and Woodward, 2009; Avedon and Scholes, 2010; Ernst and Young, 2010). Therefore, this study seeks to address this gap by examining the relationship between business strategies and TM and how this relationship affects the various dimensions of employee performance.

Finally, while interest in TM research is growing (Joyce and Slocum, 2012; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013; Thunnissen et al., 2013), the current assumptions and concepts are strongly embedded in U.S. (Collings and Melahi, 2009; Dries, 2013; Festing et al., 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015), European (Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011; Skuza, Scullion and McDonnell, 2013; Sonnenberg et al., 2014; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015), Asian (Hartmann et al., 2010; Iles et al., 2010; Chadee and Raman, 2012; Poocharoen and Lee, 2013; Cooke et al., 2014; Furusawa and Brewster, 2015; Ulrich and Allen, 2014), and Arabian (Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013; Sidani and Ariss, 2014) contexts, as well as multinational and private organisations (Mäkelä et al., 2010; Mellahi and Collings, 2010; Iles et al., 2010). As a result, recommendations have been made for further research to examine TM systems in different contexts, regions, countries, and industries (Vaiman, Scullion and Collings, 2012; Thunnissen et al., 2013). With the exceptions of Amankwah-Amoah and Debrah (2011), Ibeh and Debrah (2011), Oppong and Gold (2013), and Oppong (2013a; b), a cursory examination of the extant literature shows that TM research is limited in Ghana. Consequently, further research is required from different perspectives and traditions.

In light of the above research gaps, little research on TM in Ghana, and simple methodologies that have limited our understanding of the complex relationship

through which TM leads to employee performance, grounded in SET, AMO theory, and ST, this study aims to examine the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit through the mediating role of TM output, taking into account the influence of business strategy on TM. This study seeks to contribute to the extant literature and knowledge by modelling the complex relationship between TM and various dimensions of employee performance. This study to the best of my knowledge is the first in Ghana to broadly model the relationship between TM and employee performance, and this can help redefine and shape organisations so that they can compete in this competitive world of business.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study is to develop a conceptual model that explains the relationship between TM and employee performance, as well as the intention to quit through the mediating role of TM outputs (commitment, satisfaction and POS) taking into account the effect of business strategy on TM. More specifically, this study seeks:

1) To examine the relationship between business strategy and TM
2) To investigate the relationship between TM and TM outputs
3) To ascertain the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit
4) To ascertain the relationship between TM outputs and employee performance as well as the intention to quit
5) To test the mediating role of TM outputs on the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit

1.5 Research Questions

In an attempt to address the gaps identified in previous research and to accomplish the aforementioned objectives, this study will be guided by this question: What are the mechanisms through TM leads to employee performance as well as the intention to quit? The specific questions are:

1) Does business strategy have a direct impact on TM?

2) What is the relationship between TM and TM outputs?

3) What is the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit?

4) What is the relationship between TM outputs and employee performance as well as the intention to quit?

5) Does a TM output mediate the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit?

1.6 Scope of the Study

The scope of this research is defined by the nature of the research questions. First, the scope includes the impact of TM on employee performance and for that matter detailed literature will be reviewed on these concepts: business strategy, TM, employee performance, commitment, satisfaction, POS, and intention to quit. Second, from the concept of TM and the research problem identified above, the focus is on understanding the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance. The interest of TM is on the discovery of key positions which differentially contribute to the organisation's sustainable competitive advantage and the development of high-potential and high-performing employees to fill these roles (Collings and Mellahi, 2009). Therefore, the emphasis is on employees in key and strategic positions as identified by their organisations. Third, this study will be limited to the Ghanaian banking sector and specifically on three public commercial banks there.

1.7 Significance of the Study

Despite the interest and growth of TM research for the past two decades, there are some questions that remain to be answered. This study is significant and beneficial to several actors. First, the concept of TM is very crucial. Indeed, Nordstrom and Ridderstrale (1999) argued that talent "makes capital dance". Talent has become the true factor in corporate success. Talent has the potential to be the source of an organisation's demise or the rationale for its continuous success. Organisations have

realised this and are keenly managing their talented employees leading to the concept of TM. Hence, a concept that exuberates a great deal potential for both disaster and success merit some research into its significance and protection. An organisation's ability to manage their talented employees holds economic benefits for the organisation, both through cost suppression (decreasing replacement costs) and revenue creation (through efficient application of talent). One can therefore agree that a study on TM offers a great benefit for the corporate environment.

Second, to grow and succeed in today's competitive environment, governments, educational institutions, and businesses need to continue to provide value. Institutions and businesses spend a huge deal of resources in job interviews, employment tests, and training programs in an effort to boost motivation, build human capital, and ultimately improve the job performance of employees. Therefore, job performance is debatably one of the most essential dependent variables of interest to educators, businesses, the government, and society (Rotundo and Sackett, 2002). In other words, the concept of employee performance is central to the existence of any organisation. Therefore, research about employee performance is worth undertaking as it will benefit society.

Third, this study will benefit organisations and management in terms of understanding the impact of TM on performance at the employee level. Only a few studies have looked at this (Chami-Malaeb, 2012; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015). This answers the calls to examining the relationship between TM and performance at the employee level (Ariss et al., 2014; Mensah, 2015). In addition, this study will help management and organisations understand the impact of TM on the various dimensions of employee performance: task, contextual, adaptive and counterproductive behaviours. Indeed, even with the abundant literature focusing on the fact that employee performance is multi-dimensional, previous studies (Chami-Malaeb, 2012; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015) have not attempted to relate TM to these dimensions. Hence, this study is beneficial in broadening our understanding of how TM relates to the various dimensions of employee performance.

Fourth, this study considers the impact of business strategy on TM. Previous studies on the contrary have ignored the impact of business strategy on TM as they assumed that TM is exogenous. The effect of TM on either employee or

organisational performance is only part of the equation. It is equally significant to explore, confirm, and understand the impact of business strategy on TM. However, this study has comprehensively modelled the influence of business strategies on TM. Business strategy is believed to influence TM (Guthridge et al., 2006; Avedon and Scholes, 2010; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; McDonnell, 2011).

Fifth, the existing empirical literature on TM and performance appears to be rather limited and inadequate in general. This is due to the fact that most of the studies are anecdotal and literature reviews (Collings and Mellahi 2009; Gallardo-Gallardo, 2013; Thunnissen et al., 2013; Cappelli and Keller, 2014; Mensah, 2015) from the perspective of academics, HR practitioners, and consultants. Indeed, this study added several variables at the same time than previous studies that studied few variables. This clearly gives a more holistic and comprehensive view of the processes than the limited and simple models provided in previous studies. Therefore, this study will benefit the academic and professional community by not merely adding to the extant literature but also by adding more variables and from different contexts.

Sixth, the TM performance framework/model proposed in this study will be beneficial to any organisation. The model shows that the TM-employee performance relationship is not a random event; it is the result of the systematic working of a myriad of influences. Therefore, this framework helps to understand the nature of these forces and how they affect the intended results of TM. Hence, this model serves the purpose of enhancing the understanding and empowerment of senior executives and HR managers so that they can rationally and purposefully monitor and manage talented employees to achieve potential latent outcomes in others to achieve manifest TM outcomes. Therefore, both researchers and managers can benefit from this model; the former can use the framework as the basis for theorising and empirical work, while the latter can use it to inform the organisation's strategies and practices.

Finally, this study is beneficial to both public and private sector organisations as well as civil society organisations, as every organisation now faces intense competition and needs to recruit and manage talented employees to compete successfully. Therefore, all organisations can utilise the results of this study to manage their talented employees in order to maximise employee performance. In other words, this study is beneficial and important to every organisation.

1.8 Organisation of the Study

This thesis is organised into seven chapters as presented in figure 1.1. Chapter One provides the general background to the study by introducing the problem that I seek to investigate, as well as the significance and benefits of this study to both literature and practice. The focus of Chapter Two is basically on the concept of TM and employee performance, providing a deeper understanding of the concepts as found in the extant literature. Related concepts such as business strategy, intention to quit, employee commitment, satisfaction, and POS are also discussed.

Chapter Three reviews the theoretical perspectives underpinning this study and the hypothesised model. These are the SET, AMO theory, and ST. The central tenets of these theories, their appropriateness, and how they informed the choices of variables of this study are discussed. The chapter also discusses the major literature on the relationship between business strategy and TM, the relationship between TM and employee performance, and the relationship between TM and intention to quit. Also, the mediating role of TM outputs in the TM employee performance relationship is discussed. During this discussion, hypotheses were developed and presented after a review of the related literature in each respective section. All of these discussions led to the development of the conceptual framework.

Chapter Four discusses the research methodology that was used to collect and analyse the data for exploring the study hypotheses. The objective of this chapter is to link the conceptual framework developed in Chapter Three with the empirical results presented in Chapters Five and Six. This chapter is divided into four sections: the philosophy underpinning the study, research design, data analytic techniques, and description of the research context.

Chapter Five discusses the data preparation and the measurement model. This chapter is structured into three sections. Section one describes the demographic characteristics of the respondents and the descriptive analysis of the measurement scale. The second section explains the data preparation and screening procedures, including the treatment of missing data, detection of outliers, normality, and the reliability of the scale. The third section focuses on the measurement model validation through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the individual constructs and the

overall measurement model. This will provide evidence for the un-dimensionality, reliability and validity of the constructs. The organisation of the study is summarised in figure 1.1

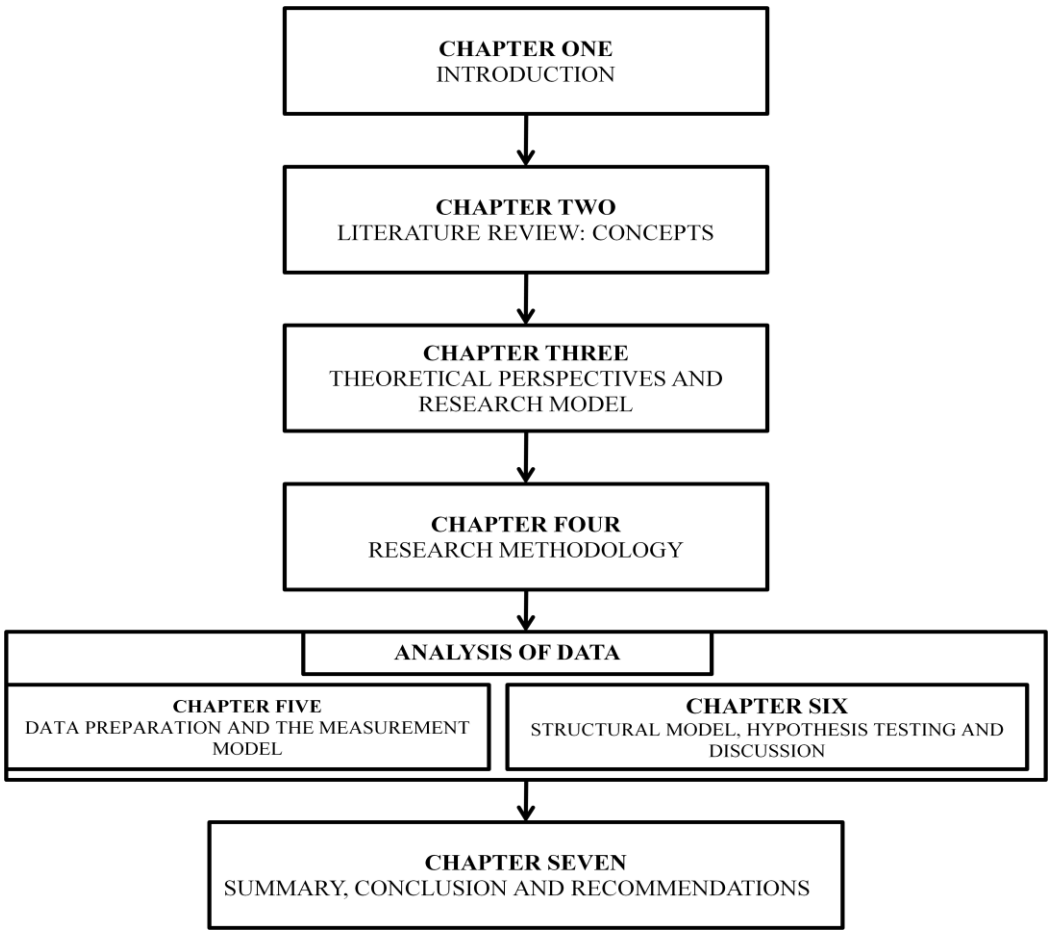


Figure 1.1 Thesis Structure

Chapter Six presents the structural model, the hypothesis testing using structural equation modelling (SEM), and a discussion of the findings. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the predictive relationships between business strategy, TM, TM outputs, employee performance, and intention to quit. The chapter is structured into five sections. The first section evaluates the overall fit of the proposed model. The second section presents the results of testing the direct relationships between the study constructs. The third section tests the mediation effects of the TM output in the

model. The fourth section tests the effects of control variables on employee performance and intention to quit, and the last section presents a discussion of the findings. Chapter Seven provides an overall summary of the findings of the study. It also provides a discussion of the practical implications and contributions of the study. Furthermore, it discusses the limitations of the study and provides directions for further research.

1.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has introduced and presented the rationale for this study. The research problem and gaps are clearly stated, emphasising the paucity of research on the mechanisms through which TM metamorphosis into employee performance. The identification of this research gaps led to the development of the research questions and the objectives of the study. The scope of the study and the significance of the study were also discussed as well as the organisation of the study. The next chapter will provide literature review on the concept of talent, TM, employee performance and its dimensions, business strategy, and other related concepts such as employee satisfaction, commitment, perceived organisational support, and employee intention to quit.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: CONCEPTS

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided the general background to the study by clearly stating the problem that the study seeks to investigate and why it should be investigated, as well as the significance of the study. This chapter will provide a broad discussion of the literature on the concept of talent and TM, including its definitions, perspectives, strategies, importance, components, benefits and challenges, and whether TM is HRM or not. Also discussed in this chapter are employee performance and its dimensions, the determinants of employee performance, as well as the determinants/perspectives of employee performance. The last section of the chapter discusses business strategy and its typologies, employee satisfaction, commitment and POS, and intention to quit. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a comprehensive review of the literature on the various concepts employed in this study.

2.2 History and Definition of Talent

The word talent has become a "catch word" since the McKinsey consultants coined the phrase "the war for talent" in the 1990s (Chambers et al., 1998). However, the truth is that the word dates back to time immemorial. Tansley (2011) argued that the word "talent" is a thousand years old. According to Hoad (1996), talent comes from the Latin word "talentum" and the Greek word "talanton," which means literally as balance, weight, and sum of money. Originally talent was used by the Greeks, Babylonians, Romans, and Assyrians to denote a unit of weight (Cresswell, 2010; Tansley, 2011). Talent later became a unit of currency, especially for precious metals like silver (Howatson, 2011). This made talent a valuable thing or the act of assigning value to something. The word "talent" appears in the New Testament (Mathew 25:

14-30) of the Bible where a man about to travel entrusted his property to his servants with five, two, and one talent, respectively on the basis of their abilities. This is seen as mental "endowment or aptitude" (Cresswell, 2010) and it is believed that this Biblical parable is the origin of how talent is used today as natural aptitude or skills (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013).

In the 13th century the word talent was used as an "inclination or disposition" (Tansley, 2011; Hoad, 1996). During the 15th century, talent was linked to riches, treasure, natural ability and mental endowment, while in the 17thcentury it was used as an unusual natural ability and aptitudes of different kinds. Again, in the 19th century, talent was seen as embedded in the talented leading to its use as a person of ability and talent (Tansley, 2011). Therefore, during the Middle Ages talent was used to imply a special aptitude or ability, with individuals seen as talented and with the ability to display exceptional accomplishments in physical and mental spheres.

Into the 19th century, as Hardly posits, success could be found in the possession of talent or the ability to foresee business contingencies in order to prevent waste of capital and labour (Hardly, 1888). Indeed, Adam Smith first used this concept in the business context some 200 years ago when he claimed that the prosperity of man depends on his ability to cultivate and bring to excellence his talent (Smith, 1852). From the era of personnel management to HRM, emphasis was rather on the whole workforce, making highly-talented employees fall under the radar. That is, segmentation was unusual then. As competition intensified, organisations began to focus on the impact made by talented and genius employees.

Currently, it has generally been agreed that a precise focus on talent in the world of business developed in the 1990s and can mostly be attributed to a book by the McKinsey consultants called "The War for Talent" (Michaels, Handfield-Jones and Axelrod, 2001). After this book was published, the term received a significant amount of academic and practitioner interest as well as became increasingly common in the field of HRM and business (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2006; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Cappelli and Keller, 2014). Increasingly, there have been a number of articles (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Ariss et al., 2014; Farndale et al., 2014; Meyers and Woerkom, 2014; Schiemann, 2014; Sonnenberg et al., 2014; Lopes et al.,

2015; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015) and books (Michaels et al., 2001; Berger and Berger, 2004; Gubman and Green, 2007; Cappelli, 2008; Lawler, 2008; Silzer and Dowell, 2010) on talent, while a number of consulting firms are engaging in issues of talent, making it a hot topic.

However, there is still confusion about what exactly talent is and one faces a number of definitions in reviewing the talent literature (Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Iles et al., 2010; Dries, 2013).Some authors attribute this ambiguity inherent in the definition of the construct to its inadequate operationalisation (Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Tansley et al., 2007; Garrow and Hirsh, 2008). As a result, Tansley (2011) is of the view that this is disappointing as a definition of talent is the basis for a robust TM system. There is a plethora of definitions of talent in the literature. Therefore, it is important to comment on and analyse some of the definitions in order to help understand the concept thoroughly. Selected definitions are shown in table 2.1.

Generally, definitions of talent in the literature can be seen from five different categories. First, most of the definitions about talent are seen from the perspective of talents as the people of an organisation (Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Cheese, Thomas and Craig, 2008). In this way, O'Reilly and Pfeffer (2000) and Lewis and Heckman (2006) see talent as synonymous with people. Second, definitions view talents as high performers. For instance, Stahl et al. (2007) argued that talents are those employees that rank at the top in terms of their performance and capability, usually referred to as "A players" or high performers.

Similarly, Tansley et al. (2007: 8) made the point that talents are "those persons who can make a difference to organisational performance, either through their instant contribution or in the longer period by demonstrating the utmost levels of potential." Woodruffe (1999) described talented employees as having high potential, while Iles et al. (2010: 181) perceived talents by virtue of their present performance or future potential. Clearly, these authors are looking at talent from the perspective of high performance and potential.

Table 2.1 Summary of Selected Definitions of Talent

Source	Definition
Schiemann (2014)	"the collective knowledge, skills, abilities, experiences, values, habits and behaviours of all labour that is brought to bear on the organization's mission" (p. 282)
Periathiruvadi and Rinn (2013)	''talented persons are those recognized as professionally qualified on the basis of their exceptional abilities and are proficient of high performance" (p. 153)
Ulrich and Smallwood (2012)	"talent = competence [knowledge, skills and values required for today's' and tomorrows job; right skills, right place, right job, right time] × commitment [willing to do the job] × contribution [finding meaning and purpose in their job]" (p. 60)
Silzer and Dowell (2010)	"talent is an individual's skills and abilities (talents) and what the person is capable of doing or contributing to the organisation" (p. 14).
González-Cruz et al. (2009)	"talent is a set of competencies that, being developed and applied, allow the person to perform a certain role in an excellent way" (p. 22)
Buckingham and Coffman (2009)	"any recurring patterns of behaviour that can be productively applied are talents. The key to excellent performance, of course, is finding the match between your talents and your role"
Cheese et al. (2008)	"essentially, talent means the total of all the experience, knowledge, skills, and behaviours that a person has and brings to work" (p. 46)
Tansley et al.(2007)	"talent consists of those individuals who can make a difference to organisational performance, either through their immediate contribution or in the longer-term by demonstrating the highest levels of potential" (p.8)
Stahl et al. (2007)	"a select faction of employees – those that grade at the top in terms of capability and performance – rather than the entire workforce" (p. 4).

Table 2.1 (Continued)

Source	Definition
Tansley et al. (2006)	"talent can be considered as a complex amalgam of employees' skills, knowledge, cognitive ability and potential. Employees' values and work preferences are also of major importance" (p. 2)
Boudreau and Ramstad (2007)	"the resource that includes the potential and realized capacities of individuals and groups, and how they are organized" (p. 2).
Lewis and Heckman (2006)	"…….. is essentially a euphemism for 'people" (p. 141)
Gagne (2004)	"talent refers to systematically developed innate abilities that drive excellent performance in one or more domains of human functioning."
Michaels et al. (2001)	"the sum of a person's abilities—his or her intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, judgment, attitude, character and drive. It also includes his or her ability to learn and grow" (p. xii)
Buckingham and Vosburgh (2001)	"talent should refer to a person's recurring patterns of thought, feeling, or behaviour that can be productively applied." (p. 21)
Gagne (2000)	"superior mastery of systematically developed abilities or skills" (p.67)

The third category of definitions sees talent as attributes and that talented people possess some exceptional skills and abilities. Thus, Cheese et al. (2008) argued that talent is used to describe various attributes such as the skills, knowledge and behaviours that a person has and brings to work. On their part, Michaels et al. (2001) viewed talent as "the totality of a person's abilities; that is a person's intrinsic gifts, knowledge, skills, judgement, intelligence, attitude, drive and character." The difficulty with this category of definitions is that they seem intangible and vague.

The fourth category conceptualizes talent as a set of experience and learned behaviour. Hinrichs (1966) maintained that a vastly talented individual holds certain skills that are built on knowledge and insights gained via formal education and prior experiences. Supporting this view, Pfeffer and Sutton (2006) stated that in spite of all the myths, talent is not preset but depends on an individual's motivation and experience. Also, Gonzalez-Cruz et al. (2009: 22 quoted in Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013), indicated that talent is "a set of competencies that when developed and applied, allow a person to perform a certain role excellently."

The last set of definitions of talent looks at the concept as commitment on the part of an individual. Jericó (2001 quoted in Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013), indicated that talent depends on three basic ingredients: commitment, capacities, and actions. Subscribing to this, Ulrich (2007) stated that talent "equals competence times commitment times contribution" [talent = commitment × competence × contribution]. Ulrich believes that talent is necessary but not sufficient and that it is always important for talented people to be committed in order to get the best out of them. In a similar way, Cubeiro (2008 quoted in Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013) conceptualised talent as "capability multiplied by commitment in a certain context." In this way talent is not only seen as an individual's competency but also as commitment to the organisation (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013).

From the above definitions and discussions, talent for the purpose of this dissertation is defined as the "learned and innate ability, capabilities, skills, knowledge and experiences possessed by individuals in a firm that are committed and willing to apply these to the performance of their firms now and in the future."

2.3 Talent Management: Definitional Difficulties

There is no doubt that the concept of TM has gained popularity and has grown exponentially considering the number of articles and books that has been published on the concept (Dries, 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Ariss et al., 2014; Cappeli and Keller, 2014; Farndale et al., 2014; Meyers and Woerkom, 2014; Nijs et al., 2014; Schiemann, 2014, Sonnenberg et al., 2014; Sidani and Ariss, 2014; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015; Gelens et al., 2015; Lopes et al., 2015; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015;

Mensah, 2015). This interest is caused by the belief and evidence that TM has the potential to deliver superior results, to motivate and retain talented employees and is a tool for competitive advantage (Heinen and O'Neill, 2004; Stuart-Kotze and Dunn, 2008; Jackson, Schuler and Werner, 2009; Sadler, 2009; Groves, 2011; Elegbe, 2010; Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011). As a result, most organisations are formulating and implementing TM strategies while a number of consulting firms are engaging in the design and formulation of TM systems for organisations.

With this popularity, one might think that TM has a well and generally-agreed definition. However, this is not the case. Indeed, one of the more unfortunate characteristics of the TM literature is its tendency to fall off into rather vague rhetoric. For instance, Ashton and Morton (2005: 28) proclaim that "good TM is of strategic importance," although they fail to provide "a single concise definition" of TM. In fact, ever since Lewis and Heckman (2006: 139) declared a complete lack of clarity concerning the definition, scope, and overall goals of TM, it appears that little has changed despite the exponential growth in TM research, leading to a recent comment by Cappelli and Keller (2014: 306) that TM has escaped a standard definition.

The chartered institute of personnel and development (CIPD) (2006) found that while 51 percent of organizations surveyed in the UK engaged in some form of TM, about 20 percent of these organisations are working with a formal definition of TM. This raises the question of how TM can be used to the strategic benefit of organizations when they cannot even define it. As a result, TM runs the risk of being merely a management "fad" or "fashion" in that organisations run along with it because their competitors are doing so. Just like talent, a number of definitions have been surveyed from the literature about TM and some of them are listed in table 2.2 for thorough discussion.

The varying definitions provided give an indication that it seems impossible to arrive at a universal definition of TM. This is not a surprise because Tansley (2011) has declared that a universal definition of talent is needed for TM, which appears to be non-existent. However, the difficulty in defining the concept also lies in the diverse perception of practitioners as well as researchers. Some authors argue that the term can be referred to as whatever a writer or a business manager wants it to mean because everyone has a different understanding of what the term means or does not means (Ulrich, 2011; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013: 2). This has been clearly shown

in the academic (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013: 2) and HR practitioner (Tansley et al., 2007; Tansley, 2011) literature, where even the definitions are extremely prejudiced by the kind of business or work-related field.

According to the CIPD (2006), a survey conducted by Towers Perrin found that the studied companies did not use the same definition and that the definitions were highly influenced by the organisation's business strategy, the industry type, the competitive environment, and several other factors. It can be realised that most of the definitions of TM see the concept as part of organisational HRM strategy (Adamsky, 2003; Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Warren, 2006; Cappelli, 2008). Others on the other hand perceive TM as a "mindset," which is the organisational culture and includes every aspect of the organisation (Creelman, 2004; Chuai et al., 2008).

Also, several authors see TM as totally different from HRM and that the difference concerns the segmentation and differentiation of talented employees from the rest of the workforce (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Huselid, Beatty and Becker, 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013). Thus, whereas HRM is concerned with the whole workforce, the concern of TM is that of talented and employees with high potential that make significant contribution to the performance of the firm.

Table 2.2 Summary of Selected Definitions of Talent Management

Source	Definition
Gelens et al. (2013)	"TM is the differential management of employees according to their relative potential to contribute to an organization's competitive advantage" (p. 342)
Joshi and Agarwal (2011)	TM is about the process of development and integration of new workers, developing and retaining current workers, and attracting highly-skilled workers for a company.
Davies and Davies (2010)	TM is the systematic attraction, identification, development, engagement/retention and deployment of those individuals with high potential that are of particular value to the organisation.

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Source	Definition
Silzer and Dowell (2010: 18)	"TM is an integrated set of processes, programs, and cultural norms in an organisation designed and implemented to attract, develop, deploy, and retain talent to achieve strategic objectives and meet future business needs"
Armstrong (2010)	"TM is the use of an integrated set of activities to ensure that organisations attracts, retains, motivates and develops the talented people it needs now and in the future" (p. 390)
Avedon and Scholes (2010)	"TM is the an integrated set of processes and procedures used in an organisation to attract, onboard, retain, develop and move talent, as well as to exist talent, to achieve strategic objectives"
Avedon et al. (2010)	"TM is attracting, retaining and developing the right people with the right skills in the right roles"
Cappelli (2008)	"TM is simply a matter of anticipating the need for human capital and setting out a plan to meet it" (p. 1)
CIPD (2007)	"TM is the systematic attraction, identification, development, engagement/ retention and deployment of those individuals with high potential who are of particular value to an organisation" (p. 3)
Lockwood (2006)	"TM is the implementation of integrated strategies or systems designed to increase workplace productivity by developing improved processes for attracting, developing, retaining and utilizing people with the required skills and aptitude to meet current and future business needs."
Warren (2006)	"In its broadest sense, the term can be seen as the identification, development, engagement, retention and deployment of talent, although it is often used more narrowly to describe the short and longer-term resourcing of senior executives and high performers" (p. 26)
Wellins et al. (2006)	"TM is the recruitment, development, promotion and retention of people, planned and executed in line with your organisation's current and future business goals" (p. 2)

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Source	Definition
Duttagupta (2005)	"In the broadest possible terms, TM is the strategic management of the flow of talent through an organisation. Its purpose is to assure that a supply of talent is available to align the right people with the right jobs at the right time based on strategic business objectives" (p. 2)
Pascal (2004)	"TM encompasses managing the supply, demand, and flow of talent through the human capital engine" (p. 9).
Sloan et al. (2003)	"managing leadership talent strategically, to put the right person in the right place at the right time" (p. 236).

In recent times, the focus of TM has shifted from individuals to the strategic and pivotal positions that drive the performance of the organisation. In this way, Collings and Mellahi (2009: 311) define TM as follows:

> activities and processes that involve the systematic identification of key positions which differentially contribute to the organisation's sustainable competitive advantage, the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill these roles, and the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation.

A number of researchers (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Huselid et al., 2005; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013) appear to agree with the view that the focus of TM should be shifted from individuals to strategic positions. Hence, they advocate for the identification of key, strategic, and "A positions" which have the potential to differentially impact sustainable competitive advantage (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Huselid et al., 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009). Strategic, pivotal, and "A" positions are defined in terms of their potential outputs or their disproportionate contribution to the strategic intent of the organisation and the wide variability in the

quality of work displayed among the employees in these positions (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013).

According to Boudreau and Ramstad (2005), the connotation of this paradigm shift is the importance of identifying "high impact" or "pivotal" positions where variations in the quality and quantity of talent have the biggest effect on the processes and resources that most affect sustainable strategic success. In this way, TM can be seen as the attraction, development, and retaining of talented individuals that have the potential to fill key positions. Boudreau and Ramstad (2005) caution that strategic and key positions are not limited to top management but include different levels in the hierarchy among functional and operational units.

The key to understanding strategic positions is to take into consideration the contribution of the position to the realisation of the strategic objectives of the firm. In other words, what may be considered a strategic position in one organisation may not be in another. Also, key and strategic positions are not static and keep changing and evolving over time, as the business environment itself is constantly changing in response to customers and competition. This brings to mind the contingency nature of TM and that the context should which position is strategic.

From the above it can be seen that there is little agreement on the meaning of TM. Because of these controversies some researchers and professionals prefer to remain silent on the definition of TM in the conduct of TM research (Sharma and Bhatnagar, 2009; Lopes, Sarraquca, Lopes and Duarte, 2015). Some (Tulgan, 2001; Frank and Taylor, 2004) have argued that there is little point in trying to define TM as in most cases management know their valued employees. While this controversy has compelled some researchers and professionals to stay quiet on the meaning of TM, these sorts of studies may hardly contribute to the understanding of the term. Again, the results of these studies may have little usefulness with respect to the sample from which research data were collected. One way of unravelling the difficulties inherent in defining TM, perhaps, is to examine the definitions, and their strengths and limitations. A meticulous assessment of the literature discloses five streams of definitions of TM.

The first set of definitions tends to substitute TM for HRM (Adamsky, 2003; Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Warren, 2006; Cappelli, 2008). For instance, Cappelli

(2008) argued that a lot of the main ideas propagated by TM specialists such as assessment centres, succession planning, and 360 degree feedback are not new but HRM ideas. The argument is that in practice, TM does not have a different meaning from what HRM has been doing. Lewis and Heckman (2006) claim that TM may be a relabeling or rebranding exercise, replacing the word "people" by the word "talent," which seeks to improve HR's trustworthiness or significance or to demonstrate its "fashionability" and that helps smart organisations to re-examine what they were doing previously (Warren, 2006). These definitions are limited to certain HR practices such as leadership development, recruitment, succession planning, competency, and the like (Collings and Mellahi, 2009).

However, defining TM with respect to the traditional functions of HRM appears to add nothing new to our understanding of how to manage talented employees strategically. Again, such definitions tend to overlap with well-established and researched concepts such as leadership development, recruitment, succession planning, competency or career management. The second stream of definitions stresses the development of talent pools. Such definitions focus on employee needs for the organisation and managing their progression through various positions in the organisation (Lewis and Heckman, 2006). A typical definition was giving by Capelli (2008:1) as follows: "TM is simply a matter of anticipating the need for human capital and setting out a plan to meet it." While the second set of definitions provides a degree of differentiation between TM and HRM, they are relatively narrow and usually build on past research in the manpower or succession planning literature (Collings and Mellahi, 2009).

The third category of definitions advocate for the filling of all positions with "A performers and releasing "C players" or low performers from the organisation (Michaels et al., 2001). While every organisation would wish to fill all roles with "A performers," it is neither popular nor practical to fill all positions with such individuals (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013). In fact, filling all positions with "A performers" will lead to over investment in non-pivotal roles (Huselid et al., 2005; Boudreau and Ramstad, 2007; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013). Therefore, these categories of definitions have been criticized for their neglect of segmentation, differentiation, and strategic positioning,

which are the differentiating factors between TM and HRM (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Silzer and Church, 2010; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013).

A fourth category related to the third involves the management of talented people. Such definitions emphasises the management of high performers, which is variously referred to as "A performers," "high flyers" or "topgrading" (Stahl et al., 2007). Some definitions in this category advocate filling all organisational roles with "A performers" (Smart, 1999). The difficulty in this stream of definitions is the overemphasis on "A performers." This may run the risk of discouraging teamwork and collaboration since it places individual performance over group performance (Mellahi and Collings, 2010). The final category of definitions emphasises the identification of strategic positions which have the potential to differentially impact the competitive advantage of the firm (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013).

These definitions not only recognise the importance of workforce segmentation and differentiating in terms of people, but also positions. As a result, the starting point according to Collings and Mellahi (2009) is the identification of strategic positions rather than talented individuals *per se*. Whereas this category of definitions appears to end the controversy surrounding the definition of TM, it seems to be disconnected from the business strategy that calls for the implementation of TM strategy (McDonnell, 2011). This is what McDonnell (2011: 170) called the "business case for talent." It also appears to focus on filling key and strategic positions with high-performing incumbents. Therefore there was a need to redefine TM for this study and the next section explains the proposed definition.

2.4 Towards Redefining Talent Management

From the above discussion, there appears to be a lack of emphasis on business strategy in the current definitions of TM. However, business strategy should take precedent in the formulation of TM strategy. Becker, Huselid, and Beatty (2009: 1) captured this as "put strategy, not people, first." This statement sums up the significance of business strategy being the power behind a successful TM strategy. Indeed, McDonnell (2011: 170) cogently argued that "TM calls for the strategy to be

the starting point and flowing from this, the organization needs to ensure that they possess the talent to execute it."

Another limitation of most of the current definitions is their emphasis on the development of high-performing incumbents in filling these roles. While it is cheaper and easier to fill key positions with incumbents, such positions could also be filled by "A performers" outside the organization, especially when incumbents are below standards or require additional development to take up such positions. In this study TM is defined as:

> the identification of key and strategic positions that drive the performance of the organisation, the development of a pool of high potentials as well as the recruitment of "A performers" to fill these roles, the management of talented employees through a differentiated human resource system, and the alignment of TM to business strategy to ensure congruence and fit.

This definition emphasizes that TM strategy needs to be aligned with business strategy. A number of studies have been drawn from the extant literature that calls for the alignment of TM to business strategy. For instance, Ashton and Morton (2005) advocated that organisations should take a systematic approach to TM by aligning TM strategies to business goals, incorporating all related processes and systems and creating a "talent" mindset" in the organisation.

It has been stated that companies that stand out in terms of TM have implemented a system that is internally consistent and reinforces the practices they use to attract, select, develop, evaluate, and retain talent, which are strongly aligned to their business strategy (Beechler and Woodward, 2009; Ernest and Young, 2010). According to Avedon and Scholes (2010), TM will be valuable if it is driven by the short- and long-term needs of the business. Therefore, it is not sufficient to carry out people management practices in a linear style in order to be successful because the logic behind TM is integration (The Boston Consulting Group, 2012).

That is why Boudreau and Ramstad (2007) stated that TM is a decisional science in which talent is connected with strategies, while Lewis and Heckman (2006)

added that TM creates a linkage between employees and organisational strategies. Tarique and Schuler (2010) advocated that TM strategy should be aligned with business strategy. In fact, Guthridge et al. (2006: 8) stated the following in this regard:

> TM cannot be isolated from business strategy, those that rely solely on the HR department to drive their strategy for talent are missing an opportunity to align the behaviour and capabilities of the workforce with the priorities of the business.

In other words, linking TM to business strategy ensures that TM stays aligned and is monitored and measured throughout the firm. Yost and Plunkett (2010) maintained that effective TM practices are always designed and implemented in the milieu of the business strategy. This is because every organisation needs to differentiate itself from its competitors through its choice of strategy if it wants to thrive and survive. They added that this will help the organisation create a differentiated workforce strategy as a tool to be competitive in order to survive. TM must begin with the business strategy and continue with the goal to develop and maintain a "nursery" of talent, which would require employees' professional qualities, loyalty, and active involvement (Campeanu-Sonea, Sonea, Gabor-Supuran and Muresan, 2011).

Recognising the influential role of business strategy on TM, Bersin and Associate (2007) developed a model that portrays TM as a contiguous process, starting from the business plan or the strategic objectives of the organisation. Bersion and Associate added that a business plan lays down the direction and strengthens the talent effort that further helps the organisation identify talent-related challenges, and design the relevant HR processes and talent strategies. On the whole, Bersin and Associate submits that the business strategy sets the direction for descriptions, offers the necessary procedures for workforce planning, staffing, training and development, compensation, and planning, and chooses the standard for performance management.

As noted by Lockwood (2006), organisations that understand the business case for TM successfully link TM to organisational strategy, leading to increased workplace performance. In other words, companies that align their TM strategy with

their business strategy not only achieve greater success and organisational excellence but also succeed in the current and future demand for talent. The importance of the business strategy is mirrored in the way in which it tells talented employees how it separates their firm from the competition in an apparent way. This is because a fuzzy and general strategy will not guide the actions of the talented employees.

It is vital to state the goals of the firm visibly in such a way that they can be measured and that talents can understand their role in achieving the goals. An important precondition for successful TM is that the strategy work be done carefully before implementing TM (Yllner and Brunila, 2013). Furthermore, it is stressed that TM should be tailored to the strategy of the organisation and not be based on the best practices, since this does not give the organisation a competitive advantage. This is based on the view that organisations with a strong link between TM and corporate strategy report higher performance outcomes (Huselid, 1995; Tansley et al., 2007; Ernest and Young, 2010).

I do agree with Collings and Mellahi (2009) that organisations must first identify those positions that have the potential to differentially impact performance, fill those positions with high-potential and high-performing employees, and manage them with a differentiated HR architecture, but I also agree with a number of authors (Becker et al., 2009; Beechler and Woodward, 2009; Avedon and Scholes, 2010; McDonnell, 2011) that have called for the congruence between TM and business strategy. Indeed, most organisational decisions are determined by the organisation's strategy (Lepak and Snell, 1998). Mills and Snow (1984) for example posit that different business strategies have different characteristics, predominantly in their structure, processes and procedures. Hence, these characteristics make one organisation different from another. The business strategy then influences the HR strategy and the TM strategy. Achieving fit between TM and business strategy makes it a holistic approach that draws on systems, processes, and people.

In summary, my proposed definition of TM consists of four key elements: 1) the identification of key and strategic positions that drive the performance of the organisation; 2) the development of a pool of high-potential and high-performing incumbents as well as the recruitment of "A performers" to fill these roles; 3) the management of talented employees through a differentiated human resource system;

and 4) the alignment of TM to business strategy to ensure congruence and fit. This new definition diverges from previous definitions by taking into account not just the fit between TM and business strategy but also the recruitment of "A performers" to fill strategic roles in the organization if incumbents are below standard or require additional development.

This represents an attempt to redefine TM by drawing from both currently-used research and professional definitions. In today's business, firms are not only competing at the national level but also globally. Hence, the prominence of TM has also been researched in multinational companies (MNCs) and at the global level, and these studies concentrated on what is called "Global TM."

2.5 Moving Two Steps Ahead: Global Talent Management

The swift pace of internationalisation and globalisation has led to a more strategic role for HRM. Michaels et al. (2001) argued that the global aspect of TM did not receive much attention in earlier works. However, in recent times the global demand for talented employees has increased and MNCs are facing intense competition in finding talent to manage their operations (Scullion and Collings, 2011; Schuler et al., 2011). It has been argued that the interest in global talent management (GTM) is driving by the competition between MNCs to recruit and retain talented individuals to fill their operations in different parts of the globe in order to compete well (Sparrow, Brewster and Harris, 2004; Ready and Conger, 2007; Stahl et al., 2007).

Additionally, the significance of GTM is reflected in the fact that the role played by competent global managerial talents in ensuring the success of NMCs has been recognised (Farndale, Scullion and Sparrow, 2010). Again, GTM gained prominence as a result of the shortages of managerial and professional talent and what has been dubbed as "talent shortage" (McDonnell et al., 2010; Tarique and Schuler, 2010). However, just like TM, GTM has been denied a universal definition in both the academic and professional literature. It has been argued that GTM is not so different from TM and that both involves identification, attracting, selecting, developing, and retaining high-performing and competent individuals that match the firm's objectives and goals (Tarique and Schuler, 2010).

The only difference is that one happens at the global level while the other at the organisational level. Also, individuals in the GTM system need to have a global perspective in mind and this has made some scholars argue that a successful talented person at the organisational level may not necessarily achieve in the global arena (Jokinen, 2005; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013). In fact, there is no universal way of defining GTM as different cultures are involved (Bartllett and Ghoshal, 1992), even though most MNCs adapt TM to the global level (Jokinen, 2005). GTM therefore requires simultaneous understanding of a firm's operational conditions and business environment both at the national and global level (Harvey, Speier and Novicevic, 1999).

Table 2.3 provides a summary of some of the definitions of GTM. The TM literature is also dominated by a discussion of the perspectives and approaches to the conceptualisation of TM within the world of work.

Table 2.3 Summary of Selected Definitions of Global Talent Management

Author	**Definition**
Scullion and Collings (2011)	"GTM includes all organisational activities for the purpose of attracting, selecting, developing and retaining the best employees in the most strategic roles on a global scale."
Tarique and Schuler (2010)	"A subset of IHRM activities (systematically linked to IHRM policies and practices) to attract, develop, retain and mobilise individuals with high levels of current and potential human capital consistent for the strategic directions of the multinational enterprise to serve the objectives of multiple stakeholders."
Collings and Scullion (2008: 102)	"GTM is the strategic integration of resourcing and development at the international level which involves the proactive identification and development and strategic deployment of high performing and high potential strategic employees on a global scale."
Kim et al. (2003)	"the process of focusing on developing a global pool of people to fill key positions within an organisation as well as creating a differentiated set of HRM practices to support people filling them."

2.6 Perspectives on Talent Management

The inability to reach a generally-accepted definition of TM and GTM has led some authors to state that there is little point in trying to define "TM" because you know who the valued employees are (Tulgan, 2001; Frank and Taylor, 2004). Instead they open a debate on the perspectives of talent/TM. Therefore, to further understand the concept of talent and TM, I will discuss these perspectives. The debate on these perspectives revolves around the issue of whether TM is exclusive or inclusive; are all employees talented or just some?

The second perspective has to do with whether talent is innate or acquired; are talented people born, can talent be taught and learned? The third perspective is whether TM should concentrate on the characteristics of individuals or talented individuals as people (subject versus object). The last perspective is concerned with TM as the input or output of individuals. This section will provide a detailed description of the various perspectives on the concept of TM.

2.6.1 Exclusive Versus Inclusive Perspective

The crux of this perspective is whether TM should be regarded as holistic or narrow in an organisation. The exclusive perspective takes a narrow view and concentrates on specific individuals in an organisation called "talented," "eagles," "superstars," "A players," "high flyers," "top performers," "exceptional' performers" "the best of class," and "super keepers." For instance, Morton (2005) describes talents as those that have the competence to make a momentous difference to the present and future performance of the organisation. Supporting this position, Tansley et al. (2007: 8) posit that talents are "those individuals who can make a difference to organisational performance, either through their immediate contribution or in the longer-term by demonstrating the highest levels of potential."

The exclusive advocates are of the view that it is impossible for everybody in the organisation to be considered as talent and that talented individuals are fundamentally different from the others with respect to their current and past performance, competence, and potential (Iles et al., 2010). The exclusive perspective is founded on the principle of workforce segmentation and understands talents as an

elite subset of the organisation's population (Berger and Berger, 2004; Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013). Berger and Berger (2004: 5) argued that "super keepers are a very small group of individuals, who have demonstrated higher accomplishments, have stimulated others to attain superior accomplishments and who exemplify the core competencies and values of the organisation." Advocates of this approach even agree that there are certain percentages of the organisational workforce that can be considered as talent.

Some studies have placed the threshold for being considered an "exceptional performer" at belonging to the top ten percent (10%) of age peers in one's specific area of expertise (Gagne, 2004; Ulrich and Smallwood, 2012). Some segment their employees into categories "A" [top 10-20 percent], "B" [middle 70 percent] and "C" [the lowest 10-20 percent] (Larson and Richburg, 2004). Segmentation is fundamental to TM (Berger and Berger, 2004; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013) and Ledford and Kochanski (2004: 217) have claimed that "successful organisations tend to have a dominant talent segment, while their weaker peers have a bit of everything." Hence, Swailes (2013a) argued that TM concentrates on a pool of high-potential employees possessing rare skills that are valued by the organisation.

In contrast, the inclusive perspective is of the view that fundamentally everyone in the organisation has "talent;" the task is to manage all employees to deliver high performance (Iles et al., 2010). As a result this approach is broad and mostly viewed as "whole workforce," "broad based," "egalitarian," "strength based," and "all hands on desk." This is based on the assumption that ideally, all employees in an organisation have a role to play and can contribute something. For instance, Buckingham and Vosburgh (2001: 17-18) claimed that "talent is inherent in each person, to be successful in the future we must reinstate our focus on the distinctive talents of every individual employee and on the right way to convert these talents into lasting performance."

Similarly, Ashton and Morton (2005: 30) argued that the aim of TM is to yield and boost performance among all levels in the workforce by allowing everyone to reach his/her potential, no matter what that might be. Therefore, TM should be broad by recognising that everyone has the capacity and potential to demonstrate talent and

that everyone must go through the same talent identification process (Stainton, 2005). O'Reilly and Pfeffer (2000: 50) maintained that organisational performance stems from "capturing the value of the entire workforce, not just a few superstars," while Peters (2006) posited that there is no reason not to consider each employee as talented.

This goes to support the popular notion that organisations cannot succeed without their people (Tulgan, 2001) and that in today's competitive business world, it is fundamentally employees and not technology, factories or capital that are believed to create value for the firm (Crain, 2009). Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2013) maintained that this broad perspective of understanding TM could be justified in those organisations where the whole business revolves around the people they employ, particularly in service firms such as hotels and innovation and consulting firms. In these kind of organisations every employee counts, whether in the frontline or behind the scenes. As a result, Yeung (2006: 268) states that "service comes only from people."

The difficulty here is that when TM concentrates on everyone in the organisation, then there appears to be no difference between TM and HRM. In this way TM tends to be a collection of HRM practices and this will make TM a re-branding exercise or what is called "new wine in an old bottle" (Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Iles et al., 2010) and will make it difficult to understand the strategic and effective management of talents (Lewis and Heckman, 2006). A holistic approach to TM appears to be relatively rare in practice (Clarke and Winkler, 2006; Swailes, 2013a). However, its supporters argue that "an inclusive TM strategy is a competitive necessity" (Warren, 2006: 25).

There is no doubt that every employee counts and contributes to the overall performance of the organisation, but it is also a fact that some employees contribute more and do have rare skills that are more critical to the survival of the organisation than others. Again, it is also a fact that some positions are strategic and contribute more to the achievement of organisational goals than others (Berger and Berger, 2004; Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013). While not downplaying on the importance of every employee, there are a number of reasons why exclusive TM appears to be more practical than the inclusive perspective.

First, not all position can be filled with “A players.” This is supported by Huselid, Beatty, and Becker (2005), who argued that firms cannot afford to have “A players” in all positions. Second, adopting an inclusive perspective results in over investment in non-strategic positions. For instance, Minbaeva and Collings (2013: 1766) have argued that “resources are wasted when a star performer is in a position with little potential for differentiation between an average and a top performer.” Hence, they prefer differentiation not just in performance but also according to position. The third is the difficulty in recruiting and retaining talents. Based on this TM appears to be more exclusive than exclusive in practice. In this study TM takes a more exclusive than an inclusive view.

2.6.2 Innate Versus Acquired Perspective

Scholars and researchers of TM differ as to whether talent is largely determined by innate factors or by learning opportunities (Dai and Coleman, 2005; Cappelli, 2008; Dai, 2009; Dries, 2013; Meyers et al., 2013). Proponents of the innate perspective believe that talent for the largest part is in-born (Michaels et al., 2001; Cappelli, 2008; Tsay and Banaji, 2011; Dries, 2013). Believers in this approach painstakingly and meticulously search, select, and recruit people considered to be highly talented (Cappelli, 2008; Dries, 2013). According to Dries (2013) this is because some organisational decision-makers believe that “people are who they are” and the probability of changing people over time is very low. Buckingham and Vosburgh (2001) and Davies and Davies (2010) explain that whereas skills and knowledge are easy to teach, talent pertains to characteristics much more enduring and unique and almost impossible to teach.

The acquired perspective on the other hand conceives talent as conscious practice and continuous learning from experience (Briscoe and Hall, 1999; Pfeffer and Sutton, 2006; Ericsson, 2006; Meyers et al., 2013). This perspective focuses on training, education, and learning as tools for talent development (McCall, 1998). Pfeffer and Sutton (2006) argued that in spite of the myth surrounding talent, it is mostly a function of experience and effort. They added that outstanding performance depends on an individual’s motivation to try hard and to keep learning every day. It is obviously noted that not all individuals have the same amount of ultimate potential,

but there appears to be some consensus in the literature on deliberate practice (Ericsson, 2006) and learning from experience (Briscoe and Hall, 1999).

As illustrated by Meyers et al. (2013), when assuming that talent can be developed, TM may have a strong focus on the training and development of individuals and the selection decisions may be based upon the applicants' prior learning experience. It has been stated in the literature that most researchers do concur that talent is made up of both acquired and innate components, yet they differ to a great extent as to which component dominates (Walker, Nordin-Bates and Redding, 2010). Therefore, the conservative definitions of talent by these scholars can be placed on a continuum ranging from completely innate to completely acquired. In addition, the HRM literature recognises that the demonstration of talent in the workplace depends not only on innate factors but that latent (hidden and untapped), intervening (concerted or deliberate), and evolving (experience based) components also play a role (Silzer and Church, 2010; Dries, 2013).

Whereas it is true that some employees may be genuinely talented, learning may be the greatest contribution to talent. In fact, there is no denial of the fact that no matter how talented someone is at birth, she or he needs some kind of training to be able to work in the corporate environment, only that she or he may learn faster. On the other hand, no matter how untalented someone is, his or her performance can be improved through education and training. Therefore, on the continuum of innate and acquired, talent appears to lean more towards acquired than innate. In this thesis, talent is viewed as a combination of both innate and acquired characteristics.

2.6.3 Subject versus Object Perspectives

This perspective views talent as the outstanding characteristics demonstrated by individual employees (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). In this way Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2013) have suggested that two dimensions are of significance in defining talent in the context of the world of work. These dimensions make a division between talent as people (subject approach) and talent as the characteristics of people (object approach). The subject perspective to TM centres on valuable, scarce, inimitable, and difficult-to-substitute individual employees. It echoes the basic assumptions of human capital theory as described, among others, by Lepak and Snell

(2002) in their HR architecture model. As a result, O'Reilly and Pfeffer (2000) indicated that talent is synonymous with people and that people are the most important asset of an organisation. Similarly, Lawler (2008) argued that having the right people or the right talent refers to the human capital needed to create an organisation capable of innovating and changing.

On the other hand, scholars of the subject perspective view talent as individual attributes such as knowledge, abilities, and competencies. Cheese et al. (2008) made the point that talent is basically about various attributes such as the experience, knowledge, skills, and behaviours that an employee has and brings to the workplace. This perspective is related to the AMO paradigm (Appelbaum et al., 2000), which suggests that individual performance is a function of an individual's ability (A), motivation (M), and opportunity (O) to perform (Boxall and Purcell, 2011). Critically, TM in the world of work has to do more with the object approach than the subject approach (Minbaeva and Collings, 2013). In other words, the object approach which comprises employees abilities and motivations to perform, leads to the subject approach.

2.6.4 Input Versus Output Perspective

The input and output perspective is concerned about whether talent depends on ability or motivation. The focal point of the input perspective is on motivation, effort, ambition, and career orientation in the assessment of talent. According to this perspective, talent depends not only on an individual's competencies but also his or her commitment, and that talent is more than skills and abilities but also the knowledge and values that lead individuals to delivering results in the right way (Ulrich, 2007). Appropriate theoretical frameworks for the input perspective are mostly found in the industrial and organisational psychology literature (Hough and Oswald, 2000; Dries, 2013). Such frameworks emphasize enthusiasm (Vallerand et al., 2003) and the love for one's job (Kelloway et al., 2010).

The output perspective, on the other hand, focuses on output, performance, achievements, and results (McCall, 1998; Tsay and Banaji, 2011). Most organisations focus solely on the output perspective (past performance) in their evaluations of talent (Silzer and Church, 2010; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013). This may be due to the

belief that identifying talents based on performance data is less politically and emotionally charged than identification based on motivational variables (Larson, London, Weinstein, and Raghuram, 1998). However, Ulrich and Smallwood (2012) have argued that these organisations may not "get it right" because different aspects of talent should be seen as multiplicative rather than additive and that "talent = competence × commitment × contribution." They indicated that a good score on one component cannot compensate for a low score on the other. The various perspectives have implications for how employees are recruited and managed in an organisation.

Table 2.4 Summary of the Perspectives on Talent Management

Author(s)	**Perspective**	**Assumptions**	**Implications**
Morton (2005); Tansley et al. (2007); Iles et al. (2010a); Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2013); Gagné (2004).	Exclusive	Only small proportion of employees are talented	Workforce differentiation and development of few key employees
Iles et al. (2010); Buckingham and Vosburgh (2001); Ashton and Morton (2005); Warren (2006)	Inclusive	Everyone has the capability and potential to display talent	Strength-based approach and development of all employees
Tsay and Banaji (2011); Dries (2013); Cappelli (2008); Davies and Davies (2010).	Innate	Talent for the largest part is inborn	Selection, assessment, identification
McCall (1998); Pfeffer and Sutton (2006); Ericsson (2006); Briscoe and Hall (1999)	Acquired	Deliberate practice and continuous learning from experience	Development, experience, learning

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Author(s)	Perspective	Assumptions	Implications
Appelbaum et al. (2000); Boxall and Purcell (2011).	Object	Talent as characteristics of people	Competence management, knowledge management
Lepak and Snell (2002).	Subject	Talent as people	Organisational career management, succession planning
Hough and Oswald (2000); Vallerand et al. (2003); Kelloway et al. (2010).	Input	Effort, motivation, ambition, career orientation	Concentrated on motivated and ambitious employees
Tsay and Banaji (2011); McCall (1998)	Output	Output, performance, achievement, results	Paying attention to employees' output

For instance, believers in the exclusive perspective tend to consider and treat few employees in the organisation as "talents," while inclusive advocates will treat every employee equally on the assumption that they all contribute to the performance of the organisation. Similarly, supporters of the innate perspective will pay more attention to the recruitment process by selecting employees considered to be talented. On the other hand, believers in the acquired approach will be interested in employees that can learn and can be developed based on previous experience. Furthermore, the subject perspective concentrates on some employees as scarce, inimitable and difficult to replace while those in favour of the object approach will emphasize abilities, knowledge, and competencies.

Lastly, if one is in favour of the input perspective, the focus will be on the effort, motivation, and ambition of employees while the output perspective

subscribers will only assess talents according to their output, performance, achievements, and results. In other words, whatever approach one subscribes to determines how employees are recruited, treated, and managed. Table 2.4 presents a summary of the various perspectives of TM.

2.7 Talent Management: HRM or Not

Is TM the same as HRM, an aspect of HRM, or a new concept? It appears difficult to answer this question. This difficulty can partially be attributed to the lack of a common understanding of TM in both the academic and practitioner literature. Reviewing the literature on this issue has produced two main conclusions. On the one hand, some researchers believe that TM is basically a repackaging of old ideas under a new name - "old wine in new bottles" (Adamsky, 2003; Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Capelli, 2008; Iles, Precee and Chuai, 2010).

Cappelli (2008) argued that most of the key ideas promulgated by TM practitioners such as succession planning, 360 degree feedback and assessment centres are not new but HRM ideas. The argument is that in practice, TM does not have a different meaning from what HRM has been doing. It has been re-branded and that helps smart or wise organisations re-examine what they were formerly doing (Warren, 2006: 29). Lewis and Heckman (2006) claimed that TM is a re-branding or relabelling exercise which replaces "people" with the word "talent," seeking to enhance HR's credibility or significance or to show its "fashionability."

However, conceptualising TM in terms of the traditional functions of HRM/D seems to add nothing or little new to our understanding of how to manage talent strategically. For that matter Barlow (2006) argued that TM could then in consequence be a new label for HRM/D for organisations or managers. Similarly, Stewart (2008: 4) has observed that TM could be seen as a management "fad," which has achieved attractiveness through fashion rather than significance and worth.

According to Iles, Preece and Chuai (2010: 3), those that argue that TM is not substantially different from HRM are of the view that both involve getting the right job done at the right time and managing the supply, demand, and flow of people throughout the organisation. It also involves a compilation of typical HRM activities

such as selection, training, and appraisal. Iles, Preece, and Chuai (2010) have argued that TM is not fundamentally different from HRM in that it is an integrated HRM with a selective focus.

One the other hand, there are several authors that have a different view and believe that TM is totally different from HRM/D and for that matter cannot be merely a management "fad" or "fashion" (Duttagupta, 2005; Moran, 2005; CIPD, 2007; Chuai, Preece and Iles, 2008; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013). Thus, while TM is often used interchangeably with HRM, they are different. From this perspective, Moran (2005) strongly argued that TM is not a fashionable HRM term or management "fad". In the view of Duttagupta (2005: 2) TM is more than an HRM process and the talent mindset is not another HRM "fad." According to Blass, Knights, and Orbea (2006), TM as an activity is narrower than HRM in that it falls within the umbrella of HRM.

Blass et al. (2006) noted that TM is different from HRM. It is a broad approach to recruiting, selection, developing, and retaining talent within an organisation for its present and future benefits and goes beyond to include strategy, organisational culture, and change management. Therefore the objectives and goals of TM are beyond the general and traditional HRM functions that apply to all employees (Blass et al., 2006). Not only is TM tactical in scope but is also incorporated with the general organisational strategy and goals. Workforce segmentation and differentiation are generally seen as the key differentiating principles between TM and HRM (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Chuai et al., 2008; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Gelens et al., 2013; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013) and they are essential to TM (Berger and Berger, 2004; Ledford and Kochanski, 2004).

In fact Gelens et al. (2013) stated that there seems to be opposition to segmenting employees on the basis of talent and the strategic significance of their jobs. This opposition is based on the view that all employees possess talent and that all jobs are uniformly significant. However, if this were true, one could argue that all employees should be given the same amount of salary, which appears not to be the case in any organisation. The reality is that there appears to be some jobs that are considered more important than others in all organisations, which is mostly signalled through higher perceived salary and status (Gelens et al., 2013). However, this may not be true in some organisations, especially in the public sector where position and salary are mostly based on long service.

In HRM and HRD practices, one finds rewards, selection and recruitment, training and development, job/work design, appraisal, job security and performance management (Townley, 1991). TM practices also appear to feature HRM/D practices as a part of talent strategies (Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Silzer and Church, 2010). However, the critical distinction between TM and HRM is the segmentation, differentiation, and strategic positioning of talented employees that drive the performance of other employees and the organisation (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Silzer and Church, 2010; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013). This is based on the fact that HRM practices signify investments in human capital but failure to differentiate between employees will lead to over investment in non-pivotal positions or roles (Huselid et al., 2005; Boudreau and Ramstad, 2007; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013).

As noted by Collings and Mellahi (2009), TM is fundamentally about developing high-potential incumbents to fill the roles that differentially contribute to a firm's sustainable competitive advantage. They added that firms should differentiate between employees based on performance. Strategic or pivotal positions have a fundamental impact on the firm's performance if they are filled with high-performing or high-potential employees (Huselid et al., 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009). Hence, TM is essentially about employee differentiation, as it is not realistic or possible to fill all positions with "A" performers and this makes the hub of TM different from that of HRM (Huselid et al., 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Minbaeva and Collings, 2013).

Indeed, Chugh and Bhatnagar (2006) maintained that TM guarantees that HR functions have a direct impact on the performance of the firm through the careful management of its talent pool. In other words, TM requires that the HR manager have a talent mindset (Creelman, 2004; Chuai et al., 2008) in investing in the strategic positions that drive organisational performance (Hatum, 2010). Doing this will lead to a deep conviction that better talent in strategic positions leads to better performance as opposed to the HRM notion where people are considered the most important asset (Silzer and Dowell, 2010: 22). Therefore, TM applies the basic practices of SHRM/HRM/HRD/HPWP, but the difference is the emphasis on talented employees in strategic positions. Table 2.5 presents a summary of the above discussion.

Table 2.5 Summary of Whether TM is HRM or Not

Believe	Author(s)	Reasons
TM is HR	Iles et al. (2010); Cappelli (2008); Stewart (2008); Barlow (2006); Lewis and Heckman (2006); Warren (2006); Adamsky (2003)	Repackaging of old ideas under a new name ─ "old wine in new bottles"
TM is not HR	Minbaeva and Collings (2013); Collings and Mellahi (2009); Chuaiet al. (2008); CIPD (2007); Boudreau and Ramstad (2005); Duttagupta (2005); Huselid et al. (2005); Moran (2005)	Strategic positioning, workforce differentiation and segmentation is the key differentiating principle between TM and HRM

Similarly, concerns have been raised as to whether GTM is the same as international human resource management (IHRM). It has been generally agreed that even though they do have some practices in common, they are different (Tarique and Schuler, 2010). Indeed, Tarique and Schuler (2010) are of the view that there are three main differences between GTM and IHRM. First, IHRM is broad and includes a large variety of stakeholders (Briscoe and Hall, 1999).These include investors, customers, employees, suppliers, society, and the organisation itself. Even though efficient GTM can improve the efficiency of MNCs, which implies an impact on the same variety of stakeholders, the generally-immediate impact of GTM is on the employees and organisation itself (Tarique and Schuler, 2010).

Second, Tarique, and Schuler (2010) argued that because IHRM has more stakeholders, its concerns and criteria are broad and go beyond attracting, developing, and retaining employees. Even though these are equally important in GTM, the focus is more on employees and organisation as stakeholders, and hence the evaluation criteria in GTM are specifically on the employee's morale and engagement and organisational innovation and productivity. Third, Tarique and Schuler (2010) posited that IHRM includes more HR practices and policies. Dowling, Festing, and Engle (2008) and Briscoe and Hall (1999) made the point that IHRM consists of quite a lot

of HR practices and policies such as staffing, planning, training and development, compensation, appraising, labour relations, safety and health issues, and that each of them is also made up of several issues. GTM however only focuses on HR practice and policy, including activities such as staffing, planning, appraising, training, and compensating (Collings and Mellahi, 2009).

2.8 Importance and Benefits of Talent Management

In this current knowledge-based economy, value is the product of talent and information. Most firms cannot make profit without the skills, and ideas of talented employees and all firms have to bet on talented individuals and not on factories, technologies, and undoubtedly not on capital. It appears that competitors can imitate anything except human talent. Hence, most organisations have placed a higher priority on their employees as they are the single biggest source of competitive advantage. Even more important is the recruitment, management, and retention of talented employees. TM is gaining increasingly credibility because of the benefits that companies enjoy from it. Managing talent is important and talents are a firm's most important assert (Stuart-Kotzeand and Dunn, 2008).

Having a TM system assists talented individuals to accomplish their best potential while at the same time assisting the organisation to counter challenges, penetrate new markets, and move ahead of the competition (Hengst, 2007). TM can support a firm's strategies, minimise expenses, and labour costs, improve competitiveness, keep employees satisfied and loyal and eventually maximise return on investment (Jackson et al., 2009; Sadler, 2009; Yapp, 2009). Gaining and sustaining a competitive advantage is one of the benefits of TM (Randall, 2011). Heinen and O'Neill (2004) argued that gaining and sustaining a competitive advantage comes from valuable, firm-specific resources that cannot be replicated or replaced by competitors, which can be created through a TM system.

This is based on the well-known truth that what eventually drives organisational success and creates value are talented employees. According to Amble (2008) organisations that apply TM have employees that are more dedicated and committed to their jobs and companies than other employees whose companies do not

have a TM program. Fulmer and Conger (2004) maintained that the core rationale of TM is to provide a profound supply of valuable resources continuously throughout the firm. Moreover, Charan (2008) asserted that the final competitive advantage for any firm is a deep talent pool with effective managers at every level that are prepared for present and future challenges. Additionally, Babcock (2006) maintained that the goal of an organisation is to build a continuous strength in the area of human capital that will eventually tie talent in with the future direction of the firm. Finally, Nelson and McCann (2010) suggested four reasons why TM is significant. First, employees will for all time carry the knowledge they have with themselves. Second, TM can improve or fortify the advancement of the firm; third, talent can be applied only by a person, whether it is coaching or training that person. Last, talent can be used or misused by a person.

Some researchers share the idea that sustained competitive advantage comes from TM practices. According to Ringo et al. (2008), the application of TM practices makes a difference in organisational performance. They confirmed that many organisations believe that an efficient TM system can be a crucial source of differentiation in today's highly-competitive and integrated world economy. In view of this, the HCI (2008) argued that attaining continued firm performance through the development of a competent workforce lies at the very centre of TM. As rightly pointed out by Shukla (2009), three features of TM are evident; namely: the key enabler of any firm is talent; the quality of people is the last true competitive differentiator; and talent steers performance. The impression from these studies is that TM helps to out-smart the competition and maintain market leadership by continuously innovating and satisfying the insatiable demands of customers.

Coetsee (2004) urged managers to understand that recruiting and developing talented employees are of supreme importance to the success of organisational performance. Schiemann (2009) fully supported the above fact and therefore emphasised that while organisations can invest in new technologies for growth in their market share, the true driver of the value of an organisation is its competent employees. Therefore, emphasis should be focused on the people that create the products, raise the capital, and create innovative progression. Elegbe (2010) added that the incentives that accrue from TM include a well-negotiated salary structure,

reduced hiring costs, inspired and committed teams, effective and efficient teams, and satisfied clients. Elegbe argued that such an organisation will assume the status of a satisfying place to work for, which will in turn aid in attracting new talents, the primary reason for initiating a TM system.

It has been acknowledged in the literature that TM systems create a positive and important result on the short- and long-term financial performance measures of an organisation (Yapp, 2009; Groves, 2011; Ulrich and Allen, 2014). As put by Hathaway (2008), companies practicing the integrated approach to rewards and TM not only accomplish superior attraction and retention results but also stronger financial performance. Ulrich and Allen (2014) in a study of Asian firms found that investment in current talents impacts business performance.

Others have pointed out that firms with a conscious TM strategy achieved higher financial performance compared to their industry peers in terms of operating profit (Guthridge and Komm, 2008; Ringo et al., 2008), sales revenue and productivity (Yapp, 2009; Gandossy and Kao, 2004; Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005), net profit margin, return on assets, and return on equity (DiRomualdo, Joyce and Bression, 2009) or return on shareholder's value and market value (Axelrod et al., 2002). TM can lead to higher job satisfaction among employees if they are given career and development opportunities (Collings and Mellahi, 2009) and a higher retention rate (Bhatnagar, 2007; Tansley et al., 2007; Hughes and Rog, 2008; Anand, 2011; Björkmanet al., 2013; Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013; Hanif and Yunfei, 2013; Festing and Schafer, 2014).

Other studies have shown that firms with an established TM strategy can achieve improved quality, speed, and skills (Tansley et al., 2007; Schiemann, 2014) and higher innovative ability (Kontoghioghes and Frangou, 2009; Sullivan, 2009). Hughes and Rog (2008) agreed that effective TM ensures that organisations can successfully acquire and retain essential talent. Companies would have to rethink and reinvent their approaches to TM and those that master TM will be well positioned for performance, now and forever. In spite of this, there are some potential negatives and challenges associated with TM.

2.9 Potential Negative Impact and Challenges of Talent Management

Even though it has been generally agreed that TM has a number of important benefits, some studies have argued that TM is likely to have some negative consequences (Bothner, Podolny and Smith, 2011; Dries, 2013; Skuza et al., 2013; Swailes, 2013b). TM requires differentiation of employees as "A, B, C" and this may lead to negative consequences. Those labelled as "B or C" may be de-motivated and discouraged, resulting in lower productivity or increased turnover. Larsen et al. (1998) argued that this often lead to jealousy, while Bothner et al. (2011) maintained that the open TM policies of a firm often lead to frustration and disappointment among the employees that are not identified as talented.

Again, those that are not identified as talented may think that less is expected of them, they might not receive coaching, mentoring or training, and where they are offered, they only attend fewer of these. Exclusion from a TM pool may be interpreted as a sign of being inferior, which may lead to low self efficacy (Iles, 2013; Swailes, 2013b). Hence, Iles (2013: 303) put the question, "Can TM be ethical?"

Again, the particular act of selecting a few as a result of their differential contribution can be viewed as dehumanising in relation to the majority in its emphasis on an individual's value as human capital rather than as a human being (Downs and Swailes, 2013; Iles, 2013; Swailes, 2013b). Whereas segmentation is fundamental to TM and may lead to the highest return, it encourages discrimination, making it a sensitive issue (Gelens et al., 2013). Indeed, human capital resources are human beings and they tend to respond cognitively, sensitively, and behaviourally when they are treated differently from others (Paauwe, 2004). Identification as talent may lead to the "crown prince syndrome," where the talent label leads to arrogance and complacency (Larsen et al., 1998).

When talents are guaranteed a mark in their organisation's senior management position, they tend to lose the enthusiasm to work for it naturally (Dries and Pepermans, 2008). Pfeffer (2001) has cogently stated that there is an overemphasis on "A players" to the neglect of team contribution. The search for talented employees might create the notion that talented workers are largely available outside the organisation and this might tend to downplay the skills and attributes of the present

employees, which might lead to a loss of motivation and their potential resignation (Gelens et al., 2013). To mitigate some of these negative consequences of TM, most HR practitioners hide from employees whether or are seen as talents and barely one out of three organisations reveals information about its TM policies (Bournois and Rousillon, 1992). Bournois and Rousillon however added that even under situations of strategic ambiguity, information about TM leaks to employees in 90 percent of organisations.

In addition to the potential negatives of TM, there are a number of challenges associated with TM, especially in the area of identification, recruitment, and retention. It has been noted that the identification of talented and high potential employees is increasingly becoming a problem for most organisations (Michaels et al., 2001; Lubitsh and Smith, 2007; Tarique and Schuler, 2010). This has generated what is called the "war for talent" and "talent shortage." It is essential to note that this is not about the unavailability of employees but the lack of the required skills that are demanded by organisations in this competitive era. Indeed, Kermally (2004) made the point that whereas we hear stories of redundancies every now and then, skills are in quite short supply. In this way, a number of studies have sought to explain this phenomenon of "war for talent" and "talent shortage."

First, Brown and Hesketh (2004) have argued that most organisations appear to be raising their expectations as to what characterises and talents is required for entry into their workforce. In other words, what organisations are looking for is more than just potential; they want employees that can add value immediately (Brown and Hesketh, 2004). Whereas it is important for employers to raise their standards to be able to compete successfully, the difficulty is that this may limit their talent pool, as it is difficult for employees to add value immediately when they are employed.

This then becomes a tactical game of chance between organisations and talents. Ready and Conger (2007) maintained that despite all that is known about TM, a significantly large number of organisations still find it difficult to fill their key positions. Identifying and recruiting talent have therefore become one of the key challenges to many organisations. Thus, in a global study of more than 9,000 executives, it was found that the short supply of talented workers was ranked as the most critical managerial challenge (Lubitsh and Smith, 2007).

Second, in spite of the popularity and substantial studies on TM, there is still no agreement about what constitutes both talent and TM (Berger and Berger, 2004; Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Tansley, Harris, Stewart and Turner, 2006; Dries, 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). According to Brown and Hesketh (2004), the attributes of talents include behavioural aspects ("can-do" attitude), skills (ability to generate new realities, experiences and knowledge), and competences and cognitive capability (diversity of thought or flexibility of mind which matches organisational requirements). However Blass et al. (2006) are of the view that these characteristics are rather wild, outlandish and would deter organisations from hiring the talented. It is therefore, recommended by CIPD (2006) that there is a need to have clarity about what is talent by both HR professionals and employees. In other words, it is necessary to make it clear what constitutes exceptional managers, employees, and those that are capable of making a difference (Delbridge, Gratton and Johnson, 2006).

Another challenge of TM is the retention of talented employees (Stahl et al., 2007; Tarique and Schuler, 2010; Scullion and Collings, 2011; Schuler et al., 2011). A number of studies have acknowledged the difficulty involved in retaining talented employees in both local firms and MNCs (Stahl et al., 2007; Scullion and Collings, 2006; Gregersen, Morrison and Black, 1998). Even though reasonable compensation has the possibility of attracting and retaining talented employees, companies have realised that financial incentives are only one component of success (Stahl et al., 2007). Making and delivering a persuasive employee value proposition is seen to be more crucial than financial rewards (Michaels at al., 2001), which is capable of substituting excitement for the job, attention from senior managers, and long-term career planning (Stahl et al., 2007). It is crucial to retain talents because losing talented employees can cause an enormous cost to the organisation (Lawler, 2008).

2.10 Talent Management: Strategies and Practices

As the concept of TM continues to gain currency and popularity in this competitive business environment, several strategies and practices of TM have been suggested by a number of researchers and authors. Ulrich (2003) argued that the starting point is to focus on the future and the emphasis should be on recruiting and

developing employees to be useful for the organisation, not only for now but the future as well. The second is measurable behaviours and results with a continuous tracking and measurement of competencies. This will make employees understand what they have to do and obtain regular measureable feedback on their behaviours. Third, the behaviours that can be learned should be specified, which is basically about the teaching of successful skills and behaviours that can yield good results. The fourth is to tailor competencies to the organisational goals. The last is the integration of competency development for all so that each person will be aligned to recruitment, performance management, training and development, and reward practices.

Meyer and Botha (2004) listed five main strategies of TM. The first was the identification of high-potential talents. That is, “A players” need to be identified early so that they can be developed for the long-term benefit of the organisation. The second is to spread a wide net in choosing employees to be developed. Everybody within the organisation must be taken into consideration, especially leaders in the twilight of their careers. The third is the selection of talent to be brought into the organisation and this should be done only when key competencies have been identified to be missing in the organisation. The fourth is to maximise talent value for the business through performance management, which should emphasize the application of TM in the workplace. The last is the integration of TM with all HR processes.

Fitz-enz (2005) maintained that TM includes six human resources services: leadership development, staffing, performance management, succession planning, training and education, and retention. Deloitte (2005) put TM in what is called a traditional approach because it is a linear activity that begins with acquiring talent and ends with retaining talent, as two areas of focus. Between this two critical areas are deployment and development but the main interest of their approach is recruitment and retention activities. Morton (2006) outlined eight kinds of activities of TM as recruitment, leadership development, professional development, retention, performance management, workforce planning, feedback/measurement, and culture.

The CIPD (2006) has put together a number of HR practices to make up a TM strategy. This strategy is broad and consists of recruiting talented people, organising groups of talent (banks and pools), rewarding talented employees, appraising talents

(and performance management), ensuring a diversity of talents, deploying talent, tracking talent, and retaining talent. Focusing and basing TM on hierarchy and a strategic perspective, Lewis and Heckman (2006) divided TM activities into the following; strategy to provide a sustainable competitive advantage (what market opportunities exist and which organisational resources yield advantage?), strategy implications for talent, talent pool strategy, talent systems, and talent practices.

Uren (2007) described TM strategy as having five elements. These are attraction, identification, development, deployment, and engagement. Attraction is about having the right employment proposition and brand to attract talent from the outside marketplace, while identification is about being clear concerning the kind of employees and capability that will create value or deliver a competitive advantage for the organisation. Again, development is about building the capabilities and skills of employees in order to meet present and future demands, while deployment concerns the placement of the right employee in the right jobs at the right time. Finally, engagement is mainly about ensuring the right environment for employees to deliver their best and stay committed to the organisation.

Bersin and Associates (2007) provided a comprehensive framework of TM and argued that the TM process is a continuous cycle. The framework emphasizes crucial skills gap analysis, recruitment, training and development, and compensation and benefits to talented employees. At the hub of that framework are job roles, job descriptions, and competency models as being essential to the process. SHL (2007; 2008) claimed that TM strategy is an interconnected process but that the TM component is made up of recruitment, selection, performance, development, succession and competency management of talented employees in core and pivotal positions. Ringo et al. (2008) on their part came out with six facets of TM: develop a strategy, attract and retain, motivate and develop, deploy and manage, connect and enable, transform and sustain.

Similarly, Barron (2008) developed a TM framework which is made up of five key elements, namely: attraction, selection, engaging, developing and retaining of employees. The focus of this strategy is on core areas of management in the organisation. The Human Capital Institute (2008) examined related current TM systems in five precise areas: talent strategy, workforce planning and talent

acquisition, capability development and performance, leadership and high potential development, and talent analytics. Smith and Campbell (2008) posited that organisational systems and processes that are vital to TM include: executive commitment and engagement, critical talent identification, development and succession, learning and development, competency model development and deployment, sourcing and recruiting, rewards and recognition, performance management, and knowledge management and the measurement of the helpfulness of the systems and processes used for the purpose of talent sustainability.

Kirkland (2009) appears to have the same idea of TM strategy as he stated that TM is a strategic and deliberate in how it source's, attract's, select's, train's, develop's, promote's and move employees throughout the organisation. Deborah and Kathy (2009) conceptualised TM strategy in terms of attracting, selecting, engaging, developing and retaining talented employees. They indicated that an organisation has to recruit top-tier and bright talent. This means that the organisation has to be creative in developing a recruitment strategy. They stressed the importance of tailored training and development strategies as well as retaining talented employees in strategic and pivotal positions to ensure organisational performance. At the heart of their framework are the organisation's core values and competencies which are linked through a continual process of strategy, execution and evaluation.

DiRomualdo (2009) suggested four steps that companies can adopt to access their TM process as well as improve it. The first is the identification of key roles that are critical for the survival and growth of the organisation. This helps the organisation ensure that it has the right people at the right job and with proper matching of roles. The second is to take an inventory of the skills to determine their availability and to identify the possible solutions in case they are unavailable. The third is the measurement and evaluation of TM processes and efforts. That is, every aspect of TM must be measured in terms of efficiency, impact, and effectiveness. The final is a feedback loop which helps to make adjustment if needed.

According to Tarique and Schuler (2010) TM strategies or activities are comparable to SHRM and therefore the main strategies/activities are attracting, developing, and retaining. Attraction has to do with developing organisational reputation or attractiveness to appeal to talents; developing is about the forecast of

talent requirements, and deciding whether to hire people from the outside or promoting from within the organisation. Development focuses on paying attention to top performers to fill key roles that contribute to the sustainable competitive advantage of the organisation. Retention requires organisations to use different practices to get talented people involved, and to promote organisational commitment and retention of key talents. Hartmanna et al. (2010) maintained that TM is a broad range of strategic HRM activities which include the identification and development and retention of talented employees that can affect organisational performance.

In the view of Dessler (2011), TM strategy requires coordinating several HR activities, in particular workforce acquisition, assessment, development, and retention. Hajimirarab, Nobar and Ghalambor (2011) are of the view that TM has three principal components: talent identification, talent development, and talent motivation and retention. Poorhosseinzadeh and Subramaniam (2012) maintained that TM strategies consist of attraction, deployment, development and retention of talents as well as succession planning. They view that management should not jump to the issue of TM because it is fashionable and gives them more integrity; rather, management should state what issue/problem TM is intended to tackle. In other words, organisations must identify their mission first and decide the strategy for attraction, deployment, development and retention of talents or how they can use succession planning in their organisation.

A critical look at the various strategies and practices of TM presented in the extant literature shows how important TM is gaining momentum and how various researchers and organisations are putting in place strategies to implement TM. Also, in spite of the differences in the various TM strategies presented above there are a number of similarities among them. It can therefore been seen that TM enables organisations to rapidly form a strategy, identify, attract and recruit, develop, manage the career and reward talented and performing employees. The major lesson from these strategies and practices is that TM is “slippery” and must be handled with caution. The context must therefore decide in designing TM practices and strategies. This is what McDonnell (2011) called the business case for TM. Closely related to these strategies and practices are the components of TM.

2.11 Components of Talent Management

Since the concept of TM became popular as a result of the work of McKinsey through the phrase "the war for talent," it has been accepted that the quality and quantity of talent can directly impact performance. One of the main themes in the TM literature is the elements or components of TM. According to Morton (2005) TM is made up of eight initiatives: recruitment, professional development, leadership, performance management, feedback, workforce planning, culture, and retention. Others (CIPD, 2006; Gubman and Green, 2007; Caplan, 2011) listed the following as components of TM: talent acquisition, capability assessment, talent development, leadership development, succession planning and management, learning and capability development, competency management, total rewards, career management, and performance management.

Leisy and Pyron (2009) maintained that TM is made up of nine essential components. These are workforce analytics and planning, recruitment and on-boarding, learning and development, career mapping, deployment and redeployment, succession planning, reward and engagement, role and competency design and performance management. They argued that all of these components must be aligned with the organisation's vision, mission, and values to help drive the organisation's business results. According to Silzer and Dowell (2010) there is some agreement in the HR literature that HRM activities should be under the umbrella of TM. However, Silzer and Dowell argued that attraction and selection, competency assessment, talent plan review, development and deploying talents, and engaging and retaining talents should be considered the components of TM.

Armstrong (2010) indicated that TM starts from business strategy and that the elements of TM include talent audit, talent attraction, learning and development, role development, talent relationship management, total reward, performance management and career management. Avedon and Scholes (2010) listed the components of TM to include talent identification, talent assessment, talent development, and talent retention and argued that TM must be aligned with the business strategy. McDaniel and D'Egidio (2010) on their part listed the components of a TM system as competency assessments, development tools, selection tools and promotion tools.

Similarly, Antoine (2011) pointed out that the building blocks of a robust TM system include successive drivers and competencies, performance management, succession planning, leadership model, recruiting and hiring, on-boarding, training and development, assignment planning, identification and selection, scorecards, diversity, compensation and benefit systems, employment brand, and workforce planning.

The difficulty with the above components of TM is that they appear to be the same as the activities of HRM. Adopting and using them as dimensions or components of TM for research makes TM not different from HRM. This may lead to the idea that TM is a rebranding exercise - "old wine in new bottles" (Adamsky, 2003; Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Cappelli 2008; Iles et al., 2010). The second challenge of using these components for TM research is that it makes TM to overlap with well-established and researched concepts such as career management, competency management, succession planning, performance management, recruitment, compensation management, among others. Therefore, if TM is really different from HRM, then it must not use the components of HRM.

Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015) asserted that TM is different from HRM and therefore summed up the literature on TM and distinguished five main components or dimensions of TM. These dimensions are talent alignment, talent application, talent competency, talent autonomy, and talent development. Talent alignment is seen as the employees' actions and competences that are aligned with the objectives of the organisation's strategy with the aim of increasing the performance of the firm (Farndale et al., 2010; Kim and Scullion, 2011; Stahl et al., 2012; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015). Emphasizing the importance of alignment, Colvin and Boswell (2007) argued that organisations are able to improve the execution of their business strategies by aligning employee behaviours and actions to business strategy.

Talent application by talented employees is important in the implementation of TM in an organisation (Michaels et al., 2001; Nilson and Ellstrom, 2012; Stahl et al., 2012). Therefore, it is important for key and talented employees to keep generating ideas for the TM strategy (McCauley and Wakefield, 2006). Talent competency is about the perceptions of competency and influences that make talented employees get a sense of meaningfulness from their jobs (Sigler and Pearson, 2000). In other words, talent competency is linked with job competence and can be regarded as the

individual's feelings of personal mastery and self-efficacy in the performance of his/her work roles (Bandura, 1989). This makes talented employees do their job well and without problems.

Job autonomy can be viewed as the degree to which employee feel that they are able to take their own job decisions (Peccei and Rosenthal, 2001). Hackman and Oldham (1980) stated that job autonomy has to do with the extent to which employees believe they have the chance to decide the methods with which to perform their work. Therefore, job autonomy is clearly related to the employees' decision-making power that allows them to apply their talents in the performance of their duties (Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015). Talent development helps to identify the gaps in employees' skills and knowledge as well as their potentials (Hayton and Kelly, 2006; McCauley and Wakefield, 2006). This study therefore adopted the TM dimensions proposed by Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015) as these appears to illustrate that TM is different from HRM. TM is associated with employee performance (Mensah, 2015); and the concept is discussed below.

2.12 Employee Performance: Definitional Mystification

The concept of employee performance is of high significance for both individuals and organisations alike. As a result of its importance, it has received considerable research. This is because organisations exist to meet the needs of their stakeholders. Therefore, organisations can perform if the individuals that occupy the organisation perform. This reflects the expression that organisations are the people in them and that people make up the place (Schneider, 1987). In spite of its significance and the research attention it has generated over the years, a compromise has still not been reach about a common definition of employee performance.

This has made Sonnentag and Frese (2002) believe that in spite of the enormous significance of employee performance and the extensive use of job performance as an outcome variable in research, comparatively few attempts have been made to clarify the performance construct. Similarly, Campbell (1990: 704) explained the literature on the structure and content of performance as "a virtual desert" while Lebas and Euske (2002: 67) stated that "performance is one of those

"suitcase" in which everyone places the concept that suit them, letting the context take care of the definition." In spite of the controversies concerning the definition of employee performance, some attempts have been made by researchers, authors, and practitioners to define the concept. Table 2.6 provides a summary of a few definitions of employee performance.

Table 2.6 Summary of Selected Definitions of Employee Performance

Author(s)	**Definition**
Munjuri (2012)	Employee performance is the effective discharge of one's duty for good results.
Cascio (2006)	Performance is working effectively; that is, the way in which somebody does a job, judged by its effectiveness.
Winch et al. (2003)	Employee performance is the actual conducting of activities to meet responsibilities according to the standards as well as an indication of what is done and how it is done.
Viswesvaran and Ones (2000)	Job performance refers to how resourcefully individuals take actions and contribute with behaviours that are in line with an organisation's objectives.
Kane (1996)	Employee performance is something that the person leaves behind and that exists apart from the purpose.
Bernardin et al. (1995)	The outcomes of work that provide the strongest linkage to strategic goals of the organisation, customer satisfaction, and economic contributions.
Rue and Byars (1993)	Employee performance is about how well an employee is fulfilling the requirements of the job.
Campbell (1990)	Performance is what the organisation hires one to do and do well.
Campbell et al. (1990:314)	Performance is the "observable things people do that are relevant for the goals of the organisation."

According to Koopmans et al. (2011) the definitions of employee performance entail three notions: first, performance must be described with respect to behaviours rather than results; second, work performance consist of only those behaviours that are appropriate to the firm's goals; and third, performance is multi-dimensional. It can also be seen that performance is defined in terms of behaviours that are under the control of individual employees and that add to the goals of the organisation. Generally, performance has been assumed to be associated with the individual's ability to achieve his/her work goals, fulfil expectations as well as attaining job targets and/or accomplishing a standard that is set by the organisation (Eysenck, 1998; Maathis and Jackson, 2000; Bohlander, Snell and Sherman, 2001).

It is often a common practice for performance and productivity to be used interchangeably, but they are fundamentally different. Productivity is input divided by output (Kemppilä and Lönnqvist, 2003). Thus productivity is a narrower construct than performance. From the above, it can be realise that a single universal definition of performance is impossible. It is as a result of this that Murphy and Cleveland (1995) concluded that in whatever way job performance is defined, it still remains an abstract construct which is generally constructed. Again, there are many judgement calls required when performance is been operationalised, even when it is based on apparently "objective" measures. What rather appears to be clear is that employee performance revolves around the effective discharge of one's duty at work. Performance comes in various dimensions and these are discussed below.

2.13 Dimensions of Employee Performance

Researchers and authors agree that employee performance is a multidimensional construct (Borman and Motowildo, 1993; Sonnentag and Frese, 2002). Borman and Motowildo (1993) divided performance into task and contextual performance. Later some researchers added other dimensions. For instance, Allworth and Hesketh (1999), Pulakos et al. (2000), Sunclair and Tucker (2006) and Griffin, Neal and Parker (2007) came up with the concept of adaptive performance. Similarly, attention has been giving to negative work behaviours that harm the organisation (Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000; Rotundo and Sackett, 2002). This has led to the addition of the counterproductive performance dimension.

2.13.1 Task Performance

For Campbell (1990), task performance is the expertise (i.e competency) with which an individual performs central job tasks. Williams and Karau (1991) are also maintained that task performance covers an employee's contribution and actions regarding organisational performance that are part of the formal reward system and that address the requirements as specified in the job description. As stated by Borman and Motowidlo (1993), task performance is the transformation of raw materials into finished goods and services that are the organisation's product and any other activities that are related to maintaining the organisation. Similarly, van Scotter, Motowidlo and Cross (2000) indicated that task performance is made up of a set of behaviours that are openly concerned in producing services or activities or goods that give direct support for the firm's nucleus technical processes. In other words, when employees use technical knowledge and skills to accomplish a task, they are said to engage in task performance.

It is important to note that what makes up core job tasks can vary from job to job. For that matter, Arvey and Mussio (1973) used the concepts of working accurately, showing concern for time and details, and planning to describe the task performance of clerical workers, while Jiambalvo (1979) used the concepts of understanding, planning, and revising work to describe the task performance of public accountants. Furthermore, Engelbrecht and Fischer (1995) divided task performance of employees into action orientation, task structuring and probing, and synthesis and judgement. Similarly, Tett, Guterman, Bleier, and Murphy (2000) divided task performance of employees into traditional functions and occupational acumen and concerns. Other names that have been used for task performance in the extant literature include job-specific task proficiency (Campbell, Ford, Rumsey and Pulakos, 1990; Rollins and Fruge, 1992; Griffin et al., 2007), technical proficiency (Campbell, McHenry and Wise, 1990; Lance, Teachout, and Donnelly, 1992; Campbell, Hanson and Oppler, 2001), and in-role performance (Bakker, Demerouti and Verbeke, 2004; Maxham, Netemeyer and Lichtenstein 2008).

2.13.2 Contextual Performance

Contextual performance has to do with factors that are not directly on the job. It may be simply viewed as the environmental factors that support the milieu in which

organisational work is carried out. As rightly put by Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996), contextual performance does not contribute openly to an organisation's core processes but keeps or advances aspects in the organisation essential for the core to function well. Contextual performance entails behavioural prototypes that maintain the social and psychological milieu in which task activities are executed (van Scotter, Motowidlo and Cross, 2000; Sonnentag and Frese, 2002). Koopmans et al. (2011) refer to contextual performance as the behaviours that go beyond the official prescribed work goals such as taking on extra tasks, showing initiative, or coaching newcomers on the job. Just like task performance, several names have been used for contextual performance. Among them are non-job-specific task proficiency (Campbell, 1990; Wisecarver, Carpenter and Kilcullen, 2007, extra-role performance (Bakker et al., 1990; Maxham et al., 2008), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000; Rotundo and Sackett, 2002), interpersonal relations (Murphy, 1989), pro-social organisational behaviour (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986), organisational spontaneity (George and Brief, 1992) and extra-role behaviour (van Dyne, Cummings and Parks, 1995).

In differentiating task and contextual performance, researchers such as Borman and Motowidlo (1997), Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit (1997) and Motowidlo and Schmit (1999) have stated that there are three main differences between them: contextual performance activities are comparable for nearly all jobs while task performance is job specific; task performance is predicted mainly by ability while contextual performance is largely predicted by motivation and personality; and lastly task performance is in-role behaviour and part of the formal job description while contextual performance is extra-role behaviour and discretionary (not enforceable) and often not rewarded by the official reward systems or directly or indirectly considered by management (Sonnentage and Frese, 2002).

2.13.3 Adaptive Performance

Initial classifications of employee performance did not include adaptive performance. However, Smith et al. (1997), Pulakos et al. (2000), and Sinclair and Tucker (2006) argued that the work environment is constantly changing, making it necessary for the need for adaptive performance of employees. Hence, Pulakos et al.

(2000) presented an eight-dimensional classification of adaptive performance: handling emergencies or crisis situation, handling work stress, solving problems creatively, dealing with uncertain and unpredictable work situations, learning work task, technologies and procedures, demonstrating interpersonal adaptability, demonstrating cultural adaptability, and demonstrating physically oriented adaptability. Therefore, adaptability in the context of work refers to how employees deal with changes in work tasks or contexts, which includes versatility and flexibility (Pulakos et al., 2000; Dorsey, Cortina and Luchman, 2010).

Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) defined adaptive performance as the degree to which an employee adjusts to changes in the work system or work roles. This is because the work environment is changing rapidly and some researchers have even expanded the construct to include pro-activity, innovativeness, and taking initiatives (Sonnentag and Frese, 2002; Fay and Sonnentag, 2010). Numerous authors refer to adaptive performance using different terms, such as role flexibility (Murphy and Jackson, 1999), adaptability (Rollins and Fruge, 1992), schedule flexibility (Hunt, 1996), and leading change (Hedge, Borman, Bruskiewicz and Bourne, 2004).

2.13.4 Counterproductive Performance (Behaviour)

Counterproductive performance (behaviour) is generally seen as behaviours that have negative consequences for both the organisation and the individual (Hunt, 1996; Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000; Rotundo and Sackett, 2002; Burton, Pransky, Conti, Chen and Edington, 2004; Allen, 2008; Escorpizo, 2008). They include behaviours such as absenteeism, lateness, engaging in off-task behaviours, theft, continuously arguing with colleagues, deviant behaviour, destructive/hazardous behaviour, anti-social behaviour, unruliness and lack of personal discipline, and substance abuse. According to Mount, Illies, and Johnson (2006) counterproductive behaviours breach organisational norms, are harmful to the interest of the organisation, and obstruct the accomplishment of organisational goals and therefore should be avoided because they are costly and pervasive.

According to Viswesvaran and Ones (2000), counterproductive behaviours can vary along two dimensions: organisational/interpersonal and serious/minor. Therefore, on the basis of these two dimensions, Robinson and Bennett (1995: 565)

classified employee deviance into four categories: “property deviance (serious deviance directed at the organisation), production deviance (minor deviance directed at the organisation), personal aggression (serious deviance directed at other individuals), and political deviance (minor deviance directed at other individuals).” Like other dimensions, there are numerous terms that have been used to describe counterproductive behaviours. These include deviant workplace behaviours, employee sabotage behaviour, and counterproductive work behaviour (Raelin, 1994; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Table 2.7 provides a summary of the dimensions of employee performance as adapted from Koopmans et al. (2011).

While these four dimensions capture the totality of employee performance, earlier studies make a distinction between typical and maximum performance (Sackett, Zedeck and Fogli, 1988). Generally, typical performance is what employees will do and maximum performance is what employees can do. While the typical and maximum performance construct has been widely use in employee selection, their indicators such as critical analytical skills for solving problems, effectual multitasking, working and successfully tackling complex issues, broadly fall under these four dimensions.

Koopmans et al. (2011) conducted a systematic review of the medical, psychological, and management databases on the subject of individual work performance (IWP). They found a total of seventeen general frameworks that apply to all occupations and eighteen job specific frameworks. They found that task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance and counterproductive work behaviours were the dimensions regularly used to describe IWP. Based on this, they came up with a heuristic conceptual framework for IWP. At the highest level of the framework is the latent general factor of IWP. At the second level are the four dimensions. At the third level are the individual measures. They were however quick to add that the precise indicators connected with each dimension may vary depending on the context involved. Figure 2.1 shows the heuristic framework of IWP adopted from Koopmans et al. (2011).

Koopmans et al. (2011) have argued that these four dimensions are related to each other. First, both task and contextual behaviours separately contribute to overall performance but through different means. Second, some behaviours can be seen as

task behaviours in some jobs while they may be seen as contextual behaviours in other jobs. Third, the correlation between task performance and counterproductive work behaviours is inconclusive and has been found to be either fairly or strongly negative (Conway, 1999). Studies have found a strong negative relationship between contextual behaviours and counterproductive work behaviours (Koopmans et al., 2011). Last, because adaptive performance is a behaviour that positively influences IWP, one can anticipate that it will have a positive relationship with both task and contextual performances but a negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviours (Koopmans et al., 2011). However, one of the contested areas in individual performance is the factors that influence performance.

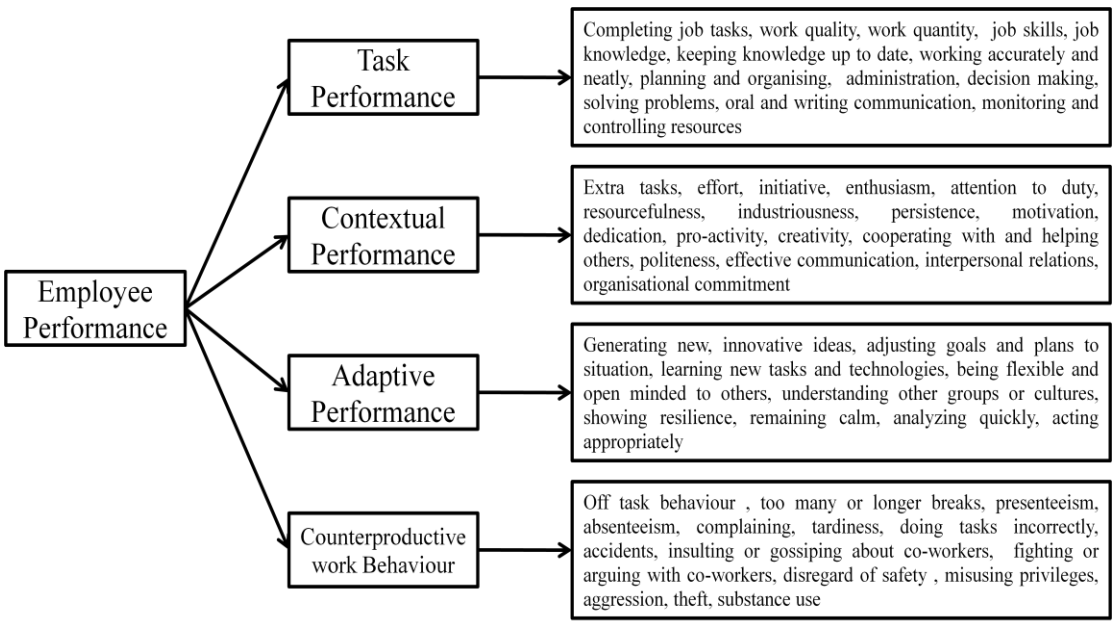


Figure 2.1 Heuristic Framework of IWP

Source: Koopmans et al, 2011.

Table 2.7 Conceptual Frameworks of IWP and Their Dimensions

Author(s)	Task performance	Contextual performance	Counterproductive work behaviour	Other
Murphy (1989; 1990); Viswesvaran (2002); Rotundo and Sackett (2002)	Task behaviours	Interpersonal behaviours	Downtime behaviours, destructive/hazardous behaviours	
Campbell (1990); Viswesvaran and Ones (2000); Griffin et al. (2007); Viswesvaran (2002; 1993); Rotundo and Sackett (2002); Wisecarver and Carpenter (2007); Sinclair and Tucker (2006); Borman et al. (1997); Motowidlo et al. (1997)	Job-specific task proficiency Non-job specific task proficiency	Written and oral communications; Demonstrating effort; Maintaining personal discipline; Facilitating peer and team performance; Supervision and leadership; Management and administration		
Borman and Motowidlo (1997); Viswesvaran (2000); Griffin et al. (2007)	Task performance	Contextual performance		
Viswesvaran (2002); Tubre et al. (2006); Viswesvaran and Ones (2000); Arvey and Murphy (1998); Hoffman et al. (2007); Viswesvaran et al. (2005)	Productivity Quality Knowledge	Effort; Communication; Leadership; Administrative competence; Interpersonal competence; Compliance with and acceptance of authority		Overall work performance
Allworth and Hesketh (1999); Pulakos et al. (2000); Borman et al. (2003); Griffin et al. (2007)	Task performance	Contextual performance		Adaptive performance

Table 2.7 (Continued)

Author(s)	Task performance	Contextual performance	Counterproductive work behaviour	Other
Viswesvaran& Ones (2000); Viswesvaran et al. (2005); Rotundo and Sackett (2002); Fay and Sonnentag (2010)	Task performance	Organisational citizenship behaviour	Counterproductive behaviour	
Bakker et al. (2004)	In-role performance	Extra-role performance		
Burton et al. (2004); Escorpizo (2008)			Absenteeism Presenteeism	
Griffin et al. (2007); Fay and Sonnentag (2010)	Task proficiency			Adaptability Pro-activity
Campbell et al. (1990)	Job specific proficiency	Non-job –specific proficiency		
Campbell et al. (1990); Campbell et al. (2001)	Core technical proficiency	General soldiering proficiency; Effort and leadership; Personal discipline; Physical fitness and military bearing		
Lance et al. (1992)	Technical proficiency	Interpersonal proficiency		
Sinclair and Tucker (2006)	Task performance	Contextual performance	Counterproductive behaviour	Adaptive performance
Wisecarver et al. (2007)	Job-specific proficiency; Interpersonal job-specific proficiency	Non-job specific task proficiency; Management; Peer-team interaction; Discipline Effort		

Source: Koopmans et al., 2011.

2.14 Determinants/Perspectives of Employee Performance

Like performance itself, there is no one factor that could be considered as influencing employee performance significantly to the extent that it can be the secret key to employee performance improvement. According to Merwe (2008) the factors that influence employee performance do so in combinations, often varying between the different levels of influence, somewhat like the levels of waves found in a container filled with different quantities of oil and water. It is essential to know that the factors that influence employee performance have been widely researched (Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Greenberg, 1990; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler and Sager, 1993; Merwe, 2008; Sonnentag, Kuttler and Fritz, 2010; Motowidlo et al., 1997).

One of the main reasons for this wide research is an effort to find out a miraculous formula that will provide employers with a way to ensure that their employees perform to the optimal level in order to outperform their competitors and later produce the highest possible profit (Merwe, 2008). However, a comprehensive review of the literature shows that these factors can be grouped into three: individual specific variables (individual perspective), situation specific variables (situation perspective), and process variables. These are discussed below.

2.14.1 Individual Specific Variables (Individual Perspective)

According to Sonnentag et al. (2010) individual specific variables are individual difference variables, that is, variables that differ between individuals, but are expected to be stable within individuals. The fundamental idea is that differences in the performance between individuals can be explained by differences in abilities, personality, and/or motivation. Campbell, Glaser, and Oswald (1996) have argued cogently that in low-difficulty jobs, the performance of the highest performer exceeds the lowest performer between two to four times whilst in jobs with high difficulty, higher performers may exceed lower performers by even a greater ratio. The question that rightly follows is “what accounts for these differences”? A broad search in the literature reveals that cognitive abilities, knowledge, experience, and non-cognitive traits account for these differences.

1) Cognitive Abilities

A widely-used definition of abilities from Ree, Carretta, and Steindl (2001: 21) refers to "the power or capacity to act financially, legally, mentally, physically, or in some other way." In other words, cognitive ability refers to a person's mental ability or capacity with respect to mental tasks. It is generally assumed that mental ability is related to performance and this has generated substantive research about the relationship between general mental ability (GMA) and performance. According to Sonnentag et al. (2010), meta-analyses have shown that GMA is a strong predictor of job performance. Examples include a meta-analytic study of Hunter and Hunter (1984) in the USA, and Canada and Bertua, Anderson, and Salgado's (2005) and Salgado et al.'s (2003) in the UK and other European countries. Hunter and Hunter found a correlation of 0.51 while Bertua et al. and Salgado et al. found a correlation of 0.48 and 0.62 respectively.

Further findings based on the meta-analytic technique have shown that the correlations between GMA and job performance differ across job types. Thus, higher correlations are found for more complex jobs than simple jobs (Sonnentag et al., 2010). Motowidlo et al. (1997) argued that cognitive ability is positively related to task performance by impacting task habits, task skills, and task knowledge. They indicated that the relationship between cognitive ability and contextual performance should be weaker because cognitive ability is only related to contextual knowledge but not to contextual habits or contextual skills. Expectedly, the empirical findings support this as they found the association between cognitive ability and organisational citizenship behaviour or related contextual performance constructs to be weak and mostly non-significant (Chan and Schmitt, 2002). However, earlier studies reported a positive relationship (Allworth and Hesketh, 1999).

Lastly, empirical research findings on the relationships between cognitive ability and adaptive performance as well as counterproductive work performance are scarce but can be generally assumed to be positive for adaptive performance and negatively related to counterproductive work behaviours. It can therefore be concluded that cognitive abilities are related to overall job performance in general and to task and adaptive performance in particular. Cognitive abilities do not seem to be a strong or consistent predictors of contextual performance, but they are negatively associated with counterproductive work behaviours.

2) Knowledge

There has been a general assumption that knowledge influences job performance and empirical research has supported this assumption (Hunter and Hunter, 1984; Campbell et al., 1993; Dye, Reck and McDaniel, 1993; Sternberg, 1997; McDaniel, Morgeson and Finnegan, 2001). According to Sonnentag et al. (2010), meta-analytic evidence suggests that job knowledge (declarative knowledge) is related to job performance and even higher for more complex jobs (Dye et al., 1993). The correlation between tacit knowledge and job performance has been found to range between 0.20 and 0.40 (Sternberg, 1997). In general terms, Sonnentag et al. (2010) agree that job knowledge mediates individual dispositions (cognitive ability and personality) and job performance.

With respect to the various dimensions of employee performance, Chan and Schmitt (2002) studied 160 civil service employees and found that knowledge (situational judgement) was positively related to task performance as well as contextual performance (job dedication and interpersonal facilitation). With respect to adaptive performance, studies have argued that knowledge has the potential, helps, and is beneficial for adaptive performance (Chen, Thomas and Wallace, 2005; Fay and Frese 2010). Even though empirical evidence is lacking, it can generally be assumed that knowledge will be negatively related to counterproductive work performance.

3) Experience

Experience is essential for job performance. In fact, Sonnentag et al. (2010) have clearly stated that job experience is relevant to performance. Research has found that job experience leads to the acquisition of skills, techniques, methods, psychomotor habits, among others that directly produce improvements in performance capabilities (Kahya, 2007). Hunter and Hunter (1984) conducted a study and found a mean correlation of 0.18 between job experience and job performance. Even though McDaniel, Schmidt and Hunter (1988) found a positive relationship between experience and job performance, they indicated that the relationship decreases with age. Sonnentag et al. (2010) argued that in general terms, the role of experience mostly refers to task performance or overall job performance because research is often scarce on the other aspects of performance.

Researchers (Motowidlo and van Scotter, 1994; van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996; Chan and Schmit, 2002) however have found a weak correlation between experience and contextual performance, while others did not find support for this relationship (Ferris, Witt and Hochwarter, 2001). Also, a weak positive correlation was found between experience and adaptive performance (Allworth and Hesketh, 1999). Even though less researched, it is generally expected that there will be a mixed correlation between experience and counterproductive work performance. This is because whereas some experienced workers will know and largely avoid negative work behaviours, some may use their experience to cause harm to the organisation.

4) Non-cognitive Predictors

Apart from the cognitive predictors discussed above, non-cognitive factors have received considerable research attention. Some of the non-cognitive factors include personality such as the five factor model (McCrae and Costa, 1989; Digman, 1990), more narrow traits, the pro-active personality concept (Crant, 1995), and core self-evaluations (Judge and Bono, 2001). Studies by Barrick and Mount (1991) and Kanfer and Kantrowitz (2002) showed that there is generally a low correlation between personality factors and performance measures. Specifically, there has been a positive correlation between the five factor model of personality and contextual performance (Organ and Ryan, 1995; LePine and van Dyne, 2001; Dalal, 2005). Similar findings have been found for task performance (Crant, 1995; Thompson, 2005). In addition, there is some evidence that personality predicts adaptive performance (Pulakos et al., 2002; Griffin and Hesketh, 2003).

Campbell (1990) has done comprehensive work on the differences in individual performance and proposed a general model. Campbell made a distinction between performance components (job-specific task proficiency), the determinants of job performance constituents, and the predictors of these determinants. The performance constituent is a function of three determinants: declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skills, and motivation. Declarative knowledge consists of knowledge about facts, principles, goals, and the self. It is presumed to be a function of a person’s abilities, personality, interests, education, training, experience, and aptitude treatment interactions. Procedural knowledge and skills include cognitive and

psychomotor skills, physical skills, self-management skills and interpersonal skills. Motivation comprises the choice to perform, level of effort, and persistence of effort. However, Campbell ignored situational variables as predictors of employee performance (Hesketh and Neal, 1999). Figure 2.2 presents Campbell's model.

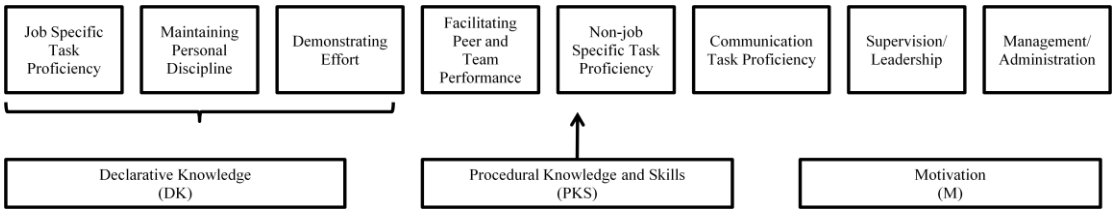


Figure 2.2 Determinants of Job Performance
Source: Campbell, 1990.

Research on individual predictors of job performance can be collectively placed under the individual differences perspective, especially research that addresses cognitive ability, personality, motivational factors, and experience as predictors of job performance (Sonnentag, 2002). On the practical side, managers and HR officers that adopt an individual difference perspective on performance must choose individuals on the basis of their abilities, experiences, and personality. This perspective also acknowledges the role of training and the fact that training should tackle knowledge and skills appropriate for performance as well as exposing individuals to specific experiences, such as traineeship and mentoring programs, as they are presumed to have a valuable effect on an individual's performance (Campbell et al., 1993; Sonnentag and Frese, 2002).

2.14.2 Situation-Specific Variables (Situational Perspective)

The general assumption under situational variables is that the performance of an individual is influenced by factors beyond his/her control, specifically, the context in which the performance occurs. That is, the factors in the employee's environment may kindle and support or hinder performance. The argument for this perspective is that the environment or the situation has a considerable effect on the performance of the individual (Sonnentag and Frese, 2002). As put by Jawahar (2005), situational

factors are things that are beyond the control of the employee such as the quality of equipment, the availability of resources, the difficulty of the sales terrain and so on. Several models have been used to explain the situational determinants of individual performance.

A very popular approach is the job characteristics model (Hackman and Oldham, 1976). This model assumes that job characteristics (skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback) have an effect on the crucial psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for work outcomes, knowledge of the results of the work activities), which in turn have an effect on job performance. Thus, Hackman and Oldham claimed that a job will be meaningful to an individual to the degree that it requires a variety of skills, involves the completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work, has significance, promotes a feeling of personal responsibility to the extent that it provides the individual with autonomy in selecting the methods for carrying out the work, and provides the individual with knowledge on which to judge the effects of his/her efforts. Figure 2.3 presents a diagrammatic view of Hackman and Oldham's model of job characteristics.

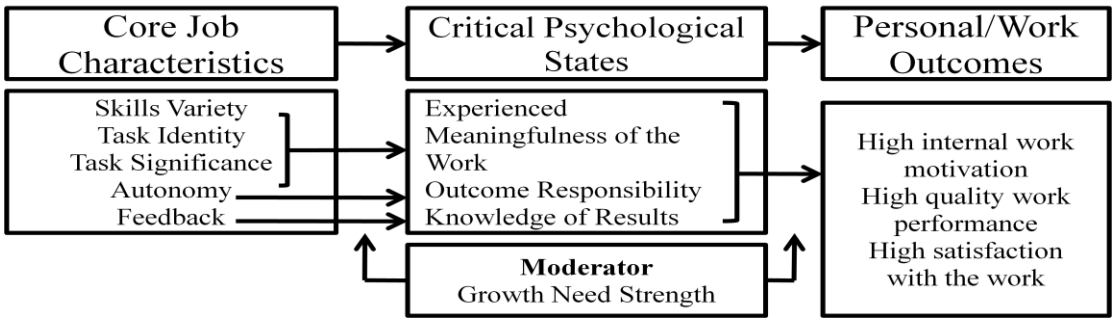


Figure 2.3 Job Characteristics Model

Source: Hackman and Oldham, 1976.

The socio-technical systems theory (Trist and Bamforth, 1951) is also one of the theories that have been used to explain the situational determinants of individual performance. This is a combination of social and technical subsystems and these subsystems need to move hand in hand. In this way a number of job design principles such as compatibility between the design process and its objectives, a minimal

specification of tasks, methods, and task allocations, and the control of problems and unforeseen events should be taken into consideration to ensure individual performance (Clegg, 2000). It has generally been found in the extant literature that job redesign had a positive effects on job performance (Parker and Turner, 2002), affirming the widely-held view that well-designed jobs increase employee performance (Humphrey, Nahrgang and Morgeson, 2007).

Role theory, with an emphasis on role ambiguity and role conflict, has also been used to explain the situational perspective of individual performance. The assumption is that role ambiguity and conflict serve as stressors, thereby impeding performance (Sonnentag and Frese, 2002). According to the role theory, role ambiguity and role conflict significantly reduces job performance (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal, 1964). Research findings have shown a negative and non-significant relationship between both role ambiguity and role conflict and job performance (Tubre and Collins, 2000 quoted in Jackson and Schuler, 1985). Table 2.8 provides a summary of the determinants/perspectives on employee performance.

Table 2.8 Determinants/Perspectives on Employee Performance

	Individual perspective	**Situational perspective**	**Process perspective**
Core question	Which individuals perform best?	In which situations do individuals perform best?	What does the performance process look like? What is happening when someone is performing?
Core assumptions and findings	Cognitive ability, Motivation and personality, Professional experience	Job characteristics, Role stressors, Situation constraints	Action process factors Adequate hierarchical level
Implications for performance improvement	Training, Personnel selection, Exposure to specific experiences	Job design	Goal setting, feedback interventions, behaviour modification, improvement of action process, training

Source: Sonnentag and Frese, 2002.

2.14.3 Process Perspective

The process perspective is less interested in individual or situational determinants. Rather, it is interested in the performance process itself. According to Sonnentag and Frese (2002), the process perspective describes the variation between high and moderate performers while working on the job. The underlying finding and assumption is that high performers vary from moderate performers in the way in which they approach their jobs and how they arrive at solutions (Sonnentag, 2000). In other words, this perspective focuses on the chronological aspects of an action. Performance depends on high goals, a good mental model, and detailed planning and good feedback processes. Outstanding and average performers vary with respect to problem comprehension, planning, feedback processing, and task focus (Sonnentag, 1998).

The process perspective proposes that enhancement of the action process itself improves employee performance. Therefore, individuals should be supported to set long-range goals and to engage in appropriate planning, feedback seeking, and feedback processing. This perspective assumes that training interventions can be helpful in achieving such changes. Again, job design interventions can help to improve the action process (Wall and Jackson, 1995). In recent years most organisations have been able to deal with situational and process factors to increase performance. As such, these factors do not make a difference so much between organisations. The most important factor now is perhaps the individual perspective; hence, the importance of TM. TM relates to other organisational concepts such as business strategy, employee satisfaction, POS, commitment, and intention to quit.

2.15 Business Strategy

It has been noted in the literature that most organisational decisions are probably determined by the organisation's business strategy (Lepak and Snell, 1998). The concept of business strategy has been important in the strategic management literature. This is because strategy is an approach that is often used to specify the long-range goal of the organisation. Different business strategies have different features predominantly in their structure, process, and procedures (Miles and Snow,

1984). These characteristics make one organisation different from another according to the type of business strategy that it adopts. This then has an influence on the HR strategy and subsequently on TM practices. However, there is no universal definition of business strategy. Boxall and Purcel (2011: 39) argued that the notion of strategy is subject to several interpretations. A few of them are listed in table 2.9.

According to Armstrong (2010), strategy has three underlying features. First, strategy is forward looking and is about deciding where you want to go and how to get there. Second, the organisational capability depends on its resource capability. The last feature is strategic fit, which is the congruence between all aspects of the organisation and its external environment. According to these definitions, the central issue of business strategy rotates around the process of decision making that guide an organisation in a direction that ensures its survival as well as its continuous adaptation to the changes happening in its environment. For clarity purposes, however, business strategy has been classified into different typologies and these are discussed below.

Table 2.9 Summary of Business Strategy Definitions

Author(s)	**Definition**
Chandler (1992)	"The determination of the basic long term goals and objectives of the enterprise and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals"
Miles and Snow (1978)	"The consistent pattern in the decision that guide an organisation in competing in a given business"
Hofer and(1978)	"A course of action that matches an organisation's resources and skills with the opportunities and risks it faces in the environment as well as the mission it wishes to accomplish"
Snow and Hambrick (1980)	"The decisions to be directed at maintaining the organisation's alignment with its environment and managing the major internal interdependencies"
Porter (1980)	"The steps taken by an organisation to ensure or protect its competitive position in the market"

Table 2.9 (Continued)

Author(s)	Definition
Schuler and Jackson (1987)	"A series of systematic and related decisions that give organisations a competitive advantage relative to others"
Mintzberg (1990)	"A set of decisions about the direction of an organisation"
Robbins (1990)	"The determination of the basic long term goals and objectives of an enterprise and the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals"
Liao (2005)	"Is an integrated and coordinated sets of commitments and actions designed to exploit core competencies and gain a competitive advantage" (p. 295)

2.15.1 Typologies of Business Strategy

Business strategy is very important in the performance and survival of any organisation and for that reason several researchers have come up with different typologies, each involving a different pattern of competitive position, objectives, and competitive advantage (Hofer and Schendel, 1978; Porter, 1980). For instance, Miles and Snow (1978) identified four business strategies: defender, prospector, analyser, and reactor, while Porter (1980) classified business strategies into cost leadership, differentiation, focus, and stuck in the middle. Schuler and Jackson (1987) on their part have cost reduction, innovation, and quality business strategies. Similarly, Miller (1988) has differentiation (product innovation and innovative marketing), cost control, and breadth. Mintzberg (1978, 1987) also came up with six business strategies as follows: image differentiation, price differentiation, quality differentiation, support differentiation, customer scope, and design differentiation.

Miller (1988) builds on the work of Miles and Snow (1978), Miller (1986) and Porter (1980) and maintained that there are at least two different types of differentiation strategies: those based on product innovation and those based on intensive marketing and image management. Product innovation is aimed at uniquely attractive packages, good services, convenient locations, and good products that are

reliable while marketing innovation are based on leading competitors in quality, efficiency, and design innovation or style.

Undoubtedly, there are a number of business strategies in the literature but those of Miles and Snow (1978), Porter (1980), Schuler and Jackson (1987) and Miller (1988) were considered the most appropriate for this study. Furthermore, these typologies are widely accepted, recognised, and used (Murray, 1988; Zahra and Pearce, 1990; Parnell, 2000). Indeed, these typologies are the most accepted in terms of simplicity, accuracy, and generalisability through empirical analysis (Miller and Friesen, 1983; Parnell, 2000).

In addition, these typologies have generated substantial attention in both the empirical and theoretical literature on business strategy (Miller, 1986, 1988). Therefore, this study will use cost, quality, and innovative business strategies in line with Schuler and Jackson (1987). The focus of a quality-based strategy is to enhance the quality of the products and services. According to Schuler and Jackson (1987), a quality-based strategy aims to produce and deliver the highest quality products.

In this case employees must be trained to deliver quality services to their customers while at the same time being passionate about and responsive to the desires and needs of customers. Clearly a quality-based strategy will have a strong positive effect on the customer's loyalty and dependability regarding the organisation's services and products. It takes talented employees to produce quality products and services for their clients. The competitive nature of the business environment and the constant demand of the customers require talented employees to innovate and respond to the needs of the ever-demanding customers.

With reference to cost strategy, its main emphasis is cost reduction. Organisations that adopt this kind of strategy try to produce products and services more cheaply for their customers than their competitors (Schuler and Jackson, 1987). Their human resources make this possible by using the most efficient facilities and decreasing expenses related to production, research and development, services, selling, and advertising. This is where talented employees are needed. Talented employees are more efficient, effective, and smart, and produce at less cost. In other words, talented employees can help organisations produce at less cost to their customers through their initiatives, increased productivity, and the efficiency of the entire organisation.

Innovative strategy is sometimes referred to as differentiation strategy. It concentrates on product and marketing innovation in the form of innovation, new product development, and strategic aggressiveness towards competitors. It also includes an attempt to create a unique image for a product. In this way, the organisation needs to understand the preference of the customer and competing products in the market in order to appear unique and to inspire customer loyalty to reduce price elasticity (Porter, 1980; Miller, 1988).

The current business environment is characterized by uncertainties and competition, and for this reason innovative business strategies are more important than ever before. This is because in the present day customers demand the latest, stylish, and sophisticated products. These types of business strategies can be achieved if an organisation has the best talents. Indeed in this current global and information world, no organisation can depend on capital, technology or other non-human resources. TM, which emphasises the acquisition and management of talented employees, has become the last competitive advantage as the talents of these employees cannot be substituted or imitated by any organisation.

2.16 Perceived Organisational Support

Employees generally develop views on how their organisations value their contributions and care about their well-being. In the organisational context, this is called perceived organisational support (POS). As noted by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa (1986), POS is the perception of employees that their organisation is concerned about them. Therefore, POS is developed by the favourable treatment an employee has received from an organisation (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Aselage and Eisenberger, 2003). POS is essential if an organisation is to achieve important organisational outcomes. In other words, POS is important element in helping employees execute their jobs effectively. Studies have identified a number of rewards and favourable work conditions that are positively related to POS, such as employee skills development (Wayne, Shore and Liden, 1997), autonomy in job execution, improving working conditions (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002), among others.

In this study, TM is seen as an organisational support programme that pays attention to talented employees by valuing them, developing them, and motivating them. TM practices offer talented individuals favourable opportunities for rewards, job security, special job training, and job autonomy that allow them to take control of how they carry out their jobs, including work scheduling, work procedures, and task variety; and these are also considered as antecedents of POS (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002, Poocharoen and Lee, 2013).

In TM, talented employees are sought for and treated like competitive assets and therefore are bound to have the necessary support from their organisation. Employees with high levels of POS judge their jobs more favourably and are more interested in their organisation, leading to increased performance and reduced turnover (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). This is to say that employees that believe that they have been well supported by the organisation are more likely to reciprocate by performing better at their work than those reporting lower levels of POS (Wayne, Shore, and Liden, 1997). This means that POS will lead to increases in task, contextual, and task performance while counterproductive work behaviours and intention to quit will be reduced.

2.17 Employee Commitment

There is no doubt that employee commitment has been a topic of interest to most organisational researchers, but the literature contains considerable varying definitions (Meyer and Allen, 1990). According to Steers (1977), employee commitment was used to be called by Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) as attitudinal commitment, which is seen as the psychological state that reflects an employee's relationship to the organisation in terms of his or her identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. In this sense, employee commitment can be seen as a strong believe in and approval of a firm's values and goals, a keenness to put forth significant effort on behalf of the firm and a strong wish to continue membership with the firm (Porter et al., 1974).

Becker believes that employee commitment is purely economic (Becker, 1960). From his "side-bet" theory, he came up with the concept of cost-induced

organisational commitment. According to this concept, commitment is the propensity to engage in consistent lines of activity for reasons entirely irrelevant to the activity itself but with the recognition that there will be some costs or penalties involved in leaving the organisation, rather than on their affective, or emotional attachment to the organisation. Others see commitment as an obligation and that some individuals remain within an organisation because they believe that it is the right and moral thing to do. As noted by Wiener and Vardi (1980: 4), this approach to commitment includes the "value-based, normative evaluations of alternative organisation-related behaviours," as employees believe that is the right and accepted way to behave, and not because they are acting for their personal benefit.

Initially, the various organisational commitments were originally seen as separate types of organisational commitment but were later shown by Meyer and Allen (1997) to be three distinguishable components of organisational commitment, each of which can be experienced to varying degrees by an individual. Common to these three approaches is the view that "commitment is a psychological state that characterizes the employee's relationship with the organisation, and has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organisation" (Meyer and Allen, 1991: 7).

Meyer and Allen (1997) believe that commitment is multidimensional and therefore identified the "three components model," which has now been widely accepted in management and organisational research (Bagraim, 2003). The three components model is made up of affective, continuance, and normative commitment, which are seen as distinguishable components of organisational commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997). In order to make a clear distinction, affective commitment is generally about an employee's emotional connection, recognition with and participation in the organisation. Continuance commitment has to do with the consciousness of the cost connected with quitting an organisation. Normative commitment refers to the feeling of responsibility to continue with employment (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Allen and Meyer's classification is clearly not too different from Porter et al.'s (1974) attitudinal commitment, or Becker's cost-induced commitment and value-based obligation commitment stated above. In simple terms, Allen and Meyer (1997: 3)

states that “employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment remain because they need to and those with strong normative commitment remain because they ought to do so.” Therefore, because affective commitment is voluntary, most studies on organisational and employee commitment tend to use affective commitment.

2.18 Employee Satisfaction

Employee satisfaction is one of the most popular concepts in organisational research. This is because it has many important connotations for job-related behaviours such as productivity, commitment, absenteeism, and turnover. Locke (1976: 1304) long ago defined job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience.” However, Fields (2002) indicated that job satisfaction is a multifaceted construct with several dimensions. For instance, the Job Description Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1985) provides five subscales that measure different facets or dimensions of job satisfaction. These facets include satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with job, satisfaction with promotion opportunities, satisfaction with the supervision, and satisfaction with co-workers (Ironson et al., 1989).

Job satisfaction has many antecedents that affect the quality of work life (Winterton, 2004). Generally, three groups of variables have been identified that affect satisfaction. These are job/task-related characteristics, individual characteristics, and organisational characteristics (Zeffane, 1994). The factors that relate to the job/task-related dimension that impacts job performance include role ambiguity (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim and Carson, 2002; Rayton, 2006) and skills variety or complexity of work (Kinicki et al., 2002). Others include feedback from the job, person to job fit, work hours, workload or overload, job training, job involvement, and fairness of rewards and remuneration (Saks and Ashforth, 2002; Rayton, 2006; Scott, Gravelle, Simoens, Bojke and Sibbalds, 2006).

The organisational characteristic factors affecting job satisfaction include leadership characteristics, supervision, peer characteristics, person organisational fit, communication quality, career opportunities, and perceived knowledge of the

performance-appraisal process (Kristof-Brown, Jansen and Colbert, 2002; Kinicki et al., 2002; Rayton, 2006). Lastly, the individual characteristics of job satisfaction include personality disposition, age and level of education and health problems (Dorman and Zapf, 2001; Gazioglu and Tansel, 2006).

In this study it was anticipated that TM would have a significant positive impact on employee job satisfaction and that job satisfaction would mediate the relationship between TM and task, and contextual and adaptive performance, but would negatively mediate the relationship between TM and counterproductive behaviours as well as intention to quit.

2.19 Intention to Quit

Intention to quit or leave an organisation is basically an employee's behavioural intention. Tett and Meyer (1993: 2) defined intention to quit as a "conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organisation" which is often measured with reference to a particular time frame. On the other hand, turnover refers to actual separation from the membership of an organisation. It is generally accepted in the literature that employees leave an organisation for three main reasons: retirement, dismissal, or voluntary resignation (Winterton, 2004). Therefore, in most employee turnover studies, voluntary turnover statistics are often taken into consideration. Because is often difficult to obtain actual turnover data, intention to quit has been used over the years as a single indicator to represent turnover intention.

As stated in several studies, the intention to quit is the most important and immediate antecedent of the turnover decision (Tett and Meyer, 1993; Griffeth et al., 2000; Sutherland and Jordaan, 2004). Therefore, employee turnover will be measured with the intention to quit. The utilisation of TM practices can influence employees' likelihood of voluntarily not quitting their organisation. In this regard, various studies have suggested a negative association between TM practices and labour turnover (Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013). Because TM leads to important outcomes such as employee satisfaction, commitment, and POS (Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015), which are also seen as antecedents of intention to stay, this study views that TM will be negatively related to the intention to quit.

2.20 Chapter Summary

This chapter has comprehensively discussed all of the concepts involved in this study. The first part of the chapter discussed the concept of talent, TM, the various perspectives on talent/TM, and differentiated TM from HRM. Also discussed in the first part were the importance and benefits of TM, and the challenges and potential negative consequences of TM. The various strategies and practices as well as the components and elements of TM were discussed. The second part discussed the issue of employee performance and the various dimensions of employee performance as well as the various determinants/perspectives of employee performance.

In the third part, the concepts of business strategy, employee satisfaction, commitment, POS, and intention to quit were clearly discussed. The aim of the discussion was to provide a broad overview of the literature so that the relationships that will be provided in the next chapter will be understood. The next chapter will discuss the various theories that are related to TM and justify their use for this study. The second section of the chapter will discuss the relationship between TM and business strategies, and the relationship between TM and TM output. Also discussed in the next chapter is the relation between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit. Furthermore, the mediating role of TM output will be discussed. This discussion will lead to the development of the conceptual framework for this thesis.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the concept of TM and its related components, employee performance and its dimensions, as well as concepts such as business strategy, employee commitment, satisfaction, POS, and intention to quit. The aim was to provide general background information about the concepts in this study. This chapter has two main aims; first, to discuss the theories within which this study will be positioned. Thus, the social exchange theory (SET), ability, motivation and opportunity (AMO) theory, and signalling theory (ST) will be discussed thoroughly. The second aim is to discuss the relationships among the variables and provide a hypothesis for the study which will lead to the development of a conceptual framework for the study.

3.2 Theories Related to Talent Management

TM is a concept that has not yet manifested in grounded theory studies and the search for any theories that emerged as a result of any investigations or findings has been futile. Collings and Mellahi (2009) are of the view that there are a number of theoretical approaches that could inform the development of an enquiry into TM. Obviously, theories such as the human capital theory (HCT), RBV, SET, AMO theory, and ST are important in TM research. For instance, previous research (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; McDonnell, 2009; Tarique and Schuler, 2010) has suggested that HCT and RBV offer significant potential for TM research. The above studies added that HCT and RBV provide credibility for TM as a distinct and useful

management system through differentiating the field of TM as a significant strategic approach to the management of the firm's key talented individuals.

However, HCT and RBV are more related to TM research at the organisational level. The unit of analysis of this study was at the individual level and therefore required theories that describe individual behaviour appropriately. Björkman et al. (2013) in their study used SET as the appropriate theory for TM at the individual level. Similarly, Festing and Schafer (2014) in their framework of TM used SET as a theoretical background. At the individual level the AMO theory has often been deployed for analysis (Boselie, Dietz and Boon, 2005; Boxall and Purcell, 2008). ST also offers a great potential for TM research (Gelens et al., 2015).

This study will be positioned within the SET, AMO theory and ST theory. The reason for the adoption of more theories is based on the fact that a single theory is insufficient to capture the complexities involved in TM. Beech, Cairns, Livingstone, Lockyer and Tsoukas (2005: 17) have argued cogently that the adoption of a single theoretical perspective for TM research implies that the situation has a singular nature and can be viewed from a single position. However, the concept of TM is obviously not singular in nature but is complex.

This study draws on SET because it is basically a work motivation theory and is adopted for understanding the dynamics and effective nature of TM practices as a means of fostering employee commitment, satisfaction and motivation. SET has the ability to illustrate how people's needs influence and drive their behaviour at work as well as decision making, attitude formation, and the motivation of employees (Beech et al., 2005). SET provides a framework for understanding the cognitive, psychological, and behavioural processes that motivate and make talents committed to the TM process.

The AMO theory claims that employees' performance is a function of their ability, motivation, and opportunity. From the AMO perspective, it is only when talents are motivated and placed in the right position that they are able to perform. Thus, TM practices act as psychological forces on talents to produce changes in behaviour in terms of performance and intention to stay. In the view of the signalling theory, TM practices communicate messages constantly and in intended ways that are understood by talented employees to improve their performance (Gelens et al., 2015). Details of these theories and how they relate to TM are described below.

3.2.1 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) predicts that given certain conditions, people seek to react positively to those that bring benefit to them (Bateman and Organ, 1983). POS represents an essential part of the social exchange relationship between employees and the employer because it implies what the organisation has done for them, at least according to the employee's belief. Applying this to the workplace, an organisation that acts in a positive way towards employees generates reciprocity so that employees generally respond in positive ways that are beneficial to the organisation (Eder, 2008), thus establishing an exchange relationship (Setton, Bennett and Liden, 1996).

SET advocates that when organisations invest in their employee, they are likely to reciprocate these organisational investment in positive ways (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005), providing a helpful lens through which to understand the mechanisms involved in how talents interpret and react to TM practices. TM is seen as an investment in the identification, attraction, and subsequent training and development of talented employees. This will be seen by talented employees as valuable and support on the part of the organisation. Therefore, SET implies that employees that perceive high levels of support from the organisation are prone to pay back the organisation.

One essential way to reciprocate the organisation's favourable treatment is through continued participation, exerting more effort, leading to performance and avoidance of negative work attitudes (Allen, Shore and Griffeth, 2003). Building on SET, this study suggests that TM, which explicitly assumes differential treatment of selected employees, is likely to be viewed by talent pool members as an indication of their employer's commitment towards them (Meyer and Allen, 1991) and as discretionary future organisational support (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli and Lynch, 1997). This in turn is likely to lead to an internalised normative obligation to act in ways that meet organisational goals and interests (Allen and Meyer, 1990) in terms of performance, avoidance of negative behaviours, and intention to stay.

3.2.2 Ability, Motivation, and Opportunity Theory

The AMO theory states that an individual's performance is a function of his or her ability, motivation, and opportunity to participate (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Bailey

at al., 2001). The AMO theory theorised how HRM practices can increase the employee's performance by (a) enhancing his/her knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs), (b) creating opportunities for employees to act, and (c) encouraging and motivating employees to perform well for their organisation.

In a TM system, being identified as having high potential is already a confirmation of the fact that one possesses the desired abilities and receives the opportunity to act (Collings and Mellahi, 2009). Hence, the aspect of motivation to perform in particular is important in linking TM practices with employee outcomes. Organisations generate competitive advantage through improving employees' ability, and motivation and providing them with opportunities to participate in value creation, which then results in higher productivity and better organisational performance (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Bailey et al., 2001).

AMO theory attempts to conceptualise performance by considering an individual's performance as a function of his/her abilities, motivations, and the opportunities, which are needed for individuals to succeed in performing within their work environment (Boxall and Purcell, 2003). This is usually shown as P= f (A, M, O). Applying this to TM, ability is predetermined where talented employees are selected based on their potential or performance, hence with a relatively high level of ability. Additionally, because talented employees are put in strategic and key positions, they have opportunity (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). As a result, it is expected that motivation, which is both internal and external to the talented employee, emerges here as a mediating variable in the TM employee performance relationship (Collings and Mellahi, 2009).

Thus, AMO theory is based on improving performance through HR systems that pay attention to employees' interest such as skill requirements, motivation, and the quality of their jobs (Boselie et al., 2005). Since the fundamental principle of TM is recruiting high potential and performing employees, developing them in pivotal positions and supporting them with a differentiated HRM architecture, the AMO model suggests that higher levels of individual performance should be apparent (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). It has been found that motivation mediates the relationship between HRM practices and firm performance (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995; Becker and Gerhart, 1996). This idea is built on the

fact that employee motivation is a mediating variable between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit. Thus, the perception of a motivated TM program has important consequences for employee performance. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982: 27) claimed that "committed employees are willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organisation's well-being."

This reflects the view that work performance is a product of ability and motivation, which can be enhanced through TM (Chugh and Bhatnagar, 2006). Tobias (2007) urged firms to hire, develop, and retain motivated and capable people that have the "can do" (ability or capability) and the "will do" (motivation) factors relevant to the job. This study is positioned in the AMO theory view that implementation of TM practices will give employees opportunity and will motivate them to perform. The perception of a motivated TM system is therefore seen as a mediating variable in the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as intention to quit.

3.2.3 Signalling Theory

Signalling theory (Spence, 1973; Ross, 1977) is an important theory when describing and conducting research on the relationship between two parties. Even though the theory came out of finance and economics literature, it has been used in the HRM literature where a number of studies have examined the signalling that occurs during recruitment (Suazo, Martinez and Sandoval, 2009) and implementation of HRM practices. Signalling theory involves a dyad, the signallers and receivers, communicating one signal. In the management literature, the signalers and receivers generally represent person or persons such as recruiters, managers or employees (Connelly, Certo, Ireland and Reutzel, 2011). Signally theory suggests that the implementation or introduction of certain practices sends a signal to receivers who then act accordingly. The implementation of a TM system sends a signal to talents that they are valued and expected to reciprocate with improved performance.

TM practices can be seen as performing a symbolic or signalling function by sending messages that talents are performers and define the psychological meaning of their work situation. Thus, TM practices communicate messages continuously and in intended ways, and these messages are understood by talents to perform. Investment in TM and human capital may send a signal (Spence, 1973) as long as a high

investment in these types of capital is the favourite choice of talented people. This will also signal POS by talents who will then seek to create or continue a social exchange relationship with their organisation.

The perception that one's organisation offers these practices (TM) should thus be positively related to POS (Shore and Shore, 1995) and subsequently performance. This only occurs when the action is both discretionary and directed at the individual worker (talents) because benefits available to all employees regardless of performance would not be associated with POS because they do not signal to the worker that he/she is particularly valued (Shore and Shore, 1995). Table 3.1 summarises the theories that relates to TM used in this study.

Table 3.1 Summary of the Theoretical Approaches Examined in this Study

Theory	**Theoretical Suggestions**	**Link to Performance Outcomes**
Social Exchange Theory	The SET implies that employees that perceive high levels of support from the organisation are inclined to repay the organisation. This is based on the principle of reciprocity (Blau, 1964; Bateman and Organ, 1983).	When the organisation invests in the employment relationship by identifying the employee as having high potential, train and motivate that employee, they will feel obligated to reciprocate with beneficial attitudes and behaviours (Kuvaas and Dysvik, 2010).
AMO Theory	Performance is a function of employees' ability, motivation and opportunity to participate (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Bailey et al., 2001).	Recruiting, developing, deploying high-performing employees in pivotal positions and supporting them with a differentiated HR architecture leads to performance (Chugh and Bhatnagar, 2006; Collings and Mellahi, 2009).
Signalling Theory	Implementation of TM practices sends a signal of support and talents reciprocate with performance and intention to stay.	Employees are signalled through the adoption and implementing HR systems (TM) which are especially important for talents. A differentiated HR architecture is appropriate

3.3 Hypotheses and Conceptual Development

The first part of this section will specify the relationship between the variables in this study leading to the development of the hypotheses. The second part will put all together in a conceptual framework. A conceptual framework can be seen as an image or a symbolic representation of an abstract idea. Chinn and Kramer (1999) defined a conceptual framework as the complex mental formulation of experience. A conceptual framework is diagrammatic presentation where the research variables and the relationship between them are converted into a visual image to demonstrate the interconnections between the independent, intervening and dependent variables.

They explain that whereas a theoretical framework may be seen as the theory on which a study is based, a conceptual framework may be seen as the operationalisation of the theory. Thus, it is the researcher's own position on the problem and gives direction to the study. It may be a new, the adoption or adaptation of a model used in previous research with modifications to suit the present study (Chinn and Kramer, 1999).

3.3.1 Relationship between Business Strategy and TM

A popular idea within the TM literature is about connecting it to the strategy of the organisation (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Ulrich and Brockbank, 2005; Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Collings and Mellahi, 2009). Ashton and Morton (2005) advocated that organisations should take a systematic approach to TM by aligning TM to business goals, incorporating all related processes and systems to create a "talent mindset" in the organisation. According to Cannon and McGee (2007), effective work with talented people is based on TM strategy, which is derived from the organisation strategy. The success of TM is attributable to a strong belief in the importance of talent to the business strategy (DiRomualdo et al., 2009).

It has been argued that organisations that have excelled in TM, implemented a system that was internally consistent and reinforced the practices they used to attract, select, develop, evaluate and retain talents which are strongly aligned to their business strategy (Beechler and Woodward, 2009). TM will be valuable if it is driven by the short- and long-term needs of the organisation (Avedon and Scholes, 2010; Tarique

and Schuler, 2010). Linking TM to business strategy ensures that TM stays aligned and is monitored and measured throughout. Yost and Plunkett (2010) maintained that effective TM practices are always designed and implemented in the context of the business strategy. The Boston Consulting Group (2012) maintained that it is not sufficient to carry out people management practices in a linear manner to be successful because the logic behind TM is integration. In fact, Guthridge et al. (2006: 8) stated the following in this context:

> TM cannot be isolated from business strategy, those that rely solely on the HR to drive their strategy for talent are missing an opportunity to align the behaviour and capabilities of the workforce with the priorities of the business

According to Boudreau and Ramstad (2007) TM is considered a decision science in which talent is linked to organisational strategies and creates a link between employees and business strategies (Lewis and Heckman, 2006). Some researchers have argued that business strategy plays a key role in the performance of an organisation and often tends to put strategy first. Becker, Huselid, and Beatty (2009: 1) captured this as "put strategy, not people, first." This quotation sum-up the significance of business strategy as being the energetic force underpinning a successful TM strategy.

This is because each organisation needs to distinguish itself from its competitors through its choice of strategy if it wants to thrive and survive. Indeed, McDonnell (2011: 170) cogently argued that "TM calls for the strategy to be the starting point and flowing from this, the organization needs to ensure that they possess the talent to execute it." Campeanu-Sonea et al. (2011) added that TM starts with the business strategy and continues with the purpose of developing and maintaining a "nursery" of talent which would require of employees professional qualities, loyalty, and active involvement.

Recognising the influential role of business strategy in TM, Bersin and Associates (2007) developed a model that portrays TM as a continuous process starting from the business plan or the strategic objectives of the organisation. Bersin

and Associates added that a business plan determines the direction and strength of the talent efforts, which further helps the organisation in identifying talent-related challenges, and designing the relevant HR processes and talent strategies. In this way, Bersin and Associates believes that business strategy sets the direction and offers the needed procedures for workforce planning, recruitment, training and development, compensation planning, and decides the yardstick for performance management. Ballesteros and Inmaculada (2010) found that 73% of executives in USA agreed that there is a relationship between TM and business strategy. Indeed, Lockwood (2006) argued that organisations that appreciate the business case for TM effectively connect TM and business strategy, leading to increased workplace performance.

The importance of business strategy is reflected in how it informs employees concerning how it separates their organisation from the rest in an apparent way. This is because a fuzzy and general strategy does not provide proper guide to the actions of employees. Therefore, it is important to state clearly the goals of the organisation in such a way that they can be measured and that employees can understand their role in achieving them (Yllner and Brunila, 2013). Yllner and Brunila (2013) argued that an important precondition for successful TM is that the strategy work should be done cautiously before implementing TM. Therefore, TM ought to be tailored to the strategy of the organisation and not be based on best practices. However, most empirical studies on TM have tended to ignore the influence of business strategy on TM in their analysis.

Even though there are several strategies that an organisation might decide to follow in order to achieve competitive advantage, three kinds of generic strategies are frequently cited in the literature. These are generic business strategies [cost leadership, innovation, and quality] (Porter, 1980), competitive product strategies [defenders, prospectors, analysers, and reactors] (Miles and Snow, 1984), and generic corporate strategies [growth, stability, and defensive and combination strategies] (Anthony, Perrewe and Kacmar, 1996). This study adopts Porter's generic business strategies because they have been found to be relatively powerful predictors of organisational effectiveness (Youndt, Snell, Dean and Lepak, 1996) and researchers have underscored their connotations for an organisation's HRM policies (Schuler and Jackson, 1987). From this discussion, the following hypotheses have been created:

H1a: The quality enhancement business strategy is positively related to TM.

H1b: The innovative business strategy is positively related to TM.

H1c: The cost leadership business strategy is negatively related to TM

3.3.2 Relationship between TM and Employee Performance

Outstanding business performance is driven by higher talent. That is, people "are the difference" (Optimis Human Capital Management, 2011). Hence, talented employees are one of the most essential of all resources at the disposal of any organisation. In other words, the correct quantity and quality of talents is the determinant of employee performance and ultimately organisational performance. TM strategy and activities drive and support employees to perform. The fact that TM can improve on employee performance is reflected in some of the definitions. For instance, Ashton and Morton (2005) defined TM as the tactical and holistic approach to human resources and business planning that improves the performance and potential of people-the talent-that can make a quantifiable difference to the organisation at present and in the future. TM offers a mass of benefits to all three parties (individual employee, organisation, and HR professionals) that are involved in the TM system (Morton, 2005).

If TM is given appropriate attention through developing employees' skills and enriching their jobs, it will enhance the employees' current and future performance. It has been argued that all the different dimensions of TM affect performance (Wang and Chang, 2005; Mensah, 2015). According to Aswathappa (2005: 226-227), research studies have found a relationship between sound TM system on the one hand and employee job, knowledge, quality and quantity of output, initiative, leadership abilities, supervision, dependability, cooperation, judgement, versatility and health on the other hand. The work of Watson Wyatt Worldwide (2001) mentioned that there is a positive and significant relationship between TM and employee and organisational level results such as creativity and innovativeness, competence development, flexibility, financial results, and organisational culture.

Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015) in their study of 198 employees in Valencia, Spain found a positive relationship between TM and job performance. Wurim (2012) studied TM and employee productivity and concluded that TM practices significantly

impact employee productivity. Schiemann (2014) used the people equity framework, which is made up of alignment, capabilities, and engagement, to demonstrate individual and business outcomes of TM. He concluded that the important individual and business outcomes of TM are turnover reduction, financial performance, quality, productivity, and customer retention. Groysberg (2010) in a study of Wall Street equity analysts found that 85 percent of the respondents believed that their performance was independent of the companies they worked for, indicating that talent was what differentiated performance.

Kaur (2013) conducted a study on a TM program and its impact on the employee's retention and performance. The study found that more than half of the respondents agreed that TM was useful in terms of enhancing employee performance. It has been found that employees that perceived that they were identified as "talent" were more likely and demonstrate higher work effort, leading to higher performance, than those that were not identified as talents (Bjorkman et al., 2013; Gelens, Hofmans, Dries and Pepermans, 2014). Kehinde (2012) found in his study that 95 percent of organisations were either fully or partially applying TM because they realised the importance of TM in relation to the effective and efficient performance of their employees and senior staff. Lawler (2008: 5) maintained that TM has a number of benefits and one of them was that TM practices were certainly critical to innovation, change, and high performance. TM has been identified by several organisational executives as the factor that has the maximum bearing on the work performance of employees and the success of organisations.

Talent generates high performance, productivity, quality, and innovation (Gubman, 1998). A study conducted by Huselid (1995) showed that a high-performance TM system is related to colossal economic returns. Huselid added that the top 15 percent organisations that made use of high performance TM system were associated with an increase of $3,800 of profit per employee, $2,700 of sales per employee, and an increase of $18,600 of market value per employee. Undoubtedly, what these studies are emphasising is that organisations that bestow importance on TM practices have employees that are more involved in reaching performance. Based on the above discussion, it is very clear that TM affects employee performance.

A major limitation of these studies is that they did not look at employee performance from its various dimensions. The extant literature shows that employee performance has four dimensions [task, contextual adaptive and counterproductive] (Borman and Motowildo, 1993; Allworth and Hesketh, 1999; Pulakos et al., 2000; Sinclair and Tucker, 2006; Griffin et al., 2007; Koopmans et al., 2011). Therefore, it is not clear which of the performance dimension these studies are referring to. For instance, Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015) used only two items to measure job performance. This does not capture the totality of employee performance. However, TM may affect each of the dimensions differently. The use of a few items which do not capture entire employee performance has limited our understanding of how TM affects the various dimensions of employee performance. It was therefore essential for this study to find out how TM is related to each dimension of employee performance.

Mensah (2015) in a conceptual framework of TM and employee performance argued that TM relates to the various dimensions of employee performance differently. In other words, TM has a positive relationship with task, contextual and adaptive performance, while it has a negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviours.TM strategies seek to identify talented employees and harness their potentials to contribute positively and significantly to the performance of the organisation. Intuitively, one would expect such a talented employee to be competent in his/her job [task performance], be able to commit extra effort to the task [contextual performance] (Collings and Melahi, 2009), and be innovative and generate new ideas [adaptive performance] for their organisation. Therefore, it is expected that TM will positively and significantly relate to both task, contextual, and adaptive performance.

Counterproductive work behaviours are those behaviours that harm the well-being of the organisation. Even though there is a lack of empirical evidence in this context, it can generally be assumed that TM will be negatively related to counterproductive work behaviours. Two reasons may account for this negative relationship. First, TM emphasises the identification of talented individuals, “A” performers and high flyers, and therefore their performance is likely to be positive and avoid behaviours that affect the organisation. Second, most performing employees

will not engage in behaviours that harm their organisation. Based on the preceding discussion, I hypothesised the following:

H2a: TM is positively related to task performance.

H2b: TM is positively related to contextual performance.

H2c: TM is positively related to adaptive performance.

H2d: TM is negatively related to counterproductive work behaviours.

3.3.3 Relationship between TM and Intention to Quit

Because of the challenges involved in acquiring and managing talents as well as the positive contributions of talented employees to the performance of the organisation, organisations often make sure to retain their talented employees. According to Currivan (1999), employee turnover is often measured as the real movement of employees across the boundaries of an organisation. In TM, employee turnover mostly takes a voluntary form. It is however important to note that data on voluntary quitting are very difficult to obtain. As a result, several studies have validated the idea that intention to quit is the best determinant of employee turnover (Tett and Meyer, 1993; Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, 2000).

Increased employee retention has been proposed to have many valued and sought-after benefits for organisations as well as for the individual employee. In fact, Iles, Chuai, and Preece (2010) believe that attracting and retaining talents are the two fundamental necessities of TM. Hanif and Yunfei (2013) stated that effective TM guarantees that organisations can achieve the objective to retain talent. The concern of TM system should ensure that talented employees are acquired and retained in order to add value to the organisation (Bhatnagar, 2007). Collings and Mellahi (2009) advocated that organisations should differentiate their talent pools and invest in the development of high-value talent in order to retain them. TM will ensure that organisation can successfully attract and retain necessary talent (D'Annunzio-Green, 2008).

Tansley et al. (2006) found that employee development is a vital component of TM and it has a positive impact on the retention of high potentials. Chami-Malaeb and Garavan (2013) in their study of Lebanese firms found that talent development practices were positively related to the employee's intention to stay with their

organisation. Golden (2005) emphasised the importance of leadership development and succession planning as an important tool of TM for talent retention. Björkman et al. (2013) in their study compared three types of employees: those that thought they were identified as high potentials, those that presumed that they were not and those that did not know. They found that the self-perceived high potentials had lower turnover intentions than the rest. Firms that focus on strategic TM are likely to have lower attrition rates and lower absenteeism (Ernst and Young, 2010; Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011).

Festing and Schafer (2014) claimed that TM can be particularly helpful in retaining talented employees and can motivate them to stay with their organisations, thus reducing staff turnover rates. Anand (2011) studied TM and strategy at telecom major Bharti Airtel in India and found that the process of effective management of the talent pool reduced attrition and proportionately increased the average tenure of employees. Providing a critical review of the TM literature, Hughes and Rog (2008) found that the benefits of an effectively-implemented TM strategy improved employee retention rates.

Therefore, it was expected here that TM would be negatively related to employee intention to quit. This is because TM leads to employee satisfaction, commitment, and POS (Bhatnagar, 2007; Collings and Melahi, 2009; Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015) and these are antecedents of the negative intention to quit. Hence, I hypothesised as follows:

H3: TM is negatively related to the intention to quit.

3.3.4 Talent Management and Perceived Organisational Support

According to Allen et al. (2003) research has shown that HRM practices are antecedents of POS. In other words, HRM practices show that the organisation values and cares about its employees, is willing to invest in them, and recognises their contributions, and that this is a clear indication of organisational support. Plessis (2010) is of the view that TM can be classified as supportive HRM practice due to its differentiation and dedication to human capital investment. TM requires the identification and recruitment of talented employees and later invests in them in terms

of training and development, motivation, and a reward system. Hence, TM can be regarded as supportive organisational activity.

TM practices involve fast-track careers, scholarship schemes, training schemes, and special pay scales for those identified as talents (Poocharoen and Lee, 2013). Practices such as employee autonomy and control over how their work gets done, favourable opportunities for rewards, job security, and special job training which are embedded in TM are generally seen as antecedents to POS (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002, Poocharoen and Lee, 2013). According to Walner (2000), trusting talented employees to succeed means their organisations have confidence in their capabilities by giving them responsibility in the most important positions and activities. This increases their feelings and perception that they are valued by their organisation.

Plessis (2010) conducted a study on perceived TM, POS, perceived supervisor support, and intention to quit among generation Y employees. The findings showed that a practically positive relationship existed between TM and POS. In other words, Plessis came to the conclusion that one of the major outcomes of TM is POS. In a comparative study of employees designated as high potential and those non-designated as high potential in Brussels, Belgium, Gelens et al. (2015) came to the conclusion that employees designated as high potential felt more POS than those not designated as high potential. Mensah (2015) developed a conceptual framework of TM and employee performance and argued that the implementation of a TM system leads to POS.

This is consistent with SET, where employees interpret organisational actions, especially the TM system, as support on the part of the organisation. Thus, TM which clearly assumes differential treatment of selected employees (talents) is likely to be perceived by the talent pool members as a sign of their organisation's support of them and as openly future organisational support (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Again, from the signalling theory perspective, employees' perceptions of organisational actions such as a TM program or being designated as talent will form their reactions to a greater degree than their real actions. They may then interpret this as a signal of organizational support or appreciation. Based on the above studies, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H4: TM is positively related to perceived organisational support.

3.3.5 Talent Management and Employee Commitment

Employee commitment is one of the important concepts in HRM because of its direct relationship with employee and organisational performance. For that matter, TM in most organisations is used to achieve employee commitment (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Hartmann et al., 2010; Ping, 2011; Sonnenberg, 2010; Vural et al., 2012; Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013; Gelens et al., 2015; Mensah, 2015). As noted by Shore and Barksdale (1998), employees that feel that they are valued as talents are likely to be more committed to the organisation than employees that do not feel valued. Ping (2011) found that even though all TM practices were significant to organisational commitment, only engaging and developing talent were significant to the different components of organisational commitment. He concluded that TM practices play an important role in organisational commitment.

Vural et al. (2012) in their survey of 123 middle and senior managers concluded that TM as integrated HRM procedures and performance systems has a positive impact on employee commitment. Bethke-Langenegger et al. (2011) found that TM initiatives increased commitment in their study of 138 Swiss companies. Ophelders (2011) is of the view that exclusive talent segmentation may cause "talented" employees to feel valued more than "other" employees. Accordingly, it is logical to anticipate that these talented employees will be more affectively committed to the organisation than other employees. Studies have found that employees that take part in TM programmes are more committed to their company (Brouwer et al., 2009). Collings and Mellahi (2009) submitted that the strategic TM system has a positive impact on employee commitment.

Sonnenberg (2010) found that the more TM practices an organisation employs, the higher is the employee's levels of commitment. Chami-Malaeb and Garavan (2013) found that investment in talent development practices had a positive relationship with the affective commitment of employees. Bjorkman et al. (2013) in their study of 769 managers and professionals in nine Nordic multinational corporations found that employees that perceived that they have been recognised as talent are more likely to be committed than those that either perceived that they have not been identified or do not know whether they have been identified as talents.

Again, Marescaux, De Winne and Sels (2013) in a study of 13,639 Belgian employees found that perceived favourability of HRM practices (employee differentiation) was positively related to affective organisational commitment. Similarly, Gelens et al. (2015) in their comparative study of employees designated as high potential and non-designated as high potential in Brussels, Belgium, found that employees designated as high potential experienced more affective commitment to their organization than those non-designated as high potential. Mensah (2015) in a TM and employee performance framework argued that TM was positively related to employee commitment. Based on the above, the following hypothesis is stated:

H5: TM is positively related to employee commitment.

3.3.6 Talent Management and Employee Satisfaction

Employee satisfaction in recent years has become more important to both the employee and the employer. As such, more attention has been paid to the concept of employee satisfaction, both in research and theory. It been found that the implementation of TM practices makes talented employees feel appreciated and have higher motivation and stronger commitment (Gandossy and Kao, 2004). In a study conducted at the North Shore-LIJ (NSLIJ) Health System, it was found that TM practices have led to higher levels of employee satisfaction. The finding showed that satisfaction levels reached as high as eighty five percent at some NSLIJ facilities, which is well above the industry standard of fifty nine percent (National Centre for Healthcare Leadership, 2010).

Bethke-Langenegger et al. (2011) in their study of the effects of various TM strategies in 138 Swiss Companies found that TM initiatives aimed at retaining and developing talented employees have a positive impact on vital outcomes such as job satisfaction. Some studies have pointed out the positive impact on higher job satisfaction if talented employees are given career and development opportunities. In a study of 198 employees in Valencia, Spain, Lun-Arocas and Morley (2015) found a positive relationship between TM and employee satisfaction. The advantages of TM not only facilitate the financial growth in an organisation, but could also improve the working environment and employee satisfaction. They added that by providing the possibilities for personal development and the ability to move upwards in the organisational hierarchy, employees will feel appreciated and respected.

In a study of TM and distributive justice as well as its relationship with job satisfaction and work effort, Gelens et al. (2013) concluded that TM leads to higher levels of satisfaction even though this is mediated by perceptions of distributive justice. In a conceptual framework demonstrating the immediate outcomes of TM, Mensah (2015) argued that TM practices lead to employee satisfaction. Based on the empirical studies on the relationship between TM and satisfaction, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H6: TM is positively related to employee satisfaction.

3.3.7 Relationship between POS and Commitment as Well as Satisfaction

There is evidence that POS is related to important employee outcomes such as commitment and satisfaction. Eisenberger et al. (1986) argued that POS will influence employees' expectations of the organization in a variety of situations and therefore reported a positive correlation between POS and commitment. O'Driscoll and Randall (1999) in their study of dairy workers in Ireland and New Zealand found that POS was considerably associated with job involvement and affective commitment. Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli (2001) carried out three series of research to examine the interrelationships among work experiences, POS, affective commitment, and employee turnover.

In study two, they found that POS was positively related to temporal changes in affective commitment, signifying that POS leads to affective commitment. A meta-analysis carried out by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) revealed that POS was significantly and positively related to affective commitment. Aube, Rousseau, and Morin (2007) studied 249 Canadian prison employees and came to the conclusion that POS was considerably and positively related to affective and normative commitment. The relationship between POS and affective commitment can also be explained by using Blau's (1964) social exchange theory.

Thus actions related to organisational support (such as TM, promotions, salary increases, training) are often perceived by employees as signs of respect and good intentions on the part of their organisations, which in turn seems to increase their faith in and the quality of their relationship with their employer (Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Cheung, 2000; Chen, Aryee and Lee, 2005). That is, in

response to show their appreciation to their organisations, employees seems to develop a positive attitude towards their organisation, thereby increasing their level of affective commitment (Aube et al., 2007). There is some evidence that POS helps fulfil the desire for esteem, approval, affiliation, and emotional support (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo and Lynch, 1998). Because job satisfaction results from the evaluation of an employee's job as accomplishing or permitting the accomplishment of job standards that help fulfil one's needs (Locke, 1976), employees that perceive their organisation to be helpful to them will experience job satisfaction.

The feeling of being supported by the organization may generate among employees feelings of being favoured by the organization, comfort, personal worth, and competence that in turn give rise to positive moods (Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe, 2003), and positive moods has been found to be positively correlated with job satisfaction (Brief, Butcher and Roberson, 1995). Empirical study conducted by Tansky and Cohen (2001) found that POS was significantly correlated with managers' satisfaction. Therefore, on the basis of the empirical and theoretical evidence discussed, I propose the following hypothesis:

H7a: Perceived organizational support is positively related to commitment.

H7b: Perceived organizational support is positively related to satisfaction.

3.3.8 Perceived Organisational Support and Employee Performance

POS is about the employee's perception of the degree to which his or her organisation cares about him or her and values his or her contribution. Indeed, POS has been found to have a significant relationship with employee performance and well-being. TM is basically about the management and investing in employees in strategic and key organisational positions that contribute substantially to the performance of the organisation (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Collins and Mellahi, 2009). In this way, employees feel that their organisation cares about and values them. Empirically, Eisenberger et al. (1990) found positive association between POS and job performance. Eisenberger et al. (1990) found that superior levels of POS were associated with superior levels of conscientiousness in carrying out job responsibilities and innovation on behalf of the organisation.

Similarly, Armeli et al. (1998) found evidence for the positive effects of POS on performance in their study of police officers. In fact, numerous researchers have

found a positive association between POS and extra-role performance. These studies have found support for the view that the higher are the levels of POS, the more probable it is that employees will perform extra role behaviours that are beneficial to the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997). In their meta-analysis, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) concluded that the relationship between POS and extra-role performance directed to the organisation was greater than other dimensions of performance. Thus, it is possible that higher levels of POS will lead to increased task and adaptive performance.

This is clearly related to the social exchange theory. According to this theory, if employees perceived more support from their organisation, they will probably show greater attendance and effort, which in turn lead to better performance (Eisenberger et al., 1986). On the other hand, Chiang and Hsieh (2012) in their study on the hospitality sector found that POS did not positively influence job performance. This study adopts the view that POS studies offer proof in support of the proposition that there is a positive association between POS and employee performance.

In this study, it is argued that TM will produce a social exchange relationship among employees and employers. This will increase POS organisation and consequently employee performance. Therefore, POS will be positively related to task, contextual, and adaptive performance but will be negatively related to counterproductive work behaviours. Hence, the following are hypothesized:

H8a: POS is positively related to task performance.

H8b: POS is positively related to contextual performance.

H8c: POS is positively related to adaptive performance.

H8d: POS is negatively related to counterproductive behaviours.

3.3.9 Employee Satisfaction and Employee Performance

Job satisfaction has long been considered to be very important and has been considerably researched owing to its implications for related behaviours such as productivity, absenteeism, and turnover (Oshagbemi, 1999). The relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance is very controversial. That is, some studies are of the view that satisfaction leads to performance while others believe otherwise. For instance, Bowling (2007) came to the conclusion that a cause and effect

relationship exists between job satisfaction and performance. They added that they are associated because both are the consequences of employee personality characteristics such as self-esteem, emotional stability, extroversion, and conscientiousness. However, other studies explained that there is a relationship between employee job satisfaction and work performance (Petty, McGee and Cavender, 1984).

Kornhanuser and Sharp (1976) conducted more than thirty researches with the purpose of establishing a relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance in the industrial sector. They came to the conclusion that job satisfaction is positively associated with performance. Similarly, Mirvis and Lawer (1977) produced conclusive findings and argued that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and performance. Tait, Padgett, and Baldwin (1989) established that job satisfaction is associated with job performance. Again, Morrison (1997) found a strong correlation between job satisfaction and performance while Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) established a weak association between the two.

Mcshane and Glinow (2000) maintained that job satisfaction and performance might occur because satisfied employees engaged in more organisational citizenship behaviour (contextual performance). Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015) found that job satisfaction was strongly associated with job performance. This study adopts the notion that employee satisfaction will be positively related with employee performance in terms of task, contextual and adaptive performance but will be negatively related to counterproductive behaviours. I therefore hypothesised as follows:

H9a: Employee satisfaction is positively related to task performance

H9b: Employee satisfaction is positively related to contextual performance

H9c: Employee satisfaction is positively related to adaptive performance

H9d: Employee performance is negatively related to counterproductive behaviours

3.3.10 Employee Commitment and Employee Performance

Among the three components of employee commitment, affective commitment has been the most extensively studied (Wasti, 2003; Winterton, 2004) because it has been proven to have a reliable relationship with organisational

outcomes such as performance, attendance, and retention (Meyer and Allen, 1997). The relationship is such that committed employees are more likely to exert maximum effort and therefore are considered as performing employees. Bagraim (2003) argued that research on employee commitment has shown that there are several organisational benefits from better organisational commitment.

Some of these gains are revealed through the establishment of momentous connecting links between organisational commitment and higher levels of performance (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Winterton, 2004), increased employee discretionary effort, and improved employee wellness (Meyer and Allen, 1997). In other words, the willingness to exert effort is mostly considered as a direct outcome of commitment that contributes to performance. Eisenberger et al. (2001) and Rhoades et al. (2001) maintained that employees tend to reciprocate their organisation's support with higher commitment with the aim of maintaining their self-image; avoid the stigma associated with violation of the reciprocity norm and thereby encouraging future favourable treatment from their organisation.

Khan, Ziauddin, Jam and Ramay (2010) found that employee performance has a positive and significant effect on employee performance. Clearly, this position takes inspiration from Mowday et al. (1982: 27), who argued that "committed employees are willing to give something of themselves in other to contribute to the organisation's well-being." From this evidence in the literature, it could be suggested that employee commitment has a positive link with task, contextual, and adaptive performance. The literature also suggests that committed employees have strong attachment to their organisations and therefore will not engage in counterproductive work behaviours (Mensah, 2015). Based on the above stream of literature, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

H10a: Employee commitment is positively related to task performance

H10b: Employee commitment is positively related to contextual performance

H10c: Employee commitment is positively related to adaptive performance

H10d: Employee commitment is negatively related to counterproductive behaviours

3.3.11 Perceived Organisational Support and Intention to Quit

According to the SET perspective (Blau, 1964) and organisational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986), employees that perceived high levels of support from their organisations are predisposed to repay their organisation with unremitting participation (Allen et al., 2003). Eisenberger et al. (1986) found that employees reciprocated POS with reduced absenteeism. Indeed, Eisenberger et al. (1990) maintained that employees with high levels of POS are less expected to seek out and accept jobs in alternative organisations. Guzzo, Noonan, and Elron (1994) concluded that expatriates managers that perceived higher levels of support from their organisation were less likely to search for employment somewhere else.

In other words, higher levels of POS create obligations within employees to repay their organisation with continued stay (Settoon, Bennett and Liden, 1996). The negative relationship between POS and turnover intention was also apparent in the study of Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997). Similarly, Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Suckarski, and Rhoades (2002) found that the desire to remain with an organisation was positively related to POS. In their meta-analysis, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) concluded that there was a negative relationship between POS and turnover intentions. Later, Riggle, Edmondson, and Hansen (2009) in a meta-analysis of 167 studies found that POS had a strong negative impact on the intention to leave.

Mensah (2015) submitted that POS is important in that it serves an antecedent to the intention to stay or is negatively related to the intention to quit. Based on this research, this study holds the view that POS is negatively related to the intention to quit and states the hypothesis as follows:

H11: POS is negatively related to the intention to quit.

3.3.12 Employee Satisfaction and Intention to Quit

According to Locke (1976) employee satisfaction is a subjective emotional assessment made intentionally or unintentionally by an employee and is defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences.” Several studies have shown the effect of job satisfaction on turnover intentions (Koslowsky, 1991). Most theoretical models that incorporate the concept of the intent to quit demonstrate the effect of employee satisfaction in exerting a

negative consequence on turnover cognitions (Price, 2001). Several meta-analytic studies have come to the same conclusion that employee satisfaction is negatively related to employee turnover (Hom and Griffeth, 1995; Carsten and Spector, 1987; Steel and Ovalle, 1984).

Robust statistical techniques such as structural equation modelling support the viability of a causal relationship between satisfaction and turnover (Price and Mueller, 1986; Hom and Griffeth, 1995). In other words, lack of employee commitment has been found to be positively related to the intention to quit (Rahim and Psenicka, 1996). Studies such as those of Babakus, Cravens, Johnston and Moncrief (1996) and Hussain, Khan and Bavik (2003) have argued that job satisfaction is negatively related to the employee's propensity to leave their organisation. Ennew, Banerjree, and Li (2000) maintained that employees that are satisfied do not display a quitting intention. Gaylard, Sutherland, and Viedge (2005) stated that the concept of job satisfaction is very important and has consistently been raised in the literature as one of the key basic areas of employee retention.

Job satisfaction has been found to have a negative effect on the intention to look for an alternative job, the intention to quit, and actual quitting (Scott et al., 2006). Mosadeghrad, Ferlie and Rosenberg (2008) in a study of the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention among 629 hospital employees found that job satisfaction had a strong correlation with turnover intention. From the above, it can be argued that the greater is the job satisfaction, the less is the likelihood that the individual will leave the organisation. Therefore, employee satisfaction appears to be influential in reducing employee turnover. This position is adopted in this study and I hypothesised as follows:

H12: Employee satisfaction is negatively related to the intention to quit.

3.3.13 Employee Commitment and Intention to Quit

Many studies support the view that affective commitment appears to be a stronger predictor of reduced turnover intention (Bagraim, 2003; Stallworth, 2003) than continuance and normative commitment. Whitener and Walz (1993) in their survey of bank tellers found that affective commitment significantly predicted the intent to turnover. Somers (1995) in a study of 422 staff nurses in a large urban

hospital in the mid-eastern United States concluded that affective commitment was the most regular predictor of reduced turnover intentions. Stanley, Meyer, Topplnytsky, and Herscovitch (1999) in their meta-analyses of the correlations between commitment and turnover intentions found that all three dimensions of organisational commitment (continuance, affective, and normative) were negatively correlated with turnover intention; however, affective commitment was stronger, followed by normative and continuance commitment.

Similarly, in a study of 255 researchers from eight business-related research institutes in Korea, Chang (1999) found that both affective and continuance commitment showed considerable negative effects on turnover intentions, with affective commitment having the stronger effect. It has been established in the literature that there is a negative relationship between employee commitment and turnover intention because employees with positive attitudes are less likely to quit an organisation (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolyntsky, 2002). A study by Stallworth (2003) concluded that both normative and continuance commitment had a less significant ability to predict the intention to leave or actual turnover compared with affective commitment.

Since this study is on the impact of TM on employee performance through the mediating role of employee commitment, affective commitment appears to be the most suitable dimension of employee commitment for predictive purposes. Therefore, the affective commitment dimension of employee commitment will be used as the measure of the employee's commitment to his or her organisation. Elangovan (2001) came to the conclusion, that there is a behavioural correlation between commitment and intention to quit. Employees that are most committed perform twenty percent better and are eighty-seven percent less likely to resign (Lockwood, 2006). Hence, I hypothesised as follows:

H13: Employee commitment is negatively related to the intention to quit.

3.3.14 Mediating Role of POS in the Relationship between TM and Employee Performance

There has been a great deal of interest in POS among researchers in the fields of management and psychology (Einsenberger et al., 1986; Einsenberger et al., 1997;

Armeli et al., 1998; Allen et al., 2003). This is because POS creates positive employee attitudes and behaviours, particularly regarding performance and employee retention (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Chiang and Hsieh, 2012). TM practices, like HRM practices, are seen as antecedents of POS (Walner, 2000; Plessis, 2010; Gelens et al., 2015; Mensah, 2015). Studies have also found a positive relationship between POS and employee performance (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Armeli et al., 1998; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). In a review of the TM literature, Gelens et al. (2013) proposed that POS mediates the relationship between TM and its outcomes.

Similarly, Mensah (2015) argued that the relationship between TM and employee performance will be mediated by POS. Relating this to HPWS and HRM research, it has been found that POS mediates the relationship between HPWS and operational performance (Gelade and Ivery, 2003; Sun, Aryee and Law, 2007). This is also based on SET, which suggests that when employers invest in their employees, they tend to see that support from the employee and are likely to reciprocate their employers in positive ways such as in performance. Therefore, POS becomes the mediator in the relationship between TM and employee performance. Based on the above, the mediating role of POS between TM and employee performance is hypothesized as follows:

H14a: POS mediates the positive relationship between TM and task performance.

H14b: POS mediates the positive relationship between TM and contextual performance.

H14c: POS mediates the positive relationship between TM and adaptive performance.

H14d: POS mediates the negative relationship between TM and counterproductive behaviours.

3.3.15 Mediating Role of Commitment in the Relationship between TM and Employee Performance

Commitment has been use as an antecedent as well as a mediating variable in most HRM and HPWP research. In the development and evaluation of a partial TM structural mode, Oehley and Theron (2010) argued that commitment is an intervening

variable between outcomes such as performance. Similarly, Collings and Mellahi (2009) maintained that the relationship between TM and performance is mediated by organisational commitment. Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015) in their study of TM and job performance in Valencia, Spain recommended that other variables such as commitment can be used as a mediating variable in the relationship between TM and employee performance

In a conceptual framework explaining the relationship between TM and employee performance, Mensah (2015) argued that commitment serves as a mediator in this relationship. This mediation role of commitment is also based on SET in that where employees perceived support from their employers in terms of good HRM practices (TM) they tend to be committed to reciprocate the employer. In this way, organisational commitment stimulates a positive link between effective TM and performance. Accordingly, I propose the following hypotheses:

H15a: Employee commitment mediates the positive relationship between TM and task performance.

H15b: Employee commitment mediates the positive relationship between TM and contextual performance.

H15c: Employee commitment mediates the positive relationship between TM and adaptive performance.

H15d: Employee commitment mediates the negative relationship between TM and counterproductive behaviours.

3.3.16 Mediating Role of Satisfaction in the Relationship between TM and Employee Performance

The role of job satisfaction as a mediator between HRM/HPWP/HPWS has been studied for a long time. Collings and Mellahi (2009) in their strategic TM framework, argued that the relationship between strategic TM and performance may not be direct and that the relationship is mediated by satisfaction. Oehley and Theron (2010) in their development and evaluation of a partial TM structural model argued that job satisfaction is usually proposed as intervening variable between other determinants and outcomes such as performance. Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015)

conducted a study on TM using a sample of 198 employees working in Valencia, Spain. The results of the study suggest that TM practices have a relationship with employee job performance, but this relationship is mediated by employee job satisfaction.

In a framework demonstrating the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance, it was argued that the TM system leads to employee performance but is mediated by employee satisfaction (Mensah, 2015). It can also be derived from SET that TM practices which represent supportive HRM systems will lead to employee satisfaction and that these satisfied employees will reciprocate their employers with performance. These studies have indicated that the relationship between TM and employee performance may be mediated by employee satisfaction; hence there was a need to confirm this mediating role by conducting this study. Based on this, I hypothesised as follows:

H16a: Employee satisfaction mediates the positive relationship between TM and task performance.

H16b: Employee satisfaction mediates the positive relationship between TM and contextual performance.

H16c: Employee satisfaction mediates the positive relationship between TM and adaptive performance.

H16d: Employee satisfaction mediates the negative relationship between TM and counterproductive behaviours.

3.3.17 Mediating Role of POS in the Relationship between TM and Intention to Quit

Allen et al. (2003) in their study of the role of POS and supportive HR practices in the turnover process found that POS was negatively related to withdrawal but that the relationship was mediated. Plessis (2010) in a study of the relationship between TM practices, POS, perceived supervisor support, and intention to quit found that POS mediated the relationship between TM and employee intention to quit. In TM research, the treatment and alignment of talented employees with the goals of the organisations makes talented employees feel supported by their organisation. Indeed,

the talent development programmes and autonomy enjoyed by talented employees demonstrates the extent to which their organisation cares about them.

Therefore, such employees may have little intention to leave their organisation. This is also based on SET, where resources such as training and development opportunities are allocated to talents and can cause positive effects of POS which will then lower turnover intentions. Hence, in this study POS mediates the negative relationship between TM and talented employees' intention to quit. Little evidence and research have so far been conducted on this mediated relationship and this makes it important to explore this relationship through empirical research. I therefore, provide the following hypothesis:

H17: POS mediates the relationship between TM and the intention to quit.

3.3.18 Mediating Role of Commitment in the Relationship between TM and Intention to Quit

Pare and Tremblay (2007) in their study of the mediating role of commitment in the relationship between HRM and turnover intention among IT professionals found that commitment acted as a partial mediator. Oehley and Theron (2010) in their development and evaluation of a partial TM structural model in South Africa found that employee commitment mediated the relationship between TM and the intention to quit. Similarly, Hess, Jepsen, and Dries (2012) concluded that the relationship between TM practices and the intention to stay may not be a direct one but rather may be mediated by affective commitment. Ghosh, Reio, and Haynes (2012) support the proposition that affective commitment mediates the relationship between TM and the intention to stay. In a study of talent and leadership development practices as drivers of intention to stay in Lebanese organisations, Chami-Malaeb and Garavan (2013) found that affective commitment partially mediated the relationship between talent development and employee's intention to stay. Accordingly, I propose the following hypothesis:

H18: Employee commitment mediates the relationship between TM and the intention to quit.

3.3.19 The Mediating Role of Satisfaction in the Relationship between TM and Intention to

Oehley and Theron (2010) in their development and evaluation of a partial TM structural model found that employee satisfaction mediated the relationship between TM and the intention to quit. In a review of the empirical literature on TM and employee retention in Kenya, Kibui, Gachunga, and Namusonge (2014) argued that the relationship between TM and employee retention was not direct and that employee satisfaction mediated the relationship. TM may lead to employee satisfaction while employee satisfaction may also reduce the employee's intention to quit. Therefore, in this study it was expected that employee satisfaction would mediate the negative relationship between TM and the intention to quit. This position is based on the notion that TM leads to employee satisfaction and that satisfied employees are less likely to quit their job. This has however been less researched in the TM literature and in this study such a proposition will be subjected to empirical testing. As a result, I made the following hypothesis:

H19: Employee satisfaction mediates the relationship between TM and the intention to quit.

Based on the relationship between the variables above and SET, AMO theory, and ST, I developed and hypothesized a research model for this study (figure 3.1). In other words, the influence of business strategy in the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit through the mediating role of TM outputs is displayed in figure 3.1 as the research model for this study. The model proposed here represents the inter-relationships of various variables and constructs that exist independently of the researcher. The variables used in the model have been derived from theoretical and empirical research examining TM. The elements or components of this framework were taken from several sources. First, the component of business strategies was adopted from generic business strategies because they are widely accepted, recognised, simple, accurate, and generalisable through empirical analysis (Miller and Friesen, 1983; Porter, 1980; Parnell, 2000).

Second, TM was measured with five dimensions as adopted from Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015). According to Luna-Arocas and Morley, TM is made up of five dimensions: talent alignment, talent application, talent competency, talent

autonomy, and talent development. These dimensions were adopted because they appeared to be fully supported in the TM literature (McCauley and Wakefield, 2006; Farndale et al., 2010; Kim and Scullion, 2011; Nilson and Ellström, 2012; Stahl et al., 2012). Third, the component of TM outputs was made up of employee commitment, satisfaction, and POS. These outputs were used because they have been demonstrated in the TM literature to be the immediate outcomes of TM (Lockwood, 2006; Bhatnagar, 2007; Hughes and Rogs, 2008; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Anand, 2011; Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013; Barkhuizen et al., 2014; Gelens et al., 2015; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015).

Fourth, the component of employee performance was adopted from Koopmans et al. (2011). Koopmans et al. (2011) conducted a comprehensive review of the employee performance literature and concluded that the totality of employee performance consisted of four dimensions: task, contextual, adaptive, and counterproductive work behaviours. Therefore, in order to capture all of the dimensions of employee performance, these were adopted. Finally, TM was related to employee retention or quitting and since the data on quitting are difficult to obtain, and the intention to quit is often used because it is the last stage of the decision to quit a job (Tett and Meyer, 1993; Griffeth, Hom and Gaertner, 2000; Sutherland and Jordaan, 2004). This framework as shown in figure 3.1 will guide this thesis and SEM will be used to test the relationship between the variables.

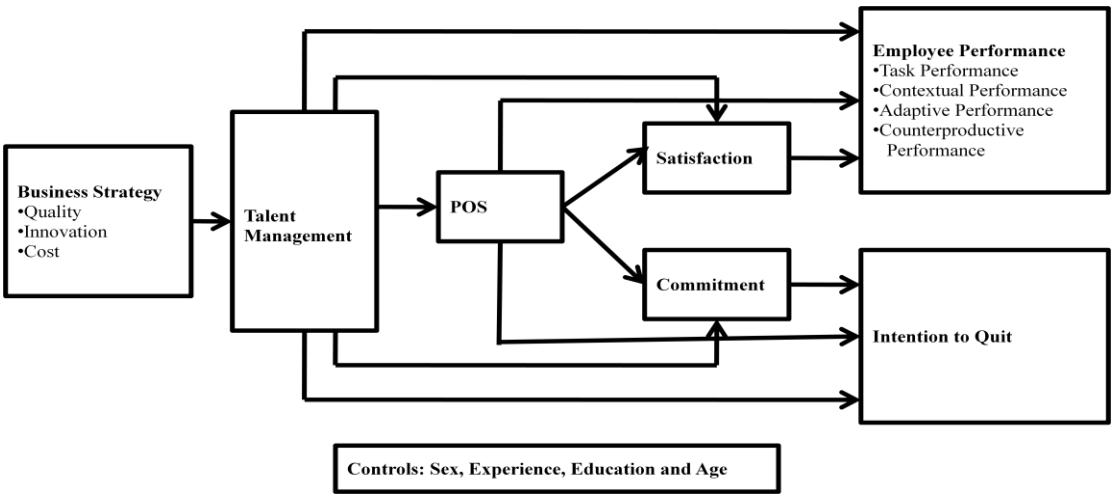


Figure 3.1 Talent Management-Employee Performance Linkage Framework

This framework shows that TM is affected by the business strategy of the organisation. The idea to develop a TM strategy is determined by the business strategy of the organisation. This is based on the increasingly advocated idea that in order to achieve performance, cope with the increasing rapid pace of change, and sustain success, an organisation must align and integrate its TM system with its business strategy (Ashton and Morton, 2005; Guthridge, Komm and Lawson, 2006; McCauley and Wakefield, 2006; Beechler and Woodward, 2009; McDonnell, 2011). In other words, the business strategy of the organisation often shapes its TM strategy.

TM is related to employee performance and as well as the intention to quit. However, this framework is of the view that the relationship may not be direct and that TM output mediates the relationship between TM and employee performance, and the intention to quit. Therefore, this model not only represents the direct path of TM on employee performance as well as the intention to quit, but also the indirect effect of TM outputs variables on this relationship. This model has distinctive and unique features. First, it captures all of the dimensions of employee performance and organisations implementing TM strategy will have a comprehensive view of how TM will impact the various dimensions.

Second, it is comprehensive as it captures all of the important variables that affect TM (business strategy) and that are affected by TM (TM outputs, employee performance, and intention to quit). Previous studies have tended to look at TM in relation to single variables such as job performance, satisfaction, commitment, POS, and retention. However, this framework captures all of these variables together and thus organisations will be able have a comprehensive view of how TM affects employees' performance. Third, for the purpose of practice, this framework can be used in all organisations that are practicing TM as it provides a clear path for implementing a TM strategy in order to get expected results. At the same time it can be used by TM researchers. Therefore, both researchers and managers can benefit from this conceptual framework; the former can use the framework as the basis for theorising and empirical work, while the latter can use it to inform the organisation's strategy and practices.

3.4 Control Variables

The context in which this study was carried out clearly exhibited so many common characteristics. Only a few variables needed to be controlled. Among these were years employed in the organisation (experience), educational level, age, and sex. These variables were found to be related to job attitudes (Guthrie, 2001; Datta, Guthrie and Wright, 2005; Takeuchi, Lepak, Wang and Takeuchi, 2007). Therefore, these variables were controlled for in order to isolate the impact they had on both employee performance and the intention to quit. This helped to eliminate any spurious effects that may have contaminated the results.

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the three theoretical perspectives within which this study was positioned. That is, SET, AMO theory, and signalling theory were thoroughly discussed, highlighting their appropriateness for this study. These theories are related to TM and were adopted because the phenomenon under study was complex and not clearly rooted in one particular theory. The second part discussed the relationships between the various variables used in the study, culminating in the development of the conceptual framework. In other words, the extant literature showed that TM was related positively to task, contextual and adaptive performance but was negatively related to counterproductive behaviours and the intention to quit.

The literature also demonstrated the influence of business strategy on TM. Similarly, TM is related to TM outputs while TM outputs are then related to employee performance and the intention to quit. Finally, TM outputs mediate the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit. Also, discussed in this chapter were the control variables such as age, education, experience and sex used in this study. The next chapter will discuss the methodology and methods that will be used.

Table 3.2 Summary of Research Hypotheses

Number	Hypothesized relationship	Expected Sign
H1a	Quality Strategy → TM	+
H1b	Innovation Strategy → TM	+
H1c	Cost Strategy → TM	-
H2a	TM →Task	+
H2b	TM → Contextual	+
H2c	TM → Adaptive	+
H2d	TM → CPWB	-
H3	TM → Quit	-
H4	TM → POS	+
H5	TM → Commitment	+
H6	TM → Satisfaction	+
H7a	POS → Commitment	+
H7b	POS → Satisfaction	+
H8a	POS →Task	+
H8b	POS →Contextual	+
H8c	POS →Adaptive	+
H8d	POS →CPWB	-
H9a	Satisfaction →Task	+
H9b	Satisfaction →Contextual	+
H9c	Satisfaction →Adaptive	+
H9d	Satisfaction →CPWB	-
H10a	Commitment → Task	+
H10b	Commitment → Contextual	+
H10c	Commitment → Adaptive	+
H10d	Commitment → CPWB	-
H11	POS → Quit	-
H12	Satisfaction → Quit	-
H13	Commitment → Quit	-
H14a	TM → POS → Task	Mediate
H14b	TM → POS → Contextual	Mediate
H14c	TM → POS → Adaptive	Mediate
H14d	TM → POS → CPWB	Mediate
H15a	TM → Commitment → Task	Mediate
H15b	TM → Commitment → Contextual	Mediate
H15c	TM → Commitment → Adaptive	Mediate
H15d	TM → Commitment → CPWB	Mediate
H16a	TM → Satisfaction → Task	Mediate
H16b	TM → Satisfaction → Contextual	Mediate
H16c	TM → Satisfaction → Adaptive	Mediate
H16d	TM → Satisfaction → CPWB	Mediate
H17	TM → POS → Intention to Quit	Mediate
H18	TM → Commitment → Intention to Quit	Mediate
H19	TM → Satisfaction → Intention to Quit	Mediate

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter examined the various theories related to TM and employee performance as well as the relationship between the variables and hypotheses, leading to the development of the conceptual framework. This chapter will present a detailed methodology and the research design that will be used to conduct this study. This chapter is organized around six main sections: the research paradigm/philosophy, research design, research context, data collection method, research sampling, and data analysis technique.

4.2 Research Paradigm/Philosophy

The way in which research is conducted may be conceived of in terms of the research philosophy subscribed to. A research philosophy is a belief about the way in which data about a phenomenon should be gathered, analysed, and used. According to Creswell (2014) a paradigm or worldview is a basic set of beliefs that guide action. A paradigm is a model or frame of reference through which to observe and understand (Babbie, 2013). Even though there are many research paradigms, the two main ones are positivism and interpretivism.

Positivism is based on a highly-structured methodology to enable generalization and quantifiable observations and to evaluate the results with statistical methods (Saunders, 2003). Hence, with the aid of positivism, researchers can collect all the facts and figures that are associated with the research issue through general sources. Under positivism, a researcher plays the role of an objective analyst to evaluate the collected data and produces an appropriate result in order to achieve the research aims and objectives (Saunders, 2003).

On the other hand, the interpretive paradigm suggests that the world is too complex to be formulated in theories and laws. Therefore, interpretivism views that there are many truths and meanings to the extent that these are suitable for every situation and for every research problem (Johnson and Christensen, 2010). With this principle in mind, the researcher not only interacts with the environment but also seeks to make sense of it through the interpretation of events and the meaning that he/she draws from these (Saunders, 2003). Another paradigm which is quite new in management research is critical realism (Thomas, 2004).

Critical realism is generally seen as a "middle ground" between positivism and interpretivism (Krauss, 2005: 767). It shares with positivism the idea that there is an outside world that is present independent of our knowledge of it. However, it is also like positivism in that it assumes that the world is not essentially meaningful but is made meaningful by people's interpretation of it (Thomas, 2004). From the perspective of the critical realist, there is a difference between reality and the perception of reality by people (Bisman, 2002). It differs from positivism and interpretivism with respect to causes and explanations in that it seeks to explain what can be observed in terms of basic structural mechanisms.

However, whether a researcher uses positivism, interpretivism or critical realism depends on the research problem being investigated and the objective of the study. This study adopts a positivist paradigm as the study is quantitative and seeks to establish the relationship and mediators through which TM leads to employee performance and the intention to quit. Based on the objective of this study, the positivist paradigm was appropriate because it tends toward the use of survey questionnaires for data collection ad statistical analysis for hypothesis testing so that relationships can be explained and a valid and generalisable conclusion can be reached. Donaldson (1996) argues for positivism as the best approach for organisational analysis. The use of the positivist approach eliminates the possibility of the researcher's values or beliefs influencing the study as the researcher acts independently from the participants.

The use of positivism has a number of strengths (Kim, 2003). First, a positivistic approach of inquiry facilitates the attempt to gain more output for a researcher's input since it seeks to determine how change in one variable will cause

change in another (causal relationships). Second, empirically-grounded techniques in the positivist paradigm decrease the researchers' biases and values that may contaminate the research process. Third, a positivist paradigm helps produce knowledge that is externally valid. That is, the findings of positivist research can be generalized and applied beyond the situation in which the study was originally conducted. Finally, positivism might help capture the discrepancy between theories and a study hypothesis, and as a result, challenge previously-accepted ideas to resolve inconsistencies. Hence, positivism assists in the refinement of current theories by questioning them for more refined applications instead of dwelling on the antecedents of past research.

Table 4.1 summaries the major differences between both epistemologies. According to Thomas (2004) two main epistemological orientations have dominated management research: positivism and constructionism (interpretivism).

Table 4.1 Differences between Positivism and Constructionism

Epistemology	**Positivism**	**Constructionism**
Preferred conceptions of:		
The human world	Set of natural objects	Set of human meanings
Analytical approach	Variable analysis	Cultural analysis
Theory of human structure and action	Behaviourism Explain actions in terms of structures	Symbolic interactionism Explain structures in terms of actions
Knowledge	General, nomothetic, universal	Particular, idiographic, contextual
Data	Giving, found	Constructed
Methods of securing data	Data collection via observation	Data construction via interpretation
Description	Qualitative measurements	Qualitative descriptions
Explanation	Statistical relations	Narrative accounts
Causal emphasis	External to internal	Internal to external
Prediction	Based on statistical forecast	Based on understanding of typical behaviour in typical situations
Preferred research approach:		
Research strategies	Experiment, quasi-experiment, survey	Case study, ethnography, action research
Research methods	Self completion questionnaire, structured interview, structured observation, psychological test	Unstructured interview, participant observation, personal documents (diaries, letters, etc.)
Analytical method	Multivariate statistical analysis	Hermeneutics
Methodological problems	Internal validity, contextualisation	Generalisation, replication
Symbol/image	Hard, science, physics, variable net	Soft, humanities, anthropology, cultures

Source: Thomas, 2004: 46.

4.3 Research Design

A research design involves a set of decisions regarding what topic is to be studied, among what population, with what research methods, and for what purpose. It is the process of focusing one's perspective for the purposes of a particular study (Babbie, 2013). Creswell (2014) describes a research design as the process of research, from conceptualizing a problem to writing the narrative, while Yin (2003) says that a research design is an action plan from here to there. A good research design ensures that the information obtained is relevant to the research problem and is collected by objective and economical procedures.

The main purposes of a research design are to make the research design decision explicit; to ensure that the decisions are consistent with each other and with the ontological assumptions adopted; and to allow for critical evaluation of the individual design elements, and the overall research design, before significant work commences (Blaiki, 2000: 35). There is no one best research design. However, there are different research designs that give a range of choices and with each having certain disadvantages and disadvantages. According to Babbie (2013), there are three main purposes of research.

These are exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. Exploratory research is mainly concerned with what, when, where, and who questions. It is particularly appropriate for the clarification of our understanding of a research problem (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009) and primarily aims at discovering ideas and insights. In fact, it is generally used when the research problem is unstructured and badly understood (Creswell, 2014). Descriptive research goes beyond this and is concerned with why and how questions (Babbie, 2013). It is used to provide accurate profiles of persons, events or situations (Saunders et al., 2009) and is mostly concerned with identifying the frequency with which something occurs or the relationships between variables. Descriptive research is directed by one or more precise hypotheses and the research problem is structures and properly understood (Babbie, 2013).

Explanatory research has also been referred to as causal research and is used when researchers are confronted with problems of cause and effect and usually takes the form of experiments (Creswell, 2014). As is the case with descriptive research,

explanatory research is used when the research problem is structured (Babbie, 2013). The nature and purpose of this study makes it descriptive, as the research problem is highly structured and seeks to find out the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit through the mediating role of TM outputs. Therefore, the most suitable research design for this study is descriptive. Tied to exploratory, descriptive and explanatory research are qualitative and quantitative techniques. Whether a researcher uses qualitative or quantitative method depends on the nature of the phenomenon being investigated, the research objectives, and the state of existing knowledge (Creswell, 2014). Table 4.2 presents the differences between these two methodological approaches.

Table 4.2 Differences between Quantitative and Qualitative Research

	Quantitative	**Qualitative**
Ontological orientation	Objectivism	Constructionism
Epistemological orientation	Natural science model, in particular positivism	Interpretivism
Data collection	Pre-coded surveys or other formulaic techniques	Direct, fluid, observational techniques
Data analysis	Statistical analysis aimed at highlighting universal cause and effect relationships	Analysis focused on context-specific meanings and social practices
The role of conceptual framework	Separate theory from methods	Views theory and methods as inseparable

Source: Bryman and Bell, 2007.

This study adopted a quantitative methodology because it is mostly used by empirical studies conducted within the managerial and behavioural sciences (Baruch and Holtom, 2008). It enables testing and validating already-constructed theories about how phenomena occur. Both data collection and analysis are fairly quick and

not time consuming (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The samples used are much larger in size than those used by qualitative research (Sale, Lohfeld and Brazil, 2002), and findings can be generalized (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This study adopted a quantitative method for two main reasons.

First, the purpose of this study was to provide explanations for the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance. This is clearly about relationships and will benefit from the use of quantitative techniques. Second, it has been stated earlier that a lot has been done qualitatively about TM research and it is only the quantitative aspect that has not received much attention (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015). Therefore, this study relies on quantitative techniques to give us a better understanding of the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance. This is consistent with Creswell (2014), who argued that quantitative research is used for testing and examining relationships among variables which can be measured on instruments so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures.

Quantitative descriptive studies are classified as either longitudinal or cross-sectional (Babbie, 2013). In longitudinal studies, a fixed sample is measured repeatedly. Longitudinal studies involve panel data. A panel is simply a fixed sample of elements. These elements may be individuals or other entities from whom repeated measurements are taken. There are two types of panel: true and omnibus. True panels are those in which similar measurements are taken in each period of measurement while in omnibus panels dissimilar measurements are taken in each period of time (Babbie, 2013).

Cross-sectional studies entail the collection of information from a specified sample of population elements merely once (Creswell, 2014). This study used a cross-sectional research design. Cross-sectional research is the most commonly-used type of descriptive design and is considered by some researchers as the most important type of descriptive research (Creswell, 2014). Cross-sectional data are more representative of the general population than longitudinal data and are relatively inexpensive and take little time to collect data for such a study (Babbie, 2013).

4.4 Research Strategy

According to Creswell (2014), a researcher not only selects qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods for conducting a study but also decides on the type of study within the three choices. This is because the strategy provides the researcher with a specific direction for the procedures in a research design. Similarly, Anderson (2009) sees a research strategy as the general approach that researchers take in order to answer the research questions or to achieve the research objectives. When deciding on a research strategy, two important factors must be taken into consideration: the choice between theory testing and theory building, and data-collection strategy. The first is concerned with the relation between theory and research and the choice is between deduction and induction. Table 4.3 provides a summary of the main differences between deduction and induction.

Table 4.3 Differences between Deductive and Inductive Strategy

Deductive emphasis	**Inductive emphasis**
• Scientific principles • Moving from theory to data • The need to explain causal relationships between variables • The collection of quantitative data • The application of controls to ensure validity of data • The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition • A highly structured approach • Researcher independence of what is been researched • The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalised conclusions	• Gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events • A close understanding of the research context • The collection of qualitative data • A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses • A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process • Less concern with needs to generalise

Source: Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009: 127.

Deduction is a form of reasoning in which conclusions are validly inferred from some premises and needs to be true if those premises are true (Babbie, 2013) and is mainly concerned with theory consequences. Research here is conducted with regard to hypotheses, and ideas are deducted from theory (Creswell, 2014). Facts are gathered to affirm or refute the hypothesized relations between variables, and conclusions are based on rational thinking (Babbie, 2013). On the other hand, induction is a form of reasoning which involves the inference that an instance or repeated combinations of events may be universally generalized (Babbie, 2013). Inductive research generates theory and conclusions are based on empirical evidence (Creswell, 2014). This study adopted a deductive approach due to the existence of adequate literature that could help in developing the research hypotheses and a research model, as shown in Chapter 3.

With reference to the data-collection strategy, there are a number of research strategies such as case study, experiment, survey, interview, focus group discussion, among others. However, the research strategy to be used in any research is a function of the research problem, research philosophy, and the research design. Because this study was grounded in positivism, deduction, descriptive and quantitative methods, it adopted a survey research strategy. A survey strategy reflects positivist philosophical assumptions (Creswell, 2014). A survey strategy provides a quantitative or numeric description of the trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population (Creswell, 2014).

A survey research is probably the best method available to the social researcher that is interested in collecting original data for describing a population too large to be observed directly (Babbie, 2013). The second reason for adopting a survey strategy is that it allows for the collection of a large amount of data in an efficient and economic manner (Creswell, 2014). This study involved a number of variables that were analysed simultaneously and a survey allowed for this to be done easily and flexibly in an economic manner (Babbie, 2013).

4.5 Research Context

Ghana has a well-developed banking system that was used extensively by previous governments for financial purposes and attempts to develop the Ghanaian

economy. Before the establishment of the banks owned by Africans in Ghana, there were two major colonial banks. One was the Standard Chartered Bank (known as the Bank of British West Africa) and has been operating in Ghana since 1896, while Barclays Bank (known as the Colonial Bank) is in the ninety-eighth year of its operations in Ghana. In 1953 the Bank of the Gold Coast (now Bank of Ghana) was set up by the British colonizers. Later the bank was divided into two: the Bank of Ghana, operating as the bank of issue, to be developed into a complete central bank; and the Ghana Commercial Bank, to be developed into the largest commercial bank with a monopoly on the accounts of public corporations.

When Ghana gained independence in 1957, the government established more banks. The banks incorporated by legislation between the periods 1957to 1965 included: the Ghana Investment Bank as an investment banking institution; the Agricultural Development Bank for the development of agriculture; the Merchant Bank for merchant banking; and the Social Security Bank to encourage savings. In conformity with the economic policy at the time, all of these institutions were incorporated as state-owned banks. By early 1966, it became clear that the country was experiencing economic difficulties that led to a change of government. In 1983 an attempt was made to reverse the situation. Therefore, the government, with the assistance and guidance of the International Monetary Fund (IMF), introduced the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP).

In the banking sector, Anin (2000) indicated that by the end of the 1980s the banks had suffered substantial losses from a number of bad loans in their portfolios. Added to this was the depreciation of the Ghanaian currency, which raised the banks external liabilities. In order to rekindle the Ghanaian banking industry, the government in 1989 initiated comprehensive reforms. First, the amended banking law of August 1989 required banks to maintain a minimum capital base equivalent to six percent of net assets adjusted for risk and to establish uniform accounting and auditing standards (Anin, 2000). Second, the amended law introduced limits on risk exposure to single borrowers and sectors. Of importance is that the reform strengthened the Central Bank’s (Bank of Ghana) supervision and regulation over the commercial banks. This gradually improved resource mobilisation and credit allocation (Anin, 2000).

These newly-adopted concepts were incorporated into legislation, particularly as regard banking, non-banking financial institutions, and securities. Thus, the Banking Law was enacted in 1989, enabling suitable locally-incorporated bodies to file applications for licenses to operate as banking institutions. Subsequently, a number of corporate entities were licensed to operate as banks, including Barclays Bank of Ghana and Standard Chartered Bank of Ghana, Meridian (BIAO) Trust Bank, Merchant Ban, Allied and Metropolitan, and ECOBANK. These commercial banks placed short-term deposits with two discount houses set up to enhance the development of Ghana's domestic money market: Considered Discount House and Securities Discount House, established in November 1987 and June 1991 respectively. At the bottom of the tier were some one hundred rural banks which accounted for only five percent of the banking system's total assets (Anin, 2000).

The past few years have seen phenomenal growth in the Ghanaian banking sector. Currently, the Bank of Ghana has licensed twenty-seven banks to operate in the country. In addition the 27 banks, the sector also comprise a range of non-bank financial institutions, including several community banks established to mobilize rural savings. The ARB Apex Bank is the umbrella bank for Rural Community Banks and supervises 123 such banks throughout Ghana. The banking sector has seen growth in the level of private ownership, either directly or through the capital market. The entrance of new banks in Ghana has made the citizens to have access to banking services which they were previously denied by the colonial banks. With the increasing use of technology, all banks in Ghana have rolled a number of services such as VISA electronic debit card, internet banking, smartcards, and mobile phone banking. In fact, the banking sector in Ghana has become one of the innovative, resilient and competitive sectors in the country.

Significantly, whereas Ghanaian politicians have field in integrating the economy on the political front, the financial sector is moving closer to full integration. The banks are leading in the economic integration of Ghana. The entry into the financial sector by these banks has stimulated the economic growth of the country by providing employment for many people. Above all there is a healthy competition and any bank that wobbles will definitely loose out. The once exploited and abused Ghanaian consumer is now the beneficiary of these new developments in the financial

sector. Obviously, the role played by the banking sector in economic development and the increasing competition in the sector gives an indication that TM in the sector will not only help banks to grow but to help citizens as well and will contribute to national development. For ethical purposes, the names of the three public commercial banks in this study will not be mentioned explicitly. Hence, they will be represented by pseudo names as Bank A, B, and C.

"Bank A" started in 1953 and was renamed after 1957 to focus on commercial banking services. It has the widest network in Ghana. It was wholly-owned by the Government of Ghana until 1996. Currently, government ownership stands at 21.4 percent while institutional and individual holdings add up to 78.6 percent. From one branch in the 1950s, the bank now has over 160 branches and 11 agencies throughout the country as of 2014. The bank was founded in 1953 with 27 employees, but today the bank employs a staff of 2,315 in the branches distributed in all of the 10 regions of Ghana (Ghana Commercial Bank, 2014). In 2014, the bank's profit before tax stood at GHC 394,981 as compared to GHC 317,059 in 2013; total assets were GHC 4,259,102 as compared to GHC 3,404,826 in 2013; shareholders' funds were GHC 689,371 as compared to GHC 466,065 in 2013; customers deposits were GHC 3,074,821 as compared to GHC 2,624,975 in 2013; total loans and advances were GHC 1,240,577 as compared to GHC 960,707 in 2013, while the number of ATM was 215 as compared to 151 in 2013.

The bank provides a wide range of products and services for the benefit of its customers including current/savings accounts, link2home for Ghanaians resident abroad, loans and overdraft, investment products, internet banking, royal banking, inland express money transfer, kidistar and trust account, business account, SME solution and MasterCard, among others (GCB, 2014). In order to ensure that the bank achieve these and other critical objectives, it has remarkably and painstakingly put together human resource system and has remain committed to attract and retain senior skilled and empowered executives and management with specific skills that are required within the business. This policy promotes the achievement of strategic objectives and encourages individual performance.

"Bank B" was established in 1965 by an Act of Parliament to meet the banking needs of the Ghanaian agricultural sector in a profitable manner. Before its

current name, the bank was known as the Agricultural Credit and Co-operative Bank. The bank changed its name in 1970, when the parliamentary statute was amended to grant the institution full commercial banking powers. It is a government-owned development and commercial bank in Ghana. The government share in the bank is 51.83 percent while the Bank of Ghana owns 48.17 percent. The bank now has a staff capacity of 1,244 in branches distributed in all ten regions of Ghana (Agricultural Development Bank, 2013). In 2013, the bank's profit before tax stood at GHC 83,928,000 as compared to GHC 26,696,000 in 2012; total assets were GHC 1,621,761 as compared to GHC 1,444,223 in 2012; shareholders' funds were GHC 281,995 as compared to GHC 197,199 in 2012; customers deposits were GHC 1,061,102 as compared to GHC 965,018 in 2012; total loans and advances were GHC 914,350 as compared to GHC 773,694 in 2012, while the number of ATMs was 84 as compared to 76 in 2012.

The bank is the leading financial institution in agricultural financing in Ghana responsible for 35 percent of the total banking industry financing of agriculture. The bank maintains a network of eighty-nine (89) branches located in the ten regions of Ghana. There are also an additional four (4) farm loan offices and ten (10) agency offices. This adds up to a total of one hundred and three (103) service outlets. The range of services offered include: development banking, corporate banking, personal banking, international banking, diaspora banking services, treasury management services, and money transfer services in partnership with western union. As part of its three year strategy of embarking on a capital raising exercise to increase its capital to enable it to compete and become one of the top tier performing banks in Ghana, it is enhancing its human resource base to increase individual performance.

"Bank C" was established by the government of Ghana in 1963 as a national development bank. Later, the bank was granted a commercial banking license by the Bank of Ghana, the financial regulator. The shares of stock of the bank are as follows: government of Ghana (52.60%), Bank of Ghana (43.7%) and others (3.69%). The bank has undergone management, institutional, and financial restructuring, which have strengthened the bank and now it has 31 branches and one agency nationwide and 21 ATMS.

Apart from its development banking activities, the bank also provides corporate and commercial banking facilities involving both domestic and foreign transactions at very competitive rates and on flexible terms. These includes: retail banking, trade finance, development finance product, treasury services, funds management, international banking, SME loans, N.I.B micro save, western union money transfer, boafo yena savings, daakye nkosuo savings, among others. To ensure that the bank's customers receive consistent and efficient services, the bank has resorted to the use of highly-trained personnel to in order to provide standard banking needs promptly to their clients. By relying on proper HR practices, the bank is able to deliver quality services tailored to meet the requirements of customers.

4.6 Sampling Design

In survey research, it is typically unusual to survey the whole population due to both time and financial constraints. Thomas (2004) argued that given our limited resources, we can never study the whole world but only parts of it. Rather, researchers generally prefer the use of sampling. Sampling is the process of selecting a small number of units from a larger group selected for participation in a study (Thomas, 2004; Babbie, 2013; Creswell, 2014). This section presents the sampling design process in terms of the unit of analysis, the target population, the sampling frame, the sampling technique, and the sample size.

4.6.1 Unit of Analysis

Unit of analysis is "the what or whom being studied" (Babbie, 2013: 97). De Vaus (2002) maintained that the unit of analysis describes the characteristics or level of analysis where information about the study is gathered. The unit of analysis could be the entire population, departments, work groups, or individuals (Zikmund, 2003; Thomas, 2004; Babbie, 2013). In this study, the individual is the unit of analysis. This is because the study aims at studying the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance. Also, TM emphasises the strategic positioning of talented employees in key strategic and vital positions that drive the organisation, department,

unit or section (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005, 2007; Becker and Huselid, 2006; Becker, Huselid and Beatty, 2009; Collings and Mellahi, 2009).

4.6.2 Population

The population is the group of people that the researcher is interested to learn more about and is the group about whom we want to draw conclusions (Babbie, 2013). It is the collective elements, sharing some common set of characteristics, which make up the universe for the purpose of the research problem (Creswell, 2014). The most important thing in defining the target population is the precise specification of who should and who should not be included in the sample. The target population for this study consists of talented employees from three public commercial banks in Ghana. Therefore, to be considered a part of the target population of this study, all of the respondents had to meet the pre-set criterion of being labelled talented employees by their employer (the selected banks). Previous studies (Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011; Sadeli, 2012; Björkman et al., 2013; Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013; Gelens et al., 2015; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015) of TM have all concentrated on individuals designated by their organisations as talents.

4.6.3 Sample Frame

A sampling frame is the listing of the elements of the target population from which the sample will be drawn (Babbie, 2013; Creswell, 2014). The sampling frame for this study was based on talented employees from three public commercial banks in Ghana. The sampling units or list of talented employees were obtained from the HR managers of these three public commercial banks. The list was made up of seven hundred and seventy-four (724) talented employees. This was made up of three hundred and forty-eight (348), two hundred and twenty-five (225) and one hundred and fifty-one (151) from public bank A, B, and C respectively.

4.6.4 Sampling Procedure/Technique

The sampling technique makes possible the drawing of valid inferences or generalizations on the basis of careful observation of variables within a relatively small proportion of the population (Best and Kahn, 1998). The assumption behind a

sampling technique is that a small number of elements from a larger defined group can be selected and information gathered from this group will allow judgements to be made about the larger group (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2010). The ultimate purpose of sampling is to select a set of elements from a population in such a way that descriptions of those elements accurately portray the total population from which the elements are selected (Babbie, 2013). Therefore, sampling techniques provide a variety of methods that enable the researcher to reduce the amount of data that need to be collected by considering data from the subgroup rather than all the possible cases and allowing gneralisations to be made of the entire population.

Two main sampling techniques were adopted for this study: non-probability and probability techniques. First, purposive sampling technique was used to select the banks. The non-probability sampling technique does not involve random selection. Even though this technique may produce biased samples of banks in Ghana (Thomas, 2004) I was interested in studying only public banks. Thus, this sampling technique is mostly used when the researcher possesses sufficient knowledge that it may be possible to select one or a few units because they have characteristics relevant to the objectives of the study (Thomas, 2004; Babbie, 2013; Creswell, 2014). The sample of banks for this study consisted of three licensed public/government banks in the Bank of Ghana (BoG) database as of 31st December, 2014. The database has the list of all the banks in Ghana.

The second sampling method is probability sample. This method is where all of the population units have an equal chance of selection. In this case samples are drawn at random from a list of all the population units known as a sample frame (Thomas, 2004; Babbie, 2013; Creswell, 2014). Therefore, after the public banks were selected contact was made with them to seek their consent to participate in the study. The list of talented employees was then obtained from the HR managers of these three public banks, which was made up of seven hundred and seventy-four (724) talented individuals.

The simple random sampling technique within the probability method (Thomas, 2004) was then used to select the participants. All of the talented employees in the three participating public commercial banks were arranged and put in a table

using a computer program, which automatically selected the respondents that were then given questionnaires to answer.

4.6.5 Sample Size

One of the main concerns regarding survey research relates to the appropriate sample size required to draw meaningful conclusions (Babbie, 2013). Indeed, Thomas (2004: 108) states that the question "how many units are needed?" is difficult to answer in the abstract. Thomas added that in a survey research sample sizes are likely to be influenced by both technical and practical considerations. On the technical side, as sample sizes increases, the magnitude of sampling errors decreases, although at a diminishing rate. On the practical side, funding and time constraints are likely to limit sample sizes (Thomas, 2004: 108).

The sample size for this study was largely driven by both technical and practical considerations. With respect to the technical consideration, the sample size was largely driven by SEM, which was the main data analysis method used in this study. Even though Tabachnick and Fidel (2014) did not categorically state the sample size, they indicated that SEM is a large sample technique. SEM requires a larger sample size relative to other multivariate methods (Hair et al., 2010). This is because some of the statistical algorithms used by SEM programs are unreliable with small samples.

Therefore, the critical question has been how large should the sample size be to produce trustworthy results. Opinions regarding the minimum sample size have varied (Fornell and Yi, 1992). Hair et al. (2010) suggested a sample size in the range of 100 to 400. They specifically stated the following sample sizes depending on the situation at hand: first, a minimum sample size of 100 for models containing five or fewer constructs with more than three items; second, a minimum sample size of 150 for models with seven or fewer constructs, modest communalities, and no under-identified constructs; third, a minimum sample size of 300 for models with seven or fewer constructs, lower communalities and/or multiple under identified constructs; fourth, minimum sample size of 500 for models with larger numbers of constructs, some with lower communalities and/or having fewer than three measured items (Hair et al., 2010).

Therefore, five criteria have been identified as affecting the required sample size for SEM. The first is multivariate normality; second, the estimation technique; third, model complexity; fourth, the amount of missing data; and fifth, the average error variance among the reflective indicators (Hair et al., 2010). From the practical point of view, funding and time are important here. Research degree students do not have all of the necessary funding or time to conduct large samples as in the context of large-scale government surveys.

Indeed, Thomas (2004: 108) argued that funding and time constraints are likely to limit sample sizes and these are likely to be quite tight in research degree studies. Based on the technical and practical considerations as well as on an examination of the relevant literature, a sample size of 300 was considered appropriate for this study. Careful consideration was giving to this decision because Creswell (2014) noted that the question of sample size is an equally-important decision to the sampling strategy in the data collection process. An appropriate sample size will ensure the validity and reliability of the study; hence the importance of sample size.

In fact, the importance of sample size is seen with respect to the fact that the larger is the sample size, the greater is the likelihood of obtaining a true representation of the population. This sample size was adequate because Thomas (2004) stated that samples of around 200 usually provide sufficient scope for analysis of survey data because those that have argued for sample sizes of 1000 and above are mostly government surveys, which are likely to be beyond the reach of the research student. Again, the sample size of 300 almost represented 50 percent of the entire population of this study. Hence, Thomas (2004: 109) gave a general rule as follows: “as few as you must, as many as you can.” Table 4.4 provides the details of the banks’ total employees, employees in the talent pool, and the selected sample for this study.

Table 4.4 Population and Sample Size

Bank	Total employees	Talents	Sample size
A	2,315	348	145
B	1,244	225	93
C	780	151	62
Total	**4,339**	**724**	**300**

4.7 Research Instrument

The main data collection instrument or tool for this study was a questionnaire. Questionnaires were used because of the larger number of the sample size and its convenience. Generally, the questions in the questionnaire were carefully framed, since the answers given to questions depend on how the questions are asked. In designing the questionnaire, adequate attention was paid to ensuring that the objectives of the research were covered. The questionnaire was developed mainly through a review of the relevant literature and previous measures used for the same concepts and variables were adapted to suit the Ghanaian and banking context of this study. The questions were mostly close-ended and used a Likert-type scale. The questionnaires were administered in English because this is Ghana's official language of communication.

4.8 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire design should be based on sound principles for specific areas such as wording of the questions, variable categorisation, and general appearance (Babbie, 2013; Sekaran, 1992). The measures used in the questionnaire for this study were deliberately devised so that the scores would be normally distributed and the method for measuring the operationalisation of the research was based on the Likert scale. A Likert scale was used because it has offered over time a reliable, rough ordering of people with regards to a particular attitude, and it can give

some indication of the intensity of the agreement or disagreement with questions (Babbie, 2013).

The questionnaire was be made up of six sections. Each section of the questionnaire was separated by a specific heading with clear and precise instructions for ease of the respondents. Even if there is no formalized layout, it is always better to use an even six point scale to avoid clustering of responses at a neutral point, as this makes the results unreliable (Babbie, 2013). Indeed, most respondents use a neutral point as a dumping ground when they do not care, prefer not to choose, or have no opinion. Therefore, in order to improve the validity of the answers, a six-point Likert scale was adopted.

Table 4.5 Layout of the Questionnaire

Section	Measure	Sub-measure	Response Pattern
I	Business Strategy	Quality, innovative and cost	(1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree
II	Talent Management	Alignment, autonomy, application, competency, development,	(1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree
III	TM Output	Satisfaction and POS, commitment	(1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree
IV	Employee Performance	task, contextual, adaptive and counterproductive	(1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree
V	Intention to Quit	Four intention to quit items	(1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree
VI	Respondents background	Education, age, sex, Bank, experience,	Multiple response pattern

4.9 Pre-Testing

Most measurement errors are a result of the way in which questions are asked and the sequence of the questions (Dillman, 1991). Hence, pre-testing is done to: first, check for face and content validity of the questionnaire; second, to ensure that the questions are understood and correctly interpreted; and third, to check for the comprehensiveness, syntax errors, and the general layout format (Babbie, 2013). At

the initial stage, my supervisor, who is a professor and professional in HRM, had a look at the questionnaire and gave her advice on it.

During the second stage, the questionnaire was pre-tested with five (5) HR managers and fifteen (30) employees. The pre-testing asks respondents to address five main issues. First, the structure and design of the overall questionnaire such as the layout, spacing, and font size; second, the instructions and content of the questionnaire; third, the appropriateness and ease of comprehension of the language used; fourth, fluidity and flow of the sentences; and fifth, the duration of time required to answer all the questions in the questionnaire.

The feedback from the pre-testing showed that some of the questions were redundant, repetitive, and lengthy. Such questions were improved upon; others were shortened, while some were deleted. Secondly, the wordings of some questions were confusing, unclear or vague for the understanding of the respondents. Therefore, a change was made to make them clear using the suggested words from the respondents. This process was carried out to ensure the appropriateness of the measures of business strategy, TM, TM outputs, employee performance, and intention to quit. Also, this pre-testing helped to achieve clarity and to rephrase some of the items to reflect their use in the participating banks. After this, the questionnaire became clear and understandable and it was administered to all of the respondents.

4.10 Measures

The operationalisations of the constructs for this study are discussed in this section. All of the variables in this study are composite measures consisting of multiple items derived from the extant literature. However, because of the pre-testing some adjustments and minor changes were made to the original items to suit the context of the study. However, these minor changes did not affect or alter the content of constructs. Below is a description of the measures and their source.

4.10.1 Business Strategies

Business strategies were measured with generic business strategies (cost reduction, quality enhancement, and innovation). To measure this, the study adopted

the measurement instrument developed and validated by Zahra and George (2000) in their examination of the effects of business strategy on performance of manufacturing ventures in the USA. The instrument consists of eight (8) items corresponding to the three dimensions: two for quality, (e.g. ““My bank stresses being a high-quality producer”); three for product innovation (e.g. “My bank introduces many new products to the market”), and three for cost reduction (e.g. My pursues market leadership by being a low-cost producer”). The respondents were asked to rate their business strategies on these scales, reflecting their bank’s actual rather than planned or desired activities. These items were measured using a six-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree).

4.10.2 Talent Management

TM is basically about managing talented employees in pivotal and strategic positions in the organisation. This is basically done with the use of appropriate HR architecture (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Collings and Mellahi, 2009) for improving the performance of talented employees. TM was measured with five (5) items adopted from Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015), representing five dimensions of TM: talent alignment, talent application, talent competency, talent autonomy, and talent development. The items were assessed using a six-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree). Sample items included “My personal values and the bank’s values are quite similar.”

4.10.3 Talent Management Output

In this study TM outputs served as mediating variables through which TM leads to employee performance and the intention to quit. A detailed review of the extant literature produced the following variables: employee commitment, satisfaction and POS. The measurements of these variables in this study are explained as follows.

Satisfaction: Employee satisfaction was assessed using a six-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree) with three items developed by Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis, and Camman (1982). Sample items included “In general, I like working at this bank.”POS: POS was measured using a six item scale adapted from Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997). The respondents indicated the

extent of their agreement with each item using a six-point Likert type scale ranging from (1), “strongly disagree” to (6), “strongly agree.”Sample items include “My bank cares about my opinions.”

Commitment: As mentioned in Chapters 2 and 3, employee commitment in this study was regarded as affective commitment. In contrast to continuous and normative commitment, affective commitment has been found to have the strongest and most favourable associations with both employee and organization relevant outcomes (Meyer, Stanley, Hercovitch and Topolnytsky, 2002). Affective commitment was measured using three items from the scale developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). These items were measured on a six-point Likert scale ranging from (1), “strongly disagree” to (6) “strongly agree”. Sample items included “I feel emotionally attached to this bank.”

4.10.4 Employee-Level Performance

Employee performance is a multi-dimensional concept (Borman and Motowildo, 1993; Sonnentag and Frese, 2002). For instance, Borman and Motowildo (1993) divided performance into task and contextual while others (Allworth and Hesketh, 1999; Pulakos et al., 2000; Griffin et al., 2007) added adaptive performance. In recent years counterproductive behaviours were added (Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000; Rotundo and Sackett, 2002; Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2012). This study therefore used these four dimensions to measure employee performance. Task performance: Task performance was measured through the use of a five-item (5) scale developed by Koopmans et al. (2012). These five items were selected based on their appropriateness (suitability) for the context of this study. A six-point Likert scale ranging from (1), “strongly disagree” to (6) “strongly agree” was used. Sample items included, “My quantity of work is higher than average.”

Studies that involve contextual performance have often perceived the concept as multi-dimensional (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996; Motowidlo, Borman, and Schmit, 1997). For instance, Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) divided contextual performance into two separate dimensions: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. They argued that interpersonal facilitation consists of interpersonal

orientation behaviours that contribute to organizational goals while job dedication centres on self-disciplined behaviours.

Koopman et al. (2012) divided contextual performance into the interpersonal and organizational, which is just similar to the division suggested by Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996). Contextual performance was measured with eight (8) items developed by Koopmans et al. (2012). These items covered the two dimensions of contextual performance. A six-point Likert scale ranging from (1), "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree" was used. Sample items included, "I often start new tasks myself, when my old ones are finished."

Adaptive performance was measured using six (6) items adopted from Koopmans et al. (2012). A six-point Likert scale ranging from (1), "strongly disagree" to (6), "strongly agree" was used. Sample items included "I work at keeping my job knowledge up to date."Although counterproductive work behaviours are often seen as a one-dimensional construct, a number of authors have divided them into two sub-dimensions based on the target of the behaviour; namely, towards other individuals and towards the organisation (Mount, Ilies, and Johnson, 2006; Berry, Ones and Sackett, 2007). Counterproductive work behaviour was measured using four (4) items developed by Koopmans et al. (2012). These items succinctly captured negative work behaviours regarding both other individuals and the organization. A six-point Likert scale ranging from (1), "strongly disagree" to (6), "strongly agree" was used. Sample items included "I purposely work slowly."

4.10.5 Intention to Quit

Intention to quit was measured using four (4) items developed by O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991). The items were measured on a six-point Likert scale ranging from (1), "strongly disagree" to (6) "strongly agree." Sample items included "I would prefer another more ideal job to the one I have now." Table 4.6 provides a summary of the measurement instruments, their source, and the number of items.

Table 4.6 Measurement Instrument and Their Source

Section	Measure	Source	No. of Items
I	Business Strategy	Zahra and George (2000)	8
II	Talent Management	Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015)	5
III	**TM Output**		
	POS	Eisenberger et al. (1997)	6
	Commitment	Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993)	3
	Satisfaction	Seashore et al. (1982)	3
IV	**Employee Performance**		
	Task	Tsui et al. (1997)	5
	Contextual	Koopmans et al. (2012)	8
	Adaptive	Koopmans et al. (2012)	6
	Counterproductive	Koopmans et al. (2012)	4
V	Intention to Quit	O'Reilly et al. (1991)	4
VI	Respondents' background	Designed by the author	6

4.11 Data Collection Procedure

The data for this study were collected by means of a self-administered questionnaire. Self-administered questionnaires (filled out by the participants in the absence of the researcher) have the advantage of being easily distributed to a large number of people at low cost. Surveys also have the advantage of being able to collect a lot of information on a large sample in a relatively short period of time and in an economic manner (Babbie, 2013; Creswell, 2014). Prior to the distribution of the questionnaire, the HR managers of the participating banks were contacted for their permission. An introductory letter from the Graduate School of Public Administration (GSPA) was sent to the HR managers.

I also added a personal letter stating the purpose and objectives of the study. A letter was finally secured from the HR managers and this was added to the questionnaire that was administered to the respondents. The HR managers and all respondents were assured of confidentiality and that the information solicited would

be used only for the purpose of this study. Also, it was agreed between the researcher and the HR managers that the names of the banks were not going to be mentioned and the pseudo names of “A”, “B,” and “C” were going to be used in the report. Respondents were giving fourteen (14) days to return the filled questionnaires.

After seven (7) days a follow-up call was made to remind the respondents of the survey. The respondents that were interested in receiving a summary of the findings of the study were asked to provide their contact details. The researcher distributed three hundred (300) questionnaires. From this a total of two hundred and fifty (250) completed questionnaires were returned. Out of these, three hundred and thirty-two (232) were useable for the analysis, yielding an effective response rate of 77.3%.

4.12 Data Analysis Strategy

The general objective of this study was to examine the interrelationships between the multiple independent and dependent variables (business strategy, TM, employee performance, and intention to quit) and the mediating effects of TM outputs (commitment, satisfaction, and POS) on these relationships. SEM has been recommended as the most effective analytical strategy for this type of analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013). SEM is effective for testing models that are path-analytic with mediating variables, and include latent constructs that are being measured with multiple items (Luna-Arocas and Camps, 2008). It is a multivariate technique that allows the researcher to discover the extent to which a specific theoretical model is consistent with the available data (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1996).

SEM differs from other multivariate techniques in a number of ways. First, it takes a CFA approach to the analysis of the data rather than an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) approach. Unlike EFA, CFA requires the hypothesized causal relationships to be specified *a priori*. Then the model is tested, and based on a number of fit indices it is either accepted or rejected. Second, unlike other multivariate techniques that are based only on observed measurements, SEM includes both observed (i.e. manifest) and unobserved (i.e. latent) variables.

Third, while conventional multivariate techniques are incapable of either measuring or correcting for measurement error, SEM estimates measurement error and permits the incorporation of errors within the model (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidel, 2014). Finally, unlike other multivariate techniques, SEM offers an effective way of dealing with multicollinearity (Bacon, 1997). Because of all these features, SEM was employed in this study as the main method of data analysis. The section below explains the SEM procedure for the data analysis.

4.12.1 SEM Analysis Procedure

The true worth of SEM originates from the benefits of using measurement and structural models at the same time, with each playing distinct roles in the total analysis (Hair et al., 2010). To guarantee that both models were properly specified and the results were valid, a six-stage decision process suggested by Hair et al. (2010) was applied in this study.

Stage One: Defining the Individual Constructs

A good measurement theory is an essential condition for gaining useful results from SEM. This is accomplished through a good theoretical definition of the constructs. This definition provides the foundation for selecting individual indicator items (Hair et al., 2010). Scale items can come from previous studies or can be developed. In both cases, a researcher's selection of the items measuring each construct sets the base for the entire remainder of the SEM analysis. In this study, established scales from previous studies were used and this is the common approach used by researchers (Hair et al., 2010).

Stage Two: Developing the Overall Measurement Model

In this stage, the latent constructs to be included in the model were identified and the measured indicator variables (i.e. items) were assigned to each latent construct. This step can be thought of as "assigning individual variables to the constructs" (Hair et al., 2010: 657). The major elements in the specification of the measurement model were: (a) the measurement relationships between items and constructs, (b) the correlational relationships between constructs, and (c) item error terms (Hair et al., 2010).

Stage Three: Designing a Study to Produce Empirical Results

This stage is related to issues of both the research design and model estimation. The research design involves three major issues (Hair et al., 2010): (1) the type of data to be analysed; (2) the impact of the sample size; and (3) the impact of missing data and remedies. The first two issues have been discussed in previous sections of this chapter (section 4.5.5 and 4.9). Missing data is a problem that usually occurs in survey data and is faced by researchers that use SEM (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst, and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014).

There are four major approaches for solving the problem of missing data (Hair et al., 2010): (a) listwise deletion, whereby observations with any missing values are discarded and only cases that are complete for all variables are used; (b) pairwise deletion, whereby all available data are used and cases are discarded on a variable-by-variable basis; (c) imputation methods (e.g. mean and median imputation); and (d) model-based approaches. Any of these four approaches could be used if less than 10% of the observations are missing and data are missing at random (Hair et al., 2010). The missing data in this study will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

With respect to model estimation, maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), which is the most widely-used SEM estimation method, was used. MLE is a flexible approach to parameter estimation and has proven to be quite robust as it provides valid and stable results (Hair et al., 2010). The Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) software program was chosen to conduct the SEM analysis and to test the proposed model. AMOS has been particularly designed to make SEM easier (Blunch, 2013). It has a unique and user-friendly graphical interface with drag-and-drop drawing tools that permit path diagram construction and quick model specification (Byrne, 2009; Blunch, 2013). It is readily available and presents the analysis results in a visual framework that is easy to understand.

Stage Four: Assessing the Measurement Model

Assessing the validity of the measurement model is the primary stage in SEM testing. According to Hair et al. (2010), the validity of the measurement model depends on (a) establishing acceptable goodness-of-fit levels for the measurement model, and (b) finding proof of construct validity. The assessment of the overall model goodness-of-fit is discussed here while construct validity was discussed in

section 4.9.1. Goodness-of-fit (GOF) indicates how well the specified model reproduces the observed covariance matrix among the indicator items (Hair et al., 2010).

GOF measures are classified into three groups: absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimony fit measures (Hair et al., 2010). First are absolute fit indices. They are direct measures of how well the model specified by the researcher reproduces the observed data. They only assess the overall fit of the model (both the structural and measurement models together) without comparing it with any other model. Absolute fit measures include the Chi-square (χ^2) statistic, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the standardized root mean residual (SRMR).

Second are the incremental fit indices: they differ from absolute fit indices in that they assess how well the estimated model fits relative to some alternative baseline models, which are usually referred to as the null model (Hair et al., 2010). This measure includes indices such as the normed fit index (NFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the relative non-centrality index (RNI). Third are the parsimony fit indices: they are designed to provide information about which model among a set of competing models is best, considering fit relative to its complexity. They are helpful in comparing the fit of two models, one more simple than the other (Hair et al., 2010). The most widely-used parsimony fit measures include the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), and the parsimony normed fit index (PNFI). Table 4.7 presents a description and the acceptable fit levels of each index.

There is controversy over what constitutes an adequate or good fit. Two main questions need to be answered when selecting a measure of model fit: (a) What are the best fit indices to reflect a model's fit objectively?; and (b) What are the objective cut-off values that suggest a good model fit for a given fit index? (Hair et al., 2010). It is suggested that the use of three to four indices helps to provide adequate model fit evidence and that besides the χ^2 value, one absolute fit index and one incremental index should be reported (Hair et al., 2010). Following the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010) the normed Chi-square (χ^2/df), GFI, and RMSEA were reported in this study as absolute fit indices, and the CFI and TLI were reported as incremental fit indices, while the IFI was reported as a parsimony fit index.

Table 4.7 Summary of Goodness-of-Fit Indices

Fit Index	Description	Acceptable fit
	Absolute Fit Indices	
Chi-square (χ^2)	Test of null hypothesis that the estimated variance-covariance matrix deviates from the sample. Significantly affected by sample size. The larger the sample size, the more likely its *p*-value will imply a significant difference between model and data.	Non-significant with a *p*-value of at least 0.05 ($p > 0.05$)
Normed Fit Chi-square (χ^2/df)	Chi-square statistics are only meaningful when taking into account the degrees of freedom. It is also regarded as a measure of absolute fit and parsimony.	Values less than 2 and as high as 5 indicate a reasonable fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation **(RMSEA)**	Represents how well the fitted model approximates per degree of freedom	Values between 0.05 and 0.08 indicate adequate fit
Goodness-of-Fit Index **(GFI)**	Represent a comparison of the square residuals for the degree of freedom	Values > 0.95 indicate good fit; values between 0.90 and 0.95 indicate adequate fit.
Standardised Root Mean Residual **(SRMR)**	Represents a standardised summary of the average covariance residuals. Covariance residuals are the difference between observed and model-implied covariances.	Values < 0.05 indicate good fit; values between 0.01 and 0.05 indicate adequate fit.

Table 4.7 (Continued)

Fit Index	Description	Acceptable fit
	Incremental Fit Indices	
Buntler-Bonett Normed Fit Index **(NFI)**	Represents a comparative index between the proposed and more restricted, nested baseline model (null model) not adjusted for degrees of freedom; thus the effects sample size are strong.	Values > 0.95 indicate good fit; values between 0.90 and 0.95 indicate adequate fit.
Tucker-Lewis Index **(TLI)** – also known as the Buntler-Bonett Non Normed Fit Index **(NNFI)**	Comparative index between proposed and null models adjusted for degrees of freedom. Can avoid extreme underestimation and is robust against sample size. Highly recommended as fit index of choice.	Values > 0.95 indicate good fit; values between 0.90 and 0.95 indicate adequate fit**.**
Comparative Fit Index **(CFI)** – identical to Relative Non-centrality Index **(RNI)**	Comparative index between proposed and null models adjusted for degrees of freedom. Interpreted similarly as NFI but may be less affected by sample size. Highly recommended as fit index of choice.	Values > 0.95 indicate good fit; values between 0.90 and 0.95 indicate adequate fit.
	Parsimony Fit indices	
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index **(AGFI)**	Goodness-of-fit adjusted for the degrees of freedom. Less often used because it does not perform well in some applications.	Values > 0.95 indicate good fit; values between 0.90 and 0.95 indicate adequate fit.
Parsimony Normed Fit Index **(PNFI)**	This index takes into account both the model being evaluated and the baseline model.	Higher values indicate better fit.

Source: Byrne, 2009; Hair et al., 2010.

Stage Five: Specifying the Structural Model

This stage involves the specification of the structural model through assigning relationships from one construct to another according to the proposed theoretical model. Although the emphasis in this step is on the structural model, the measurement specifications should also be included for the estimation of the SEM model. The path diagram, in this way, represents the measurement part together with the structural part of SEM in one model (Hair et al., 2010). By the end of this step the model should be ready for estimation. This will be the test of the overall theory, comprising both the measurement relationships of the indicators to constructs and the hypothesized structural relationships between constructs (Hair et al., 2010).

Stage Six: Assessing Structural Model Validity

The final stage of SEM is to test the validity of the complete structural model besides its corresponding hypothesized relationships. If an acceptable fit is not achieved for the measurement model, model fit will not improve when the structural relationships are specified (Hair et al., 2010). The general guidelines outlined in stage four are also followed for establishing the validity of the structural model. However, good model fit alone is not enough to support a proposed structural theory.

Individual parameter estimates representing each hypothesis should also be examined. The structural model is only considered acceptable when it shows acceptable model fit and when the path estimates representing the hypotheses are statistically significant and in the predicted direction (Hair et al., 2010). Table 4.6 above provides a summary and description of the fit indices (Byrne, 2009; Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst, and Guarino, 2013).

4.13 Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

According to Babbie (2013), when social scientists construct and evaluate measurements, they must pay attention to two technical considerations: validity and reliability. Indeed, these are tools that are used to evaluate the characteristics of a good measurement as well as their accuracy and applicability. Therefore, validity and reliability are performed to reduce errors in measurement and these concepts are often

used because most constructs are measured with multi-items. The section below discusses these two concepts and how they were used in this study.

4.13.1 Validity of Instruments

In research we want to measure the accuracy of the concept as much as possible. Validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration (Babbie, 2013: 191). Validity reflects how well a given measurement "measures what is purports to measure" (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994: 83). In other words, validity is how well we measure what we intend to measure. There are several criteria for measuring the validity of a concept: face, content, construct (convergent and divergent), and criterion validity (Babbie, 2013). Face validity is an indicator that makes it seem a reasonable measure of a variable (Babbie, 2013). Thus, all of the variables in this study on their face seem to have measured what they were intended to measure.

Content validity on the other hand, is the extent to which a measure covers the range of meanings included within the concept (Babbie, 2013). There is no statistical tool to check for the content validity of a concept. Therefore, in this study a thorough review of the literature was conducted and the instrument was also pre-tested with experts, professionals, academicians, and selected respondents for its adequacy and relevance. Construct validity is the extent to which the constructs or a set of measured items actually reflect the theoretical latent constructs of those items that they are designed to measure (Hair et al., 2010). It is also refers to the degree to which a measure relates to other variables as expected within a system of theoretical relationships (Babbie, 2013). Therefore, construct validity should reflect the accuracy of the measurement from the sample that exists in the population. Construct validity is made up of convergent and divergent validity.

Convergent validity is the degree to which a construct's items are correlated with each other. High convergent validity occurs when the scale's items are highly correlated (Meyers, Gamst, and Guarino, 2013). In this study, convergent validity was established by examining statistically-significant factor loadings on each construct. Standardized loading estimates of 0.50 or higher indicate convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). Convergent validity was also assessed by examining the average variance extracted (AVE) from the measures. An AVE of 0.50 or more indicates adequate

convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). The convergent validity results are presented in Chapter 5.

Divergent validity (also referred to as discriminant validity) is the degree to which a construct is truly different from other constructs (Hair et al., 2010). This type of validity involves demonstrating a lack of or low correlations between different constructs (Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). High divergent validity delivers evidence that a construct captures some phenomena other measures do not (Hair et al., 2010). In this study, divergent validity was assessed by comparing the square root of the AVE values with the correlation estimates between constructs. Evidence of divergent validity is provided if the square root of the AVE for a construct is higher than the correlation estimate between that construct and all other constructs. That is, divergent validity is achieved if the AVE of a construct is higher than the squared of the correlation between that construct and other constructs (Hair et al., 2010). The results regarding divergent validity are presented in Chapter 5.

4.13.2 Reliability of the Instruments

Reliability is the extent to which a measurement is consistent and yields the same results repeatedly. Reliability is the extent to which a particular technique when applied repeatedly to the same object yields the same results each time (Babbie, 2013: 188). Reliability of a measurement refers to its consistency (Hair et al., 2010). There are two main ways for checking for the reliability of a measurement: external and internal. External reliability has to do with the consistency of the measurement over time. External reliability can be examined through the test-retest method (Babbie, 2013). In this way an instrument can be administered twice with the same respondents. It is assumed that the respondents that scored high on the first test should also score high on the second test. However, Bryman and Cramer (2001) argued that a low test-retest correlation does not always mean the reliability is low but may be due to the underlying concept itself changing.

Also, two different forms of a measurement can be constructed and administer to the same respondents at different times to check for external reliability. This is often called the split-half method (Babbie, 2013). Even though it is useful, it is expensive and time consuming (Malhotra, 2004). Again, established measures can

also be used for external reliability. Thus, Babbie (2013) argued that a good way to ensure reliability is the use of measures that have proved their reliability in previous research. Therefore, in this study the established measures that have proved their external reliability in several studies were used. Thus, all of the measures were adapted from previous studies.

The use of internal reliability is popular in multi-scale items. According to Bryman and Cramer (2001), internal reliability refers to whether the items that make up a particular scale are measuring a single concept or are internally consistent. Therefore, if the correlation produces high results, it means that internal consistency is high. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is the most common measure of internal reliability. Hatcher (1994) stated that if all the items are from the domain of a single construct, the responses to the items composing the measurement should be highly correlated. Coefficient alpha values between 0.70 and 0.80 are usually acceptable. However, when dealing with psychological constructs, values less than 0.70 (but more than 0.60) are acceptable because of the diversity of the measured constructs (Kline, 1999).

A major deficiency with coefficient alpha is its positive relationship with the number of scale items. Increasing the number of the scale items will increase the value of the coefficient alpha. Therefore, Cronbach's alpha may be inappropriately inflated by including several redundant items (Hair et al., 2010). To defeat this problem, reliability measures derived from CFA have been suggested (Hair et al., 2010). These measures include the composite reliability and the AVE, and both measures provide more rigorous results (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, the reliability of the constructs of this study was assessed using Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability, and AVE.

Composite reliability refers to the extent to which a set of indicators shares in their measurement of a construct (Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013). It is a measure of the homogeneity and internal consistency of the items that comprise a scale. Constructs that are highly reliable are those in which the indicators are intercorrelated highly and this indicates that they are all measuring the same latent construct. Composite reliability values of 0.60 or more are generally considered acceptable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). However, values of 0.80 or more are preferable

(Koufteros, 1999). An additional measure to composite reliability is the AVE (Byrne, 2009; Hair et al., 2010).

The AVE is a measure of the overall amounts of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct. Higher values of variance extracted occur when the indicators are really representative of the latent construct. The recommended level of extracted variance is 0.50 or more (Byrne, 2009; Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). The results of reliability are presented in Chapter 5.

4.14 Uni-dimensionality

Un-dimensionality refers to the existence of one latent construct underlying a set of items (Hair et al., 2010). A number of traditional methods such as EFA, item-total correlations, and Cronbach's alpha can be used to test for un-dimensionality. However, some researchers have argued that these techniques are suitable for assessing reliability but cannot be used to assess un-dimensionality (Koufteros, 1999). A better way to test for uni-dimensionality is to perform a CFA and to assess the overall measurement model fit using goodness-of-fit indices together with other diagnostic tools, such as standardized residuals and modification indices (Kouftero, 1999).

The χ^2 statistic could also be used to evaluate the overall fit of the hypothesized model. However, this statistic is sensitive to sample size (i.e. as the sample size increases, the probability of model rejection also increases). Accordingly, the normed chi-square (χ^2/df) was used in this study since it was suggested by a number of researchers as a better fit metric (Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen, 2008). The results for uni-dimensionality are presented in Chapter 5.

4.15 Managing Common Method Bias

Common method bias also known as common method variance (Spector, 2006) refers to the statistical variance caused by the method of measurement rather than the constructs that the measure represents (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, and

Podsakoff, 2003). There is a common agreement among researchers that common method bias is a serious problem in organizational and behavioural research (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It is one of the major sources of measurement error which threatens the validity of conclusions regarding the relationships between measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Ideally, common method bias could be controlled by collecting the measures of the study variables from more than one source (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, since this was not possible in this study, a number of procedural remedies were followed in the design of the study questionnaire so as to reduce common method bias.

First, efforts were made to guarantee the respondents anonymity and to reduce the respondent's apprehension. The respondents were assured that their responses would be kept anonymous and were informed that there was no right or wrong answers. Second, careful attention was paid to the construction of the scale items. Vague concepts, unfamiliar items, and "double-barreled" questions were avoided. Again, a pilot study was conducted so as to reduce item ambiguity and to keep the questions precise. Statistical techniques were used besides the above procedural remedies to confirm that common method bias was controlled. A number of statistical techniques have been used by researchers to detect and control common method bias. However, the two most widely-used techniques are Harman's (1967) one-factor test and the unmeasured latent method factor technique (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

The main assumption of Harman's one-factor test is that if common method bias exists, either one factor will emerge from the analysis or one factor will account for the majority of the covariance among the measures. Recently, researchers have begun to use Harman's test using CFA, which is believed to be a more sophisticated means of testing the hypothesis that one factor can account for most of the variance in the data (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Accordingly, CFA was used in this study to perform Harman's single-factor test. The results of the assessment of common method bias are presented in Chapter 5.

4.16 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided detailed methods on how this study was conducted. The first part discusses issues such as the philosophy, the research design, and the research strategy. Thus, this study was positioned within the positivist research paradigm and accordingly, research strategies related to quantitative research have been discussed. This study is a descriptive cross-sectional study based on a deductive approach. The second section describes the unit of analysis, the sampling procedure/technique, and population and sample size.

The third part provides a discussion of the research instrument, questionnaire design, pre-testing, data collection procedure, and measures of variables. A survey questionnaire was used as the main data collection method. The last section concerns the data analytic technique which stresses the issues of the validity and reliability of the measures and the test used to examine them. SEM was used to test the proposed research model and hypotheses, and its steps were discussed. A discussion of the issues of validity, reliability, and un-dimensionality was presented. The next chapter will discuss the data preparation for the analysis and measurement model.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PREPARATION AND MEASUREMENT MODEL

5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the data preparation and descriptive analysis of the final data collected from the survey and summarizes the basic statistics related to the respondents' demographic profile and the constructs of the study. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section describes the demographic characteristics of the respondents in terms of their gender, age, education, marital status, experience, and their organisation. The second section provides the preliminary analysis and screening of the data prior to analysis such as missing data, outliers, normality, and descriptive statistics of the measures. In the third section, a CFA for both individuals and the overall measurement model was carried out. The final section discusses issues of reliability and validity.

5.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

This section provides a description of the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The researcher distributed three hundred (300) questionnaires but a total of two hundred and fifty (250) questionnaires were retrieved from the three banks. Eighteen uncompleted questionnaires were discarded, leaving 232 usable questionnaires and yielding an effective response rate of 77.3%. The demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in table 5.1. Of the total respondents, 54.7% were males while 45.3% were females. In terms of marital status, 66.4% of the respondents were married while 32.8% were single. Again, 0.8% was divorced. With respect to the age of the respondents, 12.5% of the respondents were between 21 and 30 years, 43.1% were between 31 and 40 years, 42.7% were between 41 and 50 years, and the rest were between 51 and 60 years.

Table 5.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic Variable	Sample Size (n=232)		
	Category	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Gender	Male	127	54.7
	Female	105	45.3
Marital Status	Single	76	32.8
	Married	154	66.4
	Divorced	2	0.8
Age	21-30	29	12.5
	31-40	100	43.1
	41-50	99	42.7
	51-60	4	1.7
	Above 60	0	0.0
Highest Level of Education	Bachelor	58	25.0
	Masters	170	73.3
	PhD	1	0.4
	Professional	3	1.3
Experience	Less than 5 years	143	61.6
	5 to 10 years	75	32.3
	11 to 15 years	9	3.9
	More than 15 years	5	2.2
Position	Investment Banker	30	12.9
	Financial Analyst	25	10.8
	IT Specialist	27	11.6
	Development Manager	12	5.2
	HR Manager	9	3.9
	Project Manager	33	14.2
	Operations Manager	22	9.5
	Corporate Banker	31	13.3
	Marketing Specialist	20	8.7
	Credit Risk Analyst	23	9.9
Name of Bank	A	112	48.3
	B	71	30.6
	C	49	21.1

As to educational level, 73.3% of the respondents had a Master's Degree, 25.0% had a Bachelor's Degree, 0.4% had a PhD degree, and the remaining 1.3% had professional qualifications such as Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA), Chartered Accountants Ghana (CAG), etc. In total, 61.6% of the respondents had fewer than five years of experience in their current bank, 32.3% had experience of between 5 to 10 years in their current bank, 3.9% and 2.2% had experience of 11 to 15 years and more than 15 years respectively with their current

bank. With respect to the position of the respondents, whereas 13.3% were Corporate Bankers, 5.2% were Development Managers. The data also showed that 12.9% were Investment Bankers while 8.7% were Marketing Specialists. Again, 14.2%, 11.6% and 3.9% were Project Managers, IT Specialist and HR Managers respectively. Furthermore, 10.8%, 9.5% and 9.9% were Financial Analysts, Operation Managers and Credit Risk Analysts respectively. Finally, with respect to the banks, 48.3, 30.6 and 21.1 of the respondents were from bank A, B and C respectfully.

5.3 Descriptive Analysis of Measurement Scales

This section focuses on how the respondents answered the survey questions relating to the constructs of the research model (business strategies [quality, cost, and innovation], TM, TM outcomes [commitment, satisfaction, and POS], employee performance [task, contextual, adaptive, and counterproductive] and intention to quit). Descriptive statistics have a number of uses: first, to explain the characteristics of the sample; second, to test the variables for any violation of the assumptions underlying the statistical methods that were employed to address the research questions (Pallant, 2010). These descriptive statistics include central tendency measures such as mean, median, and mode; and variability (dispersion) measures such as standard deviation (SD) and range of scores (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). In this section, the mean and the SD are described. The mean is the sum of the measurements divided by their number; it is the most frequently-used method to find the accurate average of a set of data. The SD measures how far away each value in a set of data is from their mean.

Table 5.2 presents the questionnaire items associated with all of the measures of the study and their mean and SD. The responses to all the items were placed on a six-point Likert scale in which 1 = “Strongly disagree” and 6 = “Strongly agree”. Table 5.2 shows that the mean scores of business strategies in the various banks were more than the average or the midpoint of the scale. This shows that on the average these banks that the individuals’ represents have actually implemented these business strategies. In terms of SD, it can be seen that business strategies items were lower than 1.0, showing little variation in the answers to these items.

The data presented in table 5.2 also revealed that the mean scores of the TM practice items were also above average. This clearly indicates that on the average these items constituted important TM practices of the respondents. The SD of all of the items measuring TM were lower than 1.0, indicating little variations in the responses of the respondents. With regards to TM outcomes, the mean scores of the items measuring satisfaction, and commitment were above average. This gives an indication that TM practices lead to satisfaction, and commitment that are antecedents of employee performance. In terms of SD, the items measuring satisfaction, and commitment varied slightly among the respondents, as on the average the items had a SD value of 0.2. However, the mean of the items measuring POS were below average and the SD also varies widely among the respondents. Thus, respondents appear not to perceive much support from the TM system of their bank.

With reference to employee performance, the mean scores of the items were above average. Thus, the items measuring task, contextual, and adaptive performances were on average 4.2. This appears to show that there was a strong positive relationship between TM and these aspects of employee performance. Similarly, the SD of these items was on average less than 1.0, indicating that there was less variation in the responses. However, the mean scores of the items measuring counterproductive work behaviours were below average (2.6). This means that TM practices have a negative relationship with counterproductive behaviours. In other words, talented employees may not engage in negative or behaviours that harm their organisation. The SD of the items measuring counterproductive behaviours were on the average above 0.5, showing little variation in the responses.

Lastly, the mean of items measuring intention to quit were below the average point of the scale (2.5), which indicated that on the average, the respondents were likely to leave their current bank. However, the SD of these items were above 1.0, showing variations in the responses to the intention to quit items. Overall, the mean values of the variables were close to the mean values, which indicated that there was a high effect of extreme scores on the mean and that there was no problem with outliers. Also, all of the SD values indicated that the data were normally distributed and concentrated around the mean and were less more spread. The descriptive analysis of the measurement scale is shown in table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Questionnaire Items and Descriptive Statistics

Construct	Items	Description	Mean	SD
Quality	*Quali1*	My bank stresses being a high quality producer	4.32	0.22
	Quali2	My bank competes primarily on the basis of quality	4.24	0.26
Cost	*Cost1*	My bank stresses being a low-cost producer	5.07	0.88
Reduction	*Cost2*	My bank charges higher prices than competitors	4.95	1.03
	Cost3	My bank stresses charging the lowest prices in the market	5.06	0.95
Innovative	*Inno1*	My bank introduces many new products to the market	4.41	0.35
	Inno2	My bank introduces more new products than competitors	3.60	0.37
	Inno3	My bank offers a wide variety of products in its product line	4.43	0.35
TM Practices	*TM1*	My competencies are in sync with my job description	4.70	0.40
	TM2	I have the opportunity to fully utilize my knowledge and skills	4.36	1.23
	TM3	I have the necessary competencies needed to perform my job	4.50	0.46
	TM4	I can try my own methods/ideas to do the job	3.95	0.50
	TM5	Development programs are available to me least once a year	4.58	1.31
Satisfaction	*Satis1*	In general, I like working in this bank	4.31	0.23
	Satis2	In general, I don't like my job (R)	3.40	0.34
	Satis3	At work, I have the opportunity to do what I do best	4.25	0.27
Commitment	*Comit1*	I feel emotionally attached to this bank	4.24	0.22
	Comit2	I really feel as if this bank's problems are my own	4.16	0.16
	Comit3	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my bank	4.18	1.15
POS	*POS1*	My bank cares about my opinions	2.92	1.44
	POS2	My bank really cares about my well-being	2.74	1.32
	POS3	My bank strongly considers my goals and values	2.81	1.33
	POS4	Help is available from my bank when I have a problem	2.77	1.32
	POS5	My bank would forgive an honest mistake on my part	2.22	1.18
	POS6	My bank is willing to help me if I need a special favour	2.19	1.13
Task	*Task1*	My quantity of work is higher than average	4.47	1.07
	Task2	My quality of work is much higher than average	4.25	1.05

Table 5.2 (Continued)

Construct	Items	Description	Mean	SD
	Task3	My efficiency is much higher than average	4.24	0.17
	Task4	I uphold the highest professional standards	4.22	0.20
	Task5	My work quality is higher than the formal standard	3.72	0.23
Contextual	*Cont1*	I often start new tasks myself, when my old ones are finished	4.20	1.19
	Cont2	I take on challenging tasks, when available	4.25	0.21
	Cont3	I take initiative when something has to be organised	3.97	0.23
	Cont4	I am able to fulfil my responsibilities	4.13	1.13
	Cont5	I take initiative when there is a problem to be solved	3.92	0.44
	Cont6	I accept and learn from feedback	4.64	0.32
	Cont7	I cooperate well with colleagues at work	3.71	1.13
	Cont8	I communicate effectively with colleagues at work	3.96	0.21
Adaptive	*Adapt1*	I work at keeping my job knowledge up to date	4.22	0.18
	Adapt2	I easily adjust to changes in my work	3.19	1.13
	Adapt3	I recover fast after difficult situations or setbacks at work	3.94	0.14
	Adapt4	I always come up with creative solutions to new problems	3.73	0.18
	Adapt5	I have demonstrated flexibility	3.85	1.03
	Adapt6	I cope well with uncertainty and unpredictability at work	4.12	0.11
CPWB	*Count1*	I purposely work slowly	2.66	0.56
	Count2	I purposely make mistakes	2.69	0.56
	Count3	I focus on the negative aspects of a work situation	2.66	0.57
	Count4	I complain about unimportant matters at work	2.65	0.60
Intention to quit	*Quit1*	I would prefer another more ideal job to the one I have now	2.24	1.51
	Quit3	I won't be working for this bank a year from now	2.18	1.53
	Quit3	I have seriously thought about leaving this bank	2.18	1.53
	Quit4	I don't intend to remain with this bank for long	2.26	1.44

Note: N= 232, SD= SD, R = Reverse Scored, POS = Perceived Organisational Support, CPWB= Counter-productive Work Behaviours

5.4 Data Preparation and Screening

The preparation and screening of data are an essential component of applying most multivariate techniques (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). This is time- consuming but can be helpful in reducing bias and the non-significance in the results. Thus, screening the data helps the researcher to evaluate the impact of missing data, identifying outliers, and testing for multivariate assumptions. Accordingly, this study carefully prepared and screened for missing data and outliers, and tested for multivariate assumptions (normality, multicollinearity, linearity and homoscedasticity) of the data and these are discussed below.

5.4.1 Missing Data

Missing data is very common and pervasive in survey research involving human beings (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). Missing data are characterised in a number of ways. They can be missing completely at random [MCAR], missing at random [MAR] and missing not at random [MNAR] (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Missing data is considered MCAR if the distribution is unpredictable and is not related to the values of other questions responses. Missing data is called MAR if the pattern of missing data is predictable from other variables in the date set. Lastly, NMAR is where the missingness is related to the dependent variable and therefore cannot be ignored (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014).

Missing data has two significant negative impacts. First, it reduces the statistical power, making the statistical technique unable to detect the significant effect in the data set. Second, missing data has a negative effect on the accuracy of estimating parameters (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Missing data can occur for several reasons, such as refusal to answer certain questions on the part of the respondents, data entry errors, and respondents lack of knowledge on a particular topic. Even though missing data cannot be totally prevented, it can be reduced considerable by using self-administered questionnaires that are well designed and pretested. Hence, this was followed, leading

to a minimal amount of missing data in this study where only 18 questionnaires had missing data.

A number of approaches exist on how to handle missing data, although experts differ on their personal recommendations concerning which technique to use under varying degrees of the randomness of the missing data. These include listwise deletion, pairwise deletion, and imputation techniques. Listwise deletion involves deleting from the statistical analysis all cases that have missing data while pairwise deletion only excludes the case if they are missing the data required for specific analysis. Imputation techniques attempt to impute or substitute for a missing value some other value that they deem to be a reasonable estimate (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014).

This study used the listwise approach to deal with the missing data problem. The listwise approach is simple and is perfectly appropriate if the number of deleted incomplete cases is small. Moreover, listwise deletion leads to unbiased parameter estimates if the data are missing completely at random (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Therefore, the 18 questionnaires that had missing data were completely discarded. This resulted in a decrease in the sample size but had no significant influence on the richness of the data and the number of remaining cases was adequate for the analysis. As a result, a total of 232 valid questionnaires were used in this study to analyse the data.

5.4.2 Outliers

Outliers are cases with extreme or unusual values and this can be uni-variate or multivariate (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Uni-variate outliers are data points with extreme values with regard to a single variable, whereas multivariate outliers are data points with extreme values with regard to multiple variables. Outliers can result from several causes, such as data entry errors or improper attribute coding, extraordinary events or unusual circumstances, errors in sampling, respondent intentional or motivated by misreporting, or legitimately from the correct population being sampled (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). In this study, a Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” or “strongly agree” could become an outlier because they were the

extreme points of the scale. Hence, evaluating uni-variate outliers was irrelevant here as the respondents may have had different or extreme opinions with regard to a particular issue.

With regards to multivariate outliers, this study used Mahalanobis D^2 as a measure. Mahalanobis D^2 is used to evaluate the position of each observation compared with the centre of all observations on a set of variables (Hair et al., 2010). From the results of the Mahalanobis D^2, any observation that has a probability of 0.001 or less is considered as an outlier or with the use of SPSS, the Mahalanobis D^2 values are evaluated with a Chi-square (χ^2) distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of variables and evaluated with a table of critical values for Chi-square (χ^2) of $p < 0.001$ (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). However, Stoimenova, Mateev and Dobreva (2006) are of the view that observations with Mahalanobis D^2 probabilities of 0.001 are not necessarily outliers and could still belong to the data distribution. Using AMOS, Mahalanobis D^2 was used to measured outliers and eight (8) observations were found to be outliers.

While some researchers believe that the best way to deal with outliers is to delete them (Osborne and Overbay, 2004), Hair et al. (2010) argued that deleting outliers might improve the multivariate analysis but at the risk of limiting generalisability. Therefore, in order to ensure generalisability to the entire population, outliers should be retained if they depict a representative segment of the population (Hair et al., 2010). The presence of a few outliers within a large sample is not a big concern (Kline, 2005). The decision can also be to retain these values as they can explain the uniqueness of the observation (Pallant, 2010). Accordingly, I decided to retain them.

Table 5.3 Mahalanobis D^2 for Outliers

Observation Number	Mahalanobis D2-Distance	*p1*	*p2*
93	127.533	0	0
116	106.897	0	0
98	106.341	0	0
43	104.625	0	0
64	99.626	0	0
172	98.802	0	0
182	94.564	0	0
117	93.622	0	0

5.4.3 Normality

Normality is the most fundamental assumption underlying the multivariate analysis of data. Normality is the extent to which a variable or data corresponds to the shape of a normal distribution, the benchmark for statistical methods (Hair et al., 2010). Even though it is very difficult, it is beneficial as variations from the normal distribution render all statistical results and tests invalid. Checking for uni-variate normality is the common approach, as multivariate normality means that the individual variables are normal in uni-variate and that their combinations are also normal (Hair et al., 2010). Uni-variate normality can be assessed with the use of statistical or graphical approaches. The statistical approach of assessing normality uses kurtosis and skewness. Kurtosis refers to the "peakedness" or "flateness" of the distribution compared with the normal distribution. A positive kurtosis indicates that the distribution is more peaked than the normal distribution, whereas a negative kurtosis indicates that the distribution is less peaked than the normal distribution.

Skewness on the other hand refers to the degree of symmetry of a distribution around the mean. In a positively-skewed distribution, the long tail of the distribution is to the right while a negatively-skewed distribution has the long tail on the left side. A normally-distributed variable will generate skewness and kurtosis values that hover around ±1.0 (Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013). In addition, the Kolmogorov-

Smirnov test and Shapiro-Wilk test can be used as a statistical test. Statistical significance with these measures with an alpha level of $p < 0.001$ indicates a possible uni-variate normality violation (Pallant, 2007; Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Graphical approaches of assessing uni-variate normality use histogram and stem-and-leaf plots for each variable.

Table 5.4 presents the skewness and kurtosis of the items in this study. The results shows that most of the skewness values (except variables Cost1, Cost2, Cost3, Quit1, Quit2, Quit3, Quit4, Count1, Count2, Count3, and Count4) were positive and close to zero (between 0.01 and 0.9), showing a very slight skew to the left hand side while the skewness values for the variables (Cost1, Cost2, Cost3, Quit1, Quit2, Quit3, Quit4, Count1, Count3, and Count4) were negative and close to zero (between -0.02 and -0.09), which shows a very slight skew to the right hand side. However, Count2 had a skewness value of -1.26, while Qua1 had 1.38. Furthermore, all of the kurtosis values (except variables Qua2, Inno1, Cost1, Cost2, Cost3, TM4, Task1, Task2, Task3, Task4, Adapt1, Adapt2, Adapt3, Adapt4, Satis1, Satis2, Satis3, Cont1, Cont2, Cont3, Cont4, Count1, Count3, Count4) were negative and roughly close to zero (-0.2 and -0.9), which shows very slight flat shape with few cases at the extreme.

On the other hand the variables Qua2, Inno1, Cost1, Cost2, Cost3, TM4, Task1, Task2, Task3, Task4, Adapt1, Adapt2, Adapt3, Adapt4, Satis1, Satis2, Satis3, Cont1, Cont2, Cont3, Cont4, Count1, Count3, Count4 were positive and roughly close to zero (between 0.3 and 0.8), which shows very slight peaked shape with very close cases at the extreme. Also, variables Qua1, Comit1, Comit2, Comit3, and Count2 had kurtosis values of between ±2.08 to ±1.02 giving an indication of skewed. The results showed that none of the items had extreme skewness as none of the values was higher than ±3.0. Based on this and the fact that the values were not extreme, multivariate normality could be assumed. Indeed, Hair et al. (2010) argued that significant departures from normality may be negligible and have no severe impact on the results when sample sizes exceed 200. Therefore, none of these variables was transformed.

Table 5.4 Assessment of Normality

Construct	Items	Skewness	Kurtosis	Construct	Items	Skewness	Kurtosis
Quality	Qua1	1.38	2.08	***Satisf-action***	Satis1	0.73	0.40
	Qua2	0.93	0.30		Satis2	0.99	0.56
Innovation	Inno1	0.95	0.34		Satis3	0.73	0.08
	Inno2	0.66	-0.28	***Talent***	TM1	0.72	-0.11
	Inno3	0.87	0.20	***Management***	TM2	0.89	-0.01
Cost	Cost1	-0.83	0.66		TM3	0.91	-0.03
	Cost2	-0.93	0.71		TM4	0.93	0.74
	Cost3	-0.97	0.81		TM5	0.63	-0.35
Perceived	POS1	0.54	-0.42	***Task***	Task1	0.66	0.74
Organi-	POS2	0.58	-0.25	***Perform-***	Task2	0.77	0.67
sational	POS3	0.48	-0.32	***ance***	Task3	0.91	0.66
Support	POS4	0.62	-0.01		Task4	0.93	0.47
	POS5	0.529	-0.77		Task5	0.889	0.199
	POS6	0.45	-0.54	***Contextual***	Cont1	0.97	0.66
Adaptive	Adapt1	0.90	0.62	***Perform-***	Cont2	0.97	0.59
Performance	Adapt2	0.84	0.45	***ance***	Cont3	0.98	0.68
	Adapt3	0.92	0.54		Cont4	0.91	0.43
	Adapt4	0.90	0.51		Cont5	0.36	2.529
	Adapt5	0.36	0.25		Cont6	0.54	0.10
	Adapt6	0.24	0.97		Cont7	0.91	0.05
Counter-	Count1	-0.87	0.30		Cont8	1.085	1.133
productive	Count2	-1.26	1.28	***Intention to***	Quit1	-0.48	-0.68
Perform-	Count3	-0.90	0.43	***Quit***	Quit2	-0.22	-0.88
ance	Count4	-0.90	0.34		Quit3	-0.59	-0.38
Commit-	Comit1	0.34	-1.02		Quit4	-0.50	-0.70
ment	Comit2	0.41	-1.02				
	Comit3	0.05	-1.03				

5.4.4 Multicollinearity, Linearity, and Homoscedasticity

Multicollinearlity is a condition that exists when two or more predictors correlate very strongly. A number of ways are available to identify multicollinearity. They include: using the correlation matrix, the tolerance value, and the variance inflation factor [VIF] (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidel, 2014). In the correlation matrix, multicollinearity exists when the correlation between the variables in the analysis are very strongly related. Even though there is disagreement concerning the strength of the relationship, correlations of 0.80 and above raise a red flag. With respect to tolerance and VIF, less than 0.10 and greater than 10 respectively are recommended as good for the non-existence of multicollinearlity. In this study, I employed correlation matrix to assess multicollinearity because of the difficulties of selecting one variable in this study as the dependent variable. The results as displayed in table 5.15 show that the correlation between the variables did not exceed 0.80, indicating non-violation of the multicollinearity assumption.

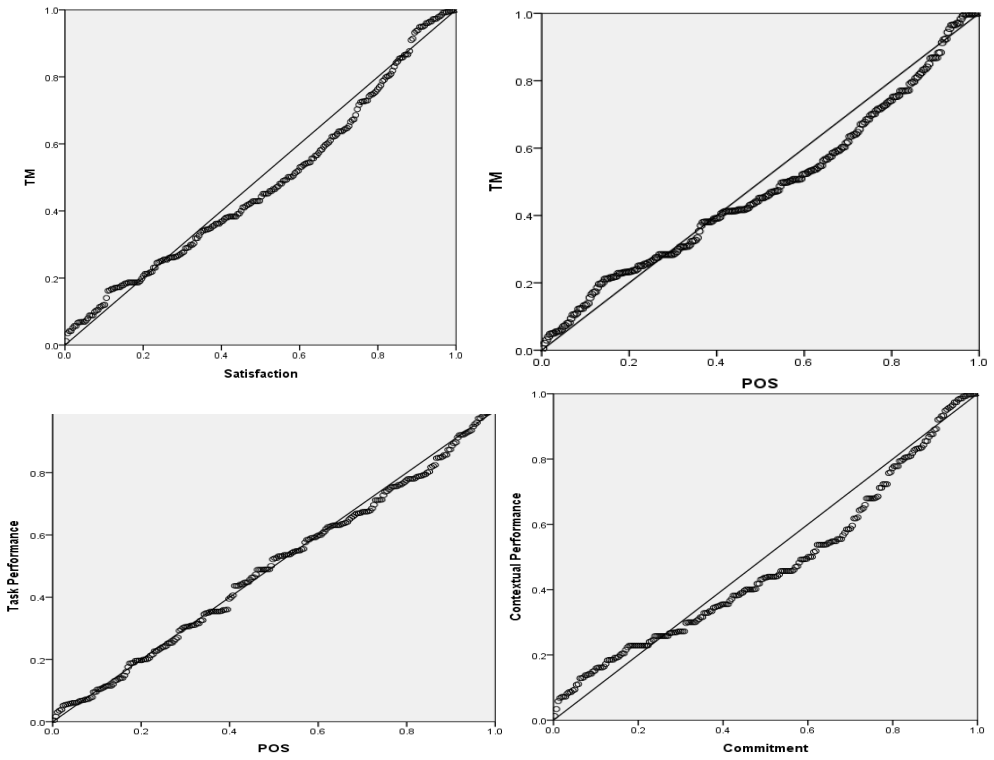


Figure 5.1 Scatter Plots for Some Variables

Linearity was checked using scatter plot and the results were satisfactory because all of the variable relationships were positive (an upward line can be drawn through the points). This was done with randomly-selected variables because it is difficult to assess each pair by scatter plots when numerous variables are involved. With respect to homoscedasticity, none of the individual relationships between the independent/dependent variable indicated a violation of homoscedasticity (cone or diamond shapes) and all of the relationships showed a rough cigar shape. This is shown in figure 5.1 and this indicated that there was a linear relationship between the variables. Based on this, all of the assumptions (missing data, outliers, normality, linearity, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity) were met; therefore, I was able to proceed to test the measurement model.

5.5 Measurement Model Evaluation

This section focuses on the measurement model of the variables in this study. A measurement model specifies how the variables measured logically and

systematically represent the constructs involved in a theoretical model (Hair et al., 2010). The measurement model was tested through the use of CFA to assess the reliability, validity, and uni-dimensionality of the data used in this study (Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013). CFA is a way of testing how well the measured variables represent a smaller number of constructs (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, CFA is used most appropriately when the researcher specify a theory a prior the number of factors as well as which variables load on those factors and then statistically test this hypothesised structure (Hair et al., 2010).

After testing the hypothesized structure, a number of indices were used to test the fit of the measurement model. Therefore, besides the chi-square (χ^2) value and the degree of freedom with its *p* value, the researcher has to report other indices such as the absolute fit index, incremental fit index, and parsimony fit index (Hair et al., 2010). [Section 4.8.1, Table 4.5, Chapter 4]. In this study, besides the normed chi-square (χ^2/df), the IFI and the RMSEA were reported as absolute fit indices, and the CFI and TLI were reported as incremental fit indices. The measurement model in this study followed the two-step analysis procedure recommended by Byrne (2009); Hair et al. (2010); Tabachinick and Fidel (2014) and Meyers, Gamst and Guarino(2013). In the first step, the study validated the measurement models for each individual latent construct using CFA and in the second step, the study estimated the complete structural model in which all of the latent constructs were correlated with each other.

5.6 CFA Results for Individual Constructs

The results of the CFAs of the individual constructs (business strategy, TM, satisfaction, commitment, POS, employee performance, and intention to quit) are discussed and presented in this section. The discussion here centres on the direction of the factor loadings (parameters), the fit indices, the critical ratios (C.R.), the significance of the path coefficients, the standardized regression weights, and the covariances and the correlations. All of these would indicate if a construct is fit to be used for further analysis and the fit constructs would then be used as the basis for constructing the overall measurement model.

5.6.1 CFA Results for Business Strategy

Business strategy was measured with eight items adopted from Zahra and George (2000). These eight items represent the dimensions of cost (three items), quality (two items) and innovation (three items). In this analysis it was expected that since the respondents answered this with respect to TM, the dimensions of quality and innovation would be positively related to TM while the dimension of cost would be negatively to TM. Business strategy was therefore subjected to CFA in order to find out if the data fit the model of three dimensions. The CFA results of the three dimensions of the model were as follows: the χ^2 value was 16.7 with a degree of freedom of 17 at a *p-value* of 0.473, while the χ^2/df was 0.984. The CFI = 1.00, IFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00 and the RMSEA = 0.000. This shows that the data fit the model of the three dimensions well.

Further examination of the model showed that all of the CRs values were greater than 1.96, which indicated that all of the estimates were statistically different from zero and the null hypothesis that all estimates equals 0.0 can be rejected. Additionally, the parameter estimates were positive and within the logical anticipated range of values (i.e. no estimate exceeded the value of 1.00). Again, the path coefficient from each latent construct to the observed indicators was significant ($p <$ 0.000) and the standardised regression weight ranged from 0.67 to 0.90. This supported the validity and reliability of the items (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). All covariances were significant and the correlations ranged from -0.20 to 0.54, which is considered reasonable and reliable.

I also conducted another CFA where all of the eight latent variables were loaded as one construct and the result were as follows: the χ^2 value was 96.4 with a degree of freedom of 20 at a *p-value* of 0.00 while the χ^2/df was 4.819. The CFI = 0.844, IFI = 0.847, TLI = 0.782 and RMSEA = 0.129. The factor loadings were also as follows: (Qua1= 0.34, Qua2 = 0.31, Inno1= 0.65, Inno2 = 0.77, Inno3 = 0.70, Cost1 = 0.44, Cost2 = 0.50, Cost3 = 0.52) and the factor loadings were statistically significant at $p < 0.001$. The model with one dimension (all eight items together) was compared with the model with three dimensions. Consistent with Zahra and George (2000), the CFA results showed that the three dimensions provided a better fit to the data than all of the eight items together. Accordingly, the three dimensions was used

for further analysis. Table 5.5 presents the results of the estimates, standard error, critical ratio, *p*-values and the AVE, and they all fall within the acceptable range.

Table 5.5 Parameter Estimates of Business Strategy

Latent	→	Manifest	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	*p*	AVE
Quality	→	Qua2	0.884				
		Qua1	0.803	0.109	8.136	***	**0.713**
Innovation	→	Inno3	0.674				
		Inno2	0.843	0.142	8.985	***	**0.556**
		Inno1	0.710	0.122	8.704	***	
Cost	→	Cost3	0.900				
		Cost2	0.810	0.063	13.640	***	**0.687**
		Cost1	0.772	0.060	12.875	***	

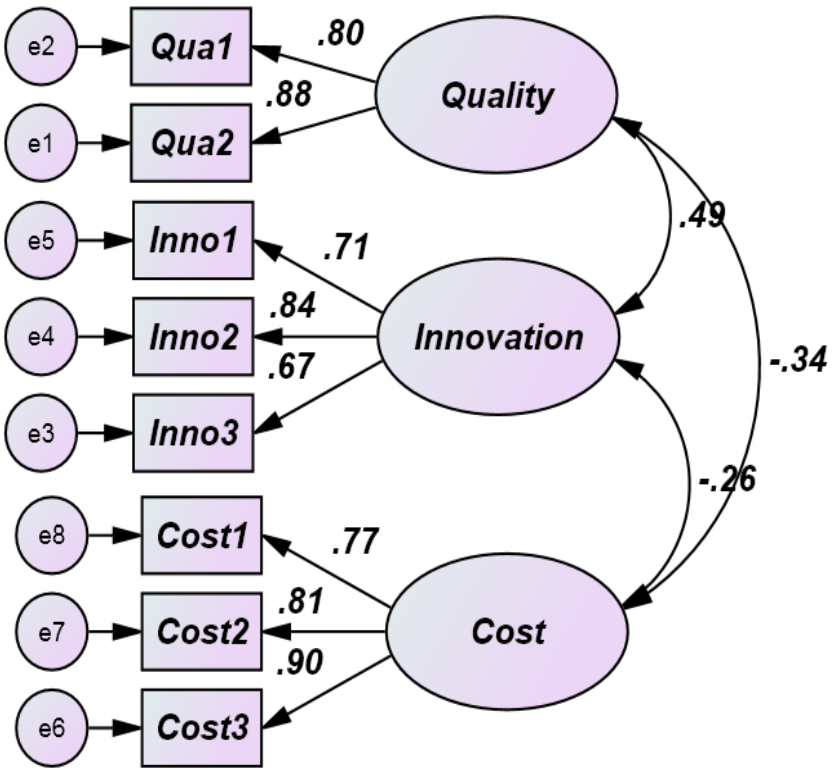


Figure 5.2 Measurement Model for Business Strategies

5.6.2 CFA Results for Talent Management

Talent management was measured with five items as adapted from Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015). In their study, Luna-Arocas and Morley measured TM with five items representing the dimensions of talent alignment, talent application, talent competency, talent autonomy, and talent development. These five items were subjected to CFA. The fit indices showed that the model achieved a very good fit with the data (the χ^2 value was 11.3 with a degree of freedom of 5 at a *p-value* of 0.046 while the χ^2/df was 2.256. the CFI = 0.97, IFI = 0.988, TLI =0.975 and RMSEA = 0.074). The CR values were greater than 1.96, which indicated that all of the estimates were statistically different from zero while all of the parameter estimates were positive and within the logically anticipated range of values.

More specifically, the path coefficient from each latent construct to the observed indicators was significant ($p < 0.000$) and the standardised regression weights ranged from 0.71 to 0.82. Again, all of the covariances were significant and the correlations ranged from 0.38 to 0.83, which is considered reasonable and reliable as well (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Table 5.6 presents a summary of the results in terms of the estimates, standard error, critical ratio, *p*-values, and the AVE.

Table 5.6 Parameter Estimates of Talent Management

Latent	→	**Manifest**	**Estimates**	**S.E.**	**C.R.**	***p***	**AVE**
TM	→	TM5	0.700				
	→	TM4	0.800	0.132	10.558	***	
	→	TM3	0.710	0.120	9.837	***	**0.568**
	→	TM2	0.730	0.118	9.911	***	
	→	TM1	0.820	0.126	10.842	***	

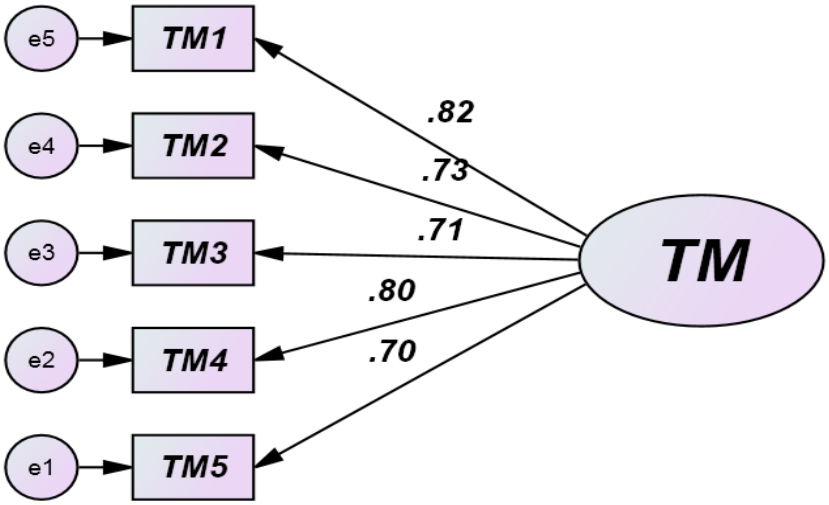


Figure 5.3 Measurement Model for Talent Management

5.6.3 CFA Results for Perceived Organisational Support

Perceived organisational support was measured with six (6) items adapted from Eisenberger et al. (1997). These items were subjected to CFA and the result showed that all of the indices achieved a very good fit. Specifically, the χ^2 value was 52.9 with a degree of freedom of 9 at a *p-value* of 0.001, χ^2/df=5.876, IFI = 0.946, TLI = 0.910, CFI = 0.946 and RMSEA = 0.070. The factor loadings were also acceptable, ranging from a low value of 0.63 to a high value of 0.89, and all of the items had a statistically-significant relationship with their factors ($p < 0.001$).

The direction of all of the estimated parameters was positive, and the critical ratios (t-test) for all of the estimated parameters exceeded the benchmark of +1.96, which were also found to be statistically significant and the standard error (SE) was not excessively large or small. The covariances were significant and the correlations ranged from 0.61 to 0.90, which is considered reasonable and reliable as well. This is shown in table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Parameter Estimates of Perceived Organizational Support

Latent	→	Manifest	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	*p*	AVE
		POS6	0.673				
		POS5	0.627	0.100	8.712	***	
POS	→	POS4	0.757	0.092	10.313	***	
	→	POS3	0.885	0.096	11.724	***	**0.598**
	→	POS2	0.828	0.094	11.124	***	
	→	POS1	0.835	0.102	11.208	***	

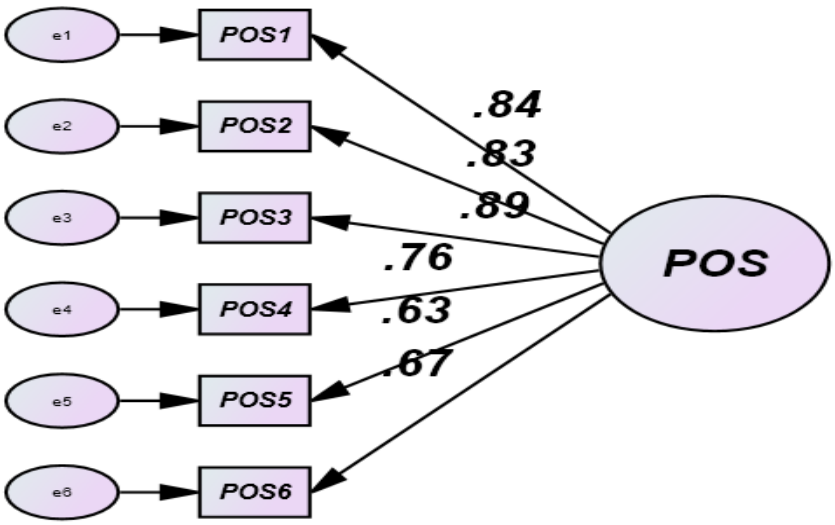


Figure 5.4 Measurement Model for Perceived Organisational Support

5.6.4 CFA Results for Employee Satisfaction

Employee satisfaction in this study was measured with three items developed by Seashore et al. (1982). These three items were subjected to CFA and it was found that the model was just identified because of the number of indicators in the model. However, both the internal consistency of the scale and the convergent validity were high, while the Cronbach alpha was above 0.80 and the AVE was 0.782. Therefore, the factor loadings were good as they ranged between 0.76 and 0.99 with all having a statistically-significant relationship with their factor loadings at $p < 0.001$. Again, all of the goodness-of-fit indices indicated excellent fit (the χ^2 value was 0.00 with a

degree of freedom of 0 at a *p-value* of 0.001, IFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.000, CFI = 1.000 and RMSEA = 0.000).

Thus, a just identified model was perfect. The CR values were greater than 1.96 which indicated that all of the estimates were statistically different from zero while all of the parameter estimates were positive and within the logically-anticipated range of values. All covariances were significant and the correlations ranged from 0.63 to 0.90, which is considered reasonable and reliable as well. This is shown in table 5.8 and figure 5.5.

Table 5.8 Parameter Estimates of Satisfaction

Latent	→	Manifest	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	*p*	AVE
Satisfaction	→	Satis3	0.763				
	→	Satis2	0.991	0.01	21.308	***	**0.782**
	→	Satis1	0.885	0.01	15.091	***	

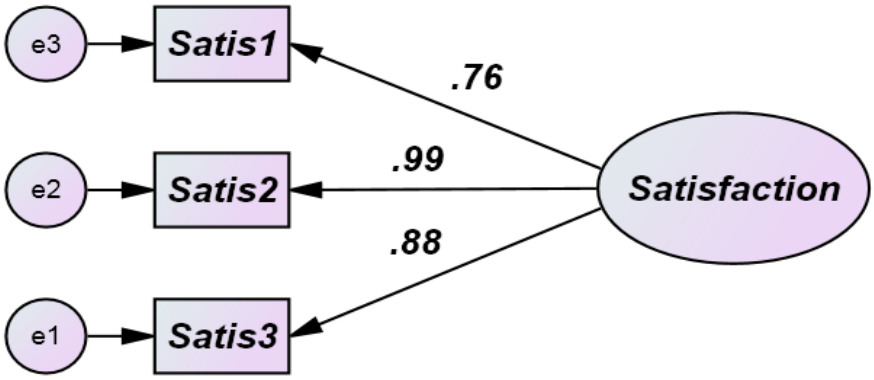


Figure 5.5 Measurement Model for Satisfaction

5.6.5 CFA Results for Employee Commitment

As indicated earlier, employee commitment in this study was regarded as affective commitment. Therefore, employee commitment was measured using three items from the scale developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993). A CFA was performed on these items and the model was just identified. As such the fit indices

were as follows: (the χ^2 value was 0.0 with a degree of freedom of 0 at a *p-value* of 0.000, IFI = 1.000, TLI = 1.000, CFI = 1.000 and RMSEA = 0.000). Again, all of the CR values were greater than 1.96, indicating that all of the estimates were statistically different from zero.

The parameter estimates were all within the logically-anticipated range of values while the path coefficient from each latent construct to the observed indicators was significant ($p < 0.000$) and the standardised regression weight ranged from 0.70 to 0.99. This supported the validity and reliability of the items (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). All of the covariances were significant and the correlations ranged from 0.52 to 0.84, which is considered reasonable and reliable as well. This is shown in table 5.9 and figure 5.6.

Table 5.9 Parameter Estimates of Commitment

Latent	→	**Manifest**	**Estimate**	**S.E.**	**C.R**	***p***	**AVE**
Commitment	→	Comit3	0.991				
	→	Comit2	0.704	0.049	14.547	***	**0.813**
	→	Comit1	0.980	0.121	40.311	***	

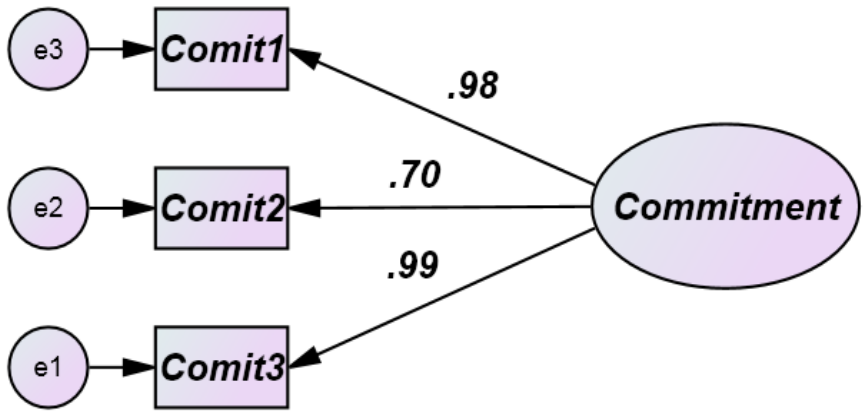


Figure 5.6 Measurement Model for Commitment

5.6.6 CFA Results for Employee Performance

Employee performance is generally considered as a multi-dimensional concept (Borman and Motowildo, 1993; Sonnentag and Frese, 2002). A review by Koopmans et al. (2011) showed that employee performance is made up of four dimensions: task, contextual, and adaptive performance, as well as well as counterproductive behaviours. One of the central arguments in this study is that most of the studies on TM and employee performance (Abbasi, Sohail, Cheema, Syed, 2010; Chami-Malaeb, 2012; Kumari and Bahuguna, 2012; Wurim, 2012; Kaur, 2013; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015) did not research employee performance according to these dimensions. It was therefore not clear which of the dimensions had been studied previously. Mensah (2015) has argued that TM may relate to the various dimensions of employee performance differently. Therefore, this study attempted to find out the relationship between TM and these four dimensions of employee performance.

Employee performance was therefore subjected to CFA to find out if the data fit the model of the four dimensions. The CFA result of the four dimensions of the model was as follows: the χ^2 value was 847.0 with a degree of freedom of 225 at a *p-value* of 0.000 while the χ^2/df was 2.50. The CFI = 0.934, IFI = 0.935, TLI = 0.920 and RMSEA = 0.080. This showed that the data fit the model of the four dimensions. Further examination of the model showed that all of the CR values were greater than 1.96, which indicated that all of the estimates were statistically different from zero.

Also, the parameter estimates were positive and within the locally-anticipated range of values. Again, the path coefficients from each latent construct to the observed indicators were significant ($p < 0.000$) and the standardised regression weight ranged from 0.53 to 0.95. This supported the validity and reliability of the items (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). All of the covariances were significant and the correlations ranged from -0.26 to 0.61, which is considered reasonable and reliable as well.

To be sure whether the data fit the four dimensions of employee performance to be used in this study, all of the items were loaded once to be compared with the four dimensions. The results of the overall CFA were given as follows: the χ^2 value was 475.1 with a degree of freedom of 104 at a *p-value* of 0.000, χ^2/df =4.568, IFI = 0.783, TLI = 0.748, CFI = 0.781 and RMSEA = 0.124. The factor loadings of the

first-order CFA ranged from -0.42 to 0.75 and they were statistically significant at $p < 0.001$.

In comparing the overall CFA model to the four dimension CFA model, both models had a good χ^2/df but in terms of other indices, the overall model poorly fit the data. Therefore, based on other indices, it can be seen that the data fit the four dimension model better than the overall CFA model. Hence, the four dimension CFA model was used in subsequent analysis. This is illustrated in table 5.10 and figure 5.7.

Table 5.10 Parameter Estimates of Employee Performance

Latent	→	**Manifest**	**Estimate**	**S.E.**	**C.R**	***p***	**AVE**
Task	→	Task5	0.665	0.120	9.278	***	
	→	Task4	0.531				
	→	Task3	0.867	0.142	10.281	***	**0.539**
	→	Task2	0.575	0.113	8.334	***	
	→	Task1	0.943	0.147	10.586	***	
Contextual	→	Cont8	0.659				
	→	Cont7	0.584	0.119	8.031	***	
	→	Cont6	0.834	0.147	9.440	***	
	→	Cont5	0.842	0.140	9.387	***	
	→	Cont4	0.549	0.140	7.488	***	**0.517**
	→	Cont3	0.547	0.141	7.512	***	
	→	Cont2	0.621	0.154	8.051	***	
	→	Cont1	0.721	0.153	8.649	***	
Adaptive	→	Adapt6	0.677	0.092	10.862	***	
	→	Adapt5	0.752				
	→	Adapt4	0.779	0.088	12.075	***	**0.568**
	→	Adapt3	0.771	0.093	12.091	***	
	→	Adapt2	0.828	0.090	12.595	***	
	→	Adapt1	0.706	0.084	10.909	***	
CPWB	→	Count4	0.915				
	→	Count3	0.954	0.038	28.108	***	**0.739**
	→	Count2	0.951	0.038	27.735	***	
	→	Count1	0.899	0.044	23.319	***	

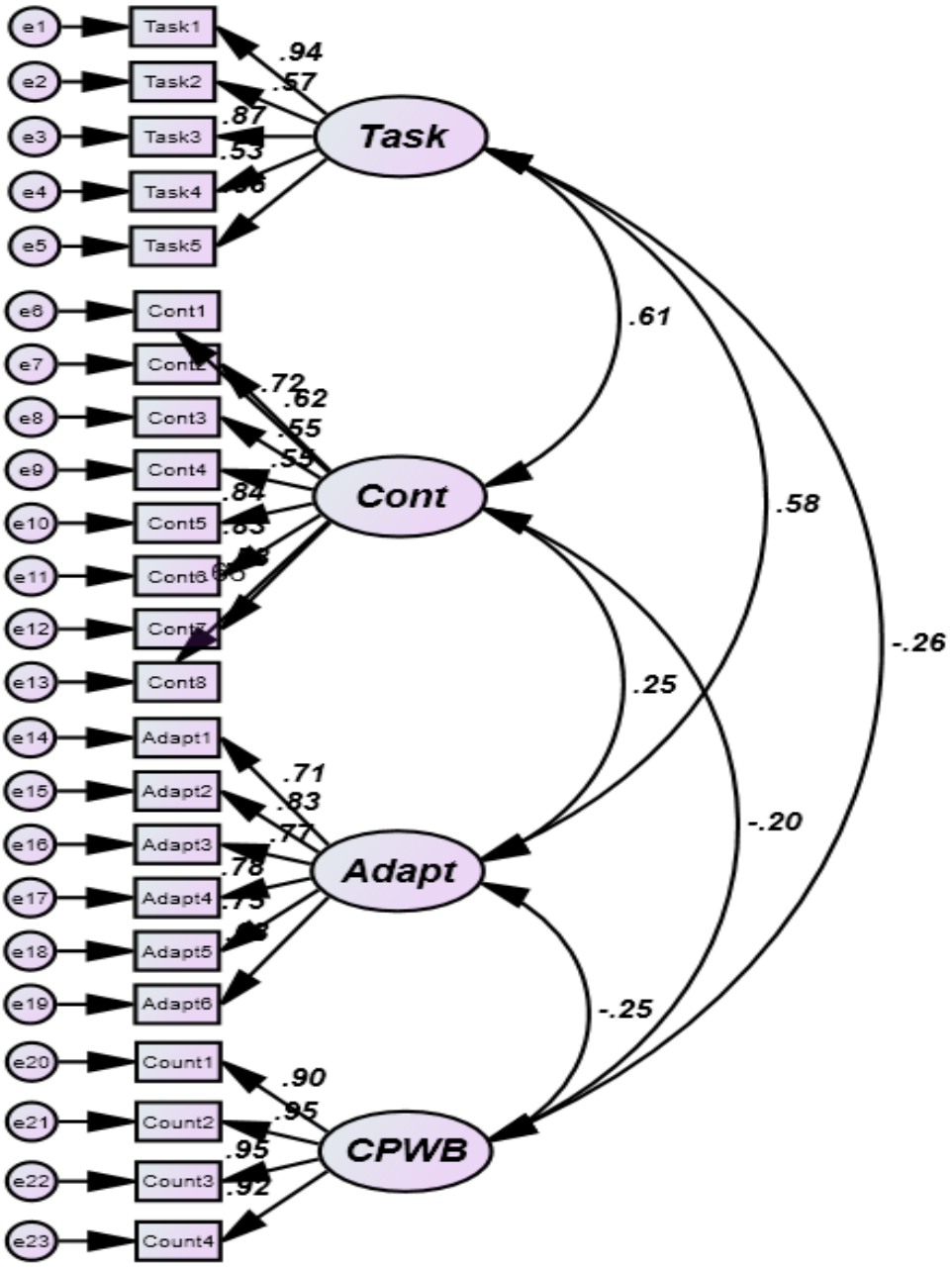


Figure 5.7 Measurement Model for Employee Performance

5.6.7 CFA Results for Intention to Quit

Employee intention to quit was measured with four (4) items developed by O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991). After subjecting these four items to CFA, the results of the fit indices were as follows: (the χ^2 value was 8.7 with a degree of freedom of 2 at a *p-value* of 0.013, χ^2/df=4.343, IFI = 0.986, TLI = 0.957, CFI = 0.986 and RMSEA = 0.120). All of the factor loadings were good, ranging from 0.55

to 0.92 and all of the items had a statistically significant relationship with their factors ($p < 0.001$) and also in the expected direction. However, the χ^2 value and the RMSEA indices did not fit the data well and required further modification. An examination of the modification indices showed that item two (Quit2) did not fit the data and had to be deleted.

The re-run showed that the model was just identified because of the number of indicators in the model. However, the data fit the model well. All of the factor loadings were good, ranging from 0.62 to 0.95, and all of the items had a statistically-significant relationship with their factors ($p < 0.001$). The fit indices were as follows: IFI = 1.00, TLI, 1.00, CFI = 1.00 and RMSEA = 0.070. Again, the critical ratio (t-test) for all the estimated parameters exceeded the benchmark of +1.96 and was statistically significant, and the SE was not excessively large or small. The covariances were significant and the correlations ranged from 0.48 to 0.95. This is shown in table 5.11 and figure 5.8.

Table 5.11 Parameter Estimates of Intention to Quit

Latent	→	Manifest	Estimate	S.E.	C.R	P	AVE
Quit	→	Quit4	0.77				
	→	Quit3	0.99	0.09	13.78	***	**0.722**
	→	Quit1	0.77	0.07	12.75	***	

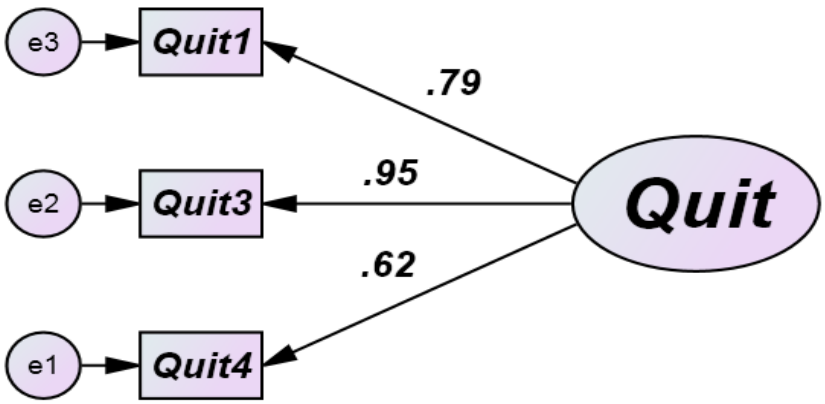


Figure 5.8 Measurement Model for Intention to Quit

5.7 CFA Results for the Overall Measurement Model

Prior to estimating the overall measurement model, the measurement for each construct was examined separately to determine if the data fit the specified indicators and constructs. This was examined based on the goodness of fit indices, factor loadings, and AVE of each construct in this study. Therefore, the above results of the individual constructs CFAs were used as the basis for constructing the overall measurement model. Specifically, the indicators retained from the individual constructs CFAs were business strategies (quality, innovation and cost), TM, employee performance (task, contextual, adaptive and counterproductive), commitment, satisfaction, POS, and intention to quit, and these were used to construct the overall measurement model. The rationale here was to determine if adequate correlations existed between the latent constructs so that they could be included in the structural model.

In confirming the overall structural model, IBM SPSS AMOS 20.0 software with the use of full maximum likelihood estimation (FMLE) was employed in estimating the parameters. Six criteria were employed to assess the measurement model: the chi-square (χ^2), the normed chi-square (χ^2/df), CFI, IFI, TLI and the RMSEA. After subjecting the overall measurement model to CFA, the results were as follows: the χ^2 value was 2265.785 with a degree of freedom of 1159 at a *p-value* of 0.000 while the χ^2/df was 1.955, CFI = 0.925, IFI = 0.926, TLI = 0.914 and RMSEA = 0.053. The critical ratios (t-test) for all the estimated parameters exceeded the benchmark of +1.96 and were statistically significant, and the SEs were not excessively large or small. The covariances were significant and the correlations ranged from -0.51 to 0.72, indicating that there was sufficient discriminant validity among the latent constructs.

In summary, the chi-square (χ^2) with its *p*-value was significant, which means that there was sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis (the model did not fit the data well). However, because the chi-square value cannot be used alone, as it depends on sample size and will almost always be significant with large samples (Byrne, 2009; Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014), other alternative goodness-of-fit measures were employed. The χ^2/df

was 1.482, which is in an acceptable range according to the criterion ≤ 3 and ≤ 5 (Hair et al., 2010). The RMSEA value was 0.053, which was below the established cut-off value of 0.08.

Again, the CFI, IFI and TLI were 0.925, 0.926 and 0.14 respectively, which exceeded the recommended cut-off value of 0.900 (Byrne, 2009; Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Also, in cases of complex models indices as low as 0.80 or even 0.70 are still accepted (Judge and Hulin, 1993). Moreover, the AVE values for all constructs were well above the recommended value of 0.50. Hence, the variance captured by the constructs was greater than the variance due to measurement error (Hair et al., 2010). In short, the measurement model provided evidence to proceed with the structural modelling. Figure 5.9 presents the CFA results of the overall measurement model.

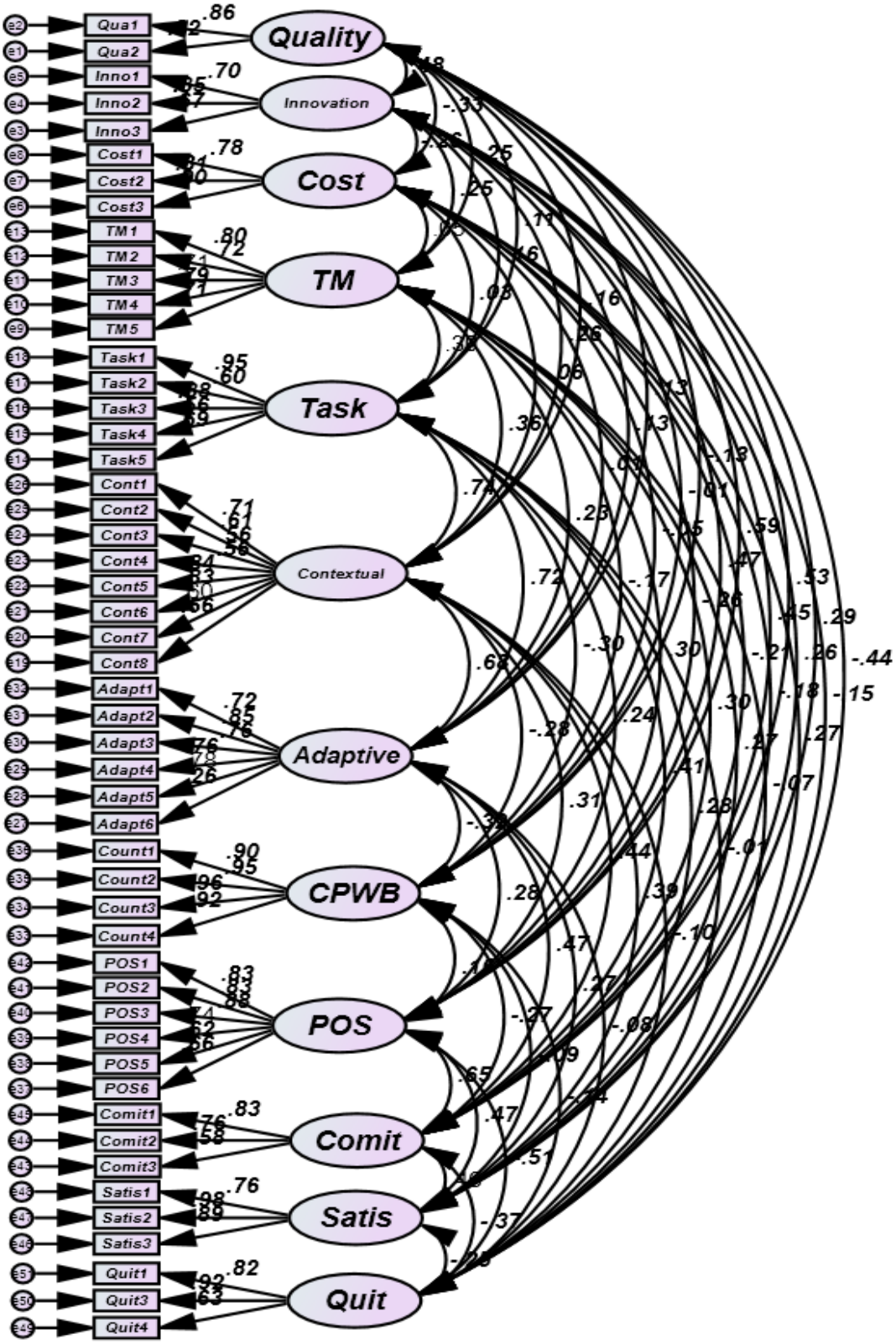


Figure 5.9 CFA Results for the Overall Measurement Model

5.8 Measurement of Reliability and Validity

This section discusses and tests the reliability and validity of the measures. Validity and reliability are tools used to evaluate the characteristics of a good measurement (Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Validity and reliability are usually performed to reduce measurement errors, which makes the most of the model testing in the hypothesis. The measurements in this study were measured with multi-item scales; hence there was a need to examine the extent to which a particular measurement represented a certain construct.

5.8.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the accuracy and consistency of a measurement (Hair et al., 2010). It also refers to the degree of stability of a scale. The more reliable an instrument is, the smaller are the random fluctuations and the closer the observed scores to the truce score (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). There are two main ways for checking for the reliability of a measurement: external and internal. External reliability has to do with the consistency of the measurement over time. External reliability can be examined through test-retest method (Babbie, 2013). In this way an instrument can be administered twice to the same respondents. It is assumed that respondents that score high on the first test should also score high on the second test. However, Bryman and Cramer (2001) have argued that a low test-retest correlation does not always mean the reliability is low but may be due to the underlying concept itself changing.

The use of internal reliability is popular in multi-scale items. Cronbach's coefficient alpha is the most common measure of internal reliability. Coefficient alpha values between 0.70 and 0.80 are usually acceptable. However, when dealing with psychological constructs, values less than 0.70 (but more than 0.60) are acceptable because of the diversity of the measured constructs (Kline, 1999). Table 5.12 presents the results of the constructs reliability for all of the items (variables). All of the constructs had Cronbach alphas ranging from 0.78 to 0.90. The results exhibited that the construct reliability value for all of the latent variables or factors in this study provided for the existence of reliability.

Table 5.12 Reliability of the Measurement Scale

Constructs	No. of Items	Alpha
Quality	2	0.80
Innovation	3	0.78
Cost	3	0.88
Talent Management	5	0.83
Satisfaction	3	0.87
Commitment	3	0.81
POS	6	0.90
Task Performance	5	0.86
Contextual Performance	8	0.84
Adaptive Performance	6	0.88
Counter-productive Behaviours	4	0.89
Intention to Quit	3	0.83

A major deficiency with the coefficient alpha is its positive relationship with the number of scale items. Increasing the number of the scale items will increase the value of the coefficient alpha. Therefore, Cronbach's alpha may be inappropriately inflated by including several redundant items (Hair et al., 2010). To defeat this problem, reliability measures derived from CFA are suggested (Hair et al., 2010). These measures include the composite reliability and the AVE and both measures provide more rigorous results (Hair et al., 2010). These are discussed in the section below under validity.

5.8.2 Convergent, Construct, Discriminant, and Criterion Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration (Babbie, 2013:191). As described in Chapter four, there are several criteria for measuring the validity of a concept: face, content, construct (convergent and discriminant), and criterion validity. Face and content validity was discussed in chapter four. Hence this section will discuss convergent, discriminant, and criterion validity. Convergent validity is the degree to

which a construct's items are correlated with each other. High convergent validity occurs when the scale's items are highly correlated (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamstand Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Standardised loading estimates of 0.50 or higher indicate convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 5.13 shows the results of the magnitude, direction, and statistical significance of the estimated parameters between the latent variables and their indicators. The results show that the magnitude for all of the variables and their indicators was above the reasonable benchmark of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010). The direction for all of the estimated parameters was also in the same direction as anticipated and what previous researchers wanted them to be, where all of the indicators showed a positive direction. In addition, the critical ratio (t-test) for all of the estimated parameters exceeded the benchmark of +1.96, which were also found to be statistically significant, and the SEs were not excessively large or small (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Based on these, convergent validity and composite reliability were established in this study.

Table 5.13 Magnitude, Direction, Statistical Significance of Parameters and AVE

Latent	Manifest	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	*p*	AVE	Composite Reliability
Quality	Qua2	0.884				**0.713**	**0.832**
	Qua1	0.803	0.109	8.136	***		
Innovation	Inno3	0.674					
	Inno2	0.843	0.142	8.985	***	**0.556**	**0.788**
	Inno1	0.710	0.122	8.704	***		
Cost	Cost3	0.900					
	Cost2	0.810	0.063	13.640	***	**0.687**	**0.868**
	Cost1	0.772	0.060	12.875	***		
TM	TM5	0.700					
	TM4	0.800	0.132	10.558	***		
	TM3	0.710	0.120	9.837	***	**0.568**	**0.867**
	TM2	0.730	0.118	9.911	***		
	TM1	0.820	0.126	10.842	***		
POS	POS6	0.673					
	POS5	0.627	0.100	8.712	***		
	POS4	0.757	0.092	10.313	***	**0.598**	**0.898**
	POS3	0.885	0.096	11.724	***		
	POS2	0.828	0.094	11.124	***		

Table 5.13 (Continued)

Latent	Manifest	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	*p*	AVE	Composite Reliability
Satisfaction	Satis3	0.763					
	Satis2	0.991	0.01	21.308	***	**0.782**	**0.914**
	Satis1	0.885	0.01	15.091	***		
Commitment	Comit3	0.991					
	Comit2	0.704	0.049	14.547	***	**0.813**	**0.927**
	Comit1	0.980	0.121	40.311	***		
Task	Task5	0.665	0.120	9.278	***		
	Task4	0.531					
	Task3	0.867	0.142	10.281	***	**0.539**	**0.848**
	Task2	0.575	0.113	8.334	***		
	Task1	0.943	0.147	10.586	***		
Contextual	Cont8	0.659					
	Cont7	0.584	0.119	8.031	***		
	Cont6	0.834	0.147	9.440	***		
	Cont5	0.842	0.140	9.387	***		
	Cont4	0.549	0.140	7.488	***		
	Cont3	0.547	0.141	7.512	***	**0.517**	**0.869**
	Cont2	0.621	0.154	8.051	***		
	Cont1	0.721	0.153	8.649	***		
Adaptive	Adapt6	0.677	0.092	10.862	***		
	Adapt5	0.752				**0.568**	**0.887**
	Adapt4	0.779	0.088	12.075	***		
	Adapt3	0.771	0.093	12.091	***		
	Adapt2	0.828	0.090	12.595	***		
	Adapt1	0.706	0.084	10.909	***		
CPWB	Count4	0.915					
	Count3	0.954	0.038	28.108	***	**0.739**	**0.934**
	Count2	0.951	0.038	27.735	***		
	Count1	0.899	0.044	23.319	***		
Quit	Quit4	0.77					
	Quit3	0.99	0.09	13.78	***	**0.722**	**0.885**
	Quit1	0.77	0.07	12.75	***		

Discriminant validity (also referred to as divergent validity) is the degree to which a construct is truly different from other constructs (Hair et al., 2010). This type of validity involves demonstrating a lack of or low correlations between different constructs (Meyers, Gamst andGuarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). In order

to assess divergent validity, the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct was compared with the correlation estimates between constructs. The square root of the AVE for each construct should be higher than the correlation estimates between that construct and all other constructs (Hair et al., 2010). As can be seen from table 5.14, the square root of the AVE for each construct was higher than the correlation between that construct and other constructs. Moreover, the correlation coefficients among the study constructs as presented in table 5.15 in the next table did not exceed 0.80 (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, all of the constructs in this study represented different constructs and there were no problems with divergent validity.

Table 5.14 Inter-Construct Correlations and the Square Root of AVE

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Cost	**0.83**											
2. Innovation	-0.26	**0.75**										
3. Quality	-0.33	0.48	**0.84**									
4. POS	-0.26	0.47	0.59	**0.77**								
5. Quit	0.27	-0.15	-0.44	-0.51	**0.85**							
6. CPWB	-0.05	-0.01	-0.13	0.17	-0.14	**0.86**						
7. Adaptive	0.01	0.13	0.13	0.28	-0.08	-0.32	**0.75**					
8. Contextual	-0.06	0.26	0.16	0.31	-0.10	-0.28	0.68	**0.72**				
9. Task	0.03	0.16	0.11	0.24	-0.01	-0.30	0.72	0.71	**0.73**			
10. Commitment	-0.21	0.45	0.53	0.65	-0.37	-0.27	0.47	0.44	0.41	**0.90**		
11. Satisfaction	-0.18	0.26	0.29	0.47	-0.25	-0.09	0.27	0.39	0.28	0.46	**0.88**	
12. TM	0.05	0.25	0.25	0.30	-0.07	-0.17	0.23	0.36	0.30	0.30	0.27	**0.75**

Note: Diagonal entries (in bold) are the square root of AVE; sub-diagonal entries are the latent construct inter-correlations

The final validity test was criterion validity. Criterion validity emphasises the importance of comparing the scale used with criterion variables and to understand the relationship between constructs. That is, it examines the extent to which a scale performs as expected in relation to other variables (criterion variable) as the significant criteria. In other words, criterion validity describes the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the variables. A high test score or correlated result indicates that the measure met the criteria set. There are two forms of criterion validity: concurrent and predictive validity. They differ from one another on the basis of the time dimension. For predictive validity, data on the scales and criterion variables are gathered at different times, while for concurrent validity, the data on the scales and criterion variables are gathered simultaneously (Hair et al., 2010).

In this study concurrent validity was relevant, as the study was cross sectional and correlational analysis was used to analyse the criterion validity. Correlation analysis was carried out to determine the degree of association between all constructs as well as the multicollinearirty of the independent variables of the study. It not only indicates the degree of association of the variables but the direction of the association as well. Correlation coefficients are between ±1. However, correlation coefficients that fall between ±1.0 and ±0.81 are generally considered to be “very high,” which will create multicollinearity in the data (Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Table 5.15 shows the relationship between the constructs of the study and it is evident that there was no very strong correlation (0.80 and above) between the twelve (12) pairs of variables in this study. Therefore, multicollinearity was unlikely to influence the interpretation in the further analysis.

Table 5.15 Pearson Correlation Matrix

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Cost	**1.00**											
2. Innovation	-0.26	**1.00**										
3. Quality	-0.33	0.48	**1.00**									
4. POS	-0.26	0.47	0.59	**1.00**								
5. Quit	0.27	-0.15	-0.44	-0.51	**1.00**							
6. CPWB	-0.05	-0.01	-0.13	0.17	-0.14	**1.00**						
7. Adaptive	0.01	0.13	0.13	0.28	-0.08	-0.32	**1.00**					
8. Contextual	-0.06	0.26	0.16	0.31	-0.10	-0.28	0.68	**1.00**				
9. Task	0.03	0.16	0.11	0.24	-0.01	-0.30	0.72	0.71	**1.00**			
10. Commitment	-0.21	0.45	0.53	0.65	-0.37	-0.27	0.47	0.44	0.41	**1.00**		
11. Satisfaction	-0.18	0.26	0.29	0.47	-0.25	-0.09	0.27	0.39	0.28	0.46	**1.00**	
12. TM	0.05	0.25	0.25	0.30	-0.07	-0.17	0.23	0.36	0.30	0.30	0.27	**1.00**

5.9 Assessing Common Method Variance (Bias)

Common method variance (CMV) refers to the amount of spurious covariance shared among the research variables because of the common method employed in collecting data. Since the independent and dependent constructs are measured from the same source, it is possible that there will be CMV, which may contaminate the results of this study. Therefore, it is critical to assess the extent to which CMV is likely to affect the results. Harman's single factor method was employed to test for CMV where all of the research variables were entered into SPSS for EFA and the number of factors extracted constrained to one with no rotation method. Accordingly, only one factor emerged to explain 30.3 percent of the variance, which indicated that it did not explain majority of the variance; therefore CMV was not a major concern in this study.

The Harman's single factor method result was supported by a more sophisticated method by conducting two CFA models. In the first model, all of the variables were allowed to measure only one factor while in the second model of all the items were allowed to load on their theoretical constructs. The single factor model was found to be far too poor, with a χ^2 value of 4172.4 and with a degree of freedom of 1080 at a *p-value* of 0.001, while the χ^2/df was 3.863, CFI = 0.510, IFI = 0.514, TLI = 0.488 and RMSEA = 0.112. This was compared with the actual measurement model (the χ^2 value was 2265.785 with a degree of freedom of 1159 at a *p-value* of 0.001, while the χ^2/df was 1.955, CFI = 0.925, IFI = 0.926, TLI = 0.914 and RMSEA = 0.053), thereby establishing a lack of a serious CMV and that the CMV was not responsible for the relationship among the research variables.

5.10 Assessment of Multi-group Invariance

Multi-group invariance needs to be tested when the data are collected from different respondents (e.g. different professionals) or organisations into different sets of purposes and activities. Two types of measurement of invariance are configural and metric invariance (Byrne, 2009) and both are considered to be pre-conditions for pooling across what might initially appear to be two different groups. In this study

data were collected from the respondents in the same profession (bankers) and therefore there was no need to test for multi-group invariance.

5.11 Chapter Summary

The aim of this chapter was four fold. The first section discusses the demographic background of respondents while the second section describes the data preparation and screening procedures, such as the treatment of missing data, detection of outliers, normality, multi-collinearity, and homoscedasticity and linearity. The amount of missing data was very small and was treated using listwise deletion. There were only a few outliers detected and as such they were retained. The results of the normality test revealed that all of the skewness and kurtosis values fell within the acceptable range and thus there was no serious violation of the normality assumption.

The third part validated both the latent constructs and observed measures using CFA and the results indicated acceptable fit indices. Again, the overall measurement model was tested and achieved satisfactory fit indices. In the final section, the reliability and validity of the constructs were tested. All of the constructs showed good internal consistency and reliability. Convergent and discriminant validity were also established as factor loadings and the AVE values exceeded 0.50. Divergent validity was also established, where the square root of the AVE for each construct was higher than the correlation between that construct and other constructs.

Criterion validity was established where the constructs related to each other but none of the correlations exceeded 0.80. Therefore, the criteria for uni-dimensionality, reliability, and construct validity were satisfied by all of the measurement models. Finally, common method bias was checked for and the results suggested that it was unlikely to be a concern in this study. Hence, the structural model in this study could then be examined. The next chapter will use SEM to conduct the structural model and to explore the hypothesised relationships between the study constructs.

CHAPTER 6

STRUCTURAL MODEL, HYPOTHESIS TESTING, AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the data preparation and the measurement model where the results revealed that the individual and overall measurement model satisfied the requirements of reliability, validity, uni-dimensionality, and common method bias. Therefore, these measurement scales were used to assess the hypothesised relationships among the study constructs. This means that I followed Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step procedure, which involves estimating the measurement model prior to estimating the proposed structural model. This chapter is divided into four sections.

The first section evaluates the overall model fit while the second section tests the hypotheses regarding the direct relationships between the constructs. The third section tests the mediating effects of TM outputs (commitment, satisfaction and POS) on the relationship between employee performance, and intention to quit. The results of testing the effects of control variables on employee attitudes are presented in the final section of this chapter.

6.2 The Structural Model

A structural model is a conceptual representation of the structural relationships between constructs with a set of equations and is usually depicted with a visual diagram (Hair et al., 2010). The structural relationships between any two or more constructs are represented empirically by the parameter path or estimates. According to Hair et al. (2010) different terms have been used to refer to structural model such as theoretical or causal model. In this study, the proposed structural model was

composed of twelve (12) major latent constructs, of which three were exogenous (quality, innovation and cost strategy) and nine were endogenous (TM, satisfaction, commitment, POS, task, contextual, adaptive, counterproductive, and intention to quit).

The structural model as hypothesised in this study was tested with SEM using AMOS 20.0. The estimation technique utilised was the MLE. As mentioned in Chapter four, it is recommended that a study report one absolute fit index and one incremental index besides the chi-square value and the degrees of freedom (Hair et al., 2010). Accordingly, besides the normed chi-square (χ^2/df), IFI and RMSEA were reported as absolute fit indices, and the CFI and TLI were reported as incremental fit indices. Thus, the overall fit of the structural model was assessed with the same set of fit indices as those of the measurement models.

After testing the full structural model, the results in terms of the goodness of fit indices were as follow: the χ^2 value was 2281.162 with degrees of freedom of 1187 at a *p* value of 0.000 while the χ^2/df was 1.922. Again, the CFI = 0.920, IFI = 0.921, TLI = 0.912, and RMSEA = 0.053). The χ2 and its *p*-value was significant, meaning that the model in terms of this index was not good. However, the χ2 was not a reliable indicator as it depends on sample size and will almost always be significant with large samples (Byrne, 2009; Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). Therefore, other indices must be examined alongside the χ2. Also, in cases of complex model indices as low as 0.80 or even 0.70 are still accepted (Judge and Hulin, 1993).

Therefore, based on other indices, the model achieved an adequate fit and could be used in further analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, these indices satisfied the recommended cut-off value of 0.900 (Byrne, 2009; Hair et al., 2010; Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2013; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014) and thus supported the basic theoretical model of the study. The proposed structural model is shown in figure 6.1 below.

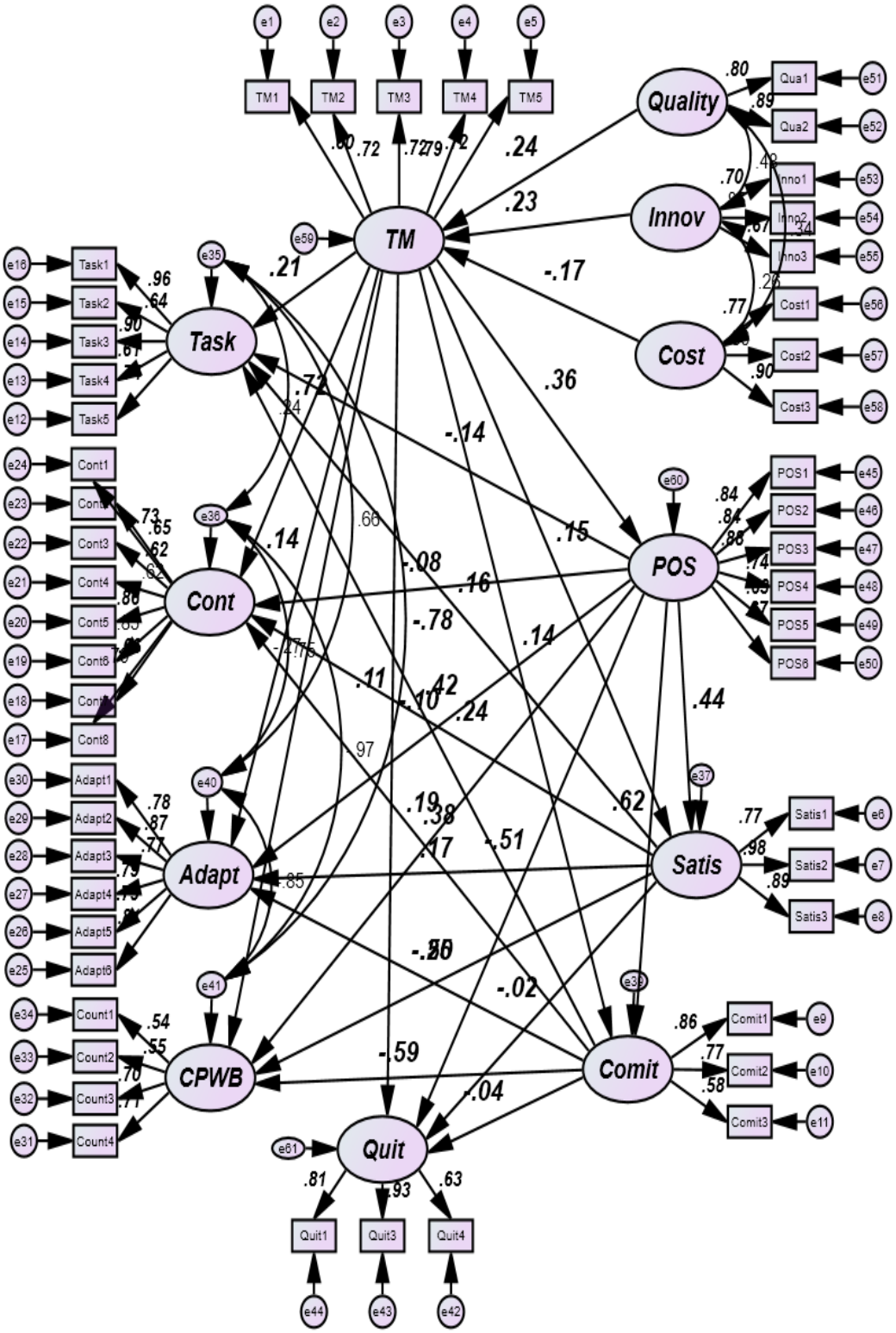


Figure 6.1 Proposed Structural Model

In this proposed model, TM, POS, satisfaction, and commitment explained 28.0 percent of the variance in task performance (R^2 = 0.280), 34.8 percent of the variance in contextual performance (R^2 = 34.8), 34.0 percent of the variance in adaptive performance (R^2 = 0.340), 54.5 percent of the variance in counterproductive work behaviours (R^2 = 0.545), and 26.6 percent of the variance in intention to quit (R^2 = 0.266). Also, TM and POS explained 46.6 percent of the variance in commitment (R^2 = 0.466) and 27.1 percent of the variance in satisfaction (R^2 = 0.271).

Again, TM accounted for 12.6 percent of the variance in POS (R^2 = 0.126) while business strategy (quality, innovation and cost) explained 14.6 percent of the variance in TM (R^2 = 0.146). The next section will test the research hypotheses-stated in chapter three-regarding the proposed model and this will be examined using two sets of relationships: direct and mediating relationships.

6.3 Hypothesis Testing: Direct Relationships

After obtaining a satisfactory structural model fit, I then proceed to test the research hypotheses. Each path in the structural model between the latent variables represented a specific hypothesis. A hypothesis was either supported or not supported depending on the significance level (*p*-value) of the standardised coefficient of research parameters. The level of the significance employed in this study was $p \leq 0.05$. If the *p*–value was less than the significance level ($p \leq 0.05$), there was evidence to support the hypothesis and if the *p*-value was greater than the significant level ($p > 0.05$), there was evidence to reject the hypothesis (Pallant, 2010). Table 6.1 presents the results of the hypothesised direct relationships. The table also includes the standardised path coefficients, the critical ratios (t-values), corresponding significance levels, and whether a hypothesis was supported or not.

6.3.1 Relationship between Business Strategy and Talent Management

Hypothesis 1 (Ha, Hb and Hc) investigated the relationship between business strategies and talent management. Therefore, it was hypothesised that there would be a positive relationship between TM and quality and innovative strategies while cost strategy would be negatively related to TM. The results demonstrated a positive and

significant path from quality strategy (β= 0.242, p <0.008) to TM, innovative strategy (β= 0.230, p < 0.012) to TM, and a negative and significant path from cost strategy to TM (β= -0.167, p < 0.033). The results from this study showed that business had a direct impact on TM. Thus, the decision to implement TM system was influenced by the type of business strategy that the bank adopted. Hence, H1a, H1b, and H1c were supported.

6.3.2 Relationship between Talent Management and Employee Performance as Well as Intention to Quit

Hypothesis 2 (H2a, H2b, H2c and H2d) predicted that TM would be positively related to employee performance. The results demonstrated that there was a positive and significant path from TM to task (β= 0.212, p < 0.004), contextual (β= 0.236, p < 0.001) and adaptive (β= 0.144, p < 0.044) performance. Finally, the result indicated a negative and significant path from TM to counterproductive work behaviours (β= -0.273, p < 0.001). From this result, H2a, H2b, H2c, and H2d were supported. This result showed that TM had a positive and significant relationship with task, contextual and adaptive performance, and a negative and significant relationship with counterproductive work behaviours. With respect to the relationship between TM and intention to quit, I hypothesized that this relationship would be negative and significant (H3). The results suggested that the relationship between TM and employee intention to quit was positively and statistically insignificant (β= 0.112, p < 0.136). Thus, hypothesis 3 was not supported.

6.3.3 Relationship between Talent Management and TM Output

Hypotheses H4, H5and H6 predicted that there would be a positive relationship between TM and TM outputs (POS, commitment and satisfaction). After testing the direct relationship between them, it was found that TM was positive and significantly related to POS, commitment, and satisfaction. Specifically, it showed a positive and significant path from TM to POS (β= 0.355, p <0.001), to commitment (β= 0.141, p <0.039), and a positive path from TM to satisfaction (β= 0.155, p < 0.025). Therefore, H4, H5, and H6 were supported. This means that the

implementation of TM practices is likely to lead to important organisational consequences, which are pre-conditions for performance.

6.3.4 Relationship between POS and Commitment as Well as Satisfaction

In this study, it was hypothesized that POS would be positively related to commitment and satisfaction. These formed hypotheses H7a and H7b. The results from the structural model showed that there was a positive and significant relationship between POS and commitment (β= 0.620, p <0.001) and with satisfaction (β= 0.445, p <0.001). In other words, the result showed that POS was positively and significantly related to employee commitment and satisfaction. Therefore, H7a andH7b were supported.

6.3.5 Relationship between TM Outputs and Performance

This section predicted that there would be a positive relationship between TM outputs (employee satisfaction, commitment and POS) and task, contextual and adaptive performance, but a negative relationship between counterproductive behaviours. This prediction was then formulated into H8a, H8b, H8c, H8d, H9a, H9b, H9c, H9d, H10a, H10b, H10c, and H10d. The results from this hypotheses indicated that the relationship between POS and employee performance was not supported. Specifically, the relationship between POS and task performance was negative and insignificant (β= -0.136, p <0.182), between POS and contextual performance it was negative and insignificant (β= -0.084, p <0.394), and between POS and adaptive performance it was negative and insignificant (β= -0.103, p <0.307), while the relationship between POS and counterproductive work behaviours was positive and insignificant (β= 0.190, p <0.079). Based on these results, H8a, H8b, H8c and H8d were not supported.

With respect to satisfaction, the results showed that satisfaction was positively and significantly related to task, contextual and adaptive performance but was negatively and significantly related to counterproductive work behaviours. Thus, the relationship between satisfaction and task performance was positive and significant (β= 0.156, p <0.033), between satisfaction and contextual performance it was positive and significant (β= 0.238, p <0.001), and between satisfaction and adaptive

performance it was positive and significant (β= 0.170, p <0.018). Again, the relationship between satisfaction and counterproductive work behaviours was negative and statistically significant (β= -0.245, p < 0.002). From these results, H8a, H9b, H8c and H8d were supported.

Finally, the relationship between commitment and employee performance was hypothesised. Thus, it was hypothesized that commitment would be positively related to task, contextual and adaptive performance, but would have a negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviours. The results from the structural model (in table 6.1) showed that the relationship between commitment and employee performance was supported. Specifically, there was a positive and significant relationship between commitment and task performance (β= 0.423, p <0.001), a positive and significant relationship between commitment and contextual performance (β= 0.377, p <0.001), and a positive and significant relationship between commitment and adaptive performance (β= 0.499, p <0.001). On the other hand, the relationship between commitment and counterproductive work behaviours was negative and statistically significant (β= -0.589, p <0.001).Based on these results, H10a, H10b, H10c and H10d were supported.

6.3.7 Relationship between TM Outputs and Intention to Quit

In this section it was hypothesised that the relationship between TM outputs (commitment, POS and satisfaction) would be negative. In other words, committed employees, satisfied employees, and employees that perceived support from their banks would not have the intention to leave their bank soon. Therefore, I formulated H11, H12, and H13. The results showed that whereas employees that perceived support from their bank were likely to stay, committed and satisfied employees appeared to have the intention to leave. Thus, the results showed a negative and significant relationship between POS and the intention to quit (β= -0.514, p <0.001), a negative and insignificant relationship between satisfaction and the intention to quit (β= -0.016, p <0.830), and a negative and insignificant relationship between commitment and the intention to quit (β= -0.035, p < 0.725). Based on this, H11 was supported while H12 and H13 were not supported. All of the hypothesized relationship, standardized estimates, t-values (critical ratio), p-values and the results

of the hypothesised (supported or not supported) relationship are shown in table 6.1. The next section discussed the test of the mediating (indirect) relationships.

Table 6.1 Hypotheses Test Results for the Proposed Structural Model

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Relationship	Estimate	*t*-value	*p*	Results
H1a	Quality → TM	0.242	2.636	0.008	Supported
H1b	Innovation → TM	0.230	2.510	0.012	Supported
H1c	Cost → TM	-0.167	-2.134	0.033	Supported
H2a	TM →Task	0.212	2.875	0.004	Supported
H2b	TM → Contextual	0.236	3.277	0.001	Supported
H2c	TM → Adaptive	0.144	2.006	0.044	Supported
H2d	TM → CPWB	-0.273	-3.504	0.001	Supported
H3	TM → Quit	0.112	1.491	0.136	Not supported
H4	TM → POS	0.355	4.837	0.001	Supported
H5	TM → Commitment	0.141	2.064	0.039	Supported
H6	TM → Satisfaction	0.155	2.247	0.025	Supported
H7a	POS → Commitment	0.620	8.454	0.001	Supported
H7b	POS → Satisfaction	0.445	6.094	0.001	Supported
H8a	POS →Task	-0.136	-1.334	0.182	Not supported
H8b	POS →Contextual	-0.084	-0.853	0.394	Not supported
H8c	POS →Adaptive	-0.103	-1.021	0.307	Not supported
H8d	POS →CPWB	0.190	1.759	0.079	Not supported
H9a	Satisfaction →Task	0.156	2.134	0.033	Supported
H9b	Satisfaction →Contextual	0.238	3.289	0.001	Supported
H9c	Satisfaction →Adaptive	0.170	2.358	0.018	Supported
H9d	Satisfaction →CPWB	-0.245	-3.173	0.002	Supported
H10a	Commitment → Task	0.423	3.991	0.001	Supported
H10b	Commitment → Contextual	0.377	3.726	0.001	Supported
H10c	Commitment → Adaptive	0.499	4.731	0.001	Supported
H10d	Commitment → CPWB	-0.589	-5.12	0.001	Supported
H11	POS → Quit	-0.514	-4.48	0.001	Supported
H12	Satisfaction → Quit	-0.016	-0.215	0.830	Not Supported
H13	Commitment → Quit	-0.035	-0.351	0.725	Not Supported

6.4 Hypothesis Testing: Mediating (Indirect) Relationships

Apart from the direct effects hypothesized in the proposed model, several mediating (indirect) relationships were also hypothesized. Therefore, this section discusses the test of these mediating relationships. Research has been conducted to establish the relationship between two or more variables, but the finding concerning whether one variable is related or not related to the other is part of the whole story. A deeper understanding is gained when we examine the process that produces the effect. This is the genesis of mediating variables.

A variable is said to be mediating when it carries the influence of an independent variable to the dependent variable. A mediation variable is a variable that accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion (Baron and Kenny, 1986). In testing these mediating relationships, I used two methods. It has been argued that the use of more than one method for assessing mediating effects helps add to the robustness of mediation tests (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West and Sheets, 2002). Accordingly, I used the nested models approach and boot-strapped standard errors.

6.4.1 The Nested Models Approach

Baron and Kenny (1986) have listed a number of conditions to test the mediation hypothesis. First, the independent variable must be significantly correlated with the dependent variable (path c). Second, the independent variable must be significantly correlated with the mediator variable (path a). Third, the mediator variable must be significantly correlated with the dependent variable (path b). Finally, when paths “a and b” are controlled for, a previously-significant relationship between the independent and dependent variable is no longer significant, with the strongest demonstration of mediation occurring when path “c” is zero. The implication is that the effect between the independent and dependent variables unfolds itself through the mediator variable. Baron and Kenny’s meditational model is presented in figure 6.2 below.

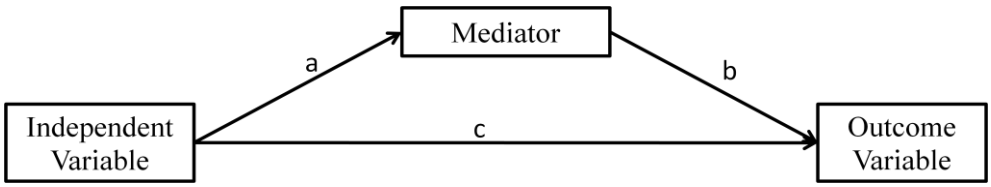


Figure 6.2 Baron and Kenny's Depiction of Basic Mediation

In testing for mediation, I specify two models to be compared to the proposed model in this study. The proposed model in this study is a partially-mediated model that allows for POS, commitment and satisfaction to have both direct and indirect effects on employee performance as well as intention to quit. The first of the new models positioned satisfaction, POS, and commitment in a full-mediation role between TM and employee performance as well as intention to quit. Thus, this model did not include a direct path between TM and employee performance or intention to quit, indicating a full mediation. This is shown in figure 6.3.

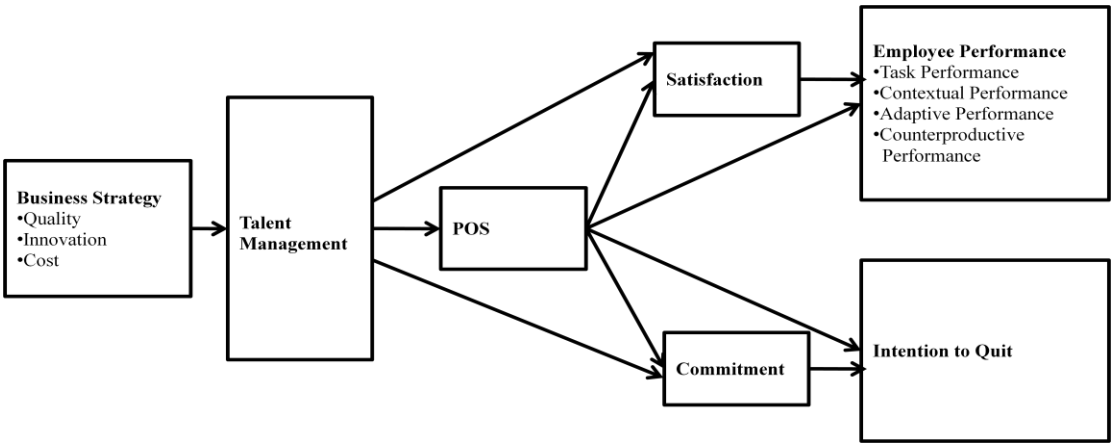


Figure6.3 Full Mediation Model

The second model showed a direct effect model where only direct effects of TM, commitment, POS, and satisfaction on employee performance as well as intention to quit were hypothesised. This is shown in figure 6.4.

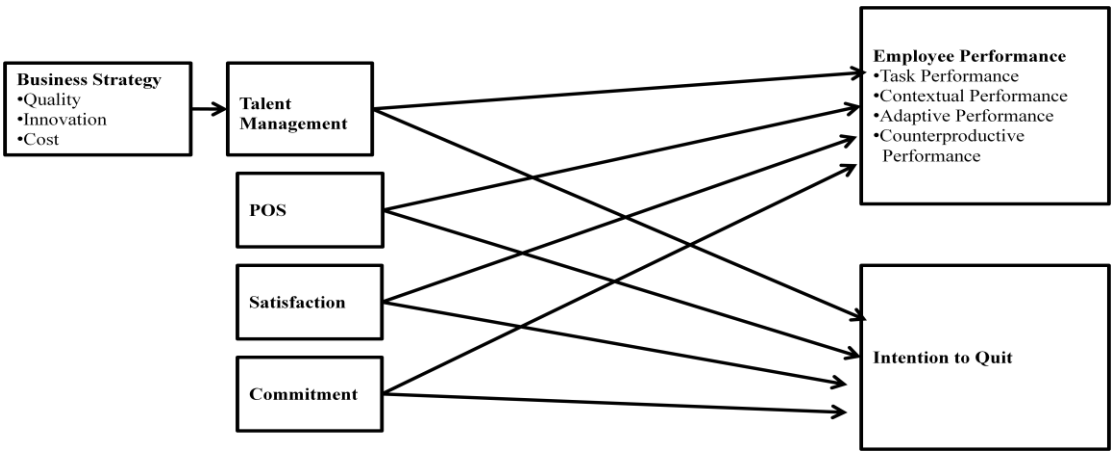


Figure6.4 Direct Model

From these models, the indices could be compared, especially regarding the χ^2/df difference, to find out whether commitment, POS, and satisfaction fully or partially mediated the effect of TM on employee performance as well as intention to quit. The comparison is shown in table 6.4.

Table 6.2 Comparison of Three Models

Model	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA
Proposed	1.922	0.920	0.912	0.921	0.053
First	2.612	0.918	0.910	0.919	0.052
Second	2.955	0.894	0.884	0.896	0.058

In table 6.2, it can be seen that only the proposed and the first model fit the data well. Even though the RMSEA index showed good fit for all three models, the other indices fit the third model poorly. Again, the fit indices of the proposed model were better than those of the first model. Similarly, the χ^2/df of the proposed model was better than the first and second models. This suggested that the partially-mediated model (proposed model) provided the best fit for the data. Therefore, the results suggested that commitment, POS, and satisfaction appeared to mediate the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as intention to quit.

However, from table 6.1, the path estimates of POS to employee performance (task, contextual, adaptive and counterproductive) were non-significant. Furthermore, the path estimates of commitment and satisfaction were non-significant. Therefore, using Baron and Kenny's (1986) rules suggested that POS did not mediate the relationship between TM and employee performance.

Similarly, the path from satisfaction and commitment to the intention to quit in table 6.1 was insignificant, giving an indication of non-mediation. Therefore, mediation occurred between TM and employee performance through commitment and satisfaction but not through POS. Lastly, mediation occurred between TM and intention to quit through POS but not through satisfaction and commitment. However, concerns have been raised as to whether all of the steps have to be met for mediation to exist. In other words, some analysts believe that some steps in the Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation model may not be necessary (Kenny, Kashy and Bolger, 1998). Secondly, one of the disadvantages of the nested approach is that it cannot provide the significance level of the mediation effect. Therefore, I was not able to tell whether this mediation was significant or not. In order to determine the significance of this mediation, I performed the Sobel test, bootstrapping standard errors to confirm the mediation effect.

6.4.2 Sobel Test with Bootstrapping Standard Errors

Some authors have raised concerns about Baron and Kenny's steps, especially the effects of the interdependent variable on the dependent variable (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West and Sheets, 2002). MacKinnon, Warsi, and Dwyer (1995) popularized statistically-based methods by which mediation may be formally assessed. Therefore, besides Baron and Kenny's steps, the Sobel test was also used. The purpose of the Sobel test is to examine whether a mediator carries the influence of the independent variable to the dependent variable. The estimation of the indirect effect in mediation is typically performed in multiple regression, which uses ordinary least squares (OLS). One of the problems with OLS is that the results seem to be biased when sample sizes are small.

As a solution to OLS, bootstrapping standard errors has been increasingly used in recent years to overcome this problem. According to Hayes and Preacher (2010),

bootstrapping produces an approximation of the sampling distribution to obtain confidence intervals that are more accurate than those from standard techniques by making no assumptions of the shape of the sampling distribution. Compared to other techniques for testing mediation, the Sobel test with bootstrapped standard errors has a number of benefits. First, it does not require the distributional assumptions necessary for parametric procedures (Hayes and Preacher, 2010).

Second, simulation study results comparing mediation testing techniques have shown that bootstrapped standard errors usually perform better than parametric techniques in small to moderate samples in terms of Type I error rates and statistical power (MacKinnon, Lockwood and Williams, 2004). Finally, unlike intervals resulting from techniques that assume normality of the sampling distribution of the statistic of interest, bootstrap confidence intervals are likely to be asymmetric, more closely resembling the real sampling distribution of products of normal random variables.

Table 6.3 Sobel Test with Bootstrapping Results for Mediators

	Hypothesized relationship	**Sobel Test**	**Standard Error**	***P* value**	**Results**
H14a	TM → POS → Task	-1.289	0.023	0.197	None
H14b	TM → POS → Contextual	-0.835	0.022	0.403	None
H14c	TM → POS → Adaptive	-1.005	0.024	0.314	None
H14d	TM → POS → CPWB	1.657	0.025	0.097	None
H15a	TM → Commitment → Task	1.828	0.020	0.047	Partial
H15b	TM→ Commitment → Contextual	1.799	0.018	0.041	Partial
H15c	TM → Commitment → Adaptive	1.888	0.025	0.048	Partial
H15d	TM→ Commitment → CPWB	-1.909	0.027	0.046	Partial
H16a	TM → Satisfaction → Task	1.531	0.009	0.045	Partial
H16b	TM → Satisfaction → Contextual	1.829	0.012	0.037	Partial
H16c	TM → Satisfaction → Adaptive	1.607	0.011	0.043	Partial
H16d	TM → Satisfaction → CPWB	-1.808	0.013	0.040	Partial
H17	TM → POS → Intention to Quit	-3.288	0.038	0.001	Full
H18	TM→ Commitment→ Intention to Quit	-0.346	0.010	0.729	None
H19	TM→ Satisfaction→ Intention to Quit	-0.214	0.008	0.829	None

For the above reasons, the Sobel test with bootstrapped standard errors based on 2000 re-sampling was conducted. Commitment, POS, and satisfaction were considered as the mediating variables in the proposed model. Using the Sobel online calculator based on the formulaz-value =a*b/SQRT($b^{2*}s_a^2+a^{2*}s_b^2$), where a = raw (un-standardised) regression coefficient for the association between IV and mediator, s_a = (standard error of a, b= raw coefficient for the association between the mediator, and the DV (when the IV is also a predictor of the DV) and s_b = standard error of b, the mediators were estimated. The results of this test are presented in table 6.3. The table also presents the Sobel test (beta weights), the standard error, *p*-values, and whether the result was fully or partially mediated or was not mediated.

6.5 Mediation Role of TM Outputs

This section discusses the results of the mediation role of TM outputs in the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as intention to quit. This is based on the output from the bootstrap from AMOS. Each TM output (commitment, satisfaction, and POS) will be presented to find out its mediation role in the relationship.

6.5.1 TM and Employee Performance: Mediation Role of POS

The results from table 6.2 suggest that POS does not mediate the relationship between TM and employee performance. Specifically, POS does not mediate the relationship between TM and task performance (Sobel test = -1.289, $p < 0.197$), contextual performance (Sobel test = -0.835, $p < 0.403$), adaptive performance (Sobel test = -1.005, $p < 0.314$), or counterproductive work behaviours (Sobel test = 1.657, $p < 0.097$). These results in terms of the *p* values showed that POS did not mediate the relationship between TM and employee performance. Hence, hypothesis14a, 14b, 14c, and 14d were not supported.

6.5.2 TM and Employee Performance: Mediation Role of Commitment

According to table 6.3, commitment mediated the relationship between TM and the four dimensions of employee performance. Thus, commitment mediated the

relationship between TM and task performance (Sobel test = 1.828, $p < 0.047$), contextual performance (Sobel test = 1.799, $p < 0.041$), adaptive performance (Sobel test = 1.888, $p < 0.048$) and counterproductive work behaviours (Sobel test = -1.909, $p < 0.046$). The significant relationship between TM and the four dimensions of employee performance indicated that commitment had a partial mediating effect in this relationship. Based on these results, hypotheses 15a, 15b, 15c and 15d were supported.

6.5.3TM and Employee Performance: Mediation Role of Satisfaction

As can be seen from table 6.3, satisfaction mediated the relationship between TM and the four dimensions of employee performance. Specifically, satisfaction mediate the relationship between TM and task performance (Sobel test = 1.531, $p < 0.045$), contextual performance (Sobel test = 1.829, $p < 0.037$), adaptive performance (Sobel test = 1.607, $p < 0.043$), and counterproductive work behaviours (Sobel test = -1.808, $p < 0.040$). The significant relationship between TM and the four dimensions of employee performance indicated that satisfaction had a partial mediating effect in this relationship. Hence, hypotheses 16a, 16b, 16c and 16d were supported.

6.5.4TM and Intention to Quit: Mediation Role of TM Output

The findings from table 6.3 confirmed that POS had a mediation effect on the relationship between TM and intention to quit while commitment and satisfaction did not. Specifically, POS mediated the relationship between TM and the intention to quit (Sobel test = -3.288, $p < 0.001$). However, the mediation role of commitment on the relationship between TM and intention to quit was insignificant, giving an indication of non-mediation (Sobel test = -0.346, $p < 0.729$). Lastly, satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between TM and intention to quit as it was insignificant (Sobel test = -0.214, $p < 0.829$). The direct hypothesis showed that the relationship between TM and intention to quit was insignificant, meaning that POS fully mediated the relationship between TM and the intention to quit. Hence, hypothesis 17 was supported while hypotheses 18 and 19 were not supported.

6.6 Controls

In spite of the fact that the context of this study exhibited so many characteristics in common, there was still the need to control for some variables so as to rule out alternative explanations of the findings. Whereas some previous studies have demonstrated that education and experience are related to employee performance (Sonnentag et al., 2010) and intention to quit, others have not found such a relationship (Ferris et al., 2001). In terms of gender (male and female), similar findings of both sides have been reported in the literature. For instance, Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015) did not find the influence of gender on performance. This section explains the controls in terms of age, gender, education, and experience on performance and the intention to quit.

6.6.1 Effects of Age, Gender, Education, and Experience on Performance

The results of this study revealed that age, gender, experience, and education did not have a significant relationship with employee performance. Thus, age (β= -0.063, p < 0.332), gender (β=0.046, p < 0.483), experience (β= -0.013, p < 0.839) and education (β= -0.121, p < 0.066) had no effect on task performance. Similarly, age (β= -0.008, p < 0.907), gender (β= -0.068, p < 0.301), experience (β= 0.008, p < 0.901) and education (β= 0.075, p < 0.256) had no effect on contextual performance. Again, age (β= -0.011, p < 0.868), gender (β= -0.079, p < 0.222), experience (β= -0.029, p < 0.656), and education (β= 0.035, p < 0.588) had no effect on adaptive performance. Finally, age (β= 0.104, p < 0.086), gender (β= 0.078, p < 0.200), experience (β= 0.025, p < 0.678), and education (β= 0.041, p < 0.499) had no effect on counterproductive work behaviours. This shows that, age, gender, experience and education do not have a significant relationship with employee performance. Therefore, in the context of this study, age, gender, experience and education did not differentiate performance among talents or employees in a TM program. The control variables and their effect on employee performance as well as the intention to quit are shown in table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Effects of Control Variables on Performance and Intention to Quit

Control Variable Effect	**Estimates**	***t*-value**	***p*- values**	**Relationship**
Gender → Task	0.046	0.702	0.483	None
Gender → Contextual	-0.068	-1.033	0.301	None
Gender → Adaptive	-0.079	-1.221	0.222	None
Gender → CPWB	0.078	1.281	0.200	None
Age → Task	-0.063	-0.971	0.332	None
Age → Contextual	-0.008	-0.117	0.907	None
Age → Adaptive	-0.011	-0.167	0.868	None
Age → CPWB	0.104	1.717	0.086	None
Education → Task	-0.121	-1.837	0.066	None
Education → Contextual	0.075	1.136	0.256	None
Education → Adaptive	0.035	0.541	0.588	None
Education → CPWB	0.041	0.676	0.499	None
Experience → Task	-0.013	-0.203	0.839	None
Experience → Contextual	0.008	0.124	0.901	None
Experience → Adaptive	-0.029	-0.445	0.656	None
Experience → CPWB	0.025	0.415	0.678	None
Age → Quit	-0.015	-0.239	0.811	None
Gender → Quit	-0.071	-1.174	0.240	None
Education → Quit	-0.043	-0.703	0.482	None
Experience → Quit	-0.062	-1.020	0.308	None

6.6.2 Effects of Age, Gender, Education, and Experience on Intention to Quit

In controlling for the effects of age, gender, education, and experience on the intention to quit, it was found that all of these control variables were negatively related to the intention to quit. In other words, higher experience, higher education, older people and males are likely to quit but this relationship was insignificant. Specifically, age (β= -0.015, p < 0.811), gender (β= -0.071, p < 0.240), education (β= -0.043, p < 0.482) had no effect and were not significantly related with the intention to quit. Hence, it appears that in the context of this study, age, gender, education, and

experience did not have a significant relationship with intention to quit and do not influence the quitting or staying intentions of talents or employees in a TM program.

6.7 Discussion of Research Findings

This section discusses the results of the research findings, which are organized around the research questions of the study. Generally, this study sought to examine the relationship between business strategy and TM, the relationship between TM and TM outputs, the relationship TM and employee performance and intention to quit, the relationship between TM outputs and employee performance and intention to quit, and lastly, the mediating role of TM output in the relationship between TM and employee performance and intention to quit.

6.7.1 Relationship between Business Strategy and TM

The first research question examined the relationship between business strategy and TM. In this study, business was made up of three dimensions: quality, innovation, and cost (Porter, 1985). The results as presented in section 6.3.1 in this chapter showed that business strategy had a direct impact and a significant relationship with TM. This finding means that the decision to implement a TM system is influenced by the bank's business strategy. That is, the TM system is not implemented in a vacuum; it is the direct response to the achievement of a business strategy. Specifically, quality and innovative business strategies are positively associated with TM, while the cost leadership business strategy is negatively associated with TM.

Therefore this finding shows that, whereas quality and innovative business strategies appear to be appropriate for the implementation of a TM system, cost leadership strategy does not require the implementation of TM. TM appears to be a, expensive HRM system which concentrates on top talents and high performers, and therefore banks that implement a cost leadership strategy may find it difficult to implement TM strategy. In other words, it will be a waste of resources to implement a TM system when an organisation is pursuing a cost leadership strategy.

This finding is consistent with previous conceptual and review studies that argued for a strong connection between business strategy and TM (Ashton and Morton, 2005; Becker et al., 2009; Beechler and Woodward, 2009; McDonnell, 2011).Thus, this finding agrees with Becker et al. (2009:1), who called for business strategy to be put first, not people, and with McDonnell (2011), who advocated for business strategy to be the starting point of any TM system. Therefore, this study adds to the arguments in the literature, that a business strategy has a significant relationship with TM. It is also interesting that this finding was empirically based. Furthermore, a unique finding of this study is that different business strategies relate to TM differently. Thus, it is appropriate for organisations that adopts quality and innovative business strategies to implement TM strategies rather than those with cost leadership business strategies.

6.7.2 Relationship between TM and TM Outputs

The second research question of this study addressed the association between TM and TM outputs. Thus, this study examined the relationship between TM and three TM outputs; namely commitment, POS, and satisfaction. The results as displayed in table 6.1 showed that TM was associated with POS, job satisfaction, and commitment. In other words, the implementation of TM practices leads to POS, job satisfaction, and commitment. Thus, the implementation of TM in the Ghanaian Banking sector is associated with positive employee behaviours. This finding is consistent with the rationale of the SET, AMO theory and ST. Particularly, TM is associated with or leads to POS because employees in a TM program appear to believe that their organisation cares about their well-being.

Again, when employees are designated as talents and become part of a TM program, this may be interpreted as a signal of the organisation's appreciation. The SET suggests that when organisations invest in their employees in terms of good HRM practices such as TM and professional development, they are likely to reciprocate their organisational investments in positive ways, for example with commitment to their jobs, satisfaction with their organisation, and enhancing POS. From the AMO perspective, TM practices are seen as motivational HRM systems which are put in place to motivate talented employees that have the ability and are

given opportunity by placing them in strategic positions. These findings are consistent with previous research in the Western context and private sector as well as multi-national organisations (Björkman et al., 2013; Chaami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013; Marescaux et al., 2013; Gelens et al., 2015; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015). For instance, Bethke-Langenegger et al. (2011) found that TM practices that focused on retaining and developing talents had a statistically-significant positive impact on job satisfaction, commitment, and POS.

This finding is also consistent with review papers and conceptual frameworks demonstrating the relationship between TM and its important outcomes (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Mensah, 2015). TM practices are seen as commitment-focused HR practices which are likely to lead to positive employee attitudes. TM practices targeted towards talented employees will enhance a sense of personal importance, thereby leading to POS. It will also trigger commitment and satisfaction. Merely being in a TM alone signals the organisation's appreciation of the employee's contribution, which will increase POS, commitment, and satisfaction. In other words, TM practices act as a psychological force on talents to produce changes in behaviour and attitudes. This finding also points to the fact that TM increases talented employees' POS, commitment, and satisfaction through the practice of workforce differentiation, which is a fundamental principle of TM.

Within the TM outputs, the findings of this study showed that POS increases or is positively associated with employee commitment and satisfaction. This means that talented employees that perceive support from their organisation will be satisfied and committed to their organisations and jobs. Indeed, POS is very important in employee management and it has been studied and found to be related to various organisational outcomes. Therefore, this finding is consistent with previous studies (O'Driscoll and Randall, 1999; Rhodes et al., 2001; Gelens et al., 2015).Therefore, it is important that organisations implementing TM practices should make it open to get their talented employees perceived them as valuing their contributions and caring about their well-being. Acting in ways that are perceived to advance talented employees' well-being and valuing their contribution is critical to the success of TM programs.

POS among the TM outputs is very important. Differentiated HR practices such as TM have been regarded as antecedents of POS, which imply that the organisation values and cares about employees. Thus, TM practices suggest the investment in employees and that employee contributions should be recognized, thereby signalling support and establishing an exchange relationship with talented employees. Hence, the perception of TM practices leads to POS. POS then results in greater attachment and feelings of obligation to the organisation. POS then generates job satisfaction and commitment to the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Overall, the findings of this study showed that TM leads to employee attitudes and behaviours. Thus, the implementation of a TM system leads to positive employee behaviours that are antecedents to employee performance.

6.7.3 Relationship between TM and Employee Performance as Well as the Intention to Quit

The third research question examined the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as the intention to quit. Employee performance in this study was examined from the point of view of four dimensions: task, contextual, adaptive, and counterproductive work behaviours. Accordingly, it was hypothesized that TM would be positively related to task, contextual and adaptive performance but would be negatively related to counterproductive work behaviours. The results of the findings as presented in this chapter in section 6.3.2 and in table 6.1 showed that TM had a direct positive relationship with task, contextual, and adaptive performance while it had a direct negative relationship with counterproductive behaviours. This finding showed that the implementation of TM will lead to employee performance in terms of core job functions, contextual work behaviours, as well as creative problem solving and handling of emergencies.

This finding is very important, as banks or organisations will benefit from the implementation of TM practices. In fact, the aspect of adaptive performance is important because without innovation and creativeness, banks or organisations cannot satisfy their clients or customers. Also, the finding showed that TM was negatively associated with counterproductive behaviours. This means that the implementation of TM practices will reduce negative work behaviours. In other words, talented

employees may not engage in negative work behaviours that will harm either the organisation or their colleagues.

As discussed in chapter one (under the statement of the problem) and chapter three (on the relationship between TM and employee performance), a major limitation of previous studies is that they did not relate TM to the four dimensions of employee performance. This makes it difficult to compare the findings of this study to previous studies. However, this finding is consistent with the conceptual framework of TM and employee performance proposed by Mensah (2015). Mensah proposed that TM relates to the various dimensions of employee performance differently and that TM has a positive relationship with task, contextual and adaptive performance, while it has a negative relationship with counterproductive work behaviours. Thus, this finding is consistent with the proposed framework of Mensah (2015). If one looks at the fact that previous studies have studied only one dimension of employee performance, especially the task dimension, it then appears that this finding is also consistent with their findings (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Björkman et al., 2013; Chami-Malaeb, 2012; Gelens et al., 2014; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015).

Part of the third research question was to address the association between TM and the intention to quit. The findings showed that TM practices did not reduce employee intention to quit. Therefore, this finding was contrary to previous studies (Björkmanet al., 2013; Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013; Hanif and Yunfei, 2013). Whereas this finding was contrary to previous studies, this is not a surprise as it is difficult to retain talented employees. In fact one of the critical issues facing organisations today is how to retain the employees they want to keep, especially talents. Indeed, talented employees are ranked highly and desired by many organisations; hence, many options are available to them. Thus, despite the unavailability of jobs in Ghana, talents are still desired in today's competitive world. Therefore, they have more employers to choose from than ever before, making them less loyal and feeling less bonded to their organisations. Perhaps this may imply that organisations need more than just the implementation of TM practices in order to retain talented employees.

6.7.4 Relationship between TM Outputs and Employee Performance as Well as Intention to Quit

The fourth research question addressed in this study related to the impact of TM outputs on employee performance as well as the intention to quit. The finding of this study showed that two TM outputs (commitment and satisfaction) directly lead to increased employee performance. Thus, committed talented employees are more likely to put more discretionary effort into the performance of their duties. This finding is consistent with the conceptual framework of Collings and Mellahi (2009) and Mensah (2015), which described that in the TM system, the commitment of talented employees is important as this will increase their performance.

Specifically, whereas commitment increases task, contextual and adaptive performance, it on the other hand reduces counterproductive work behaviours. Thus, banks or organisations implementing TM practices will increase the positive aspect of performance and reduce negative behaviours. Whereas previous empirical studies appear not to have studied the four dimensions of employee performance at the same time, this finding is consistent with review studies such as that of Mensah (2015). Thus, Mensah posited that commitment derived from TM will increase task, contextual and adaptive performance, but will reduce counterproductive work behaviours.

Also, the result demonstrates that satisfaction influences and increases the performance of talented employees. Thus, on the one hand, satisfaction increases task, contextual and adaptive performance, and on the other hand, it reduces counterproductive work behaviours. Employers and organisations therefore need to take satisfaction seriously if they are to achieve performance. This finding is consistent with previous studies (Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015). In their model of TM and job performance in the Italian context, Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015) found that satisfaction impacted job performance. This study further showed that, satisfaction influences the four dimensions of employee performance differently. Therefore, organisations and employers that are able to implement specialized HRM systems to satisfy their talented employees will not only increase the positive aspect of performance but will reduce negative employee behaviours as well. Indeed, Mensah (2015) argued that employee satisfaction that is generated by TM will

improve task, contextual and adaptive performance, while reducing counterproductive work behaviours.

On the other hand, this study revealed that POS did not have a direct relationship with employee performance. Thus, the findings indicate that POS does not improve task, contextual, or adaptive performance neither does it reduces counterproductive work behaviours.From the descriptive statistics in table 5.2, responses to items measuring POS were found to have a lower mean, indicating less perception of support from TM practices. This may explain the reason for the lack of a significant relationship between POS and employee performance. Thus, this finding does not suggest that POS is not important rather in the context of this study talented employees appear to perceived less support from the TM practices in their banks.

The results further showed that, talented employees that perceive some support from their organisation or bank through TM practices may not necessarily perform if they are not satisfied with or committed to their jobs and to the organisation. According to table 6.1, it was realised that POS leads to commitment and satisfaction before employees can perform. What this means is that POS leads to positive behaviours (commitment and satisfaction) before employee performance. Therefore, this finding is contrary to previous studies (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Armeli et al., 1998; Chiang and Hsieh, 2012), where a direct relationship between POS and performance was found. On the other hand this study showed that POS must lead to commitment and satisfaction before employee performance.

With respect to the relationship between TM outputs and the intention to quit, the findings suggested that only POS reduces talented the employees' intention to quit. In particular, employees that perceive high levels of support from their organisation are inclined to repay the organisation with continued participation. This finding is consistent with the existing literature, which indicated that higher levels of POS create obligations within individuals, making them less likely to seek employment elsewhere (Allen et al., 2003; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). POS therefore appears to be a very strong force in the retention of talents. Indeed, when talented employees perceive having the necessary support and as being valued by their organisation, they are likely to stay.

However, the findings showed that satisfaction did not reduce talented employees' intention to quit. As indicated earlier, it is very challenging to retain talented employees because better job offers appear from other companies accompanied with increases in salary and attractive packages and a better work-life balance. Indeed, talented employees are ambitious and always on the lookout for "greener pastures." Therefore, this finding is contrary to previous studies that found that satisfaction can retain employees (Price, 2001; Hussain et al., 2003; Mosadeghrad et al., 2008). Similarly, the finding revealed that commitment did not reduce talented employees' intention to quit their current bank (employer). Therefore, this finding is contrarily to the findings of previous studies (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Chang, 1999; Stanley et al., 1999; Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013). Thus, despite being committed, talented employees will still abandon and quit their jobs if they get a better option elsewhere.

The descriptive statistics of the respondents in terms of their age showed that majority (43.1%) of the respondents were between the ages of 31-40. That is most of the respondents are Gen Y employees. It has been argued that such employees differ from the baby boomers and Gen X employees (Weiss, 2003).Thus, previous studies have found that 94 percent of Gen Y employees anticipate changing careers in the future (Garlick and Langley, 2007). This finding is therefore, not surprising since Gen Y employees have been notorious found to change and move from one employer to the other. In fact, it is not only difficult to recruit talents but also for employers to retain talents across all sectors. Employers need to take more than just a piecemeal approach to retaining talents.

6.7.5 Mediating Role of TM Output in the Relationship between TM and Employee Performance

A major research question that this study sought to answer was the mediating role of TM outputs (commitment, POS and satisfaction) in the relationship between TM and employee performance. The findings showed that two TM outputs (commitment and satisfaction) mediated the relationship between TM and employee performance. Specifically, satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between TM and task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and

counterproductive work behaviour. Similarly, commitment partially mediated the relationship between TM and task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviour. Finally, POS did not mediate the relationship between TM and task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviour. Therefore, this study provides some evidence that TM output (commitment and satisfaction) mediated the relationship between TM and task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviour.

Therefore, this finding is consistent and adds support to previous studies (Oehley and Theron, 2010; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015). What this means is that, whereas TM has a direct relationship with four dimensions of employee performance, commitment and satisfaction also partially mediate this relationship. Thus, satisfaction and commitment are important mechanisms through which TM leads to increase in employee performance. However, POS do not mediate this relationship. It is important to note that, whereas TM has a direct relationship with commitment and satisfaction, the direct impact of TM on POS also impacts employee commitment and satisfaction. In other words, the findings showed that TM leads to POS which will in turn leads to satisfaction and commitment. What this means is that in order to get talented employees to perform, POS is not enough; but this must satisfy them and make them committed. Part of the explanation for why POS did not mediate the relationship between TM and employee performance may be due to the lower mean of the items measuring POS as discovered in the descriptive statistics of table 5.2.

6.7.6 Mediating Role of TM Output in the Relationship between TM and Intention to Quit

In relation to the mediating role of TM output in the TM and intention to quit relationship, the findings of this study showed that commitment and satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between TM and intention to quit. Thus, whereas TM practices leads to commitment and employee satisfaction, these positive employee attitudes do not reduce talented employees' intention to quit. In other words, TM does not directly reduce talented employees' intention to quit, nor does it reduce talented

employees' intention to quit indirectly through employee satisfaction and commitment. This finding is contrary to previous studies (Ghosh et al., 2012; Hess et al., 2012; Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013). However, this finding adds weight to the fact that retaining talented employees is one of the biggest challenges to employers.

This echoed the fact that, it is difficult to retain talented employees. Also, as revealed in the demographic statistics, majority of the employees are Gen Y making it difficult to retain them as they have been noted to quitting (Garlick and Langley, 2007). However, the finding showed that POS is important in the implementation of a TM system. POS fully mediates the relationship between TM and the intention to quit. Therefore, POS appears to be a strong force in retaining talented employees. Therefore, this finding is consistent with previous studies (Oehley and Theron, 2010; Kibui et al., 2014).In summary the findings of this study showed that TM appears not to be effective in reducing talented employees' intention to quit directly; neither does it reduce quitting intention indirectly through satisfaction and commitment. However, POS must be taken seriously as it fully mediates the relationship between TM and quitting intention.

6.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter the structural model was evaluated using SEM. The results showed that the fit indices fit the data well and therefore I proceeded to test the research hypotheses. The results of the hypothesis testing showed that quality and innovative business strategies had a positive relationship with TM, while cost leadership strategy had a negative relationship. The result also showed that TM had a direct relationship with task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviour. That is, TM had a direct positive relationship with task, contextual, and adaptive performance but a negative relationship with counterproductive behaviours. Again, the results showed that TM did not reduce talented employees' intention to quit their job.

From this study, it was found that TM had a direct positive and significant relationship with TM outputs (commitment, satisfaction and POS). Again, within the

TM outputs, POS had a direct positive relationship with commitment and satisfaction. TM outputs of commitment and satisfaction also had a direct and significant relationship with the four dimensions of employee performance while POS did not. Regarding the relationship between TM outputs and the intention to quit, it was found that POS reduced employees' intention to quit while commitment and satisfaction did not. With respect to mediating effects, commitment and satisfaction mediated the relationship between TM and employee performance. Thus, commitment and satisfaction mediated the relationship between TM and the four dimensions of employee performance while POS did not have any mediating effect on any of the dimensions of employee performance.

Finally, POS mediated the relationship between TM and intention to quit while satisfaction and commitment did not mediate this relationship. Therefore, the findings of this study showed that there was a relationship between TM and the four dimensions of employee performance: task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviours through the direct and indirect role of commitment and employee satisfaction. However, the relationship between TM and task, contextual and adaptive employee performance as well as counterproductive work behaviours was direct as POS did not mediate this relationship.

From this finding, current organisations implementing TM systems and those aspiring to do so should know that, the relationship between TM and employee performance may not be that direct, and as such they must strive to achieve immediate TM outcomes if they are to achieve the ultimate goal of increasing employee performance. Organisations implementing and aspiring to implement TM systems should note that TM appears not to be the answer to employee retention and that it may not decrease levels of the intention to quit. Finally, organisations should not implement TM systems in a vacuum; they must always be dictated by their business strategy. The next chapter will present the summary, conclusion, and recommendations.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the findings of the study. This chapter is divided into six sections. Section provides a summary of this thesis. This will be followed by section two which draws a conclusion for this study. The third section provides practical and theoretical implications. Section four discusses the contributions of this study while section five concentrates on its limitations. The last section outlines directions for future research.

7.2 Summary of the Study

Ever since the term TM entered the managerial lexicon in the 1990s through a group of McKinsey consultants, who coined the phrase the "War for Talent" (Axelrod at al., 2002), interest in TM has proliferated over the last two decades, with the shortage of talent touted as one of the highest HR concerns for most organisations today (Thunnissen et al., 2013; Cappelli and Keller, 2014). Consequently, organisations have directed increasing attention to TM (Björkman et al., 2013; Meyers and Woerkom, 2014). Although approaches vary, TM usually focuses on the pool of employees that ranks at the top in terms of performance and competencies, and are therefore considered as leaders or key professionals, either at present or will be at some point in the future (Lewis and Heckman, 2006; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Gelens et al., 2013).

Similarly, research on TM has grown steadily and has been described as growing from infancy to adolescence (Thunnissen et al., 2013). Even though it was initially dominated by theoretical, conceptual, and review research (Dries, 2013), empirical research has increased since 2012 (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015). At the

nucleus of TM is the assumption that talent must be found, segmented, nurtured, and placed in pivotal positions that are crucial for the competitive advantage of the firm (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005; Gelens et al., 2013). This assumption led to research into the meaning of the term "talent" (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Tansley, 2011).

Also, part of this core assumption is the ability of "talents" to perform better than "non-talents," which also generated research on the differences between employees identified as "talents" and "non-talents" (Gelens et al., 2015) and the factors that influence whether or not someone is classified as a talent (Makela et al., 2010; Mellahi and Collings, 2010). Research has also proliferated in the area of TM strategies, design, implementation, and challenges (Sidani and Ariss, 2014; Poocharoen and Lee, 2013). Furthermore, research on the relationship between TM and performance both at the organisational and individual level is growing (Chami-Malaeb, 2012; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015).

While admitting that this has contributed to deepening our understanding of the construct in the scholarly and professional world, a number of gaps remain to be explored in order to further the field of TM research both academically and professionally. The main objective of this study was to develop a conceptual model that determines the relationship between TM and employee performance as well as employee intention to quit through the mediating role of TM outputs, taking into account the effect of business strategy on TM. This study was therefore guided by the following research question: What are the mechanisms through TM leads to employee performance as well as the intention to quit?

Data were collected from two hundred and thirty-two (232) sample of respondents from three public commercial banks in Ghana. Data were analyzed using SEM to establish the validity of the individual constructs, the overall constructs, and the structural model. The data fit the constructs well as all of the fit indices met the standard criteria of acceptance.

The findings of the study showed that business strategy had a direct relationship with TM. Specifically, quality and innovative business strategies had a positive relationship with TM while the cost leadership strategy had a negative relationship. In other words, TM was seen to be more appropriate for organisations with quality and innovative business strategies than the cost leadership business

strategy. Secondly, TM was seen to lead directly and significantly to all four dimensions of employee performance: task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviours. Thirdly, TM practices had a direct impact on TM outputs: commitment, POS, and satisfaction. Again, whereas commitment and satisfaction led directly to the four dimensions of employee performance, POS did not have direct impact on employee performance but through satisfaction and commitment. Also, the finding showed that commitment and satisfaction mediated the relationship between TM and all four dimensions of employee performance while POS did not mediate any of these relationships.

With regards to the relationship between TM and intention to quit, it was found that TM did not reduce talented employees' intention to quit. Furthermore, whereas TM impacted TM outputs directly, it was only POS that reduced the intention to quit. Similarly, POS was found to fully mediate the relationship between TM and intention to quit while commitment and satisfaction did not. Generally, the findings of this study showed that commitment and satisfaction serves as mediating mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance. However, TM appears not to be the key or the solution to talented employees' retention even though the direct and mediating role of POS is important in this relationship.

7.3 Conclusion of the Study

The findings of this study showed that business strategy had a direct relationship with TM. Similarly, the findings showed that TM led to the four dimensions of employee performance: task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance and counterproductive behaviours. The results also revealed that TM led to TM outputs (POS, commitment, and satisfaction). Similarly, POS led to commitment and satisfaction. Also, whereas commitment and satisfaction had a direct relationship with the four dimensions of employee performance, POS did not. Again, satisfaction and commitment mediated the relationship between TM and the four dimensions of employee performance: task, contextual, adaptive, and counterproductive. Furthermore, POS did not mediate the four dimensions of employee performance. Finally, while TM did not reduce intention; POS had a direct

reduction effect on the intention to quit. POS also fully mediated the relationship between TM and the intention to quit but commitment and satisfaction did not.

The conclusion from this study is that business strategy shape the implementation of TM. Similarly, TM affects all four dimensions of employee performance: task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive behaviours. It also has a direct impact on TM outputs (POS, commitment and satisfaction). Again, TM affects these four dimensions indirectly through commitment and satisfaction. On the other hand, POS does not have a direct or an indirect relationship with the four dimensions of employee performance.

However, POS only triggers positive employee attitudes of commitment and satisfaction, which then affect employee performance. In other words, the TM outputs of commitment and satisfaction serve as the mechanisms through which TM influences employee performance. Finally, TM appears not to be the solution and key to reduce the intention to quit. However, the TM outputs of POS appear to be important in retaining talented employees as they have a direct and mediating (indirect) effect on talent retention.

Therefore, employers and organisations implementing TM systems must know that the solution to employee performance not only comes directly from TM, but their ability to consistently ensure that a TM system leads to TM outputs. It is only when a TM system increases talented employees' POS, commitment, and satisfaction that employers and organisations can fully achieve their aim of employee performance. Therefore, this model and the findings of this study do not dictate that organisations have to institutionalize a comprehensive TM system in order to reach employee performance. On the contrary, it suggest that if organisations develop and institutionalize a comprehensive TM system, this can affect positive employee attitudes (TM outputs) directly and employee performance directly and indirectly.

However, employers and organisations cannot retain talented employees' through a TM system, even though POS appears to likely decrease levels of quit intentions. This is probably because talented employees' are desired by most organisations and this gives them a wide variety of options and employers to choose from, hence making them less loyal and feeling less bonded to their organisations.

Therefore, organisations and employers need more than just the implementation of TM practices in order to retain talented employees.

7.4 Practical Implications

The results of this study have several important implications for managers and organisations implementing and intending to implement TM systems. First, the findings of this study showed that business strategy directly impacts the TM system. Specifically, quality and innovative strategies are positively related to TM while cost leadership strategy is negatively related to TM. The implication for managers and organisations here is that their business strategy should determine whether they should implement a TM system or not. Thus, it appears to be appropriate for organisations with quality and innovation business strategies to implement TM rather than cost leadership strategy. This implication was supported by Becker et al. (2009) and McDonnell (2011), who argued that the business strategy should be the starting point in the implementation of any TM system. Indeed, Guthridge et al. (2006) stated that TM cannot be isolated from the business strategy.

Second, the findings showed that TM leads to employee performance. Specifically, TM is positively related to task, contextual, and adaptive performance but negatively related to counterproductive work behaviours. The findings also showed that TM appears to be successful in enhancing positive employee attitudes such as POS, commitment, and satisfaction. These positive attitudes (commitment and satisfaction) then lead directly to employee performance. Also, the TM outputs of commitment and satisfaction mediate the relationship TM and employee performance while POS leads to commitment and satisfaction.

The implication here for management and organisations implementing and intending to implement TM systems is that they should implement and invest in TM systems that will heighten their employees' perceptions of organisational support, which will increase the commitment and satisfaction of talented employees. Thus, it is only when a TM system triggers these important TM outputs that management and organisations can fully achieve the goal of increasing employee performance. Thus,

management must paid attention to POS and try to implement career opportunities and good working environmental conditions for their talented employees.

Third, the findings showed that TM does not decrease talented employees' levels of quit intentions. However, POS appears to decreased levels of quit intentions as it has a direct and fully mediating relationship between TM and intention to quit. The implication for management and organisations implementing and intending to implement TM systems is that the key and solution to decreased levels of talented employees' quit intentions appears not to be TM. Perhaps, there are several opportunities for talented employees and therefore simply implementing a TM system may not retain them. Therefore, management should look beyond TM and find innovative methods of retention if they really want to retain talented employees. Particularly, the talented employees in this study are Gen Y and therefore require a different management style to retain them. However, management has to pay serious attention to POS as it can partially help in retaining talents.

7.5 Contributions of the Study

TM is increasingly becoming a growing and important field in the HRM literature. Therefore, a study of TM is really important at the present time when organisations are trying to cope with uncertainties, competition, and talent shortage in the global market like never before. This study has examined the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance and the intention to quit. The findings of this study have made important contributions to the existing literature of TM.

First, the study advances our understanding of the importance of TM and the mediating mechanisms (POS, commitment, and satisfaction) through which TM leads to employee performance. Thus, it has been argued that while TM is widely recognised as an important and growing field, especially in its relations to performance, few studies have examined the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Dries, 2013; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015; Mensah, 2015). Hence, this study has contributed to the TM literature by examining the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance. Thus, the findings reveal that TM not only impacts directly employee performance

but also indirectly through TM outputs (satisfaction and commitment). Therefore, the blind spot ("Black Box") that exists in the literature concerning the mediating mechanisms through which TM may influence employee performance has been unlocked.

Second, this study has contributed to our understanding of how TM relates to the various dimensions of employee performance: task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviours. Thus, in spite of the abundant literature on the fact that employee performance is multi-dimensional, previous studies on the relationship between TM and employee performance (Chami-Malaeb, 2012; Björkman et al., 2013; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015) did not show how TM relates to the various dimensions of employee performance. Hence, this study has filled this gap. The findings of this study showed that TM relates to the dimensions of employee performance differently. Specifically, TM relates positively to task, contextual, and adaptive performance and negatively to counterproductive behaviours. This makes the findings more complete than the previous limited studies that concentrated on only one aspect of employee performance.

Third, this study has contributed to our understanding of how business strategy affects TM. Thus previous studies (Chami-Malaeb and Garavan, 2013; Gelens et al., 2015; Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015) have ignored the impact of business strategy on TM. However, this study comprehensively models the influence of business strategies on TM. The findings showed that, whereas quality and innovative strategies have a positive relationship with TM, cost leadership strategy has a negative relationship with TM. This result provides a more clearer, holistic, and comprehensive view of the processes than the limited and simple models provided in previous studies. This can help management and organisations decide whether to implement a TM system or not based on their business strategy.

Fourth, this study collected data directly from talented employees. Therefore, the findings offer apparent advantages over the more widely-used samples from managerial directors or statistical data gathered in HR practices. In this study, the perceptions of talented employees upon whom the TM measures are directly carried

out and affected were directly measured. This appears to have provided more direct and accurate results than the data from the managerial and directors' view.

Fifth, the current study introduced SET, AMO theory, and ST as an alternative theoretical lens through which the relationship between TM and employee performance could be explained. The findings provide support for the assumptions underlying the SET, AMO theory, and ST, which postulates that the perception of organisational support creates reciprocity so that employees generally respond in positive ways that are beneficial to the organisation, while AMO theory suggests that motivational HR practices are particularly important in achieving employee performance. Again, TM practices can be viewed as performing a signalling function by sending messages to talented employees to perform. Therefore, TM leads to positive employee attitudes (POS, commitment, and satisfaction), which in turn result in employee performance. The findings of this study suggest that SET, AMO theory, and ST serve as useful ways of explaining the mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance.

Sixth, most studies on TM did not link business strategy to TM. However, this study comprehensively models the influence of business strategies on TM as well as the complex mechanisms through which TM leads to employee performance. Therefore, this study develops a multivariate analysis of the relationship between business strategy and TM and how TM outputs mediate the relationship between TM, employee performance, as well as the intention to quit. This clearly provides a more holistic and comprehensive view of the processes more than the limited and the simple models provided in previous studies.

Seventh, the TM performance framework/model proposed in this study shows that the TM-employee performance relationship is not a random event. It is the result of the systematic working of a myriad of influences. Therefore, this framework helps to understand the nature of these forces and how they affect the intended results of TM. Hence, this model serves the purpose of enhancing the understanding senior executives and HR managers and empowering them to rationally and purposefully monitor and manage talented employees to achieve potential TM latent outputs in other to achieve the manifest results (employee performance). HR professionals should therefore emphasise the proper use of TM practices to generate TM outputs as

they are antecedents to employee performance. Therefore, both researchers and managers can benefit from this conceptual framework; the former can use the framework as the basis for theorising and empirical work, while the latter can use it to inform the organisation's strategy and practices.

Besides this study's theoretical contributions, the study also has made methodological contributions. First, most of the empirical studies on TM are based on qualitative methodologies of interviews, case studies, focus group discussions, and even the quantitative ones with exception of a few did not use complex techniques such as SEM. Instead, they utilized ordinary regression techniques, ANOVA, and logistics regression for statistical analyses. However, researchers need to be aware of the potential complexity of the relationship between TM, employee performance, and intention to quit by using more sophisticated, rigorous, and robust analytical tools, specifically SEM, to test for potential variables that may mediate the relationship. This study on the other hand used SEM to examine these complex relationships, which made the results much more valid, reliable, and robust than other statistical techniques used in previous studies.

Second, this study makes a contribution to the TM literature in the non-Western and non-Asian context. Thus, while interest in TM research is growing, the current assumptions and concepts in the TM literature are strongly embedded in US, European, Asian, and Arabian contexts (Dries, 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2015). As a result, recommendations have been made for further research to examine TM systems in different contexts, regions, and countries (Vaiman et al., 2012; Thunnissen et al., 2013). Therefore, this study has responded to filling this gap by discussing evidence of TM and employee performance in Ghana, a non-Western and non-Asian country. Overall, the findings of this study suggest that TM systems have the potential to lead to employee performance through TM outputs but they were not seen to have a direct relationship as postulated in most of the Western literature.

7. 6 Limitations of the Study

As with most research of this nature, the findings of this study should be interpreted with caution and several limitations to this study should be considered. First, this study used cross-sectional data; hence, conclusions regarding causality cannot be made. That is, the results must be interpreted as associations rather than in terms of causality. In other words, the cross-sectional data of this study did not provide clear information on the accurate directions of the relationships between the variables of the study. Therefore, the results of this study are still somewhat inconclusive as to the causality of the relationships. A longitudinal study will provide additional insights to establish causality.

Second, the data for this study were collected from talented employees in three public commercial banks in Ghana with the use of simple random sampling. Therefore, the findings of this study cannot be generalised to the Ghanaian banking sector as a whole; neither can they be generalised to the Ghanaian context as a whole-they are limited to the studied sample. Third, there is no agreement upon which set of TM practices should be used when testing the relationship between TM and employee performance. Accordingly, the five practices selected for this study may not be representative of all the TM practices employed by the studied banks. However, the practices included in this study are among the most widely-used practices in research and practice (Luna-Arocas and Morley, 2015) in terms of linking TM practices and employee performance.

The fourth limitation of this study is the exclusive use of single source, self-report, and subjective measures of all variables. Self-evaluation is from the perspective of the employee him/herself. Subjective and self report data has been criticised for having many systematic biases related to order, bias in inflating results, and concerns about common method variance. Therefore, these contaminating effects of response bias can cause interpretational problems for the obtained results. However, Robbins (2003: 501) intimated that despite the fact that employees tend to inflate their own ratings, self-evaluation lessens their defensiveness about the appraisal process, and helps to stimulate job performance discussions between employees and their superiors.

Again, previous researchers have suggested that if common method variance is evident, the correlation matrix should reflect this tendency by showing consistently high correlations across variables. However, inspection of the correlation matrix (table 5.11) suggested that such a pattern is not evident. Furthermore, this study tested for common method variance and no evidence of such was found. Thus, common method variance did not appear to be an issue in this study.

7.7 Directions for Future Research

Based on the findings and limitations of this study, a number of pertinent directions for future research are worth noting. First, even though longitudinal research is both expensive and time consuming, future research would benefit from testing this study's model through a longitudinal research design so as to determine the causal links more explicitly. Longitudinal research could help evaluate the stability of employee performance and TM outputs overtime, and determine whether they are static within talented individuals that do not change over time or dynamic, which can be affected by organisational changes. Second, the findings of this study may not be applicable to all banks in Ghana or all organisations in Ghana. Accordingly, additional research is needed on this topic using other banks to better understand the generalisability of the findings.

Again, research is needed in other sectors than the financial sector, such as smaller companies, and companies with different organisational and national cultures or with different approaches to TM. Third, although this study has clearly demonstrated the importance of analysing the mechanisms mediating the relationship between TM practices and employee performance, more research still needs to be done so as to gain a better understanding of these relationships. Other variables that can be added include employee engagement, motivation, among others. Fourth, this study only used a sample of talented employees. Therefore, the literature would benefit from comparing the results from employees designated as talents and non-talents to determine whether talents and TM were solely the cause of the relationships found in this study.

Fifth, while self-reported data can be a useful source of information, they do not contribute to our understanding of the actual effects that TM practices may have on the performance of talented employees due to their susceptibility to various biases, such as common method variance. Therefore, further study is required that would use subjective data either from superiors or co-workers. Similarly, future studies can tackle this limitation by using archival data and multiple raters in order to measure talented employees' performance. Lastly, further research is required to find out why POS does have a direct or mediate the relationship with TM and employee performance; and why commitment and satisfaction does not have a direct or mediate the relationship between TM and intention to quit.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

Consent Form

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire requires that you answer questions relating to different aspects of work performance. The purpose of this study is to understand how talent management affect the various dimensions of employee performance and intention to quit. Your responses will be both anonymous and confidential and is purely for academic purpose. If, for any reason, you have concerns or complaints relating to this study, please feel free to contact the researcher, **James Kwame Mensah** by mail at mensjam@gmail.com or by phone at **0243467275 / +66809493798**.

Thank you very much for your participation.

Signature: _____ ***Date:*** _____

Questionnaire

SECTION I: BUSINESS STRATEGY

Please for each item indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the items by circling ***(1) strongly agree, (2) moderately agree, (3) slightly agree, (4) slightly disagree, (5) moderately disagree, and (6) strongly disagree***

Quality strategy	**Response**					
My bank stresses being a high quality producer	1	2	3	4	5	6
My bank competes primarily on the basis of quality	1	2	3	4	5	6
Cost reduction strategy	**Response**					
My bank stresses being a low-cost producer	1	2	3	4	5	6
My bank charges higher prices than competitors	1	2	3	4	5	6
My bank stresses charging the lowest prices in the market	1	2	3	4	5	6
Innovative strategy	**Response**					
My bank introduces many new products to the market	1	2	3	4	5	6
My bank introduces more new products than competitors	1	2	3	4	5	6
My bank offers a wide variety of products in its product line	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION II: TALENT MANAGEMENT

Please for each item indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the items by circling ***(1) strongly agree, (2) moderately agree, (3) slightly agree, (4) slightly disagree, (5) moderately disagree, and (6) strongly disagree***

Talent Management Practices	**Response**					
My competencies are in sync with my job description	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have the opportunity to fully utilize my knowledge and skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have the necessary competencies needed to perform my job	1	2	3	4	5	6
I can try my own methods/ideas to do the job	1	2	3	4	5	6
Development programs are available to me least once a year	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION III: TALENT MANAGEMENT OUTPUTS

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following items by circling
(1) Strongly agree, (2) moderately agree, (3) slightly agree, (4) slightly disagree, (5) moderately disagree, and (6) strongly disagree

Employee Satisfaction	**Response**					
In general, I like working in this bank	1	2	3	4	5	6
In general, I don't like my job (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6
At work, I have the opportunity to do what I do best	1	2	3	4	5	6
Employee Commitment	**Response**					
I feel emotionally attached to this bank	1	2	3	4	5	6
I really feel as if this bank's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5	6
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my bank	1	2	3	4	5	6
Perceived Organizational Support	**Response**					
My bank cares about my opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6
My bank really cares about my well-being	1	2	3	4	5	6
My bank strongly considers my goals and values	1	2	3	4	5	6
Help is available from my bank when I have a problem	1	2	3	4	5	6
My bank would forgive an honest mistake on my part	1	2	3	4	5	6
My bank is willing to help me if I need a special favour	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION IV: EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE
Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the items by circling
(1) Strongly agree, (2) moderately agree, (3) slightly agree, (4) slightly disagree, (5) moderately disagree, and (6) strongly disagree

Task performance	**Response**					
My quantity of work is higher than average	1	2	3	4	5	6
My quality of work is much higher than average	1	2	3	4	5	6
My efficiency is much higher than average	1	2	3	4	5	6
I uphold the highest professional standards	1	2	3	4	5	6
My work quality is higher than the formal standard	1	2	3	4	5	6
Contextual Performance	**Response**					
I often start new tasks myself, when my old ones are finished	1	2	3	4	5	6
I take on challenging tasks, when available	1	2	3	4	5	6
I take initiative when something has to be organised	1	2	3	4	5	6
I am able to fulfil my responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6
I take initiative when there is a problem to be solved	1	2	3	4	5	6
I accept and learn from feedback	1	2	3	4	5	6
I cooperate well with colleagues at work	1	2	3	4	5	6
I communicate effectively with colleagues at work	1	2	3	4	5	6

Adaptive Performance	**Response**					
I work at keeping my job knowledge up to date	1	2	3	4	5	6
I easily adjust to changes in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6
I recover fast after difficult situations or setbacks at work	1	2	3	4	5	6
I always come up with creative solutions to new problems	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have demonstrated flexibility	1	2	3	4	5	6
I cope well with uncertainty and unpredictability at work	1	2	3	4	5	6
Counterproductive Behaviours	**Response**					
I purposely work slowly	1	2	3	4	5	6
I purposely make mistakes	1	2	3	4	5	6
I focus on the negative aspects of a work situation	1	2	3	4	5	6
I complain about unimportant matters at work	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION V: INTENTION TO QUIT

Please indicate **how frequently** you consider the following by circling your response
1= Never, 2= Rarely, 3= Sometimes, 4= Often, 5= Always

Intention to Quit	**Response**					
I would prefer another more ideal job to the one I have now	1	2	3	4	5	6
I won't be working for this bank a year from now	1	2	3	4	5	6
I have seriously thought about leaving this bank	1	2	3	4	5	6
I don't intend to remain with this bank for long	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION VI: RESPONDENT BACKGROUND

Please choose the one that is applicable to you

Gender:

Male ☐
Female ☐

Age: _____

Marital status:

Single ☐
Married ☐
Divorce ☐
Widowed ☐

Your highest level of education

_____
Bachelors (eg. BA, Bsc, Bed) ☐
Masters (eg. MBA, Msc, MA) ☐
PhD ☐
Professional Qualification (ACCA, CA, ACIB) ☐

How many years have you work here?

Position: _____

Name of your Bank: optional

_____

Thanks for your participation! Your time is greatly appreciated

BIOGRAPHY

NAME	Mr. James Kwame Mensah
ACADEMIC BACKGROUND	Master of Philosophy (Public Administration) University of Ghana, Legon, 2011
	Bachelor of Arts (Sociology with Political Science) University of Ghana, Legon 2007