

**DEVELOPING A PSYCHOLOGICAL RETENTION FRAMEWORK FOR PRIVATE
ORGANISATIONS**

by

ESTER MUJAJATI

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SUPERVISOR: Prof N Ferreira

CO-SUPERVISOR: Dr M du Plessis

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DECLARATION

Name: Ester Mujajati

Student number: 31775276

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

Title: Developing a psychological retention framework for private organisations

I, Ester Mujajati (student number 31775276), declare that this research dissertation entitled, **developing a psychological retention framework for private organisations** is my own unique and original work, and that all the sources that I have utilised or quoted have been listed and acknowledged in the bibliography.

I further declare that I submitted the thesis to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

I further declare that ethics clearance to conduct the research has been obtained from the Department of Human Resource Management, University of South Africa, as well as from the participating organisation. I also declare that the study has been carried out in strict accordance with the Policy for Research Ethics of the University of South Africa (Unisa). I took great care that the research was conducted with the highest integrity, taking into account Unisa's Policy for Infringement and Plagiarism. The ethics clearance certificate to conduct the research has been attached as Appendix A. The permission document is attached as Appendix B.



31 October 2022

Ester Mujajati

Date

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ABSTRACT/SUMMARY

Developing a psychological retention framework for private organisations

by

Ester Mujajati

SUPERVISOR: Prof N Ferreira
CO-SUPERVISOR: Dr M du Plessis
DEPARTMENT: Human Resource Management
DEGREE: PhD in Management Sciences: Human Resource
Management

The current research focused on exploring the relationship dynamics between the retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) in relation to resilience-related behaviour capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and from the relation dynamics found develop a psychological retention framework for South African private sector. A quantitative survey was performed on a non-probability convenience selected sample of (N = 574) of permanently employed (84.6%), job level (at staff level) (81%), female (62.5%), married (48.6%), Black African (47.1%), individuals between the ages of 36-45 years (39.5%). The canonical correlation analysis indicated organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness as the strongest retention-related dispositions variables in predicting resilience and career adaptability. The correlation data were used to inform the structural equation modelling, which indicated a good fit between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Hierarchical moderated regression showed that organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness significantly moderated the relationship between resilience and career adaptability. Both Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U Tests revealed significant differences in terms of the socio-demographic variables. Kruskal-Wallis test was performed in order to establish whether the levels of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability of respondents showed significant differences according to age, race, marital status and job level. The Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether the levels of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career of respondents showed a significant difference according to gender and employment status. On a theoretical level, the current study deepened the understanding of the individual and the diverse elements of the hypothesised psychological retention framework. On an empirical

level, the current study delivered an empirically and holistically tested psychological retention framework in terms of the unique and diverse elements. On a practical level, individual and organisational interventions in terms of the psychological retention framework were recommended.

OKUCASHUNIWE/UKUFINGQA

Ukwakha uhlaka lokugcinwa kwengqondo lwezinhlangano ezizimele

ngu

Ester Mujajati

UMPHATHI: USolwazi N Ferreira
OBAMBISENE NOMPETHATHI: UDkt. M du Plessis
UMNYANGO: Ukuphathwa Kwabasebenzi
IZIQU: Iziqo zobuDokotela kuSayensi Yokuphatha:
Ukuphathwa Kwabasebenzi

Ucwaningo lwamanje lugxile ekuhloleni ukuguquguquka kobudlelwano phakathi kwezimo ezihlobene nokugcinwa (ukuzinikela kwenhlangano, ukugxiliswa komsebenzi kanye nokuqina) ngokuhlobene namandla okuziphatha ahlobene nokukhuthazela (ukuqina nokuzivumelanisa nezimo emsebenzini) kanye nokusuka emandleni obudlelwano atholakele ukuthuthukisa uhlaka lokugcinwa kwengqondo yemboni ezimele yaseNingizimu Afrika. Inhlolovo yokuqoqa nokuhlaziya imininingwane yezinombolo yenziwe kusampula elikhethiwe lokungenzeki kube lula (N = 574) labaqashwe unomphela (84.6%), izinga lomsebenzi (ezingeni labasebenzi) (81%), abesifazane (62.5%), abashadile (48.6%), AbaNyama base-Afrika (47.1%), abantu abaneminyaka ephakathi kuka-36-45 (39.5%). Ukuhlaziywa kwendlela esetshenziselwa ukukhomba nokulinganisa izinhlangano phakathi kwamaqoqo amabili okuguquguqukayo kubonise ukuzibophezela kwenhlangano, ukugxiliswa komsebenzi kanye nokuqina njengokuguquguquka okunamandla okuhlobene nokugcinwa kokubikezela ukuqina nokuzivumelanisa nezimo emsebenzini. Imininingwane yokuhlobana yasetshenziselwa ukwazisa isilinganiso sezibalo zesakhiwo, ebonisa ukuvumelana okuhle phakathi kokuzibophezela kwenhlangano, ukugxiliswa emsebenzini, ukuqina, ikhono lokululuma ngokushesha ebunzimeni nokuvumelana nezimo komsebenzi. Ukuhlela okulinganiselwe ngokwezinga eliphezulu kubonise ukuthi ukuzibophezela kwenhlangano, ukugxiliswa komsebenzi, ukuqina kwengamela ngokuphawulekayo ubudlelwano phakathi kokuqina nokuzivumelanisa nezimo emsebenzini. Kokubili Ukuhlolwa kwe-Kruskal-Wallis kanye ne-Mann-Whitney U kwembule umehluko obalulekile ngokuya ngokuhlukahluka kwenhlalo yabantu. Ukuhlolwa kwe-Kruskal-Wallis kwenziwa ukuze kutholwe ukuthi ingabe amazanga okuzinikela kwenhlangano, ukugxiliswa komsebenzi, ukuqina, ikhono lokululama ngokushesha ebunzimeni kanye nokuvumelana nezimo emsebenzini kwabaphenduli

kubonisa umehluko omkhulu ngokuya ngeminyaka, uhlanga, isimo somshado nezinga lomsebenzi. Ukuhlolwa kwe-Mann-Whitney U kwenziwa ukuze kutholwe ukuthi ingabe amazinga okuzinikela kwenhlangano, ukugxiliswa komsebenzi, ukuqina, ikhono lokululama ngokushesha ebunzimeni, kanye nomsebenzi wabaphenduli kubonisa umehluko omkhulu ngokobulili nesimo sokuqashwa. Ngokwezinga lombono, ucwaningo lwamanje lwajulisa ukuqonda komuntu ngamunye kanye nezinto ezihlukahlukene zohlaka lokugcinwa kwengqondo okucatshangelwayo. Ngokwezinga lokususelwe kokubhekwayo, ucwaningo lwamanje lulethe uhlanga lokugcinwa kwengqondo oluhlolwe ngokususelwe kokubhekwayo nokuphelele ngokwezinto ezihlukile nezihlukahlukene. Ezingeni elingokoqobo, ukungenelela komuntu ngamunye kanye nenhlangano ngokohlaka lokugcinwa kwengqondo kuphakanyisiwe.

OPSOMMING

Ontwikkeling van 'n psigologiese retensieraamwerk vir private organisasies

deur

Ester Mujajati

STUDIELEIER: Prof. N Ferreira
MEDE-STUDIELEIER: Dr. M du Plessis
DEPARTEMENT: Menslike Hulpbronbestuur
GRAAD: PhD in Bestuurswetenskappe: Menslike
Hulpbronbestuur

Die hedendaagse navorsing het daarop gefokus om die verhoudingsdinamika tussen retensie-
verwante ingesteldhede (organisasoriese toewyding, werkverbondenheid en gehardheid) en
gedragsvaardighede wat verband hou met veerkragtigheid (veerkragtigheid en loopbaan-
aanpasbaarheid) te ondersoek. Die verhoudingsdinamika wat geïdentifiseer is, is aangewend
om 'n psigologiese retensieraamwerk vir die Suid-Afrikaanse privaatsektor te ontwikkel. 'n
Kwantitatiewe opname is op 'n nie-waarskynlikheid, gerieflikheids-geselekteerde steekproef
van (N = 574) individue uitgevoer: permanent aangestel (84.6%), posvlak (op personeelvlak)
(81%), vroulik (62.5%), getroud (48.6%) en Swart Afrikane (47,1%) in die ouderdomsgroep
van 36-45 jaar (39,5%). Die kanonieke korrelasie-analise het organisatoriese toewyding,
werkverbondenheid en gehardheid as die sterkste retensie-verwante
ingesteldheidsveranderlikes in die voorspelling van veerkragtigheid en loopbaan-
aanpasbaarheid aangedui. Die korrelasiedata is aangewend om die strukturele
vergelykingsmodellering toe te lig, wat 'n sterk verband tussen organisatoriese toewyding,
werkverbondenheid, gehardheid, veerkragtigheid en loopbaan-aanpasbaarheid getoon het.
Hiërargies-gemodereerde regressie het getoon dat organisatoriese toewyding,
werkverbondenheid en gehardheid die verband tussen veerkragtigheid en loopbaan-
aanpasbaarheid aansienlik gemodereer het. Beide Kruskal-Wallis toetse en Mann-Whitney U-
toetse het beduidende verskille ten opsigte van die sosio-demografiese veranderlikes
aangedui. Die Kruskal-Wallis toetse is uitgevoer om vas te stel of die vlakke van
organisasoriese toewyding, werkverbondenheid, gehardheid, veerkragtigheid en loopbaan-
aanpasbaarheid van respondente betekenisvolle verskille met betrekking tot ouderdom, ras,
huwelikstatus en posvlak getoon het. Die Mann-Whitney U-toetse is uitgevoer om vas te stel
of die vlakke van organisatoriese toewyding, werkverbondenheid, gehardheid, veerkragtigheid

en loopbaan-aanpasbaarheid van respondente 'n beduidende verskil ten opsigte van geslag en indiennemingstatus getoon het. Op teoretiese vlak het die hedendaagse studie begrip van die individu en diverse elemente van die veronderstelde psigologiese retensieraamwerk verdiep. Op empiriese vlak het die huidige studie 'n empiries- en holisties-getoetste psigologiese retensieraamwerk in terme van die unieke en diverse elemente gelewer. Op praktiese vlak is individuele en organisatoriese intervensies met betrekking tot die psigologiese retensieraamwerk aanbeveel.

Keywords: organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience, career adaptability, talent retention and talent management

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CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

The research focuses on exploring the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) in relation to resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability). The three retention-related dispositions are not the only ones, but these three were chosen specifically because they are the most vital within organisations and the three concepts are linked closely to each other in a special and unique way naturally. These three variables were selected to form retention-related dispositions because of their natural characteristics that are capable of retaining highly talented employees. The three variables are naturally and centrally linked to talent retention, because they all focus on commitment to the organisation, to the job and to the community, embedded in one's job, organisation and community, hardi-commitment in one's job, and organisation. For example, individuals who are committed to the organisation, are the same people who are embedded to their job and organisation and these individuals are of hardi-personality. These three variables were chosen because there is a clear dynamic and strong relationship between them and they are unseparable. Founded on the results, a psychological retention framework for South African private organisations will be developed in order to retain top talent. It is expected that this psychological retention framework would assist HR Professionals to curb the most daunting problem of retaining talented employees that is exacerbated by ferocious competition for talent, "war" for talent and high levels of employee turnover experienced in South African private sector organisations (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Alruwaili, 2018; Wojcik, 2018). The framework would assist HR Professionals with new ways and ideas on how to develop effective and efficient retention strategies, policies and procedures that will help them to curb the loss of talent to other countries and retain highly talented employees. Additionally, the framework will be able to inspire and arm these HR Professionals with new ways of fighting and alleviating this "war" for talent (Felix, 2016; Holt & Davis, 2022). The modern world of work is an uncertain, technologically advanced, fiercely competitive and changing landscape. Therefore, a need exists for research of this kind.

This chapter outlines the background and motivation for the research. The problem statement, research questions and objectives will be formulated. The paradigm perspective, which guided the research, will be discussed. The research approach, design and methods will be explained. The chapter concludes with an outline of the chapters.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

Wojcik (2018) postulates that despite two decades having passed since the term was coined, the “war” for talent is still a vexing reality and daunting challenge for organisations globally. Banfield et al., (2018) argued that the “war” for talent is worsened by the acute shortage of critical talent globally. Globally organisations are facing a critical shortage of skilled labour due to tight labour market (Banfield et al., 2018; Lyria et al., 2017). Globally organisations are faced with three formidable and daunting problems linked to talent, namely ferocious competition for talented employees, high levels of employee turnover and fighting for talented employees. The research is referring to both general talent (these are employees who have solid general skills who are all-rounders) and talent in specific markets, with specific skills. In addition, Cui et al., (2018) concluded that by the year 2023 there will be a shortage of up to eighteen million talented employees worldwide. In addition to the findings above research have found that by the year 2023 there will also be a forecasted overflow of up to thirty million semi-skilled and unskilled employees internationally (Cui et al., 2018; Hayat et al., 2022). In light of the ever-increasing global talent shortage, organisations are seeking comprehensive strategies to retain superior employees to drive the performance and competitive advantage of the organisations (Theurer., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018).

The African continent is failing to retain its superior human capital due to poor compensation, uncompetitive working environment, critical socio-economic issues and political instability (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Alruwaili, 2018; Banfield et al., 2018). There is a demand for talented employees across all sectors, and organisations continue to experience acute shortage of critical talented, highly competent and productive professionals (Holt & Davis, 2022; Koskey & Allida, 2017). It is essential for organisations to help their highly skilled employees by supplying them with development opportunities, career development, life-long learning and important and necessary tools to be in charge and control their careers to survive in the modern smart-economy (Hosen et al., 2018; Phasha & Ahmed, 2017; Ployhart et al., 2018). It is further essential for organisations to understand that critical and scarce talent is a rare commodity in short supply (Kajwang, 2022; Ramu, 2018).

Since talent is a scarce resource and key differentiator, it is important for organisations to reinvent themselves to become agiler in retaining their highly talented and skilled employees (Kupari, 2016; Miranda-Martel & Mihi-Ramirez, 2017; Najm & Manasrah, 2017). Research has shown that talented human capital is essential in fighting the “war” for talent (Banfield et al., 2018; Felix, 2016; Ployhart et al., 2018). Mahfoozi et al. (2018) maintain that “war” for talented individuals starts in the appointment process, to attract, acquire, recruit and retain

superior individuals whose competencies, skills, knowledge and capabilities enhance the needs of the organisation. Organisations must therefore attract, acquire, develop, motivate and retain high-calibre employees in order to win this “war” for talent (Felix, 2016; Ross, 2018). Similarly, Lyria et al. (2017) maintain that highly talented and exceptional skilled individuals are worth fighting for.

It is critical for organisations to design, implement and evaluate holistic, robust and diverse talent retention programmes and plans to lower annual employees’ turnover rates (Alruwaili, 2018; Ferreira, 2016; Tambajong et al., 2018). It is therefore essential to develop a talent retention framework to assist HR Professionals in organisations to intervene with a new and robust framework in fighting and winning this “war” for talent that is and has been raging globally for two decades.

In order to design a unique psychological retention framework to help organisations in managing the retention of competent and experienced employees, the relationship between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related dispositions (resilience and career adaptability) was explored. The exploration of the relationship dynamics between these variables has become vital in today’s fast challenging, changing, competitive and high-tech global business environment, where organisations fiercely compete for talented and skilled individuals (Batistic, 2018; Bui & Van Zyl, 2016; Singh & Sanjeev, 2017). In this fast-growing competitive economy, the organisation can only survive with its top performers and highly productive employees (Akunda et al., 2018; Rasheed et al., 2022).

The most important challenge that South African organisations face is that organisations are fiercely competing for talented and skilled individuals and are facing daunting challenges relating to talent retention of talented employees (Artyukh, 2016; Davis & Frolova, 2017; Ejoywokeoghene, 2018). This problem is exacerbated by skilled labour shortage and is tough to meet the request for organisations (Kichuk, 2017; Mukweyi, 2016). According to Keating (2017), talented and high-calibre employees are innovative and creative and can inspire a new organisation to grow into a huge entity.

Atiku and Fields (2017) and Ployhart et al. (2018) noted that globalisation exerts immense pressure on organisations in the area of talent retention. Dhanpat et al. (2018) identified the features and challenges faced globally in the modern world of work: volatility, dynamism, uncertainty, complexities, ambiguity, myriad customers’ demands, high-technology, innovations, unknown future, world of work, demographics-aging workforce and skills

shortage. All these global challenges and demands will make it more difficult for organisations to retain their highly talented and productive individuals (Dhanpat et al., 2018; Malkawi, 2017; Waweru & Kagiri, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). It is essential for organisations to encourage continuous learning of the individual, team and organisation to retain high calibre and competent employees for organisational success, competitiveness, productivity and sustainable growth (Myron & White, 2016; Ncube, 2016; Waweru & Kagiri, 2018).

Al-Lozi et al., (2018) and Zentner (2018) concluded that the challenges and demands of work in the fast-growing, technologically advanced and highly competitive global markets strongly affect the retention of top performers and skilled employees. The world of work within the HR environment has changed drastically especially with the advanced technology (the internet of things, robotics, artificial intelligence, augmented reality, HRIS and social media), globalisation, highly competitive global markets, changing business landscape and fast-growing markets (Devaguptapu, 2017; Mone & London, 2018; Singh & Singh, 2018). Kireru et al. (2017) reiterate that in the current global fiercely competitive market-place talented and skilled individuals drive and create economic value of the organisation, lifeboats and differentiators for organisational competitive advantage. It should be noted, however, that talented employees are the most important cornerstone, the only resources who cannot be replicated and irreplaceable wealth, and perform a central role in the competitiveness and success of the organisation, and they should be looked after well and nurtured, in order to retain them (Bryson, 2018; Kumar, 2017; Mihalcea, 2017; Uzochukwu et al., 2018).

High levels of employee turnover are another formidable and challenging problem that is faced by South African private sector organisations, in retaining highly talented employees (Branfield et al., 2018). The exodus of highly talented and skilled professionals to other continents such as Europe, United States, Australia and New Zealand (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Alruwaili, 2018; Branfield et al., 2018) aggravates employee turnover in South African organisations. In Europe employee turnover levels are reported to be between 10% to 15% per year, in Hong Kong and Australia in most sectors in 2016 recorded its highest annual average turnover rate of 20.6 %. This is still lower than found in South African organisations in most sectors where an average employee turnover is 36.8% annually (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Branfield et al., 2018; Wojcik, 2018). Furthermore, North America, European Union, New Zealand and Asia in 2016 recorded its highest annual turnover rate between 15% and 20%, and this is still very low compared to South African in the same year where the annual employee turnover rate was between 35% and 40% (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Alruwaili, 2018; Branfield et al., 2018; Wojcik, 2018). Chugh and Goerner (2022) emphasised the “great resignation” or the “big bang” that most organisations faced post-Covid 19, where record numbers of people left their jobs after

Covid 19 pandemic ends. For some employees, the pandemic precipitated a change in priorities, encouraging them to pursue different careers (Hezel et al., 2022). But for many others the decision to quit their jobs came as a result of the way their employers treated them during the pandemic (Rasheed et al., 2022). In 2021, United States of America and elsewhere workers began leaving their jobs in record numbers. Organisations now have to navigate the ripple effects of the pandemic and re-evaluate how to retain talent (Chugh, 2021; DeMatthews et al., 2022). It is vital for organisations to comprehend the turnover rates in other countries, because it will help them to realise the importance of nurturing and retaining their talented and superior employees to remain successful and competitive. Additionally, highly skilled employees have a higher immigration rate which affects talent flow (Benon & Jansson, 2016). It should be noted, however, that even if organisations craft and implement the best and robust strategies, talented employees will always at a certain given time leave the organisation for unseen reasons, because generally talented employees are mobile (Branfield et al., 2018). It is essential for organisations to design and implement a robust and holistic retention strategy to reduce higher-calibre employees' turnover, since it is expensive to replace highly talented and creative employees than average and under performers (Hankins, 1997; Holston-Okoe & Mushi, 2018; Makhubela, 2017; Tambajong et al., 2018). The improvement of talent retention creed and strategy can boost the bottom line and market value of companies substantially (Chambers et al., 1998; Holbeche, 2015; Masadeh et al., 2018).

Lastly, the "war" for talent is another problem faced by South African private sector organisations (Hankins, 1997; Aher & Kawle, 2017; Cascio, 2018; Lanvin & Evans, 2017). Various research studies have indicated that South Africa is currently experiencing a critical shortage of talented and competent individuals due to tight labour market (Banfield et al., 2018; Lyria et al., 2017; Postulka, 2022). Consequently, according to Banfield et al. (2018), the shortage of critical skills results in unstable and unsustainable socio-economic growth in South Africa.

In conclusion, it is obvious that it is very hard and difficult to retain talented employees, due to three formidable and challenging problems (ferocious competition for talented employees, high levels of employee turnover, fighting for talented employees) faced by South African private sector organisations in the retention of talented employees (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Artyukh, 2016; Ejobwokeoghene et al., 2018; Zuti, 2018). Furthermore, the problem is exacerbated by the myriads of global challenges and demands (volatility, dynamism, uncertainty, complexities, ambiguity, myriad customers' demands, high-technology, innovations, unknown future, new world of work, demographics-aging workforce, skills shortage, highly competitive global markets, changing business landscape, meaningful,

rewarding and challenging work, and fast- growing markets) that make it difficult for organisations to keep their highly skilled and productive employees (Dhanpat et al., 2018; Kravariti et al., 2022). These are daunting challenges for organisations to reinvent themselves in all areas, to become agiler in retaining their highly talented and productive employees (Najm & Manasrah, 2017). Ultimately, organisations are being challenged to design and implement robust and diverse talent retention programmes, policies and strategies to lower annual employees' turnover rates and retain talented employees (Hoque et al., 2022; Tambajong et al., 2018).

For the purposes of the current doctoral thesis research, and for reasons of parsimony in dealing with a large number of variables, the following unique and vital research hypotheses were created:

H01: There is no statistical significant positive relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations.

Ha1: There is a statistical significant positive relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations.

H02: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status, and job levels) do not significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

Ha2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status, and job levels) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

H03: There are no significant mean differences between the biographical variables and the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

Ha3: There are significant mean differences between the biographical variables and the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

H04: The theoretically hypothesised model does not have a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.

Ha4: The theoretically hypothesised model has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

The "war for talent" is still going strong, and most organisations are failing to attract and keep top talent (Hankins, 1997; Keller & Meaney, 2017). From the above discussion it is clear that the retention of talented employees in South African private sector organisations is a challenge for a number of reasons. Firstly, there is need for organisations to retain their talented employees to improve their competitive advantage and remain successful (Chmitorz et al., 2018; Ekhsan et al., 2021; Ellis, 2018). Secondly, the retention of talented employees is a problem because high-calibre and highly intellectual employees perform a vital part in the bottom line and prosperity of the organisation, and the lifeboats and pillar of strength of any organisation (Marie et al., 2018; Safari et al., 2021; Van Breda, 2017; 2018). Thirdly, the problem is aggravated by the fierce competition for talented employees between these organisations nationally, because of the shortage of skilled employees (Artyukh, 2016; Davis & Frolova, 2017; Ejovwokeoghene et al., 2018; Martinez-Moran et al., 2021). Finally, the problem is further exacerbated by skilled labour shortage across all sectors and is very difficult to fulfil the demands for organisations (Kichuk, 2017; Mukweyi, 2016; Wiblen, 2021). Cui et al. (2018) concluded that by year 2023 the world of work will experience a critical shortage of about eighteen million talented employees.

Furthermore, the problem is exacerbated by abnormal levels of employee turnover that is worsened by the exodus of talented individuals to other continents (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Alruwaili, 2018; Branfield et al., 2018; Dubey et al., 2021; Porter et al., 1974). Additionally, when employees depart from the organisation they leave a vital skills break, when they carry along their intellectual skills, expertise, wisdom and superior knowledge, that they obtained through years of experience (Dhanalak & Gurunathan, 2018; Kireru et al., 2017; Pirzada et al., 2021). Organisations should recognise the vital factors, circumstances and forces that retain employees in their jobs, design and implement a diverse and strong strategy to reduce the turnover among top talented and intellectual employees, since it is expensive to replace superior and highly competent employees (Chandrasekaran, 2020; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021; Randhawa, 2017; Tambajong et al., 2018). Rothwell (2016) contends that the loss of valuable, scarce skilled and gifted employees would impact on organisational competitiveness and success. Tambajong et al. (2018) contends that the retention of highly competitive and productive individuals and regulating employee turnover are important to the organisation's competitive advantage and success in this unpredictable and competitive business landscape.

It is essential to improve employee-retention in order to increase the bottom line of organisations substantially (Adamska-Chudzinska, 2020; Nakato et al., 2021; Shalihah et al., 2018). It can therefore be concluded that superior talent is the major differentiators of the organisation (Langat et al., 2020; Tambajong et al., 2018; Wiblen, 2021).

Lastly, the problem is aggravated by “war” for talent that has been raging for decades. The “war” for talent is impacting negatively on organisations in the retention of talented employees because organisations are fighting for talented employees (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Cascio, 2018; Lanvin & Evans, 2017; Wiblen, 2021). Furthermore, Benon and Jansson (2016) emphasised that the “war” for talent highlights the increased demand and ferocious competition for highly talented and superior individuals, because skilled employees are key to success, which impacts on the demand for talent. Lyria et al. (2017) postulate that organisations should recognise the factors and forces that assist employees to remain in their positions, in order to retain their superior and highly qualified employees. According to Banfield et al. (2018) and Lyria et al. (2017) South Africa is experiencing a shortage of highly talented and top performing individuals because of tight labour market. Banfield et al. (2018), pointed out that the shortage of critical skilled individuals impacts on the growth of the socio-economic growth in the country. Various researchers concluded that the South African economy has high levels of unemployment rate because of millions of semi-skilled and unskilled people who are unemployed and on the other hand has millions of jobs that are vacant because there is no one with the skill sets to fill them (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Banfield et al., 2018; Cascio, 2018; Chandrasekaran, 2020). Because of these factors (fierce competition for talented employees, high levels of employee turnover and “war” for talent) that aggravate the problem of retention of talented employees it has become very difficult for organisations to keep their highly knowledgeable individuals for long in the organisation (Langat et al., 2020; Wiblen, 2021).

Several studies have been conducted on investigating fierce competition for talented employees within organisations, high employee turnover and war for talent locally and internationally (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Banfield et al., 2018; Martinez-Moran et al., 2021). However, there is no study that has been conducted in South African private sector organisations focusing on the investigation of the relationship between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness) in relation to resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and how these factors could assist private organisations in retaining its talented employees. Furthermore, the fact that people do not understand the psychological aspects that help with retention, and this research study will try to close this gap, by explaining in detail the retention psychological aspects. Additionally, it also seems that the existing retention models are not effective and

efficient enough, in fighting this “war” for talent (Hankins, 1997; Manjiri, 2023). Lastly, a psychological framework that explains the relationship between these variables is not available in existing literature, especially how this framework can assist organisations to find, attract and retain their most talented employees (Chambers et al., 1998; Hankins, 1997; Postulka, 2022).

There is not enough research on the effect that individuals’ socio-demographic characteristics (such as age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level) have on the relationship between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related dispositions (resilience and career adaptability) (Bibi & Jadoon, 2018; Dorien & Kooij, 2017; Haque & Aston, 2016; Yu & Liang, 2021).

1.2.1 Purpose of the study and why the study is different from other studies

This study will be different from other studies, because there is no other study that has addressed the problem of attracting and retaining highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations with reference to fierce competition for talented employees within organisations, high levels of employee turnover and “war” for talent with the main purpose of developing a psychological retention framework, to deal with the multifaceted problem and also that most models only account for some aspects. In order to intervene in trying to assist organisations to retain their talented employees, to help organisations to try and decrease turnover and increase retention rates of talented employees so as to improve organisation’s competitive advantage (Hankins, 1997; Manjiri, 2023; Postulka, 2022). Ultimately, this study is seeking to provide recommendations to solve this multifaceted problem by developing a psychological retention framework that will assist HR Professionals and career development practitioners to retain talented employees within their organisations.

1.3 Research questions

From the discussion above, the following unique research questions were created in terms of the literature review and empirical study:

1.3.1 Research questions relating to the literature

Research question 1: How are talent retention practices and strategies in South African private sector organisations conceptualised?

Research question 2: How are retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) conceptualised in the context of talent management and talent retention?

Research question 3: What is the nature of the relationship between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related dispositions (resilience and career adaptability); and how can this relationship be explained in terms of an integrated theoretical framework.

Research question 4: What recommendations can be formulated for the discipline of Human Resource Management and specifically talent retention practices on possible future research based on the findings of this research study?

1.3.2 Research questions relating to the empirical study

Research question 1: What is the nature of the empirical interrelationship between the socio-demographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level), retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness) and resilience-related dispositions (resilience and career adaptability) as manifested in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations? *This research question related to the testing of research hypothesis Ha1.*

Research question 2: Do the socio-demographic variables, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness significantly predict resilience and career adaptability? *This research question relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha2*

Research question 3: Do individuals from different ages, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability? *This research question relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha3*

Research question 4: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and adaptability), is there a good fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model? *This research question relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha4.*

Research question 5: What recommendations can be formulated for the development of a psychological retention framework as well as possible future research in the field of Human Resource Management?

1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

On the basis of the above research questions, the following aims were formulated:

1.4.1 General aim of the research

The general aim of this research is to investigate whether a relationship exists between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) (independent variables), in relation to resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) (dependent variable). A further aim is to establish whether a psychological retention framework can be developed to inform talent retention practices for South African private sector organisations. The study further aims to determine whether individuals from different age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels groups differ with regard to these variables and the effect there of on talent retention in the South African private sector organisations in the modern world of work. From the above general research aim, the following specific research questions were formulated in terms of the literature review and the empirical study:

1.4.2 Specific aims of the research

The following specific aims were formulated for the literature review and the empirical study:

1.4.2.1 Research aims relating to the literature study

Research aim 1: To conceptualise talent retention practices and strategies in the South African private sector organisations context.

Research aim 2: To conceptualise retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) in the context of talent management and talent retention.

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), as well as strategies influencing retention and the elements of the theoretical psychological retention framework that emerged from the relationship dynamics.

Research aim 4: To formulate recommendations for the discipline of Human Resource Management and specifically talent retention practices and make recommendations on possible future research based on the findings of this research study.

1.4.2.2 Research aims relating to the empirical study

Research aim 1: To explore the empirical inter-relationship between the socio-demographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level), retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) as manifested in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations. *This research aim relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha1.*

Research aim 2: To investigate if socio-demographic variables, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness significantly predict resilience and career adaptability. *This research aim relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha2.*

Research aim 3: To investigate whether individuals from different ages, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. *This research aim relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha3.*

Research aim 4: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), to assess whether a good fit exists between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model. *This research aim relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha4.*

Research aim 5: To formulate recommendations for further research in the field of Human Resource Management and suggest further research strategies based on the findings of this study research.

1.5 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE

The concepts of organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness are a significant researchable topic that has been researched extensively throughout the years. Scholars have however not researched the effect and the critical role that the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) in relation to resilience-related behavioural capacities (career resilience and career adaptability) might have on the designing of a psychological retention framework for talent retention in the South African private sector organisations. Once developed, the psychological retention framework could help organisations, in retaining highly talented and superior employees. Furthermore, the psychological retention framework could assist South African private sector organisations to manage the retention of talented employees they are experiencing, aggravated by ferocious competition for talented employees amongst themselves, high levels of employee turnover and the “war” for talent.

1.5.1 Potential contribution on a theoretical level

Theoretically, if readers of this research develop a deeper understanding and meaning of the constructs of retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and the way these connect to talent retention practices in the modern workplace, then the results are important enough to justify the pursuit of this study.

Where relationships dynamics are established between the variables, the outcomes may prove useful to future researchers in examining the possibility of designing a psychological

retention framework for South African private sector organisations. Additionally, the current research study findings could profoundly contribute to the main part of knowledge dealing with retention procedures and practices.

If relationships dynamics are not established, then the usefulness of this research study is restricted to the exclusion of a relationship between the retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), and the effort can be moved to other different research studies and ways that could produce important information that could assist answer the question of what strategies and practices are essential in the retention of top performers.

1.5.2 Potential contribution at an empirical level

At an empirical level, the current study may contribute to designing an empirically tested, psychological retention framework that may be used to inspire talent retention procedures and practices in South African private sector organisations. This framework will be based on the outcomes obtained from establishing the empirical multi-faceted relationship between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) as displayed in a sample of private sector organisations in South Africa.

Additionally, this research may show whether the complex relationship between individuals' organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability, is influenced by differences in age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level. The results may be important in the designing of an empirically examined psychological retention framework by showing the differences relating to the biographical information that deals with the needs of such a unique, complex and widely varied group.

1.5.3 Potential contribution at a practical level

At a practical level, the study might provide recommendations for retaining talented individuals in South African private sector organisations, and the findings of the study will provide to the existing main part of knowledge on talent retention.

If human resource professionals could develop a better understanding of the organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability of an individual that could positively influence the talent retention of employees, then the outcomes would be important enough to justify the continuation of this study.

In conclusion, it is clear that it is very difficult to retain talented employees, due to the acute shortage of talented and skilled individuals. The psychological retention framework will challenge and assist organisations to design and implement diverse, holistic and robust talent retention policies, strategies and practices to retain talented and high calibre employees to remain successful and competitive in this unpredictable and challenging economy. Additionally, the framework will assist organisations to realise that talented human capital is necessary to curb the problem of competition for talent. Furthermore, the psychological framework will map out ways to assist organisations to design and implement diverse and unique retention programmes and strategies to lower employees' turnover rates. Furthermore, it is clear that in these difficult economic times, organisations can only survive with its top performers and highly productive employees (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Dadheech, 2020; Nakato et al., 2021). Ultimately, the framework will assist organisations to retain its highly talented employees, curb ferocious competition for talented employees, maintaining employee turnover and winning the fight for talent, to remain competitive, successful and to survive in these difficult economic times. Once developed the talent retention framework would include robust and holistic strategies to assist organisations in retaining talented employees. Furthermore, the framework will challenge, encourage, transform and enlighten organisations to use strong holistic, unique and diverse strategies to retain highly talented individuals. The outcome of this research study will potentially result in the designing of a psychological retention framework to assist HR Professionals in dealing with talent retention for employees in South African private sector organisations.

1.6 THE RESEARCH MODEL

Pickard's (2010) model will act as a framework for this research study. The model consists of five crucial features, namely the epistemological, sociological, teleological, ontological and methodological dimensions. This model assumes research as a vital and unique societal process, because of the common kindness and sympathy towards other people that binds researchers and the research participants (Bonell et al., 2018; Decuypere, 2021; Jackson & Sorensen 2012; Lor, 2012; Pickard, 2010). Polk's (1997) model added to this research study the much needed precursor of the nursing related resilience theory. It postulates that resilience as a four-dimensional construct consistent with the simultaneity paradigm of nursing

(Gray, 2023; Polk, 1997) Several studies noted that social research is a unique shared human activity in which the reality is thoroughly studied to obtain a valid, reliable and profound understanding of it (Babbie et al., 2022; Bonell et al., 2018; Lor, 2012; Pickard, 2010; Samydai et al., 2021). Various studies explain that social scientists recognise that concepts within models are often founded on rules, values, cultures, traditions, opinions, regulations, procedures and principles, that cannot be damaged (De Gialdino, 2011; Lor, 2012; Petocz et al., 2017; Polk, 1997; Tateo & Marsico, 2021).

1.7 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE OF THE RESEARCH

For the aim of this research study, the term paradigm is utilised in a high quality philosophical and meta-theoretical sense to indicate a clear and detailed unique view of reality (Babbie et al., 2022; Bonell et al., 2018; Decuypere, 2021; Morgan, 1980; Pickard, 2010; Polk, 1997). The paradigm perspective is comprised of unique and diverse morals, beliefs, assumptions underlying models and theories, and values that make up the most accurate and trusted context of this study (Fouche & Delport, 2002; Mouton, 2001; Petocz, 2017; Samydai et al., 2021).

A paradigm in the social sciences comprises of the acknowledged unique theories, models, methodologies and main parts of research of a specific and unique insight (Bonell et al., 2018; Decuypere, 2021; Fouche & Delport, 2002; Mouton, 2001; Pickard, 2010; Polk, 1997). According to Bonell et al. (2018) a paradigm is a global view that impacts the manner human beings reflect, ponder, meditate, perceive situations, life events and how they ask questions. The current proposed study will be carried out in the discipline of human resource management.

1.7.1 The intellectual climate

The literature review will be presented from the perspective of the open-systems paradigm and humanistic-existential and the empirical study from the post-positivist research paradigm.

1.7.1.1 The literature review

The literature review is outlined from the open-systems and humanistic-existential perspectives, as detailed below.

(a) *The humanistic paradigm*

Thematically, the humanistic paradigm uniquely relates to the constructs of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

The following assumptions of the humanistic paradigm are outlined below (Correia et al., 2016; Given, 2017; Gomez et al., 2021; Khorasani & Almasifard, 2017; Mark & Hoffman, 2011; Suri, 2010; Western & Garcia, 2018; Worden, 2018):

- People are taken as more than the total of their parts and should be studied holistically.
- People are mainly moral and great, and should be viewed as respected human beings.
- People's nature is positive; they participate actively in establishing their own behaviour.
- People behave consciously with knowledge and understanding of their own character, feelings and motives.
- Individuals have profound ability, freedom and accountability to make important decisions, choices and live a purposeful life.

(b) *Existential psychology*

Existentialism emphasises that people are free agents who are responsible for their own actions. Existential psychology's major purpose is to assist people to find deeper meaning and purpose in life (Carter & Simons, 2014; Greenberg et al., 2004; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2011; Tateo & Marsico, 2021). Individuals invent deeper meaning in their lives through the decisions and choices that they make daily (Darpatova-Hruzewicz, 2021; Greenberg et al., 2004; Kretschmer, 2017). Greenberg et al. (2004) and Craig et al. (2016) emphasise that existential psychology sees individuals as special and unique human beings on a life journey, responsible and accountable for their continuous development and designing their unique personalities through their daily choices, decisions and actions. This clearly and directly indicates that people in this challenging and unpredictable landscape are continuously growing, developing, changing, learning and active individuals on a pilgrimage (Darpatova-Hruzewicz, 2021; Glassman, 2013; Yang, 2010).

Existential courage is defined as the readiness to come face to face with the uncertainties and anxiety caused when individuals are challenged by the unfamiliar and existential courage is central to being genuine (Greenberg et al., 2004; Lamont, 2012; Shiraev, 2011; Tateo & Marsico, 2021; Van Deurzen & Hanaway, 2012). According to Norris (2018) truthful, genuine, honest, courageous, and tenacious people are persistent, resilient, strong, and they holistically

and seriously face life with vigour. Furthermore, they design, develop, cherish and maintain resolutions, goals, objectives and attitudes that are closely connected with a deep awareness of personal accountability, responsibility, cherishing, empowerment, inspirational, encouragement, perseverance and involvement (Darpatova-Hruzewicz, 2021; Khawaja, 2016; Norris, 2018). They search for inspiring, encouraging, empowering, enlightening, and daunting opportunities and accept change as an excellent opportunity for growth (Greenberg et al., 2004; Lamont, 2012; Tateo & Marsico, 2021). Greenberg et al., noted that (2004) genuinity offers resilient, courageous and tenacious people the capability to continue being dedicated and keep a deep awareness of togetherness when they come face to face with life's unpredictable and challenging facts.

(c) The open systems paradigm

According to the open systems paradigm sees a person as a vital part of an organisation who communicates with the external business environment. The perspectives, ideas and assumptions of the open systems paradigm are summarised below (Cronkhite, 2013; Goldin et al., 2006; Gomez et al., 2021; Khorasani & Almasifard, 2017):

- The organisation is viewed as an open system that interacts with the external environment.
- This unique open system is a set of interconnected, interdependent and diverse sections organised in a way that creates an integrated whole.
- It is depicted by transformation procedures, processes and throughputs.
- It is always moving towards growth, expansion and development.
- The open system participates in the process of adaptation, maintenance and production, of its operational.

This unique open systems paradigm connects to the constructs of the organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

1.7.1.2 The empirical research

The empirical study will be presented from the post-positivist research paradigm. The post-positivist paradigm views the object of the study as unique and separate of the researcher. Knowledge is gained and stated through clear assessment of the facts and circumstance are determined by dismantling the circumstance in order to establish its elements (Boonstra, 2021; Boje, 2014; Given, 2018; Hay, 2016; Jackson & Sorensen, 2012; Lor, 2012; Pickard, 2010; Ryan, 2018; Ryan, 2009). This assumptions and perspective desires to retain the study free

of the politics, values, passion, beliefs, ideology and interests of the researcher, in order to ensure that the research is free of bias and totally objective (Ryan, 2009).

Ryan (2009) concluded that individuals live out their lives in the context of the universal view. This universal view impacts the way they think, act, reflect, ponder and behave, and how they organise and plan how to live their lives and how they approach research. However, people are not knowledgeable that the perceptions and beliefs they hold about research are strongly linked to this universal view and it is important for researchers to analyse and review these universal views (Ryan, 2009).

Ryan (2009, p. 12-13) summaries that post-positivist research comprises of the following features:

- Research is diverse not specialised, this means that many things qualify as research.
- Theory and practice are interconnected; they cannot be separated.
- The researcher's commitment to and motivations for research are essential and vital to the organisation.
- It is inadequate to emphasise that research is involved only with right methods for gathering and analysing data.
- The post-positivist research utilises quantitative methodologies.

Thematically, the empirical study will deal with the influence that the variables have on organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. The empirical research will also deal with the effect that socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level) have on the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability, and the effect thereof on talent retention and talent management and ultimately develop a psychological talent retention framework.

1.7.2 The market of intellectual resources

The market of intellectual resources refers to the collecting of vital beliefs and values that have strong influences on the philosophical knowledge of scientific statements (Babbie et al., 2022; 2009; Bonell et al., 2018; Pickard, 2010; Tarnovo, 2021). For the purpose of this study the following are described in detail: the meta-theoretical statements, theoretical models, conceptual descriptions about organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness,

resilience, career adaptability, central hypothesis, and the methodological and theoretical assumptions.

1.7.2.1 Meta-theoretical statements

Pickard (2010) emphasised that at different stages of any research procedure, it is essential for the researcher to form specific assumptions proving specific procedures, pre-suppositions, methodological strategies, and theories, that have not been tried and tested in that specific research. Meta-theoretical assumptions are one of such assumptions underlying the paradigms, cultures, methodologies, traditions, models and scientific theories that make the conclusion of the research study. Meta-theoretical statements are pre-suppositions, which give generic ways for viewing at objects, based on assumptions (Lor, 2012; Pickard, 2010; Tarnovo, 2021). Any given worldview or meta-theoretical statement is comprised of unique and diverse philosophical schools of thought. These are viewed as different and unique ways of studying a shared worldview or reality (Babbie et al., 2022; Pickard, 2010; Tarnovo, 2021).

Several researchers concluded that, Human Resource Management is a procedure and process of designing, implementing and thorough evaluating of policies, procedures, practices and strategies retaining top talented and intellectual employees to perform work for the organisation to achieve its strategic vision and mission (Cascio, 2018; Dadheech, 2020; Dhanpat et al., 2018; Mahfoozi et al., 2018). Human Resource Management stresses that human resource are the most crucial and valuable weapons and drivers of economic growth and greatest creators of wealth in organisations and must be developed, nurtured, cherished, and retained (Al-Lozi et al., 2018; Alruwaili, 2018; Nakato et al., 2021). Several research studies explain that HR Professionals are the analysts, counsellors, facilitators, advisors, catalysts, scientists, consultants, specialists and employee psychologists who deals with all human resource management issues (Banfield et al., 2018; Cascio, 2018; Pirzada et al., 2021; Ployhart et al., 2018; Tambajong et al., 2018). It can therefore be concluded that HR professionals are crucial to organisations because they are the ones responsible of the hiring process (attract, acquire, recruit and motivate highly talented individuals), retention process (retaining superior employees), employee relations, industrial relations and exit process. (Cascio, 2018; Tambajong et al., 2018). Ultimately HR Professionals (HR staff, HR practitioners, HR counsellors, HR analyst, HR catalyst, HR auditors, HR facilitators, HR advisors, HR managers, HR administrators, HR officers, HR consultants, HR specialists, industrial relations specialist) are pivotal to an organisation because they are the ones in charge of the most essential resources in the organisations (Cascio, 2018; Dubey et al., 2021; Ployhart et al., 2018). In this study HR professionals is used generically including all employees within the

organisation who are in charge of talent management and talent retention of talented employees.

1.7.2.2 Theoretical models

According to Pickard (2010) the theoretical beliefs that are outlined here refer to statements that can be tested regarding what (prescriptive) and why (interpretive) of social situation and human behaviour. All statements that make part of the typologies, conceptual descriptions, theories, models and hypotheses are included in these unique and diverse theoretical beliefs (Pickard, 2010; Polk, 1997). In this research study, the theoretical models will be based on the following:

The literature focuses on organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997), job embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001), hardiness (Maddi & Khoshaba, 2001), resilience (Liu et al., 2017), and career adaptability (Savickas, 1997).

1.7.2.3 Central hypothesis

The central hypothesis of this study can be created in the following way:

The unique relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) constitutes a psychological retention framework for employees employed in private organisations in South Africa. Individuals from different age groups, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level will differ significantly with regard to organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

1.7.2.4 Theoretical assumptions

Founded on the literature review, the following theoretical assumptions are described in detail in this study:

- There is a critical need for basic research that searches to explore organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.
- Demographical factors such as age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level will have an impact on an individual's organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

- Comprehending an individual's organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability will improve the realisation of the forces that may deeply enhance talent retention policies and practices for South African private sector organisations.

The relationship dynamics among the various variables constitute a psychological retention framework that can be empirically tested and that may guide talent retention management procedures and practices for employees employed in the South African private sector organisations.

1.7.2.5 Methodological assumptions

Methodological assumptions are beliefs concerning the nature of social science and scientific research. Methodological beliefs are more than presuppositions, methodological preferences and assumptions about what constitute great and sound research. These specific beliefs are more concerned with high-level decisions on research policies, procedures, strategies and approaches (Pickard, 2010). The purpose of these beliefs is to describe, evaluate and justify the choice of methods, data language and using unique methodologies in the research. There is a profound direct link between methodological beliefs and the knowledge of research outcomes (Burns et al., 2018; Decuyper, 2021; Lor, 2012; Pickard, 2010). The following main epistemological assumptions are the methodological assumptions that will affect the nature and structure of this research domain, namely, assumptions, methodological choices, suppositions that lead to original, good, sound and comprehensive research (Decuyper, 2021; Pickard, 2010).

- Sociological dimension

The sociological dimension profoundly meets the requirements of the sociological research morally and ethically, which draws on the research community for sources of theory development. The sociological dimension explores in detail the scientific research as a cooperative activity. Within the limits of the sociological dimension great and sound research is non-experimental and experimental, analytical and direct, since the subjects that are being studied are subject to quantitative research and analysis. The sociological dimension is concerned with the researcher, and the environment in which the research topic is performed. It also regards the researchers within their national, cultural, linguistic, traditions and social contexts (Lor, 2012; Jackson & Sorensen, 2012; Petocz et al., 2017; Pickard, 2010; Samydai et al., 2021). This research study will be non-experimental in nature and will focus on the quantitative analysis of variables and concepts.

- Ontological dimension

The ontological dimension of research include that which is expounded in reality. Additionally, it links to the study of institutions, product behaviour, characteristics, human existence and activities whose behaviour can be measured and understood (Boje, 2014; Boonstra, 2021; Jackson & Sorensen, 2012; Lor, 2012; Ograjensek & Gal, 2016; Pickard, 2010). This research study will assess the characteristics of the constructs of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

- Teleological or ideological dimension

Teleological dimension stipulates that the sound research should be systematic and goal directed. It is therefore critical to outline the problem being explored and connect it to the research objectives and goals. It is mainly involved with the purpose and object of the research. Furthermore, it emphasises that research is intentional and goal directed (Pickard, 2010). Teleological dimension further suggests that research should be procedural, systematic and goal directed. This dimension points out that researchers impact their purpose and goals they establish for their research (Lor, 2012; Petocz et al., 2017; Petry & Biasoli, 2021; Pickard, 2010). The research goals will be clear and detailed in this study, namely to describe the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. The teleological dimension will also look into advancing the discipline of Human Resource Management by supplying proposals in terms of talent retention.

- Epistemological dimension

Epistemological dimension refers to a profound searching for truth. The main aim of research under this dimension is to create reliable and valid conclusions that estimate reality as closely as possible (Boje, 2014; Lor, 2012; Ograjensek & Gal, 2016; Ryan, 2009). This study will strive to achieve the truth by getting dependable and valid outcomes and by using a well-planned and organised research design.

- Methodological dimension

The methodological assumptions are beliefs involving the nature of scientific and social research. Methodological beliefs are more than the methodological assumptions, preferences and presuppositions about what ought to constitute great and sound research. (Decuyper, 2021; De Gialdino, 2011; Lor, 2012; Petocz et al., 2017; Pickard, 2010). The most favourable

research design with relevant methods will be used to test the theoretical hypothesis. Research methodologies are quantitative or qualitative in nature.

The current research will utilise qualitative (exploratory and descriptive) research and will be presented in the literature review on organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Furthermore, this research will also use quantitative (descriptive and explanatory) research and will be presented in the empirical study.

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN

Nardi (2018) and Stone (2018) define *research design* as a process of obtaining research participants and collecting data from them. It is a profound and unique methodology which assists as a strong platform and model between research questions and the actual implementation of the research study (Creswell & Poth, 2017; Denzin & Giardina, 2017; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Montabon et al., 2018; Ye et al., 2021). Several studies emphasise that the *research design* is a vital blueprint of the research that joins the research plan, data gathering, data capturing and data analysis in order to address the whole research process holistically (Arrazola et al, 2018; Rathore et al., 2018; Sanders et al., 2009; Ye et al., 2021).

The research design for this research study will be discussed in detail with reference to the features of research carried out, followed by a detailed description of reliability and validity.

1.8.1 Exploratory Research

According to Nardi (2018) exploratory research analysis the dynamic relationship between different variables. Nardi (2018) concurs with Hay's (2016) findings by adding that exploratory research helps to make sure that the best research, best design plan, selection of research participants and data collecting methods is used. It uses secondary research most of the time, such as reviewing the available data and literature (Hay, 2016; Nardi, 2018; Rizvi & Nabi, 2021). The major purposes of exploratory research are to undertake preliminary investigations, gain new ideas and insights and to determine objectives for the future research (Hay 2016; Okeke & Oboko, 2021). The methodology utilised in this research is exploratory, because it measures unique perspectives on organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

1.8.2 Descriptive research

The main purpose of descriptive research is to supply a clear picture of an event as it occurs, and to recognise the relationship dynamics between variables and concepts in a particular research area (Rathore et al., 2018; Rizvi & Nabi, 2021; Sim et al., 2018; Stone, 2018). According to Verhoest et al. (2017), *descriptive research* explains in detail the features of the circumstance being investigated. It is a profound and inclusive description of the organisation, group, individual, situation interactions, traditions, social objects, culture and subculture. It is one of the best available methodologies for collecting data that will show strong relationships dynamics (Rathore et al., 2018; Rizvi & Nabi, 2021; Stone, 2018; Verhoest et al., 2017). The descriptive research will be used to conceptualise organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability in the literature review. Additionally, in the empirical study, descriptive research will be applied in relation to the socio-demographic qualities of the respondents and their mean scores on diverse assessment instruments.

1.8.3 Explanatory Research

Explanatory research extensively and deeply indicates and describes in detail the relationship dynamics that exist between variables and events (Hay, 2016; Nardi, 2018; Othman et al., 2021). The main aim of the researcher is to describe in detail the direction of the relationship (Nardi, 2018; Othman et al., 2021; Stone, 2018; Verhoest et al., 2017). The researcher will utilise explanatory research to create a conclusion between constructs, namely between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability). The final aim of this research study is to make final decisions about the relationship dynamics between the concepts of retention-related dispositions and resilience-related behavioural capacities, and the relationships will assist in constructing the psychological retention framework.

1.8.4 Validity

The major aim of research design is to plan, organise and structure the research project in a way that ensures that the literature review and empirical study are valid in terms of the variables in the study. Several researchers concluded that validity addresses the issue of the credibility of the research, and whether the research plan is robust to provide suggestions and strong support for desired conclusions (Mezquita et al., 2021; Selm et al., 2018; Verhoest et

al., 2017). This research design will utilise statistical conclusion, content validity, external validity, construct validity and internal validity. Ultimately to ensure external validity, the researcher should produce a great population sample (El-Ansary, 2018; Mezquita et al., 2021; Reither et al., 2017; Selm et al., 2018).

1.8.4.1 Validity of the literature review

The current proposed research study will determine the internal validity by utilising literature that is linked to the current research study, models, aims, objectives, problem statement, theories, and by choosing assessment instruments that are relevant and applicable to the theories and models informing the research study, and presenting it in a standardised manner. Every effort will be made to ensure that the most relevant and recent literature materials are utilised, however all classical and contemporary mainstream resources relevant to this research study will be referred to due to their relevance to the conceptualisation of the constructs appropriate to the current research.

1.8.4.2 Validity of the empirical research

Several researchers emphasised that content validity measures a variety of meanings within a concept and construct validity measures the theoretical constructs they are supposed to measure (El-Ansary, 2018; Mezquita et al., 2021; Selm et al., 2018; Verhoest et al., 2017). The statistical policies and procedures will influence the socio-demographic variables

Reither et al. (2017) and Verhoest et al. (2017), defined external validity as the approximate truth of conclusions that involve generalisations from the information collected as well as the environment of the research study to the circumstances and larger populations. Additionally, it also comprises of the methodologies utilised for sampling, the place and time of the research study, as well as the contexts under which the research will be done (Mezquita et al., 2021; Verhoest et al., 2017). External validity will be ensured by the findings being relevant to employees employed in South African private sector organisations. The total population of part time and full-time employees employed in South African private sector organisations will be targeted in order to intensify the generalisability of the findings to the selected situation.

1.8.5 Reliability

Reliability refers to the stability or dependency or consistency of an assessment instrument (El-Ansary, 2018; Mezquita et al., 2021; Selm et al., 2018). Additionally, it is the quality of being reliable, trustworthy or dependable, reliable or trustworthy of an assessment instrument (Reither et al., 2017). Reither et al. (2017) emphasises that an instrument is believed to be

reliable and dependable if it provides similar results repeatedly. Literature reliability in the current research study will be established by using recent, quality and present literature models, sources and theories that are relevant to the proposed research, as well as collecting information that is relevant, comprehensive and unbiased (Mezquita et al., 2021; Verhoest et al., 2017). All the literature that will be used in this research study are current, very recent, except the contemporary and classic mainstream resources that cannot be substituted.

The reliability of the empirical study will be ensured by using a non-probability convenience sample of the population. Furthermore, the reliability of all measuring instruments to be utilised in this research has been tried, tested and proven through previous research. The applicable and statistical techniques that are relevant to the current research study will be utilised to examine the data.

1.8.6 The unit of research

Social science refers to the individual as the most central object of research (Li et al., 2017). According to Li et al. (2017) and Parsons et al., (2018), unity of analysis is made up of four major groups namely: individuals, groups, social artefacts and organisations. In the proposed research study, the individual is the unit analysis, and more specifically fulltime and part time employees employed in South African private sector organisations. Furthermore, since the individual is going to be the unit of analysis, the main focus will be on the characteristics, traits, orientations and behaviour, of the individual (Li et al., 2017; Parsons et al., 2018). On the other hand, the unity of analysis will be sub-groups in terms of the socio-demographic variables, while the unit of analysis for the current study will be the individuals focusing on the constructs.

1.8.7 The variables

The current research study is interested in addressing the following:

- The relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).
- The impact of socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level) {moderating variables} on the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness (independent variables) resilience and career adaptability (dependent variables).

The terms dependent and independent variables suggest a challenging and inspiring relationship where the independent variable is believed to impact a dependent variable to an outcome or response. As this research will be cross-sectional in nature, the major aim is to establish the direction, importance, and uniqueness of the relationship dynamics between the variables with the view to design a psychological retention framework.

1.8.8 Ethical considerations

Crooks et al. (2021) described ethics as a collection of procedures, moral principles and rules. It emphasises on whether the code of principles, research procedures, code of conduct, the standards of conduct of a given profession, the responsibility of the researcher and social responsibility to the respondents were followed. (Crooks et al., 2021; Gelman, 2018; Ladkin, 2018).

The researcher will apply for ethical clearance certificate from the University of South Africa Research Ethics Committee. Additionally, the researcher will adhere to the procedures, moral principles and rules of ethics as summarised in the UNISA Research Ethics Policy, outlined below (UNISA, 2016):

- autonomy (research should respect the dignity, rights and autonomy of the research participants)
- beneficence (research should make a positive contribution towards the wellbeing of people)
- non-maleficence (research should not cause harm to the research respondent(s) in particular or to people in general)
- justice (the risks and benefits of research should be fairly divided among people)

The procedures that will be followed in this study will adhere to all the ethical procedures and code of conducts that are vital to ensure ethical accountability and responsibility. Additionally, the professional standards, code of conduct and ethical guidelines as stipulated by the University of South Africa will form the foundation of this current research study. The researcher will obtain permission from the University of South Africa. Furthermore, the researcher will get approval from participating organisation, as explained in detail below in the data collection and capturing section. Both recent and classical resources will be used in this research and all these sources will be fully quoted and clearly referenced. In order to ensure a scientific research process, experts in the field of research will be consulted. The research will be performed within the accepted limits. During the research the ethics procedures of the institution will be followed at all times. Informed consent was obtained from all the participants,

by a cover letter attached to the link specifying that participation is voluntary and participants have the right to withdraw at any time. Furthermore, the cover letter will explain that by proceeding with the completion of the questionnaire and clicking submit the participants will be giving their consent to participate. All the data and results will be handled confidentially, and participants will be informed about the results of the research. Participation will be completely voluntary, and no participants will be obligated to participate. In order to ensure confidentiality, the participants will be asked not to divulge any information that may compromise their identity, and all participants will remain anonymous. The research will be conducted in a professional manner, ensuring that no harm is done to the participants (Crooks et al., 2021; Gelman, 2018; Mike, 2015).

1.8.9 Delimitations

This research study is restricted to research expounding the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. In an effort to examine in detail the forces that might have an impact on the individual's organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Furthermore, the variables utilised as socio-demographic variables are limited to age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level.

The central point of this research is restricted to explore on the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability). The research methodology selected is not meant to determine the cause and effect of the relationship, but its major purpose is to explore whether a relationship exist between these five constructs.

The phenomena of this research study dictates that some restrictions of scope have to be established. Additionally, the research approach is only meant to collect the appropriate information that will deeply answer the research questions and achieve the research purposes set for this research. The research information will be collected exclusively within South African private sector organisation, which will limit the generalisability of the outcome to other industries. The biggest limitation is to focus on private sector organisations for the research which limits the generalisability of the results to other occupational and industry contexts. For future research opportunities the research must include both private and public sector organisations and must use more organisations instead of one. The other delimitation is that

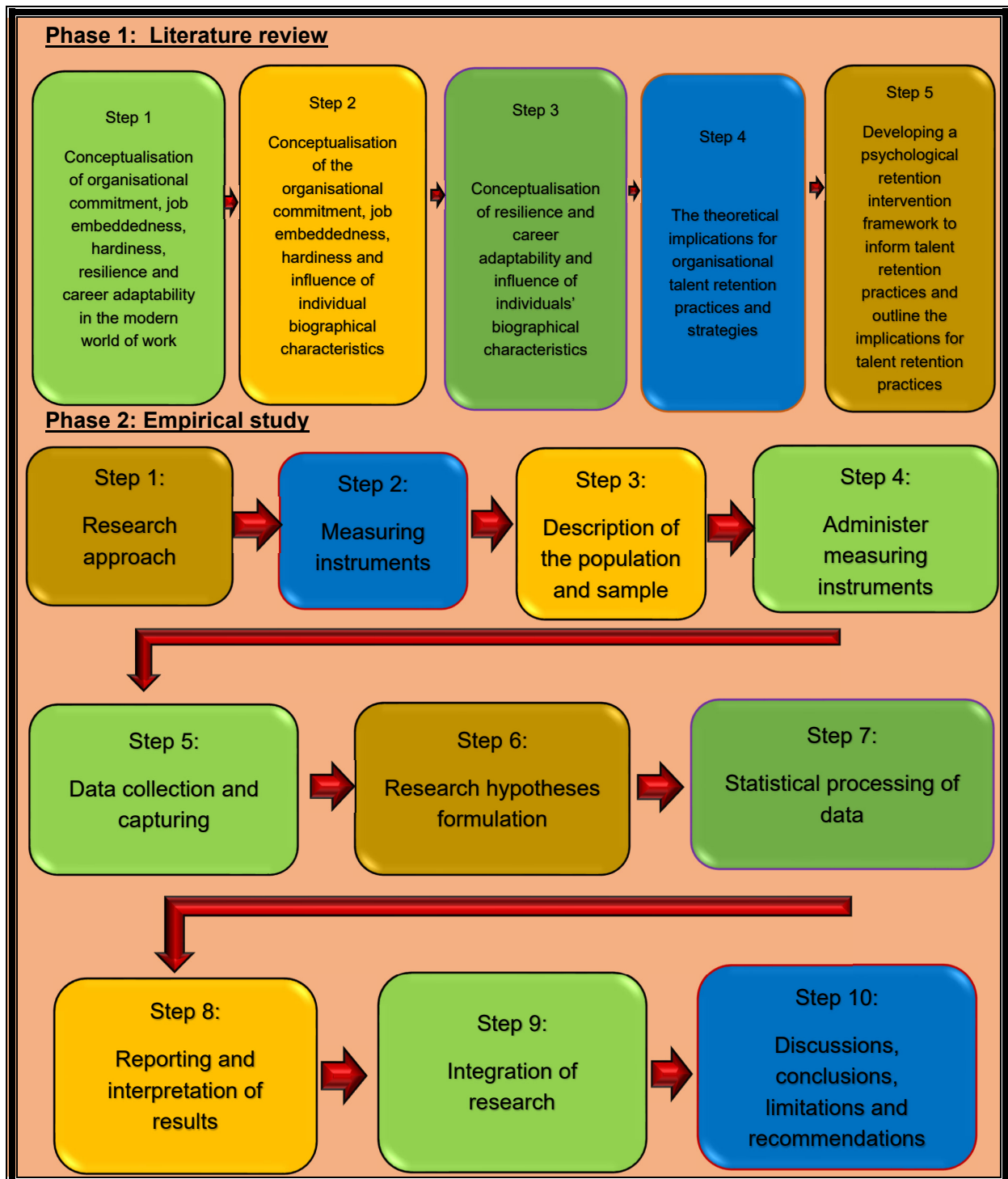
the study was exploratory in nature, where a number of variables were chosen and analysed to determine the relationship between them.

1.9 THE RESEARCH METHOD

The study was performed in two major stages, namely the literature review (phase 1), an empirical study (phase 2) and the combination of the two. Each phase comprised of diverse steps, which are summarised in Figure 1.1 below.

Figure 1.1

Overview of the Proposed Research



Source: Author's own compilation

1.9.1 Phase 1: The literature review

The literature review comprised of a critical assessment of the organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

Step 1: This step addressed research aim 1 of the literature review, namely to conceptualise talent management and talent retention practices and strategies in the South African private sector organisations context. This step was achieved in chapter 2.

Step 2: This step addressed research aim 2 of the literature review, namely to conceptualise (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (career resilience and career adaptability) in the context of talent retention. This step was detailed in chapter 3.

Step 3: This step addressed research aim 3 of the literature review, namely to conceptualise the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), and how this relationship can be explained in terms of an integrated theoretical framework. This step was achieved in chapter 3.

Step 4: This step addressed research aim 4 of the literature review, namely to explore the consequences of the proposed psychological retention framework for South African private sector organisations. This step was detailed in chapter 4.

1.9.2 Phase 2: The empirical study

The empirical research was performed in South African private sector organisations.

Step 1: Measuring instruments

A biographical questionnaire containing data regarding age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level was utilised in addition to the five quantitative instruments. The five instruments utilised were the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1997); Job Embeddedness Scale (JES) (Mitchell et al., 2001); Personal Views Survey (PVS-11-R) (Maddi & Khoshaba, 2001); Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes) (Naswall et al., 2013) and Career Adaptability Scale (CAS) (Savickas, 1997). These six measuring instruments are detailed in chapter 5.

Step 2: Description of population and sample

The procedure utilised to establish the population sample and the sample features was detailed in chapter 5.

Step 3: Administer measuring instruments

Data collection from the sample performed in this step is achieved in chapter 5.

Step 4: Data capturing

Data capturing and data analysis presented in this step are discussed in detail in chapter 5.

Step 5: Research hypothesis formulation

The creation of the hypotheses to be utilised to achieve the research objectives was performed in this step and it was discussed in detail in chapter 5.

Step 6: Statistical processing of data

The appropriate statistical procedures and processes utilised during this step were explored in detail in Chapter 6.

Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results

The presentation of the research outcomes was explored in this step and was described in detail in chapter 6.

Step 8: Integration of the research findings

The findings in the literature review was combined with the results of the empirical study in chapter 6.

Step 9: Formulation of conclusions, limitations and recommendations

The final step of the research centred on the conclusions reached based on the outcomes and the combination of the study results with theory and this step was explored in chapter 7. Additionally, chapter 7 also discussed in detail the limitations of the research and recommendations are made in terms of the empirically validated retention framework for South African private sector organisations.

1.10 CHAPTER DEVISION

The chapters following after Chapter 1 are outlined below:

Chapter 2: Meta-theoretical context of the study: Talent retention in South African private sector organisations

This chapter looked to conceptualise retention within the South African private sector. The first literature research aim namely, to conceptualise talent retention practices and strategies in the South African private sector organisations context was addressed in chapter 2.

Chapter 3: Retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness)

The aim of this chapter was to conceptualise the constructs retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and then to investigate how these constructs are conceptualised and discussed in theoretical models in the literature. The variables that have an effect on these constructs were discussed in detail. The chapter discussed in detail the consequences of the constructs of organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness for retention practices. The chapter also discussed the socio-demographic variables related to organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness. Chapter 3 addressed the aim to conceptualise retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) in the context of talent management and talent retention. This research aim relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha1

Chapter 4: Resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability)

The aim of this chapter was to conceptualise the constructs resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and then to explore how these constructs are conceptualised and discussed in detail in theoretical models in the literature. The variables that have an influence on these constructs were explored in detail. The chapter explored the effects of the constructs of resilience and career adaptability for retention practices. Additionally, the chapter also discussed in detail the socio-demographic variables related to resilience and career adaptability. Furthermore, chapter 4 addressed the aim to conceptualise the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), as well as policies and strategies impacting retention and the unique features of the theoretical psychological retention framework that emerged from the relationship dynamics. This research aim relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha2.

Theoretical integration: Towards constructing a psychological retention framework for South African private sector organisations

This chapter also discussed in the detail the integration of the literature review focusing on the relationship dynamics between the concepts and explored in detail the designing of a theoretically hypothesised psychological retention framework for South African private sector organisations. The theoretically hypothesised psychological retention framework comprised the following: (1) organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness as the independent variables and (2) career resilience and career adaptability as dependent variables. Chapter 4 also addressed literature aim to create recommendations for the field of Human Resource Management and specifically talent retention practices and make recommendations on possible future research based on the results of this research study. This research aim relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha3 and Ha4.

Chapter 5: Research method

The aim of this chapter was to avail data on the empirical research performed. The five measuring instruments were explored in detail and information supplied on the data collecting procedures and policies utilised. The aims of the empirical study were explored in detail as well as the features of the research study's population and sample. The chapter concluded with the development of the research hypotheses. This research aim connects to the testing of research hypothesis Ha1.

Chapter 6: Research results

This chapter supplied and described in detail the statistical findings of the research and discussed in detail the research hypotheses that were tried and tested. The chapter also focussed on integrating the empirical research results with the literature review findings. Additionally, the statistical findings were explored in detail and the descriptive, common, and inferential (multivariate) statistical analysis of the research study clarified and detailed. Chapter 6 explored the empirical research aim based on the overall statistical relationship dynamics between the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), to determine whether a good fit exists between the features of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model. This research aim relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha4.

Chapter 7: Discussions, conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This chapter explored in detail the current research results and the conclusion research based on the research findings. Additionally, the limitations of the research study were discussed and recommendations made for both the discipline of human resource management and for further research. Furthermore, this chapter explained in detail the final concluding observations and determined the importance of the research on a theoretical, statistical and practical level. Chapter 7 addressed the empirical research aim, namely, to create recommendations for further research in the discipline of Human Resource Management and suggest further research policies and strategies based on the findings of this study research. This research aim relates to the testing of research hypothesis Ha4.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The background to and motivation for the research, problem statement, research questions and aims of the research were discussed in this chapter. The chapter furthermore discussed the statement of significance, the research model, the paradigm perspectives, the theoretical research, its designs and methodology, the central hypothesis and the research method. The study furthermore aimed to establish the impact of individuals' socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level on the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability, and the impact there of on retention management practices.

Chapter 2 focused on the first literature research aim, namely, to conceptualise talent retention practices and strategies in the South African private organisational sector context.

CHAPTER 2: META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY: TALENT RETENTION IN SOUTH AFRICAN PRIVATE SECTOR ORGANISATIONS

Keywords: talent management, talent, advanced technology, globalisation, talent retention, South African private sector organisations

The purpose of this chapter is to contextualise the research study by summarising the framework that creates the limit of the research. Furthermore, individuals joining the South African private sector organisations are confronted with many daunting challenges, such as reduced job security, decrease in employment opportunities, globalization, advances in technology, workforce diversity, an ageing workforce, economic instability, economic and political development, downsizing of organisations and lifelong learning (Bughin et al., 2018; Illanes et al., 2018; Martinez-Moran et al., 2021). The new, dynamic and challenging relationship between the employee and the South African private sector organisations has formed a vital need to design a psychological retention framework to assist the reader to understand the psychological features that help with talent retention, and the existing models are not effective and efficient enough. Additionally, this retention framework might assist the individuals to meditate on their psychological retention-related competencies as an essential resource in sustaining their retention, organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardy personality, resilience and career adaptability (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Dalayga, 2017; Dorien & Kooij, 2017; Ekhsan et al., 2021; Hystad et al., 2015).

2.1 TALENT MANAGEMENT DEFINED

South African private organisations should integrate talent management systems and processes into the total HRM system (Dhanalak & Gurunathan, 2018; Shingenge & Saurombe, 2022). Lesenyeko et al., (2018) delineated talent management as the designing, implementation and evaluation of integrated human resource management procedures and strategies to attract, acquire, deploy, develop, retain and productively utilise employees with required skills, expertise and capabilities to meet the goals and objectives of the business. Dhanalak and Gurunathan, (2018) defined talent management as a process of managing the whole hiring process from attracting, acquiring, deploying and retaining to promoting and finding a successor upon retirement. Once the strategy is in place, South African private sector organisations can focus on attracting, acquiring, recruiting, onboarding and the integration of new talent in the organisation (De Smet et al., 2016; Ekhsan et al., 2021; Onah & Anikwe, 2016; Ross, 2018). Furthermore, it is imperative to deploy, develop and retain talented employees. Additionally, continuous learning and development is an important

element of talent management in South African private sector organisations (Dagogo & Ogechi, 2020; Naim & Lenka, 2018; Renard & Snelgar, 2016). Various studies have concluded that improved integrated talent management offers benefits such as reduction of recruitment costs, knowledge sharing, great service delivery, products and competitive advantage (Adamska-Chudzinska, 2020; Mathafena, 2015; Tatoglu et al., 2016; Wiblen, 2021). Onah and Anikwe (2016) reiterate that effective talent management ensures that the right talented individuals with the correct needed expertise and skills are deployed in the right positions at the right time, to assure successful business results. Figure 2.1 outlines the main dimensions of talent management in South African private sector organisations.

Figure 2.1 is central and essential for the current study and specifically to Chapter 2, because talent management with all its dimensions (talent planning, talent acquisition, onboarding and integration, performance management, individual, leadership and management development, succession, readiness, psychological contract and retention) forms part of the context of the study. It is imperative for South African private sector organisations to design, implement and evaluate a holistic talent management strategy, to retain talented and superior employees. South African private sector organisations must ensure that skilled and talented people are deployed in the right positions where their skills and expertise will be utilised extensively, in order that the organisation is ready for the future (Mathafena, 2015; Musakuro & de Klerk, 2021). It can therefore be concluded that, integrated talent management is critical for two key reasons: Firstly, efficient and effective talent management processes ensure that South African private sector organisations can attract, acquire, develop, deploy and retain top and superior talent. Secondly, it ensures that employees are fully engaged (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021; Dhanalak & Gurunathan, 2018; Lesenyeko et al., 2018). Furthermore, it is paramount for South African private sector organisations to profoundly address both of these issues efficiently, in order to remain competitive and successful in this uncertainty business environment (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Naim & Lenka, 2018). Previous research studies have concluded that South African private sector organisations must use talent management practices and processes effectively, in order to improve their productivity (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Latukha, 2016; Muthusamy, 2018; Pregolato et al., 2017).

Figure 2.1.

Overview of Talent Management Dimensions



Source: Adopted from Dhanalak and Gurnathan (2018, p. 2)

The dimensions of talent management, as outlined in figure 2.1, are briefly discussed below:

(a) *Talent planning* involves assessing the organisation's current level of talent and evaluating that against the current and future talent needs of the organisation which will be necessary to achieve its strategic and tactical objectives. Talent planning is the key to developing a systematic process to hire top talent and it requires at least a six months' time-horizon. Talent planning is to forecast the organisation's hiring needs for at least four to six months in advance (Chandrasekaran, 2020; Dhanalak & Gurnathan, 2018; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021).

(b) *Talent acquisition* includes sourcing, attracting, identifying, selecting and hiring qualified, experienced and highly talented people and deploying them in positions where their skills and expertise will be utilised to the full (Pahos & Galanaki, 2018; Safari et al., 2021; Thurnissen, 2017; Zhuang et al., 2018).

(c) *Onboarding and integration* is blending new employees into the organisation and with newly promoted managers (Onah & Anikwe, 2016; Pan et al., 2018; Pirzada et al., 2021).

(d) *Performance management* is designing, implementing and practicing holistic performance appraisal systems by clearly defining performance expectations for every job, filling the positions with people who have both the ability and motivation to do the job, and making sure that the organisational goals are efficiently and effectively met (Dubey et al., 2021; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2018; Langat et al., 2020).

(e) *Individual, leadership and management development* is developing and nurturing the talent and training and continually developing competencies. Additionally, this will make sure that there is leadership continuity in important positions and motivates individual development (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2018; Martinez-Moran et al., 2021; Thurnissen, 2017).

(f) *Succession, readiness and retention* means to identify, carefully choose and train top performers who empower and motivate others to go an extra mile. This includes finding, developing and positioning highly qualified employees for the replacement of those who leave the organisations because of retirement or death. Succession planning ensures that experienced, highly qualified and capable employees are available to fill in the vacant positions (Onah & Anikwe, 2016; Saurombe & Barkhuizen, 2022; Thurnissen, 2017).

2.1.1 Talent

Cross (2018) concluded that talent is a natural ability, being creative, the power to do anything, the ability to learn fast and understand things, the ability to use or control something, exceptionally intellectual power, having exceptional ability, having original thought, highly skilled at performing a task, having exceptional practical knowledge, complete knowledge of a skill, the ability or strength to control or influence people or events. Talent can be defined as a combination and a mixture of special qualities which can be innate abilities, acquired skills, superior qualities, collective knowledge, competence, experiences, values, habits, intrinsic gifts, intelligence and attitudes that energise and motivate the person to achieve outstanding

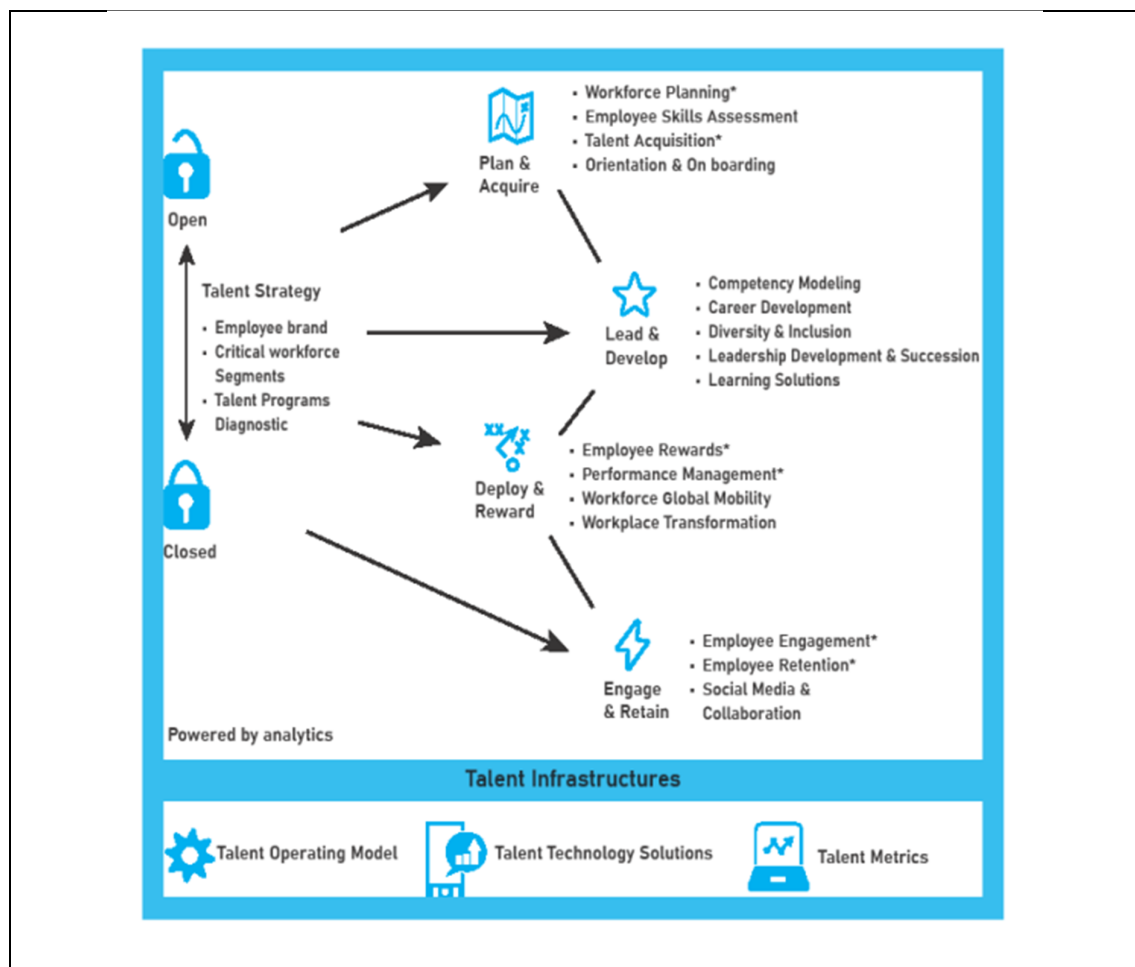
results in his or her job (Cadorin et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2018; Dalayga et al., 2017; Ekhsan et al., 2021). For the purposes of this study, this definition will be adopted. Previous research studies defined talent as high-calibre individuals who are top performers, high performers, high achievers, highly talented, have superior talent, highly productive, highly competent and motivated, highly gifted, highly skilled and creative, highly intelligent, highly experienced, and have high potential (Kumar, 2017; Mahfoozi et al., 2018; Nakato et al., 2021; Shabane, 2017; Robinson, 2016). Arguably, average and lower-level performers do not fit in this group of talented employees. Talent fits into the study as South African private sector organisations are interested in retaining highly talented employees within organisations and not all employees (top, average and lower performers) (Cadorin., 2017; Cronsell & Lindahl, 2020; Ingersoll et al., 2019). South African private sector organisations should develop and implement robust talent pools, in order to attract, acquire and nurture talent (Chitra & Punitha, 2020; Keating, 2017; Koskey & Allida, 2017; Kumar, 2017; Kupari, 2016). Additionally, it is essential for South African private sector organisations to offer development opportunities to their employees in order to strengthen their skills and knowledge (Keating 2017; Kupari, 2016; Wiblen, 2021). Furthermore, talent includes individuals with superior potential, transformative and change agents, who are usually in great demand in the market and always add value to South African private sector business environment (Keating, 2017; Kupari, 2016; Langat et al., 2020).

According to Albatrkhii (2016), deploying talented individuals with the most appropriate expertise and skills for the right job is becoming more vital, because of the essential and escalating need among organisations for highly talented and skilled employees. Previous research studies have concluded that talent is the primary driver of any successful business, therefore, it is imperative for private sector organisations to have the right talent to execute the business strategy (Masadeh et al., 2018; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021; Robinson, 2016; Zentner, 2018). Kumar (2017) confirms this by adding that talented employees are the most inventors of economic value and the most vital assets in South African private sector organisations. It can therefore be concluded that talent is a source of competitive advantage critical to organisational success and that attracting, acquiring, developing, deploying and retaining such talent has become increasingly difficult, implying a scarcity of talent (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2018; Safari et al., 2021; Zafar & Nawaz, 2016). Dalayga et al. (2017) are of the opinion that coaching and mentoring young talented individuals might be the only way to defeat talent shortage. Talent in private sector organisations drives improvements in productivity, quality and innovation (Dagogo & Ogechi, 2020; Hosen et al., 2018; Kichuk, 2017; Verma & Ahmad, 2016).

Figure 2.2 depicts a comprehensive talent life cycle that assists with the effective talent management of employees within South African private sector organisations (Mokgojwa et al., 2017; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021). Talent management starts with a dedicated leadership mind-set that is fully committed to develop and retain talented employees (Barkhuizen et al., 2021; Lesenyeko et al., 2018). Lesenyeko et al. (2018) reiterate that South African private sector organisations need to position their employee branding in order to attract, acquire, develop, deploy and retain highly talented employees. Mihalcea (2017) alluded that once acquired, the right talented employees should be selected, led, developed and deployed into the jobs suitable for their skills set. Additionally, talented employees should be rewarded correctly, engaged and retained. Figure 2.2 outlines the talent lifecycle in South African private sector organisations.

Figure 2.2

Overview of the Talent Lifecycle in Private Sector Organisations



Source: Mihalcea, (2017, p. 9)

The talent lifecycle addresses the talent calibration, the evaluation of the whole talent management process to examine how challenges relevant to attraction and acquisition; leading and development; deployment and rewarding; engagement and retention are thoroughly addressed in a South African private sector organisation context (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Crowley-Henry & Akram, 2016; Mathafena, 2015). Lesenyeko et al. (2018) emphasise that talent lifecycle assists with the efficient talent management processes of employees in South African private sector organisations. In this competitive and unpredictable business arena, as it is defined by Deloitte (2016; 2017), South African private sector organisations' holistic talent retention strategy must include the following lifecycle phases:

(a) Planning and acquiring the right talent: It is imperative for South African private sector organisations to plan and acquire the right qualified and experienced individuals and deploy them in the positions that suit their skills. Additionally, South African private sector organisations must be able to attract, acquire, recruit, develop, motivate and retain top talented and skilled employees to survive in this fast-growing competitive global business world (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021; Onah & Anikwe, 2016; Shingenge & Saurombe, 2022).

Additionally, once acquired, superior and talented employees should be deployed into the positions that they are qualified for, in order to encourage engagement and commitment to their jobs (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Lesenyeko et al., 2018). Planning and acquiring highly talented and skilled employees, and deploying them in the right positions, comprises talent attraction, talent acquisition, orientation, onboarding, succession planning, leadership development, assessment of employees' skills (Horwitz, 2017; Mathafena, 2015; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Renard & Snelgar, 2016).

(b) Lead and develop: Effective talent and leadership development opportunities and succession systems should be in place within South African private sector organisations to promote career advancement and retaining highly skilled individuals to remain competitive in this digital age (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Deloitte, 2016; 2017; Lesenyeko et al., 2018; Mwila & Turay, 2018). Furthermore, designing and implementing a well-designed succession management system, challenges leadership to fully grasp and understand succession planning, especially within the circumstances of South Africa's employment equity (EE), Broad-based black economic empowerment (B-BBEE) and affirmative action (AA) policies (Muthusamy, 2018). Ultimately, for South African private sector organisations, to lead and develop would include managing competency modelling, employee diversity and inclusion, career development opportunities, leadership development and succession planning, and continuous learning solutions to remain competitive and successful in this dynamic and uncertain global markets (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021; Latukha, 2016; Mihalcea, 2017; Saurombe & Barkhuizen, 2022).

(c) Deploy and reward: Research studies headed by Mokgojwa et al. (2017) concluded that it is paramount for South African private sector organisations to deploy talented employees in the positions that they are qualified for and reward them accordingly (Mokgojwa et al., 2017). Studies headed by Lesenyeko concluded that performance management, feedback, rewarding employees, workforce diversity and mobility must be maintained through profound commitment, in order to achieve the mission, vision and goals of organisations (Lesenyeko et al., 2018).

(d) Engage and retain: If South African private sector organisations are to flourish, highly productive and well-learned individuals should be attracted, acquired, developed, deployed, engaged and retained, because they are the bedrock of success and cultivating these highly-skilled individuals should be the organisation's number one priority (Bussin et al., 2019; Swanepoel & Saurombe, 2022). Bussin et al. (2019) goes on to emphasise that it is essential for South African private sector organisations to deeply engage and retain top talented employees to remain competitive in this unpredictable and uncertain business environment. Additionally, it is essential for South African private sector organisations to design and implement a robust employee engagement system to ensure high productivity and growth (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Deloitte, 2017; KPMG, 2012). Studies by Bussin et al. (2019) found that engaging and retaining superior employees comprises extensive employee engagement at all levels, employee retention, social media and collaboration. Employee engagement and retention are becoming critical, due to skills shortage and competition for scarce skills in South African private sector organisations (Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Van der Walt et al., 2016).

It is imperative for South African private sector organisations to design and implement a strong and holistic talent infrastructure supported and founded on the following tools: solid and comprehensive talent model and high-tech talent metrics, to remain competitive (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Deloitte, 2016; 2017; PwC, 2015). Furthermore, a unique and holistic talent management process needs to be in place to achieve to engage and retain highly talented and gifted employees (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Bussin et al., 2019; Mwila & Turay, 2018). Additionally, it is essential for South African private sector organisations to critically describe their talent retention strategy by investing in people, processes, programmes and infrastructure, in order to execute the organisation's strategy (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021; Deloitte, 2016; 2017; Lesenyeko et al., 2018). This includes redesigning and profiling of jobs, the use of automatic machines, the use of advanced technology and the organisation must focus on profitability, advancement, growth and innovation, in order to retain highly productive employees (Bussin, 2019; Deloitte, 2016; Kravariti et al., 2022). Firstly, the use of advanced technologies challenges South African private sector organisations to extensively train and

develop existing employees in this area. Secondly, in order to confront and deal with the demands in today's fast changing and growing marketplace, South African private sector organisations need to reinvent themselves and to become agiler (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Bussin et al., 2019; Deloitte, 2017). In Table 2.1 below, various research studies concluded that the talent strategy for South African private sector organisations in this digital age should comprise the following to attract high potential youngsters or millennials.

Table 2.1

Components of the Talent Strategy of South African Private Sector Organisations

Component	Sources
Up skilling of employees through continuous learning and development and promotional programmes.	Barkhuizen et al., (2020); Deloitte (2016; 2017); KPMG (2012); PwC (2015); Renard & Snelgar (2016).
Innovative thinking, adaptability, creativity and diverse workforce.	Barkhuizen & Gumede (2021); Bussin et al., (2019); Deloitte (2017); Lesenyeko et al., (2018); Mokgojwa et al., (2017).
Positioning the right leadership in place: having a visionary, courageous, humble leadership, who will be able to determine a reason of determination, develop trust with external and internal stakeholders, adapt to change at a speed, ready to tackle ferocious competitors and risks.	Bazana & Reddy (2021); Bussin (2019); Deloitte (2016); Van der Walt et al., (2016).
Ensuring that skills are effectively and efficiently deployed within the organisation.	Deloitte (2016; 2017); Lesenyeko et al., (2018); Musakuro & De Klerk (2021).
Utilise online recruitment platforms and social media channels.	Barkhuizen et al., (2020); Bussin et al., (2019); Mwila & Turay (2018).

Source: Author's own compilation

Research studies emphasised that HR leaders are being pushed to help drive the South African private sector organisations to be digital, not just doing digital, but help lead the digital transformation in three areas: digital workplace, digital workforce and digital human resource (Deloitte, 2017; Mokgojwa et al., 2017; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Onah & Anikwe, 2016). Additionally, this digital workplace provides its employees with the right and advanced tools to assist them in networking, both verbal and written communication and collaboration. Implemented effectively, it also allows South African private sector organisations to prevent

risks, observe and obey sternly to their rules and regulations and this will enhance organisational value (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Deloitte, 2016; 2017; Muthusamy, 2018).

Table 2.2 below outlines five priority areas to consider when delivering a new talent imperative in South African private sector organisations:

Table 2.2

New Talent Imperatives in South African Private Sector Organisations

New talent imperative	Sources
Building diverse talent pools.	Barkhuizen et al., (2020); Saurombe (2017); Van der Walt et al., (2016).
Develop a talent driven organisational culture that encourage and support career advancement, adaptability, flexibility, training and learning development and job freedom. Design workplace environment where individuals are nurtured and valued, where there is openness regarding salaries, benefits, feedback and promotion.	Barkhuizen & Gumede (2021); Deloitte (2016; 2017).
Develop robust career advancement frameworks to restore the leadership succession needs of the organisation with individual objectives and expectations.	Bazana & Reddy (2021); Deloitte (2017); Mokgojwa et al., (2017); Onah & Anikwe (2016).
Design, implement and promote a strong and positive employer brand.	Deloitte (2017); Muthusamy (2018); Musakuro & De Klerk (2021).
Reinvigorate and regenerate the value of HR and reconsider the HR functions.	Barkhuizen et al., (2020); Deloitte (2016; 2017); KPMG (2012); PwC (2015); Renard & Snelgar (2016).

Source: Author's own compilation

In summary, talent is critical for South African private sector organisations to remain competitive. South African private sector organisations must attract, acquire, develop, deploy, reward, engage and retain highly talented employees to remain successful (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Lesenyeko et al., 2018; Mwila & Turay, 2018). It is imperative for South African private sector organisations to design and implement robust talent pools to retain superior employees.

2.1.2 Talent management

Talent management is a systematic and deliberate plan undertaken to attract, acquire, develop, motivate, retain and deploy top and superior talent to fulfil organisational goals (Koskey & Allida, 2017; Naim & Lenka, 2018; Ramu, 2018; Safari et al., 2021). Masadeh et al. (2018) reiterate that unique talent management process is made up of talent attraction, acquisition, selection, development, deployment, onboarding, mentoring, coaching, career planning, performance management, growth and development opportunities, leadership development, succession planning, employee recognition and rewards. Generally, talent management is more into recognising, dividing, caring, coaching, mentoring and retaining capable and highly talented and competent employees in key positions that are vital for organisational competitiveness (Cascio, 2018; Mukweyi, 2016; Pirzada et al., 2021; Singh & Sanjeev, 2017). Previous research studies concluded that talent management is the designing and implementation of holistic and robust talent retention strategies and policies in order to evaluate the employee productivity, in order to create better and stable processes for the attraction, acquisition, development, motivation, deployment and retaining competent and motivated employees to supersede business goals (Kichuk, 2017; Koskey & Allida, 2017; Kumar, 2017; Kupari, 2016; Martinez-Moran et al., 2021). Talent management is a key element in South African private sector organisations, in today's competitive new world of work (Berger & Berger, 2018; Dubey et al., 2021; Liozu, 2016; Lyria et al., 2017). In other words, South African private sector organisations need to accept and cherish that fully engaged, highly skilled and motivated employees are vital to organisational growth, success and to remain competitive (Batistic, 2018; Ekhsan et al., 2021; Govender, 2019; Thurnissen, 2017). Table 2.3 outlines talent management dimensions.

Table 2.3

Talent Management Dimensions

Dimensions	Sources
Attracting, acquiring, developing, motivating, deploying, aligning and talent assessment.	Alruwaili (2018); Budd and Bhave (2019); Ejoywokeoghene et al., (2018); Nakato et al., (2021).
Attracting, selecting, training, developing, and promoting talent	Cross (2018); Koskey & Allida (2017); Muma, (2018); Liozu (2016); Wiblen, (2021).
Talent attraction, acquisition, development, motivation, retention, learning and development, and career management.	Berger & Berger (2018); Ncube (2016); Owolabi & Adeosun (2021) Thurnissen (2017).

Dimensions	Sources
End to end recruitment and selection, talent retention, leadership succession planning, development approach.	Artyukh (2016); Batistic (2018); Langat et al., (2020); Wojcik, (2018)
Recruitment and selection processes, attracting and selecting talented individuals for building robust internal talent pools, the deployment of highly talented and competent employees in diverse positions within the organisation.	Batistic (2018); Chandrasekaran (2020); Latukha (2016); Ramu (2018).
Designing, implementation, and evaluation of talent retention strategy, attracting, acquiring, developing, motivating and retaining, motivating and developing, deploying and managing, connecting and enabling.	Adamska-Chudzinska (2020); Benon & Jansson (2016); Dalayga et al., (2017) Lyria et al., (2017).
Identification of highly skilled and creative employees, development of millennial talented and gifted individuals, deployment of individuals with exceptional skills and retention of high calibre employees.	Cascio (2018); Dadheech (2020); Lyria et al., (2017); Masadeh et al. (2018).
Attracting individuals with excellent competencies, identifying high level dedicated employees, development opportunities, deployment of these superior employees, engaging the high performing individuals and retention of highly productive employees.	Dagogo & Ogechi (2020); Hosen et al. (2018); Mukweyi (2016); Singh & Sanjeev (2017).
Attracting competent and motivated employees, developing and motivating intellectual and well-learned individuals and retaining these high flyers for organisational competitiveness.	Cronsell & Lindahl (2020); Kichuk (2017); Kumar (2017); Lanvin and Evans (2017); Najm and Manasrah, (2017).
Attracting, selecting, engaging, developing, and retaining employees.	Chitra & Punitha (2020); Gani (2017); Mihalcea (2017); Naim and Lenka, (2018).

Dimensions	Sources
Developing, implementing and evaluating a holistic and robust talent retention strategy in order to retain high potentials.	Aher & Kawle (2017); Albattrikhi (2016); Kireru et al., (2017) Mahfoozi et al., (2018); Pirzada et al., (2021).
Focusing on talent, recruiting, discrimination, succession planning, training and development opportunities, retaining the most valuable and talented employees and utilising performance management related salaries in order to motivate the employees.	Al-Lozi et al., (2018); Dhanalak & Gurunathan (2018); Martinez-Moran et al., (2021); Ribeiro & Machado (2017).

Source: Author's own compilation

Previous research studies found that talent management in Africa, and specifically in South African private sector organisations is in its early stages (Artyukh, 2016; Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Latukha, 2016). Mwila and Turay (2018) noted that South Africa is currently experiencing a difficulty period and this situation impacts on talent management. A study headed by Mokgojwa et al. (2017) found that talent management is applied poorly in the South African private sector organisations. Benon and Jansson (2016) state in this regard that there is evidence that some African and specifically South African organisations are already utilising the Western HR practices. Ramu (2018) concurs with these findings by adding that, South African private sector organisations should realise that learning, training and development opportunities, comprehensive compensation, and career advancement does improve productivity, profitability, team work and retention of talented employees. Ultimately talent management and retention are vital for the success of the organisation.

2.1.3 Talent retention

Talent retention can be defined as identifying superior and rare talent within South African private sector organisations, designing robust and holistic talent retention strategies and implementing them to ensure that the goals and mission of the organisation are achieved (Albattrikhi, 2016; Dubey et al., 2021; Hoque et al., 2022; Mahfoozi et al., 2018). For the purpose of this study, this definition will be used. On the other hand, employee retention is the strategies which South African private sector organisations use to stop superior and pivotal individuals from leaving the organisation (Annapoorani & Menon, 2017; Ghorbani & Sheikhi, 2018; Safari et al., 2021). The retention of highly talented and gifted employees continues to be a vexing and formidable problem and is the greatest challenge faced by many South African

private sector organisations in the modern world of work, because of high levels of turnover (Dhanalak & Gurunathan, 2018; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Uzochukwu et al., 2018). According to Ployhart et al. (2018) talent retention is the capability of an organisation to retain its most critical employees, and talent retention is viewed as one of the vital components of organisational growth and competitiveness. Tambajong et al. (2018) also define talent retention as determination by an organisation to hold on to its intellectual and exceptionally talented employees for designing its robust and internal intellectual talent pool, for future succession. It can thus be concluded that talent retention is the capability of an employer to keep top performers and highly talented employees who are essential to the achievement of organisational competitiveness (Alruwaili, 2018; Cascio, 2018; Dadheech, 2020; Ekhsan et al., 2021; Muthusamy, 2018).

South African private sector organisations hold on to their talented employees by making a great effort to eliminate employee turnover, which would result in decreased recruitment, selection and learning, training and development costs, and the loss of highly skilled employees (Atiku & Fields, 2017; Dhanpat et al., 2018; Holston-Okoe & Mushi, 2018; Nakato et al., 2021). South African private sector organisations often develop strong holistic strategies that encompass the following monetary incentives: fair and equitable compensation, conducive work environment, benefits, incentives, supportive management and appointments to non-monetary benefits, which include flexible work arrangements, frequent and honest communication, clear performance expectations, career growth and the development of skills and control to retain their highly creative and competitive employees (Al-Lozi et al., 2018; Banfield et al., 2018; Cascio, 2018; Kireru et al., 2017; Wible, 2021). According to Govender (2019) the fear of losing critical and key employees consistently, is challenging South African private sector organisations to design, implement and evaluate robust and holistic talent retention strategies, to keep high-calibre individuals. Banfield et al. (2018) point out that in order to attract, acquire, develop and keep competent, gifted and intellectual individuals is to make sure that the work environment is friendly, flexible and conducive for their career advancement, empowerment, learning and development. It is important for South African private sector organisations to develop diverse and robust retention strategies to retain high calibre employees, highly skilled, motivated and star talent, to remain competitive, increasing productivity, profitability and retention in this volatile and unpredictable business landscape (Dries et al., 2018; Magaisa & Musundire, 2022; Ployhart et al., 2018).

South African private sector organisations must make sure that their employees are contented and pleased with their work environment and their managers, and comprehend the expectations, goals and objectives of the organisation (Akunda et al., 2018; Alruwaili, 2018;

Mahfoozi et al., 2018; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021). On the contrary, if employees are not contented and happy with their work environment, they will easily leave the organisation, therefore it is essential for South African private sector organisations to create an environment that will help keep their highly productive employees (Cadorin et al., 2017; Mahfoozi et al., 2018; Pirzada et al., 2021). According to Dhanalak and Gurunathan (2018), the retention of highly knowledgeable employees and their essential skills and expertise is critical for training and development and continuous learning of the organisation's internal unique talent pool, because such individuals possess unique skills, expertise and knowledge, are expensive to replace, are the most enduring source of competitive advantage and are essential to the organisation's competitiveness and success. It is therefore essential for South African private sector organisations to focus on attracting and retaining superior, competent and highly motivated individuals, and to keep them fully involved in their jobs for organisational competitiveness and success (Al-Lozi et al., 2018; Kireru et al., 2017; Mahfoozi et al., 2018; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Ployhart et al., 2018). In contrast, Dhanalak and Gurunathan (2018) found that organisations that are populated with average and lower performing employees are not as productive and competitive as organisations populated with high performers. Rothwell (2016) states that South African private sector organisations must invest in the continuous learning, training and development and the keeping of skilled and highly talented and productive individuals to remain competitive and highly productive, and to achieve organisational excellence and their strategic vision. Table 2.4 outlines factors influencing retention of employees in organisations.

Table 2.4

Factors Influencing Retention

Retention factors	Sources
Collegial, dynamic and interactive work environment, that promotes personal and professional development	Albattrikhi, (2016); Al-Lozi et al. (2018); Martinez-Moran et al., (2021).
Provision of exciting and challenging work	Annapoorani & Menon, (2017); Artyukh, (2016); Atiku & Fields, (2017); Dubey et al., (2021).
Supportive manager	Chen et al. (2017); Dalayga et al. (2017); Ferreira, (2016); Safari et al., (2021).
Career development, career opportunities and career guidance	Dalayga et al. (2017); Ekhsan et al., (2021); Ferreira, (2016).

Retention factors	Sources
Opportunities of skills development and specialisation	Cronsell & Lindahl, (2020); Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2018); Nakato et al., (2021).
Performance management and talent development	Gani, (2017); Holston-Okae & Mushi, (2018), Hosen et al. (2018); Wiblen (2021).
Meaningfulness	Eid et al., (2020); Hezel et al., (2022); Liu et al., (2017); Wagnild & Young, (1990).
Appreciation of work done, recognition and rewards	Keating, (2017); Lyria et al. (2017); Mahfoozi et al. (2018); Owolabi & Adeosun (2021).
Training and development	Chitra & Punitha, (2020); Masadeh et al. (2018).
Stable work/life balance and flexible working arrangements that meet the needs of the diverse and unique workforce	Latukha, (2016); Mihalcea, (2017); Pirzada et al., (2021).
Employer branding	Martinez-Moran et al., (2021); Ribeiro & Machado, (2017).
Competitive compensation and benefits	Dubey et al., (2021); Rothwell, (2016).
Recruitment and internal promotion	Safari et al., 2021; Shabane, (2017).

Source: Author's own compilation

In the light of the worldwide demands for superior talent, it is daunting and extremely difficult, to keep talent within South African private sector organisation for a long period of time (Atiku & Fields, 2017; Bjorkman et al., 2017; Ekhsan et al., 2021; Lanvin & Evans, 2017). To exacerbate matters further, Chen et al. (2017) postulate that retaining talent is a demanding task to all organisations globally due to globalisation. It can thus be concluded that talented employees have the right skills and knowledge that is vital for optimal organisation functioning (Ferreira, 2016; Nakato et al., 2021; Rothwell, 2016; Shabane, 2017). It is essential for organisations globally to recognise the importance of mobility and make efforts to create a holistic and robust strategy to control and manage talent mobility, because the talent pool is global (Eubanks, 2022; Ribeiro & Machado, 2017; Wiblen, 2021). Bui & Van Zyl, (2016) as well as Chen et al. (2017) found that organisations that do not take necessary steps to address current and future talent needs holistically at all levels of the organisation will face huge interruptions and disasters when key employees leave.

Ultimately improved integrated talent management provide significant benefits such as: cutting recruitment costs, knowledge transfer, robust organisational strategy, delivering unique

services and products (Mathafena, 2015; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021; Tarique et al., 2022). Talent in organisations drives improvements in productivity, quality and innovation (Hosen et al., 2018; Kichuk, 2017; Pirzada et al., 2021). Previous research studies concluded that talent management is the strategic designing and implementation of holistic and robust strategies and policies developed to strengthen the productivity of workforce by designing improved and strong programmes for attracting, acquiring, developing, motivating, training and retaining employees to obtain needed skills and expertise (Kichuk, 2017; Koskey & Allida, 2017; Kumar, 2017; Kupari, 2016; Martinez-Moran et al., 2021).

2.2 CHANGES IN RETENTION PRACTICES

Gani (2017), is of the opinion that change is unavoidable and has been present throughout the years, but it happens rapidly. Currently South African private sector organisations are challenged with rapid developments, such as demographic changes, workforce diversity, ageing workforce and generational diversity (Cui et al., 2018; da Silva et al., 2022; Dubey et al., 2021; Gani, 2017). Furthermore, these developments have serious consequences for the management of talent retention practices in South African private sector organisations (Cui et al., 2018; Hayes, 2022; Muthusamy, 2018; Safari et al., 2021).

2.2.1 Retention of different generations

According to Mwila and Turay (2018) managing and retaining a multigenerational workforce (such as Generation X, Generation Y or the Millennials, Baby Boomers and Silent Generation) has emerged as one of the increasingly complex and vexing changes in talent retention practices in South African private sector organisations. Konstanek and Khoreva (2018) reflected this phenomenon in yet another way, pronouncing that a diverse multigenerational workforce designs innovative and unusual opportunities and challenges for South African private sector organisations regarding their talent management practices. Konstanek and Khoreva (2018) continue to emphasise that to keep up with different generations' values, socio-economic experiences, beliefs, work styles, preferences, attitudes, behaviours and expectations, South African private sector organisations must be able to improve their ways to talent management and retention practices. It is important for South African private sector organisations to respond to these diverse needs and design strong and holistic strategies to attract, acquire, develop and retain talents, especially by offering training and development opportunities, challenging job tasks and diverse benefits and retirement plans that meet the needs of all generation cohorts (Ekhsan et al., 2021; Hayat et al., 2022; Konstanek & Khoreva,

2018; Naim & Lenka, 2018). Various research studies have indicated that a general strategy to attracting, acquiring, developing and retaining this diverse and unique inter-generational workforce is unlikely to work, because of the diverse and different needs, desires and wants by each generation (Fredericks, 2018; Lee, 2018; Mwila & Turay, 2018; Nakato et al., 2021; Ordonez de Pablos & Tennyson, 2017; Sessoms-Penny, 2022). Bussin et al., (2019) are of the opinion that it is essential for South African private sector organisations to ask the Millennials what their preferences are, rather than what organisations perceive they need. Generational diversity has prompted organisations to realise that they need to design and implement a robust and holistic developmental strategy to retain generation Y employees (Hayat et al., 2022; Naim & Lenka, 2018; Pinzaru et al., 2016). In addition, Davis and Frolova (2017) predicted that the reason for paying particular attention on generation Y employees is because they are the biggest group in the workforce and also that most of the Baby Boomers are nearing retirement. Naim and Lenka (2018) warn that attracting and retaining Millennials is going to be even harder because of their differences in career perceptions, personal goals, behavioural responses, characteristics and work preferences. It is paramount for South African private sector organisations to design robust and holistic talent retention strategies for the new millennial workforce, to be competitive and successful.

2.2.2 Demand and supply gaps

Mwila and Turay, (2018) noted that the gap between demand-supply is another daunting change in retention practices, in South African private sector organisations. Furthermore, this shows that organisations are battling to fill skilled positions because of the critical scarcity of talent. Additionally, because of overlooking those considered to be under skilled and unskilled this hinders the achievement of organisational strategies and goals (Chandrasekaran, 2020; Mwila & Turay, 2018; Ordonez de Pablos & Tennyson, 2017). Furthermore, the organisation will function less efficiently with their vacant positions or they might fill these positions with under skilled and unskilled candidates (Adamska-Chudzinska, 2020; Bussin et al., 2019). It is essential for South African private sector organisations to conduct a comprehensive examination of talent skills needs and gaps, and a vigorous attempt must be taken to address and close the gaps (Konstanek & Khoreva, 2018; Mathafena, 2015; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021). Van der Walt et al., (2018) pointed out that in South Africa, the economy is weakened by critical skills shortage, particularly in the mining industry, health sector, IT industry and the banking industry. Against this background, South African private sector organisations must realise that employee retention is becoming critical. Due to a skills shortage, there are many vacant positions and increased hiring costs (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Mokgojwa et al., 2017;

Wakabi, 2016). Ultimately it is imperative for South African private sector organisations to craft robust and holistic retention strategies to stop highly competent and superior individuals from leaving the organisation as this could impact on the effectiveness and productivity (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Van der Walt et al., 2018). The capability to attract, acquire, develop and retain talent is becoming increasingly vital, requiring more than just attractive compensation packages. Private sector organisations must invest in building their own talent pipeline, developing leaders in-house and encouraging greater mobility among employees (Ambrosius, 2016; Horwitz, 2017; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Sessoms-Penny, 2022).

2.2.3 Internships

Benon and Jansson (2016) are of the opinion that internship is one of the unique and most powerful strategies utilised to attract, acquire, develop, nurture and retain new and young talent. Ramu (2018) adds that for South African private sector organisations to be able to recruit, attract, acquire, develop and keep talented performers and key talent, they must recognise talented employees and design an internal unique talent pool to assist the organisation to appoint internally, design an organisational culture that is centred on talent that super stars and upcoming super stars aspire to be members, decrease employee turnover rates and try to succeed the fight for superior talent. Lesenyeko et al. (2018) argue that the retention of employees in South African private sector organisations is affected by different organisational weaknesses, such as lack of mentorships, coaching and employment equity initiatives. It is essential for South African private sector organisations to hire future superior and talented young talent through internships, and to focus on mentoring and coaching them to become superstars (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Ordonez de Pablos & Tennyson, 2017; Renard & Snelgar, 2016; Sessoms-Penny, 2022). It is vital for South African private sector organisations to realise that the old methods of training and development are not suitable for Millennials, because internship programmes need continuous learning and development, mentoring and coaching (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Konstanek & Khoreva, 2018; Mwila & Turay 2018). Mentorship and coaching are developmental initiatives that appeal highly to Generation Y, as they continuously desire for personal and professional development, developmental support and feedback (Bussin et al., 2019; Mwila & Turay, 2018; Naim & Lenka, 2018). Additionally, mentoring and coaching relationships guide, direct and motivate Generation Y to achieve superior performance (Hayat et al., 2022; Naim & Lenka, 2018). Naim and Lenka (2018) are of the opinion that training and development is one of the most critical elements of talent management that influences and motivates highly talented young employee's retention. Ultimately it is paramount for South African private sector organisations

to make sure that the training and development methods should move with the signs of the time and fit into the new generations. South African private sector organisations must do whatever it takes in showing their top performers and highly talented employees that they are the most vital assets, and that without them there is no business within the organisation.

2.2.4 Retention and Industry 4.0

According to da Silva et al. (2022), the fourth industrial revolution (4IR) with its artificial intelligence and automation taking over traditional human resources is another formidable challenge in retention practices. Advanced technologies will change the world and assist the drive for profits in South African private sector organisations (Dennis, 2018; Maisiri & Van Dyk, 2021; Wilkinson et al., 2019). Furthermore, artificial intelligence will impact on retention because artificial intelligence systems are primed to take over millions of jobs that humans are currently performing, thus retention functions will change drastically (Dennis, 2018; Maisiri & Van Dyk, 2021; Ustundag et al., 2018; Wilkinson et al., 2019). It can thus be concluded that the advanced robotics will be equipped to perform complex tasks by themselves, including advanced diagnoses (da Silva et al., 2022; Dennis, 2018). The effect of high and advanced technological communications devices on Generations X, Y and the Millennials is one of the most formidable changes in retention practices (Ambrosius, 2016; Chakraborty et al., 2022; Mwila & Turay, 2018; Ordonez de Pablos & Tennyson, 2017). In a study headed by Wilkinson et al. (2019) it was decided that artificial intelligence is poised to challenge the best human strategies and it will eventually change every aspect of life in general and life in the workplace drastically. Additionally, Saurombe (2017) emphasised that the role of technology in the workplace, is bound to change the way in which humans live and work. Ultimately it is imperative for South African private sector organisations to craft robust and holistic strategies that will retain top performers in the midst of artificial intelligence that will be able to utilise these advanced and high technologies.

2.2.5 Talent mobility/adaptability and retention

Finally, talent mobility is another massive challenging change in retention practices. A study by Khan et al. (2022) found that the global and South African business landscape is characterised by unknown and high levels of talent mobility, as employees seek greener pastures to satisfy their own needs. According to Tarique et al. (2022), well-designed talent mobility programmes powered by efficient, automated technology platforms will positively impact South African private sector organisation goals. These programmes will bar talent

mobility out of the South African private sector organisation and it will promote internal talent mobility where South African private sector organisations craft strong and holistic talent retention strategies to stop top performers leaving the organisation (Kenon & Palsole, 2018; Latukha & Soyiri, 2018; Mwila & Turay, 2018; Khan et al., 2022). Latukha and Soyiri (2018) reiterate that internal talent mobility is very vital to any organisation which wants to remain successful and competitive. Research headed by Whysall concluded that it is done in such a way that there will always be a pool of talented individuals with the appropriate skills and expertise to avoid the operations interruption (Whysall et al., 2019). Furthermore, Whysall et al. (2019) pointed out that the movement of highly skilled and talented migrants from developed countries might increase Africa's and specifically South Africa's developmental efforts.

Ultimately it is important for South African private sector organisations to design, implement, evaluate robust and holistic policies and strategies to manage and retain the multigenerational workforce to remain competitive in this digital age (Bussin et al., 2019; Eubanks, 2022; Fredericks, 2018; Lee, 2018; Mwila & Turay, 2018). Additionally, it is imperative for South African private sector organisations to fill vacant positions and close gaps to operate efficiently (Mwila & Turay, 2018; Ordonez de Pablos & Tennyson, 2017; Thakhathi, 2022). Internship programmes are vital for South African private sector organisations to acquire, attract, develop, motivate, nurture and retain potential talent through mentoring and coaching them to become superstars (Eubanks, 2022; Kireru et al., 2017; Naim & Lenka, 2018; Renard & Snelgar, 2016). Furthermore, advanced technology will impact on talent retention (Ambrosius, 2016; Chakraborty et al., 2022; Dennis, 2018; Wilkinson et al., 2019). Talent mobility can affect South African private sector organisations positively and negatively, therefore it is essential for organisations to ensure that they retain high performers and stop negative talent mobility (Kenon & Palsole, 2018; Latukha & Soyiri, 2018; Mwila & Turay, 2018; Tarique et al., 2022).

2.3 RETENTION CHALLENGES FOR SOUTH AFRICAN PRIVATE SECTOR ORGANISATIONS

In the following section, retention challenges faced by South African private sector organisations will be discussed briefly.

2.3.1 Critical skills shortage

According to Davis and Frolova (2019), South Africa's private sector organisations are encountering critical global shortage of skills, particularly in retaining the country's highly competent and talented employees. Global and local organisations are impacted by the shortage of knowledgeable, talented, experienced and qualified employees to meet organisational goals and productivity objectives (Maisiri & Van Dyk, 2021; Makhubela, 2017; Saurombe & Barkhuizen, 2022). It is imperative for South African private sector organisations to attract, acquire, deploy, develop and keep their top talented, skilled and top performers to remain competitive globally (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Makhubela, 2017; Muthusamy, 2018). Research headed by Atiku concluded that the lack of highly skilled and experienced employees is hampering South African private sector organisations to attract, acquire, develop and retain highly competent and well educated and skilled employees (Atiku & Fields, 2017; Cui et al., 2018; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021). Additionally, it is these highly talented, intelligent and knowledgeable employees who are the lifeboats of any organisation, and who are the most dynamic, critical and unique assets to support and enhance organisational competitiveness and success (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Holt & Davis, 2022; Mukweyi, 2016; Ncube, 2016). Various studies have concluded that "war for talent", shortage of talent, scarcity of global talent and brain drain have all become important challenges for many organisations around the world, and especially South African private sector organisations that are struggling to retain talented and high achievers (Cui et al., 2018; Hankins, 1997; Kajwang, 2022; Keating, 2017; Manjiri, 2023; Wiblen, 2021). Manjiri (2023) pointed out that this situation is exacerbated by the mass departure of highly skilled and experienced professionals to Australia, United States, United Kingdom and Canada. On the contrary, South Africa has an excessive supply of under skilled and unskilled employees and an intense shortage of intelligent, qualified and experienced employees, thus impacting on the capability of the organisations to effectively and efficiently deliver superior services (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Davis & Frolova, 2019). It can therefore be concluded that South African private sector organisations depend on low-paid, under skilled, low-skilled and unskilled employees. A critical shortage of skilled and competent individuals in the labour market has engendered substandard recruitment and selection practices which have increased the amount of intense training and development required by the employees (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021; Davis & Frolova, 2019; Muthusamy, 2018). Muthusamy (2018) reiterates that South Africa has many graduates in diverse disciplines, but the country's skills base suffers from a critical skills shortage, as many as and expertise needed. It can therefore be confirmed that the retention of highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations is a critical strategy that must be adopted by

South African private sector organisations to remain competitive and survive in this ferocious competitive business environment (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Davis & Frolova, 2019; Muthusamy, 2018).

2.3.2 Competition among organisations

Banfield et al. (2018) concluded that various organisations locally and worldwide are experiencing daunting competition when trying to recruit, attract, acquire, deploy and keep the skilled, highly talented, competent and key performers for suitable positions. Various research studies have indicated that South African private sector organisations are part of the global arena and there is increased demand and fierce competition for highly talented and highly productive employees (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Najm & Manasrah, 2017; Ployhart et al., 2018). It is paramount for South African private sector organisations to craft robust internal talent pools. It can therefore be concluded that the robust internal and shared unique, talent pool will make available a consistent and trusted internal source of talent through learning, training and development to win the war for talent globally and locally (Ferreira, 2016; Mone & London, 2018; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Rasheed et al., 2022; Rothwell, 2016; Wang & Miao, 2022).

2.3.3 Workforce diversity

Workforce diversity is another daunting retention challenge faced by organisations globally and South African private sector organisations are not an exception. South African private sector organisations are currently operating in an uncertain and unpredictable business environment characterised by aging workforce, generational differences, gender, ethnicity and life pursuits (Bussin et al., 2019; Cascio, 2018; Lee, 2018; Ncube, 2016). Hosen et al. (2018) emphasise that myriads of generations with different values, desires and expectations are currently working together in the workplace more than ever before, from generations X and Y, to “Veterans” and Baby boomers. Research study by Ncube (2016) concluded that there is also increasing gender diversity with more women entering the workplace, providing organisations with opportunities to attract, acquire and retain highly talented women to assist filling talent gaps. Naim and Lenka (2018) put it this way: that it is imperative for South African private sector organisations to be able to manage diverse generations, markets, cultures and modes of work. Furthermore, these dissimilarities will make attracting, acquiring, developing and retaining superior talent even more difficult for organisations, strong, complex and holistic strategies need to be crafted and implemented (Cascio, 2018; Kravariti et al., 2022; Naim &

Lenka, 2018; Wiblen, 2021). Cascio (2018) goes on to emphasise that if diverse generations are working together the organisation needs to design and implement unique, holistic and robust strategies in order to motivate and satisfy each generation's needs and desires. Cascio (2018) further indicates that South African private sector organisations must be able to craft and implement strong strategies be able to accommodate the diverse necessities and needs of this multigenerational workforce to be able to attract, acquire, deploy and keep them. Therefore, South African private sector organisations need to be more sensitive and careful about the dissimilarities, must design and implement strategies that allow them to be effective and competitive in today's digital and complicated business environment (Cascio, 2018; Felix, 2016; Hosen et al., 2018; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021). It is difficult for many South African private sector organisations to retain a productive workforce in the face of potential shrinking labour pools and increased mobility of the younger generation of employees (generation Y) (Bussin et al., 2019; Felix, 2016; Naim & Lenka, 2018). Naim and Lenka (2018) reiterate that if talent is not managed and retained, organisations stand to lose valuable knowledge that can have detrimental effects on the organisational operations. It is essential for South African private sector organisations to invest more resources to highly skilled and top performers who are usually the ones that generate the most value for the organisation (Felix, 2016; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Naim & Lenka, 2018; Ramu, 2018). Mihalcea (2017) concluded that the fast-changing business model is reforming the way in which South African private sector organisations attract, acquire, deploy, develop and retain for a new, challenging and diverse generation of the workforce.

2.3.4 Globalisation

According to Mahfoozi et al. (2018), globalisation, with informal market economic reforms and economic instability and high technological advancements globally and locally, has profoundly affected the demand and supply for talented individuals, the talent war and retention practices. Furthermore, current trends, indicate that while populations of most developed economies are ageing and shrinking in size, the populations of most if not all developing and emerging economies especially South Africa are multiplying fast and are young people, exacerbating unemployment percentages for young graduates entering South African private sector organisations (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Ribeiro & Machado, 2017; Theurer et al., 2018; Wojcik, 2018). Additionally, excessive job mobility of employees has resulted in difficulties for South African private sector organisations to attract, acquire, develop and retain top performers (Artyukh, 2016; Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021; Mone & London, 2018; Ncube, 2016). It is important for South African private sector organisations to implement a well-designed

succession management system to retain top performers. It calls for profound understanding of the management of succession planning, especially within the context of South Africa's broad based black economic empowerment (B-BBEE), affirmative action and employment equity policies (Muthusamy, 2018).

2.3.5 Creativity, innovation and critical skills

Several research studies emphasised that it is important for individuals to be innovative and creative to be suitable into the challenging South African private sector organisations that have developed extensively in the past decade (Bui & van Zyl, 2016; Lyria et al., 2017; Pirzada et al., 2021). Additionally, South African private sector organisations have become extremely knowledgeable and smart, which has made it more important for employees to focus on training and development, continuously learning, updating their knowledge and the types of skills currently needed (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Cross, 2018; Keating, 2017; Ross, 2018; Swanepoel & Saurombe, 2022). Ultimately, South African private sector organisations need to attract, acquire, develop and retain competent and intelligent individuals to remain competitive and successful (Benon & Jansson, 2016; Govender, 2019; Ployhart et al., 2018; Robinson, 2016).

2.3.6 Comprehensive and competitive compensation package

Several researchers have shown that while comprehensive and competitive compensation packages were shown as essential circumstances that would attract and keep highly competent and productive employees to an organisation, these were not shown as important forces for retaining skilled and talented individuals (Al-Lozi et al., 2018; Hoque et al., 2022; Martinez-Moran et al., 2021; Mihalcea, 2017; Mone & London, 2018). In contrast, highly talented employees are unlikely to be attracted and kept by the attractiveness of monetary rewards (Dubey et al., 2021; Ferreira, 2016; Mukweyi, 2016; Shingenge & Saurombe, 2022; Waweru & Kagiri, 2018). Furthermore, South African private sector organisations must offer higher and comprehensive compensation, unique incentives and bonuses that are attractive for those individuals who have shown that they want to leave the job, because the competitiveness of the organisation relies on highly talented and superior employees (Banfield et al., 2018; Felix, 2016; Rothwell, 2016; Safari et al., 2021; Saurombe & Barkhuizen, 2022).

2.3.7 Training and development opportunities

Research studies have confirmed that continuous training and development is essential for the career advancement of any professional individual and is the only and best way to remain marketable and retainable over the length of his/her career life (Cascio, 2018; Ekhsan et al., 2021; Phasha & Ahmed, 2017). According to Singh and Sanjeev (2017), organisations must develop and train continuously their employees in the recent advanced trends and technologies to gain competitiveness in this uncertain and dynamic business landscape. Additionally, most employees stay at organisations that promote continuous learning, career advancement, and that provide the tools to use their expertise and newly learnt skills (Aher & Kawle, 2017; Alruwaili, 2018; Nakato et al., 2021; Tambajong et al., 2018; Wang & Miao, 2022). Furthermore, prosperous South African private sector organisations extensively commit themselves to develop internal talent that other organisations overlook (Dhanalak & Gurunathan, 2018; Mahfoozi et al., 2018; Tarique et al., 2022; Wiblen, 2021). Ultimately, South African private sector organisations must not simply rely on their talented employees; they should focus on training and developing their poor and average performers to design a strong internal unique talent pool (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2018; Holbeche, 2015; Khan et al., 2022; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021).

2.3.8 Recognition on individual level

According to Latukha (2016), it is imperative for South African private sector organisations to personalise appreciation for their employees, because employee recognition is one of the unique ways to ensure profound loyalty and commitment of the employee, and decreased turnover. Budd and Bhave (2019) contend that acknowledgement is a critical non-monetary incentive, and it is one of the most powerful and attractive ways of appreciating employees. Furthermore, employees should be given feedback on how well they have achieved their objectives, goals and how they have performed their work (Annapoorani & Menon, 2017; Magaisa & Musundure, 2022; Pirzada et al., 2021). Ultimately, employees have a deep desire and need to be appreciated for the job performed well (Martinez-Moran et al., 2021; Thurnissen, 2017; Wang & Miao, 2022).

2.3.9 Managerial and supervisor support

Several researchers emphasised that supervisor or managerial support is essential for the retention of highly talented and skilled individuals (Adamska-Chudzinska, 2020; Berger &

Berger, 2018; Holston-Okoe & Mushi, 2018; Holt & Davis, 2022; Liozu, 2016). Additionally, the management style does impact on the retention of competent and key talent especially in the way that the manager's mentoring, coaching, feedback, appreciation of performance, support and regular assessments are cherished and natured by the employees (Dadheech, 2020; Hosen et al., 2018; Kajwang, 2022; Lanvin & Evans, 2017). Furthermore, the supervisor should supervise his or her team in a way that will motivate them to stay with the organisation, especially by communicating honestly, openly, kindly, pleasantly and powerfully, by tolerance, and in realising that exploding with anger, harsh words, a lack of kindness, a lack of listening skills and hostility will scare away the employees (Akunda et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2017; Dagogo & Ogechi, 2020; Rasheed et al., 2022). Ultimately, it is essential for supervisors and managers to supervise employees sensitively, effectively and efficiently.

2.3.10 Hybrid and remote work model

Pouliakas and Ranieri (2022) postulated that remote and hybrid work model is critical for organisations to recruit, attract and keep top performing individuals in this high-tech business landscape. Furthermore, it is vital for organisations to allow employees to work remotely, especially during the pandemic to reduce work stress (Konovalova et al., 2022; Makikangas et al., 2022; Saura et al., 2022; Wontorczyk & Roznowski, 2022). Several researchers suggest that quality of life and work-life policies are critical factors that attract and keep superior talent (Cronsell & Lindahl, 2020; Devaguptapu, 2017; Holston-Okoe & Mushi, 2018; Malkawi, 2017; Waweru & Kagiri, 2018). Additionally, South African private sector organisations should give their employees family-leave policies, flexible work scheduling, hybrid work and child-care assistance (Kireru et al., 2017; Kumar, 2017; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Ribeiro & Machado, 2017; Saura et al., 2022). Furthermore, in return, organisations will obtain effective performances, higher retention rates and production (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Dhanpat et al., 2018; Makikangas et al., 2022; Randhawa, 2017). Research has indicated that individuals' job characteristics, job satisfaction, job challenges and a dynamic, interactive and friendly, environment that encourages professional and personal development are vital talent retention factors that attract and keep superior employees (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Ejoywokeoghene et al., 2018; Koskey & Allida, 2017; Pouliakas & Ranieri, 2022; Ramu, 2018). Ultimately, it is imperative for South African private sector organisations to change and develop their leadership style, jobs, training and development, career advancement workplaces in such a way that they may increase and expand the above-mentioned talent retention factors (Batistic, 2018; Bussin et al., 2019; Khan et al., 2022; Makhubela, 2017; Wojcik, 2018).

2.3.11 Organisational culture

According to Holston-Okae and Mushi (2018), organisational culture is a vital retention factor. Various authors suggest that South African private sector organisations with robust, sensitive and caring organisational culture experiences increase satisfaction, loyalty, employee retention and commitment (Bughin et al 2018; Dubey et al., 2021; Magaisa & Musundire, 2022; Masadeh et al., 2018; Naim & Lenka, 2018). Furthermore, South African private sector organisations must design a culture that encourages training and development opportunities, continuous life-long learning, career development opportunities (Gani, 2017; Kichuk, 2017; Mihalcea, 2017; Safari et al., 2021; Shingenge & Saurombe, 2022). It can therefore be concluded that talent centric organisational culture is a strong retention strategy. Additionally, a strong employer branding has become vital for South African private sector organisations in their great enthusiasm to fight and win the battle for talent (Dalayga et al., 2017; Ekhsan et al., 2021; Kravariti et al., 2022; Mihalcea, 2017; Saurombe & Barkhuizen, 2022). Albattrikhi (2016) emphasises that employer branding's purpose is to encourage unique incentives. Finally, this plays a critical role in the retention of highly talented employees (Bughin et al., 2018; Hayes, 2022; Nakato et al., 2021).

2.3.12 The “Great Resignation”

According to Chugh and Goerner (2022) the “great resignation” that most organisations faced during and post Covid 19, where record numbers of people left their jobs after Covid 19 pandemic ends, is haunting both organisations and employees. For some employees, the pandemic precipitated a change in priorities, encouraging them to pursue different careers or a transition to being a stay-at-home parent (Hezel et al., 2022). But for many others the decision to quit their jobs came as a result of the way their employers treated them during the pandemic (Rasheed et al., 2022). This is a challenging call for organisations to create friendly work environments that will stop employees leaving the organisation in record numbers. In 2021, United States of America and else where workers began leaving their jobs in record numbers. It is essential for organisations to understand the nature and impact of toxic culture on the retention of talented employees. Unfortunately, organisations now have to navigate the ripple effects of the pandemic and re-evaluate how to retain talent that they drove to quit their jobs during the pandemic (Chugh, 2021; DeMatthews et al., 2022).

In conclusion, all the identified retention challenges may point to whether the South African private sector organisations are dedicated to their employees, and this will help in the retention of talented individuals. It is essential for South African private sector organisations to persuade their employees that all the outlined talent retention factors are enlightened and motivated by the determination and commitment to keep talented and productive employees.

2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 2 discussed in detail the meta-theoretical context that forms the boundary of the research study. It discussed talent management as comprising of talent and talent/employee retention in South African private organisations. It explored changes in retention practices and discussed retention challenges for South African private sector organisations in detail. These retention changes have also a strong effect on retention practices. It has become a daunting challenge for South African private sector organisations to be able to develop robust and holistic talent retention policies and strategies in order to attract and keep these highly committed, embedded and resilient individuals and thus remain successful and competitive.

This chapter achieved the following literature research aim: 1: to conceptualise talent retention practices and strategies in the South African private sector organisations context.

Chapter 3 discusses the literature research aim 2: to conceptualise retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness) in the context of talent management and talent retention.

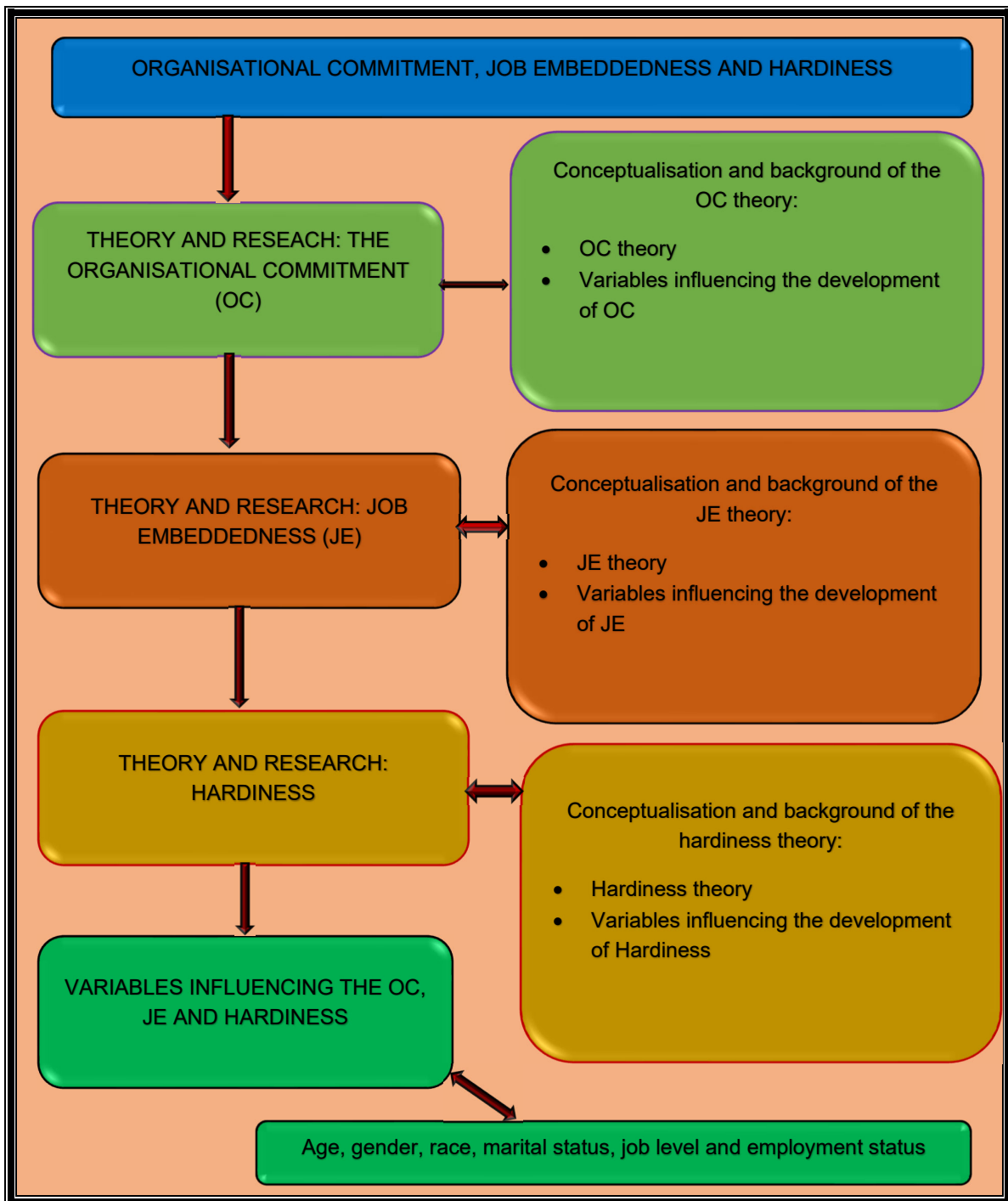
CHAPTER 3: RETENTION-RELATED DISPOSITIONS (ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT, JOB EMBEDDEDNESS AND HARDINESS)

Keywords: organisational commitment; affective commitment; normative commitment; continuous commitment; job embeddedness; work and community fit; work and community links; work and community sacrifice; hardiness; commitment; control; challenge.

Chapter 3 discusses literature research aim 2, namely to conceptualise the retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) in the context of talent management and talent retention. These three variables were selected to form retention-related disposition and not others, because of their dimensions that are interconnected and are capable of retaining talent. The three variables are naturally and centrally linked to talent retention because they all focus on commitment to the organisation, embedded in one's job and organisation and hardi-commitment to one's job, organisation and community. There is a clear dynamic and strong relationship between these three concepts. In this chapter, the constructs organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness are firstly conceptualised, thereafter the theory and research relating to these constructs are critically evaluated.

Figure 3.1 below provides an overview of the core themes of this chapter.

Figure 3.1
 Overview of the Core Themes in Chapter 3



Source: Author's own compilation

3.1 THEORY AND RESEARCH: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

The concept of organisational commitment will be explored thoroughly in the following sections. The concept will be conceptualised and the theoretical models discussed in detail. The variables influencing its development and effect on talent management and talent retention will also be addressed.

3.1.1 Conceptualisation and background

The concept of organisational commitment is explored in detail in various different dynamic, empowering, inspiring, challenging and fascinating ways. The concept had been in existence for 60 years, when Becker's (1960) hypothetical argument on the side-bet sprouted into continuous commitment, and later into individual or employee commitment. The concept was further researched and polished by Etzioni (1961) when he introduced the closely linked dimensions of organisational commitment namely: moral commitment, calculative commitment and alienated commitment. Kanter (1968) also proceeded to re-polish the concept of organisational commitment when she presented a comprehensive research of commitment mechanisms in utopian societies. After 24 years of existence, the concept of organisational commitment was redefined by several researchers to determine whether it implied that the employee would remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1984; Morrow, 1983; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Randal & Cote, 1991).

Several studies headed by Meyer et al. (1998) conceptualised organisational commitment as a multidimensional and complex concept comprised of three binding forces namely (1) affective commitment, (2) normative commitment and (3) continuance commitment. Organisational commitment can therefore be defined as profound emotional attachment towards the organisation, moral and ethical obligation to remain with the organisation and the acknowledgement of the effects relating to leaving the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1991; 1997; Meyer et al., 1998). For the purposes of this study, this definition will be adopted, because it is central to Meyer and Allen's (1990) three-component model commitment, which is the main model of the concept.

Furthermore, organisational commitment challenges individuals to be faithful, trustworthy and loyal to an organisation, sacrificing, devoting and participating fully in all the activities of the organisation to attain the objectives and goals of the organisation (Alansaari et al., 2019; Culibrk et al., 2018; Masud & Daud, 2019; Mehrez & Bakri, 2018; Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1991;

1997; Meyer et al., 1989; 1990; 1993; 1998). Organisational commitment occurs when an individual internalises the organisation's culture, values and goals, accepts the mission, makes efforts as part of the organisation and feels like a strong family member resulting in making them feel that leaving their job is less attractive (Abdallah et al., 2017; Ahluwalia & Preet, 2017; Drewniak, 2017; Koc, 2018; Lee & Steers, 2017; Lee et al., 2001; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Paul et al., 2016; Pieters et al., 2022). On the other hand, the employee who does not feel like part of the organisation will find it difficult to internalise the goals and values of the organisation, which might lead the individual to feel out of place and eventually leave the organisation (Maleka et al., 2019; Muleya et al., 2022; Musriha, 2019; Mythily, 2019; Rafiei & Abdollahzades, 2018). Several studies also showed that organisational commitment deeply directs the employee in a psychological state that profoundly binds an employee to the organisation and differentiates an employee's identification, association and affiliation with his or her organisation in all areas (Chi et al., 2018; Ha et al., 2018; Koc, 2018; Lee et al., 2001; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Mustafa et al., 2022; Tambajong et al., 2018; Tekingunduz et al., 2016; Zainuddin & Panigrahi, 2018).

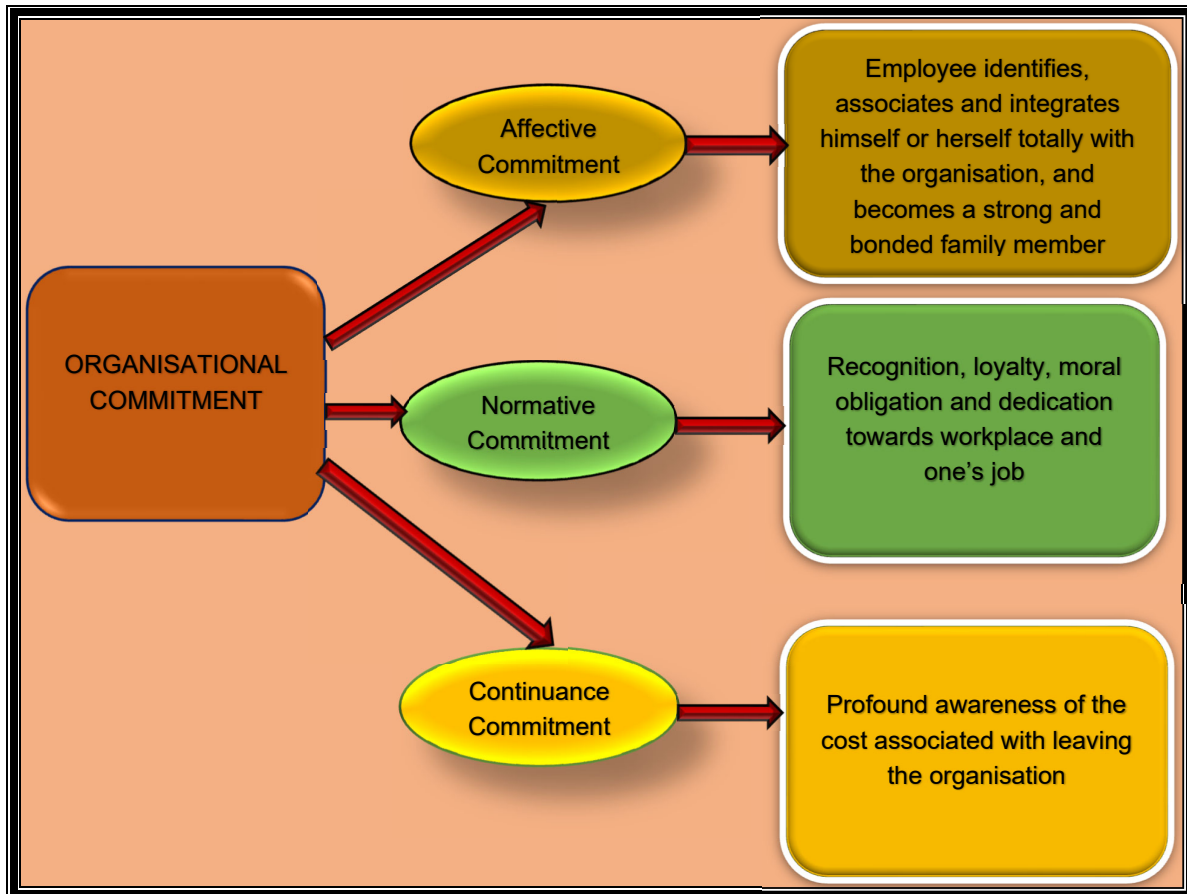
In conclusion, the concept of organisational commitment was introduced by briefly discussing its historical development, and conceptualising the concept by defining it and outlining its sub dimensions. A definition applicable to the current study was identified and it was explained why this definition was chosen.

3.1.2 Organisational commitment theory

Meyer and Allen (1990) contributed hugely to the organisational commitment literature. Meyer and Allen's (1990) three-component model of commitment was carefully selected for this research, because it has been tried and tested, and has undergone profound empirical evaluation to date and therefore it forms the main base of the measuring instrument used for the purpose of this study (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Research headed by Allen concluded that commitment creates a profound bond between the individual and the organisation and as a result this reduces absenteeism and staff turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Additionally, the three multidimensional binding forces can be experienced in three different ways (1) affective commitment that is differentiating affective connection to the organisation; (2) continuance commitment which is the calculated price of leaving, and (3) normative commitment which is the accountability of staying with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Figure 3.2 below describes in detail the profound relationship between attitudinal and behavioural perspective on organisational commitment, to assist in comprehending organisational commitment more deeply.

Figure 3.2.

A Three-component Model of Organisational Commitment



Source: Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 68)

Meyer and Allen (1991) went beyond the existing contrast between attitudinal commitment and behavioural as well as the relationship dynamics outlined in Figure 3.2. Additionally, they also noted that it is vital to design the construct of commitment in order to strongly support values, ambitions, needs and the duty to stay for an individual.

Comprehensive research by Meyer and colleagues concluded that organisational commitment is a psychological condition that (a) distinguishes the unique connection with the organisation, and (b) has consequences for the choice to keep on belonging to the organisation (Meyer et al., 1989; Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1990; 1991; 1997; Meyer et al., 1990; Meyer et al., 1998). Research headed by Meyer identified the following three closely knitted dimensions namely: affective, continuance and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). These binding forces will be explained in detail in the following sections.

(a) Affective commitment

Research headed by Meyer emphasised that affective commitment allows and challenges employees to uphold the psychological contract with the organisation so that they sustain their organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1991; 1997; Meyer et al., 2001; 1998; 1993; 1990; 1989). In other words, the employee identifies, associates and integrates himself or herself totally with the organisation, and becomes a strong and bonded family member (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Boag-Munroe, 2018; Meyer & Allen, 1997; 1991; 1990; 1984; Nam & Lan, 2022; Singh & Singh, 2018). Various studies have concluded that affective commitment is a strong emotional attachment towards the organisation, as well as motivation, identification, involvement, feelings of loyalty, sympathy, kindness, affiliation, sentiment, satisfaction of the employee in the organisations (Bratton & Gold, 2017; De la Torre-Ruiz et al., 2017; Dewi & Piartrini, 2021; Lee et al., 2001; Moreira et al., 2022; Moyo, 2019; Saridakis et al., 2018). Studies by Ahluwalia and Preet (2017) as well as Haque and Aston (2016) defined affective or emotional commitment as the actual involvement of employees at work. Koc (2018) argued that affective commitment is related to the reluctance of an employee to incur the additional costs of searching for new employment. The opposite is also true, in the sense that individuals might remain with the employing organisation because of the fear of the unknown (Kim et al., 2018; Meyer et al., 1993; 1989; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Furthermore, in affective commitment, there is a deep emotional bond between the organisation and employee (Koc, 2018; Lee et al., 2001; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Myron & White, 2016; Paul et al., 2016; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022; Tekingunduz et al., 2016). Additionally, organisations need to manage their employees in such a manner as to ensure that they have a strong affective commitment towards the organisation, in order to retain their talented employees (Alsughayir, 2021; Ariyanto et al., 2018; Mydin et al., 2018; Pieters et al., 2022; Rozaan & Sagala, 2019).

(b) Continuance commitment

Studies by Meyer and Allen (1984; 1991; 1997) concluded that continuance commitment refers to a profound knowledge of the cost involved with leaving the organisation. Employees high in continuance commitment remain because they need to, potentially high costs of leaving will produce continuance commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; 1996; Els et al., 2021; Meyer et al., 1989; 1990; 1993; 1998). Continuance commitment is defined as the employee's perceptions of the benefits (pay, social networks, prestige) that may be lost when one leaves the organisation (Alkahtani et al., 2021; Lau et al., 2016; Mustafa et al., 2022; Svanberg & Ohman, 2016; Tekingunduz et al., 2016). Additionally, continuance commitment is the strongest and deepest feeling to stay in the organisation because the employee does not want to go through the inconvenience of looking for another job and losing all the lucrative benefits (Ahakwa et al., 2021; Ha et al., 2018; Koc, 2018; Meyer et al., 1998; 1993; Svanberg & Ohman,

2016). Contrasting results concluded that most employees remain with the employing organisation, even if they are not fully happy, because of the fear of the unknown, the uncertainty of whether they will get another job and also the possibility of losing all their benefits (Jigjiddorj et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2001; Meyer et al., 1998; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Nam & Lan, 2022; Prommegger et al., 2019). Hom et al. (2012) state in this regard that this phenomenon is known as reluctant stayers, who remain because they feel they cannot leave, although they would prefer to do so. Hom et al. (2012) continue to emphasise that although there are different types of stayers and leavers (enthusiastic stayers, enthusiastic leavers, reluctant leavers and dissatisfied stayers), eventually everyone leaves, no one remains with the organisation forever.

Several researchers noted that employees who have high commitment show more loyalty, are more productive and tend to accept more responsibility and ultimately stay with the organisation (Abosede & Akintola, 2017; Allen & Meyer, 1996; 1990; Dorien & Kooij, 2017; Drewniak, 2017; Moreira et al., 2022; Zivkovic et al., 2021). Finally, employees who are totally dedicated and committed to their organisation are unlikely to quit the organisation and this will aid in curbing employee turnover and will increase the productivity, talent retention and competitiveness of the organisation (Abosede & Akintola, 2017; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer et al., 1998; Noermijati et al., 2021; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022; Tekingunduz et al., 2016; Zainuddin & Panigrahi, 2018).

(c) Normative commitment

Normative commitment is defined as recognition, loyalty, moral obligation and dedication towards the workplace and one's job (Meyer & Allen, 1997; 1991; 1984; Paul et al., 2016; Pieters et al., 2022). Several researchers went on to emphasise that in normative commitment, the individual feels compelled under responsibility and moral concerns to remain with the employing organisation, because the employee has internalised the objectives, values, vision and mission of the organisation; so that he or she feel that they cannot survive without them (Lee et al., 2001; Meyer & Herscovitch 2001; Meyer et al., 1998; Mustafa et al., 2022; Singh & Singh, 2018). Furthermore, individuals with a solid sense of normative commitment continue to stay with their current organisation because they feel compelled to because of their social norms, values and a strong feeling of owing gratitude towards the organisation (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Masrukhin, 2020; Meyer et al., 1990; 1998; Nam & Lan, 2022; Vagharseyyedin et al., 2018).

Table 3.1 outlines major dimensions of organisational commitment.

Table 3.1

Summary: Major Dimensions of Organisational Commitment

Dimension	Explanation	Sources
Affective or emotional commitment	This is actual involvement of employees at work. It allows and challenges employees to uphold the psychological contract with the organisation so that they sustain their organisational commitment. In other words, the employee identifies, associates and integrates himself or herself totally with the organisation, and becomes a strong and bonded family member	Boag-Munroe, (2018); Dewi & Piartrini, (2021); Goldstein et al., (2017); Klein, 2016; Meyer & Allen, (1997; 1991; 1990;1984); Meyer et al., (2001;1998; 1993; 1990; 1989); Rebeiro et al., (2020); Rode et al., 2016; Singh & Singh, (2018); Sivaji & Mala, (2020); Yukongdi & Shrestha, (2020) Watanabe & Takahashi, (2019)
Continuance commitment	It is the employee's perceptions of the benefits (pay, social networks, prestige) that may be forfeited when one leaves the organisation. Additionally, continuance commitment is the strongest and deepest feeling to stay in the organisation because the employee does not want to go through the inconvenience of looking for another job and losing all the lucrative benefits.	Alansaari et al., (2019); Alsughayir, (2021); Bihani et al., 2019; Coetzee et al., (2019); Dinc et al., (2020); Gatrell & Cooper, (2016); Ha, Hai & Tien, (2018); Jayasingam et al., (2016) Koc, (2018); Masrukhin, (2020); Meyer et al., (1998; 1993); Putra et al., (2020); Sloan et al., 2017; Svanberg & Ohman, (2016).
Normative commitment	It is recognition, loyalty, moral obligation and	Alkahtani et al., 2021; Bihani et al., (2019); Cohen & Abd El Majid, (2020); Masud &

	dedication towards workplace and one's job.	Daud, (2019); Ibidunnia et al., (2018); Meyer & Allen, (1997; 1991; 1984); Paul et al., (2016); Pranitasari, (2020) Rustamadji & Omar, 2019)
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Source: Author's own compilation

A possible limitation of Meyer and Allen's (1990) three-component model of commitment is that it gave a comprehensive explanation how the affective, continuance and normative commitment can retain talented employees, but did not clearly outline holistic and robust retention strategies to end this "war" for talent, and this is what motivated the researcher to do the current research. The model did not provide the desired retention strategies to assist organisations to fight the "war for talent". The model was designed thirty-two years ago, seven years before the "war for talent" that was coined by Hankins (1997) to date is still raging on, most organisations are failing to attract and retain top talent, and most organisations are not getting it right, after using this model for thirty-two years (Keller & Meaney, 2017; Manjiri, 2023; Postulka, 2022). This model has failed to provide the answers and solutions to this problem, it did not end the "war for talent" not even curbing it, neither does the current research claim to end the "war for talent", but has developed holistic and robust strategic retention policies that will inspire the organisations to get it right. Also, this model is anxious and might not be moving with the signs of the time, especially in the current business world of artificial intelligence, robotics and highly powered technological machines (Keller & Meaney, 2017; Manjiri, 2023). Conclusively, the unique and diverse theoretical models of organisational commitment were detailed. Additional related older theories that assisted in comprehending organisational commitment were recognised and mentioned. Meyer and Allen's (1990) three-component model was described in detail and the major dimensions of organisational commitment were summarised.

The variables that may influence the development of organisational commitment will be explained in detail in the section below.

3.1.3 Variables influencing the development of organisational commitment

3.1.3.1 Age

Generally, an individual employee will develop a technical theory of his or her organisational commitment from diverse sources, including formative pre-employment aspects and societal

influences. For this reason, employees from different age groups have developed various technical theories with regard to their workplace environment and life circumstances and events that happened during their adolescence (Adeniji et al., 2019; Jigjiddorj et al., 2021). Several researchers concluded that older employees are more dedicated to the organisation because they have devoted their time and energy to the organisation and their turnover intention decreases with tenure (Adeniji et al., 2019; Alenazi et al., 2019; Yukongdi & Shrestha, 2020). Younger employees, on the other hand, might be more inclined to resign only after a few years of service because they are still climbing the career ladder. Dung et al.'s (2019) research postulated that older individuals are more normatively and affectively dedicated to their organisations because they have internalised the social norms, values, and a sense of gratitude to the organisation and the fear of looking for another job. Several studies concluded that there is a positive correlation between age and organisational commitment (Alenazi et al., 2019; Jigjiddorj et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2016; Robbins & Judge, 2017; 2018). The dynamic and profound relationship established here is that as individuals advance in years within the organisation, they became more contented with their jobs and all that the job entails (Colquitt et al., 2017; Ibrahim, 2019). Various empirical studies reported positive, although not strong, relationships between age and organisational commitment (Alghizzawi & Masruki, 2019; Eaton et al., 2017; Grogan, 2017). Meyer and Allen (1997), emphasise that the deep relationships between organisational commitment and age should be explained carefully. Several researchers emphasised that older employees have higher levels of continuance commitment, because they are aware of the difficulties they will face in finding a new job (Anggraeni et al., 2017; Grogan, 2017; Hansen & Kjeldsen, 2017; Sivaji & Mala, 2020). Additionally, empirical research by Ariyanto et al. (2018) concluded that there is a higher level of commitment for older employees. Research headed by Ariyanto et al. (2018) postulated that as an employee gets older, his or her sense of duty increases, thereby decreasing the chances of absenteeism. Even though most of the research studies agreed that employees advanced in years are more dedicated to their jobs than younger employees, Meyer and Allen (1984) disputed this and concluded that younger employees have higher levels of commitment to their jobs because they are faced with fewer job opportunities and have less or no experience. Tekingunduz et al. (2016) also emphasised that older individuals do not indicate deeper commitment than younger employees in the organisation. But research study by Ajayi (2017), postulated that commitments to the organisation are higher for the older and younger employees than employees within the middle age groups. These differences in empirical research results might be caused by industry or country specific factors.

3.1.3.2 Gender

In this research study gender can be defined as the characteristics, actions, behaviours and roles that a particular society deems appropriate for women and men. Gender should be regarded as a determining factor in an individual's dedication and commitment to the organisation (Alenazi et al., 2019; Zivkovic et al., 2021). Various researchers concluded that female employees are more deeply and seriously dedicated to the organisation than male employees (Alenazi et al., 2019; Haque & Aston, 2016; Kokubun, 2017; Zivkovic et al., 2021). Additionally, research headed by Alenazi et al. (2019) argued that even though men are physically powerful, fit and strong, they have a slow and weak mind-set and they are less task-oriented. In contrast, Murnieks et al. (2020) disputed Alenazi et al.'s (2019) conclusion by stating that men were more dedicated to their organisations compared to women, particularly in an organisation that needs masculine orientation. In the same thread, Tekingunduz et al. (2016) strongly emphasised that men have profound, stable and stronger organisational commitment than women. However, Kumar (2019) and Ariyanto et al. (2018) concluded that women employees are just as committed as men employees. Furthermore, Masud and Daud (2019) pointed out that the state of being male and female is essential in stating and describing organisational commitment. Masud and Daud (2019) went on to indicate that gender presents conflicting results. Similarly, Colquitt et al. (2017) concluded that women and men experience diverse socio-psychological realities in the work environment, and their levels of organisational commitment are likely to differ significantly. This is confirmed by Dung et al. (2019) who concluded that male participants seem to be dedicated to an organisation that offers them freedom to perform their jobs independently.

3.1.3.3 Race

Individuals from different race groups within an organisation have different perceptions and expectations of organisational commitment, conclusively, their levels of commitment will vary (De Beer et al., 2016; Reibeiro et al., 2020). Several researchers concluded that African respondents seem to be more dedicated to an organisation that offers them career development and advancement (De Beer et al., 2016; Noermijati et al., 2021; Putra et al., 2020; Rebeiro et al., 2020). Study by Dessler (2017) as well Dung and Hai (2020) postulated that there are important and diverse differences regarding organisational commitment and race groups. Cohen et al. (2020) emphasised that white participants showed high levels of dedication than the black participants.

3.1.3.4 Marital status

Married and widowed individuals are deeply interconnected to organisational commitment, because of their responsibilities towards the needs of their families (Chang et al., 2016).

Several researchers noted that married employees are more committed than single employees mainly because of their perceived family responsibilities (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Dung et al., 2019; Robbins & Judge, 2017; 2018). Several researchers concluded that marital status is closely connected to organisational commitment, since married participants may have more financial accountabilities towards their family members, than single respondents (Ahakwa et al., 2021; Chang et al., 2016; Dessler, 2017; Tekingunduz et al., 2016).

3.1.3.5 Employment status

Employment status is the period of service an employee has rendered within a specific organisation, as well as the experience this individual employee has gained in this organisation (Cooper et al., 2016; Dinc et al., 2020). Additionally, the organisational commitment of employees from various employment status might also differ (Ariyanto et al., 2018). According to Dessler (2017), as well as Robbins and Judge (2017; 2018) employment practices have drastically moved globally, showing that traditional permanent employment is decreasing and there is an increase in flexible, part-time and temporary contracts. Ariyanto et al. (2018) emphasised that, due to the increasing variety of employment agreements, it is considered vital to regard the effect of employment status, as established by the kind of agreement or contract with the employing organisation (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Callea et al., 2016; Cooper et al., 2016; Dewi & Piartrini, 2021). Pranitasari, (2020) concluded that there is a strong sign of a positive relationship between employment status and organisational commitment. Research headed by Dinc et al. (2020) postulated that permanent employees are fully affectively, normatively and continuance committed to the employing organisations. Dessler (2017) supported Dinc et al.'s (2020) view by adding that permanent employees are more dedicated to the organisation than temporary, part-time and flexible contract employees. The reason being that the permanent employees considered their job not only as a profession but as a way of life, unlike temporary employees who might be aware that at the end of the contract they will leave the organisation, so there is no sense of belonging and very little commitment (Ahluwalia & Preet, 2017; Dessler, 2017; Dinc et al., 2020; Robbins & Judge, 2017). Conversely, several researchers vigorously disputed the optimistic relationship between organisational commitment and employment status (Beukes et al., 2017; De la Torre-Ruiz et al., 2017; Eaton et al., 2017). Eaton et al. (2017) concluded that commitment is from within, therefore either permanent or contracted employees may perform or do their jobs whole heartedly, depending on their level of commitment.

3.1.3.6 Job level

The content of the organisational commitment differs among employee groups at different hierarchical levels within the organisation. This content will vary between managers,

supervisors and shop floor workers (Alsughayir, 2021; Dessler, 2017). Various researchers have concluded that organisational commitment is an unstable attitude and is prone to sudden changes from time to time (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Ariyanto et al., 2018; Cohen & Abd El Majid, 2020; Lee et al., 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 1989). Allen and Meyer (1993) went on to conclude that affective commitment is weakest in the first year when an individual is assigned to a new job in an organisation. Additionally, a logic justification for this scenario would be that interns or newcomers go into organisations with desirably high prospects (Ajayi, 2017; Gao-Urhahn et al., 2016; Masrukhin, 2020; Tekingunduz et al., 2016). Furthermore, it is in discovering and learning more about the organisation and the job, that the new entrant experiences the reality of being in a new position and the affective processes change accordingly (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Els et al., 2021; Grogan, 2017; Masud & Daud, 2019; Tekingunduz et al., 2016). This is the time that most employees choose to leave the organisation. According to Putra (2020) affective commitment of employees who chose to stay with the organisation at this phase, will definitely stay because they opted to stay. The study headed by Colquitt et al. (2017) concluded that there is a strong and positive significant relationship dynamics between organisational commitment and job level. Individuals occupying senior and executive management level positions are inspired, empowered and challenged to develop into unique and greater leaders who are fully committed to the organisation (Alsughayir, 2021; Dessler, 2017; Dung & Hai, 2020; Lapointe & Vandenberghe, 2017). Armstrong and Taylor (2017) contend that employees climbing up the corporate ladder are challenged to commit themselves fully to the organisation affectively, normatively and in continuance and thus continue to enjoy promotion. Job level might affect individuals' organisational commitment differently (Arasonmi & Aiswarya, 2019; Bencsik et al., 2016; Maia et al., 2016; Ngirande, 2021). Haque and Aston (2016), concluded that non-managerial employees have high affective commitment in comparison to managerial employees. However, research by Kumar (2019) noted that male managerial individuals had strong organisational commitment than their female colleagues in management positions.

In summary, the old and traditional models assisted deeply in comprehending the origin of organisational commitment. These old models also assisted in shaping and analysing organisational commitment. The three-component model of organisational commitment, developed by Meyer and Allen (1990), is made up of three binding forces (affective or emotional, continuance and normative) that closely bind the employee to the organisation. The fundamental model of organisational commitment is challenging organisations to realise that commitment is critical because it deeply binds the employee and the organisation and as a result this decreases employee turnover and absenteeism. It is paramount for organisations to extensively develop organisational commitment in order to profoundly support goals,

values, ambitions, needs and the accountability to stay. Affective commitment creates a profound emotional force between the organisation and employee. On the other hand, certain individuals might stay with the organisation, not because of emotional affection to the organisation, but rather due to the fear of the unknown. Individuals remain with the employing organisation due to the inconvenience of hunting for another job especially in the current unpredictable time with high unemployment rates and the possible loss of all attractive benefits. On the contrary, many individuals remain with the organisation not because they are happy and enjoying their jobs, but because they do not want to face the rough journey of looking for another job and the uncertainty of losing all the benefits. Ultimately, employees are obliged to remain with the organisation, because of the internalisation of values, norms, objectives, goals, vision and mission of the organisation. Employees often experience a deep feeling of owing gratitude towards the organisation. Research has concluded that age, gender, marital status and job level all have an influence on the development of organisational commitment.

3.2 THEORY AND RESEARCH: JOB EMBEDDEDNESS

The concept of job embeddedness will be explored extensively in the sections below. Furthermore, the concept will be conceptualised and the theoretical models discussed in detail. Additionally, the variables impacting its development and effect on talent management and talent retention will also be explored in detail.

3.2.1 Conceptualisation and background

The concept of job embeddedness has been in existence for almost two decades. The construct was first introduced by the American psychologist Mitchell in 2001. Additionally, Mitchell et al. (2001b) concluded that job embeddedness predicts more of employee turnover than traditional attitude variables. It is taken as a vital influencing construct between unique off-the-job and on-the-job forces. These are the factors that force individuals from leaving their jobs. It was also argued that job embeddedness is designed to further capture a more profound and comprehensive view of the employment relationship (Liu, 2018; Mitchell et al., 2001a). Employees who are deeply immersed in their jobs, are also embedded in their organisations and eventually most of them will have a good working relationship with their employers. This statement supports the idea that job embeddedness captures the employee-employer relationship. Mitchell et al. (2001a; 2001b) goes on to explain that job embeddedness is theorised as comprised of both work (organisation) and non-work (community) dimensions,

that mostly motivate and encourage individuals to remain with the employing organisation. Furthermore, organisational embeddedness encompasses both community and work, and the three types of affections namely: fit, sacrifice or links. The job embeddedness model of Mitchell and Lee (2001a) has six unique and interconnected dimensions namely: work-fit, work-links or work-sacrifice and community sacrifice, community-link or community-fit, (DeMathews et al., 2022; Holtom & Darabi, 2018; Lee et al., 2020; Mitchell & Lee, 2001a; Sablynski et al., 2004; Sieraadj, 2018). It is noted that these forces bind and keep people in their current jobs and organisations (Ismael et al., 2021; Monyaki et al., 2022; Uzochukwu et al., 2018). Additionally, these dynamic forces also bind the individual to the issues, people and location, work, family, friends, co-workers, community involvement, marital status, fringe benefits, health care, job tenure and promotional (Jolly & Self, 2020; Mitchell & Lee, 2001a; Pieters et al., 2022; Uzochukwu et al., 2018). It can thus be concluded that, because of these privileges the individual becomes enmeshed in the job and finds it difficult to leave the job (Chotigavanich & Sorod, 2020; Felps et al., 2009; Ghosh & Gurunathan 2015; Nafei, 2015a; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022; You & Zhou, 2018).

Several researchers concluded that employees might remain enmeshed in the organisation and the job because they are afraid of facing the challenges of looking for and finding a new job, moving into a new community and a new workplace (De Matthews et al., 2022; Liu, 2018; Thome & Greenwald, 2020). It will be difficult to adjust and get back to normality because of new accommodation, new friends, colleagues, new schools for the children and a new workplace. Ultimately this means that most employees might stay in their jobs for the wrong reasons because of the fear of the unknown and the ambiguity. Highly embedded employees will remain with the organisation because such individuals become involved in more than one project, they fit well with their job and organisational culture, and they are aware of the sacrifices they will make when leaving their jobs (Bibi & Jadoon, 2018; Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006; Maska & Riyanto, 2020; Mitchell & Lee, 2001a; Monyaki et al., 2022; Tian & Liu, 2018). It is therefore essential for organisations to implement job embeddedness models to ensure that employees are loyal, committed and better citizens of the organisation (Afsar & Badir, 2016; Akgunduz & Cin, 2015; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Moberg, 2020; Pieters et al., 2022).

Furthermore, it was concluded that job embeddedness is a collection of diverse and multifaceted forces that impact the employees' choice to stay in the organisation and can increase the employees' desire to remain in the job (Mitchell et al., 2001a; 2001b). For the purposes of this research, this definition will be adopted, because it is central to Mitchell and Lee's (2001a; b) Job Embeddedness model, which is the main model of the concept.

Additionally, in this current research, it was postulated that job embeddedness assists individuals to comprehend deeply why people remain in their jobs (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Gibbs, 2015; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022; Popaitoon & Techalertsuwan, 2020). Furthermore, various researchers suggest that job embeddedness critically assesses the reasons why employees stay in their jobs and has been associated with engagement, locus of control, job performance, job satisfaction, commitment and intent to remain (DeMatthews et al., 2022; Dirican & Erdil, 2020; Liu, 2018; Uzochukwu et al., 2018). Finally, the other conceptual issue that needs urgent attention is whether job embeddedness could actually facilitate leaving the job (Mitchell et al., 2001a; 2001b). Mitchell et al. (2001a) suggest that this leaving could happen in two different ways. Firstly, having myriads of connections might lead to being helped to secure a job via one's networks. Several researchers concluded that being deeply embedded at work might cause serious arguments within the work-family role that might lead to turnover. Naidoo (2018) also clearly indicated that job embeddedness might have both positive and negative effects on the organisation and the employee. At organisational level job embeddedness assists employees to stay in the organisation, but on an individual level job embeddedness could block growth or career development of the individual and limit their exposure to diverse organisations (Mitchell et al., 2001a; 2001b; Monyaki et al., 2022; Naidoo, 2018; Sun & Huang, 2020).

In summary the concept job embeddedness is built up and founded on six unique and closely linked dimensions that bind employees to remain with the employing organisation namely: work fit, work links or work sacrifice and community fit, community links or community sacrifice. It is posited that individuals who are highly embedded have myriads of links that are knitted together. The contrary is also true that those who have few or no links at all will be loosely connected to the organisation and will eventually leave the employing organisation. It is furthermore suggested that employees would be more tied to the organisation if there are profound fits between employees' future plans, career goals and personal values, and with the organisation's values. Conversely, misfits with the organisational values will lead the employees to terminate their employment faster than misfits with the community at large. However, the converse is also true, namely that most employees would stay in their jobs with both misfits because of the fear of facing the adjustments that accompany moving into a new job. It has been concluded that individuals who are deeply immersed in their work may perform at their best, work harder and absent less than employees who are less immersed. It must be noted that the above statements merit further research. Finally, the issue of whether job embeddedness could really facilitate one leaving his or her job needs attention and calls for more research in this area. The current research will go deeper in trying to ascertain the truth on this issue.

3.2.2 Job embeddedness theory

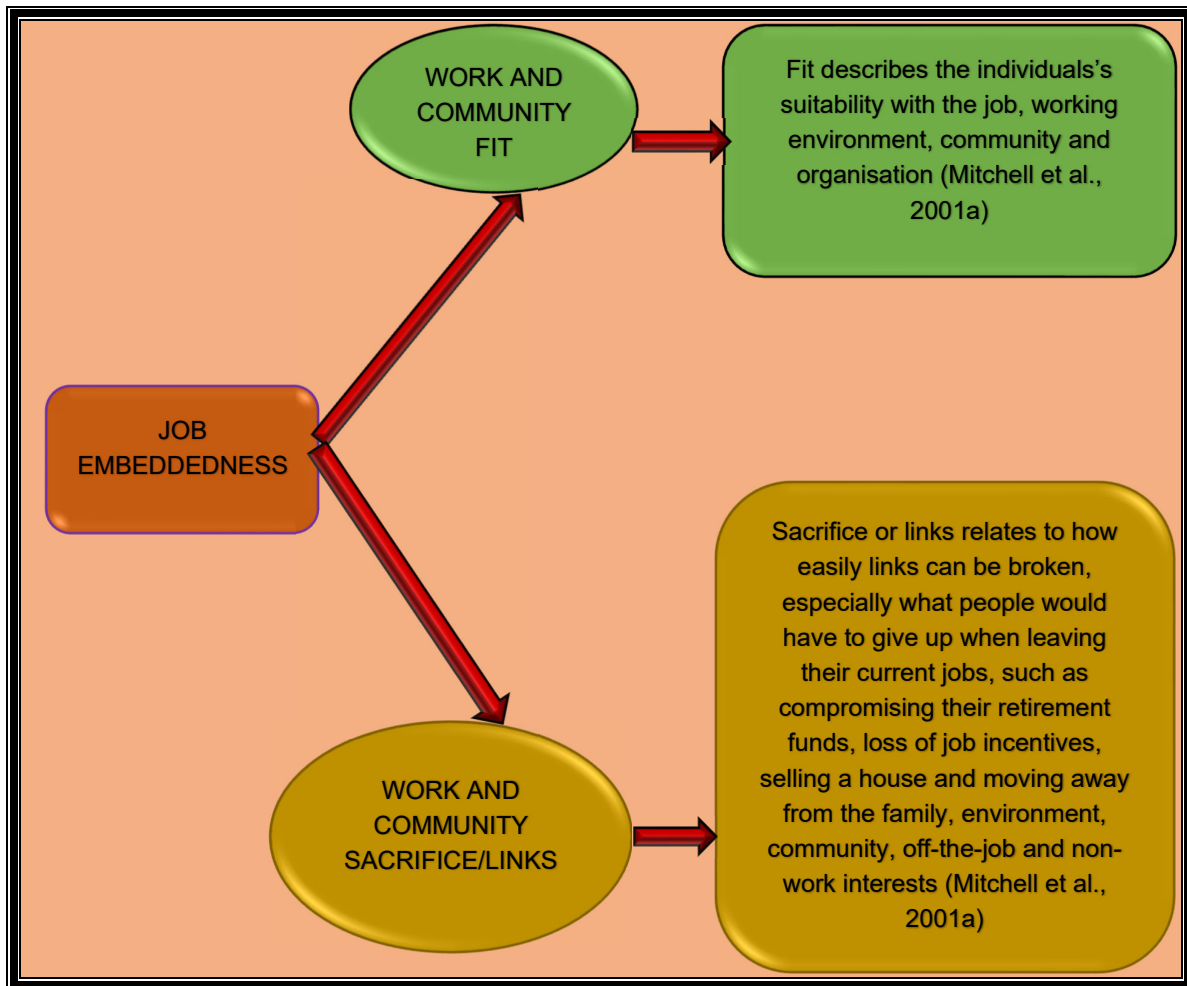
The current research study is based on Mitchell and Lee's (2001) job embeddedness model. Job embeddedness has proved to be one of the strongest employee retention strategies globally and within South African private sector organisations, because when the employee is immersed in his/her job it is very difficult to leave the job and the organisation easily. Furthermore, when the employee fits well in his/her job, and having strong links both at work and in community, it is daunting for the employee to sacrifice all this easily. Research headed by Mitchell noted that job embeddedness comprised three very crucial dimensions namely: (a) the degree to which an employee's work environment, organisation, community and job fit with his or her goals and career goals, plans, personal values and morals; (b) the degree to which individuals have close and unique connections to other people, family, non-work and off-the-job interests and activities at work; and (c) the ease with which individuals feel that links can be broken, retirement perks and job incentives lost, including the possible loss of housing and moving away from the known to the unknown environment (home, city or community) if they were to leave the job (Mitchell et al., 2001a; Mitchell et al., 2001b; Mitchell & Lee, 2001).

Figure 3.3 depicts the job embeddedness model of Mitchell and Lee (2001), in which both the connection between the employee and her or his non-job, social environment (community) and the link of the employee to her or his job (organisation) are strong indicators of employee absenteeism (Hashim et al., 2015; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Mitchell et al., 2001b; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Nor & Abdullah, 2020; Pieters et al., 2022). Research studies postulate that in the community and workplaces, an employee can have three types of affections: fit, links and sacrifice (Khorakian et al., 2021; Lashilew et al., 2020; Liu, 2018; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). Conclusively, with the two forces namely community and work, and the three types of affections namely fit, sacrifice or links, the job embeddedness model has six unique and interconnected features, namely, job fit, job links or job sacrifice and community fit, community sacrifice or community links (DeMatthews et al., 2022; Jolly & Self, 2020; Mitchell et al., 2001a; b; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Sieraadj, 2018). Highly immersed employees show a high level of non-work community and groups, interconnectedness with work colleagues, when the community and organisation environment are suitable for the employee (Borah & Heidare, 2016; Chotigavanich & Sorod, 2020; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Mitchell et al., 2001b; Monyaki et al., 2022). Conversely, not all employees will be brave enough to profoundly connect with all six unique dimensions in order to keep their jobs. Therefore, most employees might have to tolerate, accommodate and persevere in their jobs and organisations, not because they want

to but because they are not prepared to face the daunting challenges of finding another job. When the perceived costs are higher, the embeddedness is greater (Borah & Heidare, 2016; Lee et al., 1996; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Pieters et al., 2022; Thome & Greenwald, 2020).

Figure 3.3.

Dimensions of Job Embeddedness



Source: Mitchell and Lee (2001, p. 35)

The major features of job embeddedness will be explored in detail in the following section.

(a) Work and community fit

Research headed by Mitchell describes fit as the individual's compatibility with the organisation, her or his community and work environment (Mitchell et al., 2001 a; 2001b). This definition emphasises two kinds of fit, namely (a) fit with an individual's organisation – especially when the individual's personal values, ethics, morals, and goals are well suited with the employing organisation's value system; and (b) fit within the work community – especially

when the individual loves and enjoys living within her or his community. Several researchers concluded that when the employee's plans for the future, career goals, personal values, and morals fit well with the job, organisation and community, there will be greater job involvement, less stress, lower employee turnover and greater organisational commitment (Gibbs, 2015; Hashim et al., 2015; Holtom & O'Neill, 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001a; 2001b; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022; Sun & Huang, 2020). Previous research confirmed that these two dynamic features, namely community and work, outline the degree to which the work and community environments are regarded to be a great fit with the employee's interest, both outside and inside the organisation (Arif, 2018; DeMatthews et al., 2022; Dirican & Erdil, 2020; Jabbar & Mohammed, 2021; Park & Ryu, 2018). Research by Afsar and Badir (2016), as well as Nafel (2015a; 2015b) concluded that individuals who fit well into their jobs, organisation and community might be easier to retain. A higher fit indicates a higher embeddedness and ultimately lower employee turnover (Lee et al., 1996; 2004; Monyaki et al., 2022; Nafei, 2015a; b; Park & Ryu, 2018; Popaitoon & Techalertsuwan, 2020). According to various authors the higher the number of links between the person and the social, psychological and financial web, the more closely the person is linked to the job and the organisation and the easier it becomes to retain such individuals (Arif, 2018; Howes & Goodman-Delahunty, 2015; Moberg, 2020; Pieters et al., 2022). Lastly, Holtom and O'Neill (2004) are of the opinion that the greater the fit with the community and job environment, the more chance there is that the employee will stay with the employing organisation.

(b) Work and community sacrifice or links

Several researchers define sacrifice as something unique, especially what individuals would have to give up if they were to quit their current job, such as compromising their selling a house, loss of job incentives, retirement funds and moving away from the community (Hashim et al., 2015; Jolly & Self, 2020; Kiazard et al., 2015; Mitchel et al., 2001a; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). Fatima et al. (2015) and Lee and Ha-Brookshire (2015) further explained that the greater the number of things an individual has to give up when departing from an organisation, the more problematic it is to quit the organisation. The higher the perceived costs, the greater the embeddedness (DeMatthews et al., 2022; Kiazad et al., 2015; Nor & Abdullah, 2020). Mitchell et al. (2001a; 2001b), emphasised that sacrifices or links are described as deep relationships, both informal and formal, between an institutions and employee or community members. Ariyanto et al. (2018) concluded that links refer to the close ties of an employee to other activities and people in the community environment and organisation, family interest and to off-the-job and non-work. Research has indicated that the higher the number of links between the individual and the social, psychological and financial web, the more closely the person is embedded in the job and the organisation, and the harder

it becomes to leave the organisation (Erkutlu & Chafra, 2015; Ghosh & Gurunathan, 2015; 2017; Maska & Riyanto, 2020; Monyaki et al., 2022). Additionally, these sacrifices or links comprises of organisation, family members, family friends, groups, community and the physical environment in which the employee stays. The links binding the individual to the organisation (for example the total number of years an individual has been employed by the organisation) are different from the links to the community (for example when an individual feel that his/her way of living fits in very well in his/her community). A deep and strong work link is shown by a close and profound relationship with one's manager or co-workers (Crossley et al., 2007; Holtom & O'Neil, 2004; Pieters et al., 2022; Thome & Greenwald, 2020; Zhang et al., 2012).

A community link is indicated by a robust and profound relationship to close networks who reside in the same neighbourhood and spend most weekends together (Chotigavanich & Sorod, 2020; Lee et al., 2014; Kiazad et al, 2015; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022; Safavi, 2021). Mitchell et al (2001a) concluded that the higher the number of sacrifices or links between the job and the individual, the more profoundly she or he is immersed to the organisation and the job. The higher the number of sacrifices or links between the community environment and the employee, the deeper she or he is embedded to the organisation. Individuals have various unique links between the different stages of their lives. As it is extremely difficult to leave their job, organisation, community and possibly their home, this may deeply challenge some of these links and demand some crucial changes. Individuals with more and profound relationships are likely to experience higher costs, whether emotional, financial and psychological, when departing from their current organisation, job or circumstances. As discussed above, it is evident that some employees might decide to stay with the organisation, because of fear of risking their links. According to Holtom and O'Neil (2004) work sacrifice or link is when the employee experiences the loss of childcare or is due for promotion review if that is one of the incentives provided by the organisation. Additionally, community sacrifice or links is separating from a community in which all members assist each other or departing a top performing neighbourhood school (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004; Ismael et al., 2021; Monyaki et al., 2022; Tritt & Teschner, 2018). Mitchell et al. (2001b), concluded that the more an employee would have to sacrifice when leaving the organisation, the greater problematic it would be for an employee to depart the organisation and the community. It is therefore imperative that talent retention practices be implemented to increase the perceived fit, links and sacrifice for individuals with scarce and critical skills (Akgunduz & Cin, 2015; Ariyanto et al., 2018; Khorakian et al., 2021; Nafei, 2015b; Pieters et al., 2022; Qaiser et al., 2015). Ariyanto et al. (2018) emphasised that deepening these individuals' sense of job embeddedness by strengthening the factors and forces that keep them strongly immersed in their jobs and the

organisation may lead to better commitment levels and benefits to remain with the employing organisation.

Table 3.2 outlines examples of how employers can assist immersed individuals in jobs utilising the diverse features of Mitchell and Lee's (2001) job embeddedness model to lead their unique efforts.

Table 3.2

Job Embeddedness Dimensions

Dimension	Organisation	Community
Fit	Fit with the job should guide hiring.	Recruit intensively in local markets (minimise relocation).
	Hiring should be based on fit with the organisational values and culture.	Encourage stability between family life and work, especially by promoting job sharing and flexitime.
Sacrifice/Links	Supplying unique and personal financial incentives.	Encourage without requiring transfer.
	Supply specialised non-financial incentives (e.g., sabbaticals or unique perks).	Supply home-buying assistance.
	Assign mentors and coaches.	Give organisational support for community-based services
	Identify the importance of team achievements and reiterate team identities	Individual sponsorships especially sports teams in local leagues

Source: Mitchell et al. (2001a, p. 104)

In summary, Mitchell and Lee's (2001) model combines the unique and knitted characteristics of both on-the-job embeddedness (attachments to their jobs, work colleagues, work environment and organisation) and off-the-job embeddedness (attachments with family members, friends, social networks and their local community). The model distinguishes these

two dimensions as community and work and adds the two affections (fit, and sacrifices or links) which concludes job embeddedness as incorporating six dimensions.

An important strength of Mitchell and Lee's (2001) model is its appropriateness across diverse fields and in different contexts. The model is appropriate in a South African context, especially as the six dimensions that comprise the model are relevant to the South African private sector organisations (Bussin, 2019; Govender, 2019; Latukha & Soyiri, 2018; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). It is theorised that the six dimensions that comprise the job embeddedness model of Mitchell and Lee will energise, motivate and encourage employees within South African private sector organisations to stay in their jobs and organisations.

Mitchell and Lee's (2001) model is therefore appropriate for the current study. Firstly, it emphasises the importance of the combined and profound driving motivators that keep individuals from leaving the organisation. It goes on to reiterate that off-the-job and on-the-job motivators bind the employee to the organisation and the job, and this will result in employees staying in their jobs. Secondly, it measures the justifications why individuals stay in their jobs rather than why they quit. Karatepe (2016) affirmed this by postulating that it is a vital employee retention strategy, because it assists management to retain highly embedded employees.

A possible limitation of Mitchell and Lee's (2001) model for the current study is that it is one-sided, meaning that it focuses only on the positivity of why individuals remain in their jobs rather than why they quit, consequently the model failed to provide effective and efficient retention strategies to assist organisations to fight the "war for talent". This is what prompted the researcher to embark on this current research, in search of holistic and robust retention strategies. The "war for talent" that was coined by Hankins (1997) to date is still raging on, most organisations are failing to attract and retain top talent, and most organisations are not getting it right, after utilising this model for twenty-one years (Keller & Meaney, 2017; Manjiri, 2023; Postulka, 2022). This model has failed to provide the answers and solutions to this problem. This model did not end the "war for talent" not even curbing it, neither does the current research claim to end the "war for talent", but has developed robust strategic retention policies that will inspire the organisations to get it right. Also this research is twenty-one years old, it might not be moving with the signs of the time, especially in this high-tech landscape (Keller & Meaney, 2017; Manjiri, 2023). Ng and Feldman (2010b) confirmed that the model only focuses on the optimistic side of job embeddedness and overlooks the negative aspects of the model, this might render the model infective and ineffecient. Several researchers concluded that from the organisation perspective it is good that employees are immersed in

their jobs, because it will lower turnover rates (DeMatthews et al., 2022; Jia et al., 2020; Moberg, 2020). Conversely, embeddedness is not always in the best interest of the employee, especially because embeddedness can cause stagnation and lack of participating in career development opportunities presented outside of the organisation (Chan et al., 2019; Maska & Riyanto, 2020; Ng & Feldman, 2010a; Pieters et al., 2022; Potgieter et al., 2018). However, despite the limitations of the job embeddedness model, it was regarded relevant for the current research because its main focus is on why individuals remain in their jobs.

In conclusion, the construct of job embeddedness extends to the individuals' family members, friends and relatives fitting into the community and organisation and the community. Several authors concluded that job embeddedness is why people stay, it has three closely linked forces namely sacrifice or links and fit that are taken at two unique levels: off the job and on the job, creating the six integrated features as outlined in detail in the sections above (Mitchell et al., 2001a; Ng et al., 2007; Ng et al., 2005; Peltokorpi et al., 2015; Pieters et al., 2022; Thome & Greenwald, 2020). Nafei (2015a; 2015b) postulated that even though community embeddedness might be more vital when the individual is relocating, it might still be relevant in circumstances that require only a change in jobs. Furthermore, if individuals are profoundly immersed in their current job and organisation they may not consider employment opportunities that demand relocation from where they feel comfortable (Berg et al., 2018; Chotigavanich & Sorod, 2020; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Nafei, 2015b; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). It can therefore be concluded that job embeddedness suggests that the individual's connections with the community will influence the decision-making process leading to turnover or retention (DeMatthews et al., 2022; Hom et al., 2017; Jabbar & Mohammed, 2021; Mitchell et al., 2001b; Singh, 2017). Job embeddedness is associated easily with tenure, because time does allow for the development of strong links (Ayuningtyas et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Monyaki et al., 2022)

Lee et al. (2014) concluded that job embeddedness was found to be a strong predictor of retention locally and globally, across different groups of employees, among most countries and diverse cultures. Additionally, job embeddedness indicates off-the-job and on-the-job factors that retain employees in their current jobs and organisations (Jiang et al., 2012; Jolly & Self, 2020; Lee et al., 2014; Mitchell et al., 2001b; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). Wheeler and Harris (2012) cogently argued that job embeddedness leads to fully directed, sustain work effect and energised, which in turn results in greater job performance.

3.3.3 Variables influencing the development of Job embeddedness

The following section explore in detail the variables that might impact the advancement of job embeddedness.

3.3.3.1 Age

The belief that older employees may be deeply embedded in their jobs because of tenure, and the fear of searching for another job, the challenges and career development that comes with the new job might put pressure on the old employees to hold on to their jobs for decades until retirement (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Sullivan, 2017). According to Waston (2018) individuals who are older, are more likely to remain in their jobs than to quit, probably because of having more responsibilities and therefore they prefer maintaining their jobs. Ariyanto et al. (2018) went on to add that the main and critical concerns of individuals entering their mid-career stage (or maintenance stage), are to preserve their career achievements and self-concept. Sullivan (2017) noted that, middle aged employees have high and strong levels of job embeddedness, because they become fully committed in family financial responsibilities. Thus, individuals in their late-career phase may be less likely to depart their organisations voluntarily (Goliroshan et al., 2020; Nor & Abdullah, 2020). It has also been perceived that older employees are more immersed in their jobs because they have fewer employment opportunities and are no longer interested in career development (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Faisal et al., 2020; Sieraadj, 2018).

Contradictory suggestions have also been noted. For instance, older people may be highly immersed in their jobs because of tenure, thus being in their jobs for decades might make them fully committed, loyal, dedicated and this will result in them 'feeling at home' and, as a result, leaving their jobs would not be an option (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Sullivan, 2017). It is postulated in this study that young employees might change jobs not only because they are interested in their career development and have myriads of opportunities in the job market, but it might be because they are job hoppers, or they lack the fit, comfort with the organisation, and sacrifices or links with the organisation, job and the community at large (Arif, 2018; Safavi, 2021; Waston, 2018).

3.3.3.2 Gender

Women's careers are established differently than those of their male counterparts because of their different life circumstances. Female employees pursue various career characteristics from men as well as diverse career opportunities linked closely to individual reasons, career span or lifespan progression (Faisal et al., 2020). Goliroshan et al. (2020) suggest that female employees are more likely to leave their jobs, because of family responsibilities. Jolly and Self

(2020) added that 35% of female employees and only 17% of male employees left their companies after three years of service. It can therefore be concluded that, there might be a significant difference in the level of job embeddedness between female and male employees. Several researchers concluded that gender in the organisation have been found to influence decisions by individuals to stay in the organisation (Faisal et al., 2020; Mitchell et al., 2001a; 2001b).

3.3.3.3 Race

Individuals from different race groups within an organisation have diverse needs, perceptions and expectations. Furthermore, there is a need for further research into the essential elements of the organisational commitment for employees from different race groups (Latukha, 2016; Mokgojwa et al., 2017). Several researchers argue that legislations and favourable labour markets have promoted the movement of previously disadvantaged and non-white groups across organisations and industries in most South African private sector organisations (Latukha, 2016; Mokgojwa et al., 2017; Muthusamy, 2018). Ariyanto et al. (2018) did not find important differences between the different race groups. On the other hand, (Muthusamy, 2018) concluded that black African respondents in the service industry appear to be more committed to an organisation that provides them with the opportunity to express their sense of service or dedication to the people component of the business. Research by Sullivan (2017) as well as Sieraadj (2018) postulated that there are significant differences between race groups and embeddedness. White respondents recorded higher levels of organisational and job embeddedness than their black African counterparts who indicated robust links with the community (Holtom & Darabi, 2018; Sieraadj, 2018; Sullivan, 2017).

3.3.3.4 Marital status

Employees who are married are challenged and motivated to remain in their jobs because of the many challenges and accountabilities that comes with being married (Shah et al., 2020). Research headed by Ariyanto posited that married individuals with children requiring care are more likely to remain in their jobs, because of the responsibility they are shouldering, thus they cannot just quit their jobs easily (Ariyanto et al., 2018). Nor and Abdullah (2020) argued that marital status roles might impact on what individuals think as vital in terms of job characteristics (childcare facilities, recognitions and rewards, autonomy). Most, if not all, married individuals with children would want to work for an organisation that provides childcare facilities (Nor & Abdullah, 2020; Shah et al., 2020). Ultimately being married might motivate individuals to be immersed in their job and be prepared to go the extra mile because of family responsibilities that come with being married and having school going children.

3.3.3.5 Employment status

The embeddedness of employees from different employment status differ, especially that a part time, contractor or temporary worker's job embeddedness will be very different from a permanent employee (Sun & Huang, 2020). Singh et al. (2020) emphasised that there is a strong and positive connection between job embeddedness and employment status (fit and sacrifice or links). Research headed by Ariyanto et al. (2018) postulated that most permanent employees fit very well with their jobs, organisation and community. They also have strong links to other people, teams and groups (Ariyanto et al., 2018). Holtom and Darabi (2018) go on to support the view of Ariyanto et al. (2018) by adding that permanent employees have a strong fit, links and sacrifice and it will be more difficult to leave the employing organisation. The reason for this is that most permanent employees take their jobs not only as a job but as part of their daily life, unlike temporary employees who might be aware that at the end of the contract they will leave the organisation, so there is no sense of belonging and might not even have fit with the organisation, job and community; links with other employees and the team, and eventually they will not have any sacrifices to make when they leave this temporary job (Sun & Huang, 2020). Conversely, Sieraadj (2018) disputed the positive relationship between employment status and job embeddedness. Furthermore, Sieraadj (2018) concluded that embeddedness is from within, that means whether permanent or contracted, employees might perform or do their job at the same level.

3.3.3.6 Job level

Job embeddedness will vary between the shop floor workers, supervisors, middle and top management (Sullivan, 2017). According to Dirican and Erdil (2020) embeddedness starts to grow in the first year when an individual is assigned to a new job in an organisation. Holtom and Darabi (2018) posited that a logic justification for this scenario would be that entry level employees enter into organisations with strong wishes of wanting to be successful and this then assists them in getting more embedded in their jobs. The study headed by Ariyanto concluded that there is a strong, profound and positive connection between job embeddedness and job level (Ariyanto et al., 2018). Individuals in middle, senior management and executive level positions are inspired, challenged and empowered to develop into great managers who are fully embedded and dedicated to the organisation (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Dirican & Erdil, 2020). Sullivan (2017) stipulates that moving up the corporate ladder challenges employees to embed themselves fully in the organisation and thereby continue to enjoy promotion.

Job level might affect individuals' job embeddedness differently (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Dirican & Erdil, 2020). In terms of job level, Sieraadj (2018) concluded that non-managerial

employees have high levels of fit with the community, job and organisation in comparison to managerial employees.

Conclusively, it is paramount to acknowledge that although job embeddedness is a causal, staying and retention concept, it also has negative effects (Jolly & Self, 2020; Lee et al., 2014; Stumpf, 2014; Tritt & Teschner, 2018; Watson, 2018). For example, Ng and Feldman (2010a; 2010b) found that job embeddedness has both negative and positive sides, because embeddedness can cause stagnation and lack of participating in career development opportunities outside of the organisation that calls for more serious research and consideration. Several researchers strongly suggested that there is great necessity to fully comprehend the negative capabilities and bad things flowing from job embeddedness especially when employees remain in the same position and organisation and are not able to diversify and expand their skills and learning of new skills. (Feldman & Ng, 2007; Hammida, 2004; Lashilew et al., 2018; Ng & Feldman, 2010a; b; 2012; 2013; Shah et al., 2020). Several researchers cogently argued and challenged the positive perspective of job embeddedness saying that from an organisational perspective, it is good that employees are immersed and as a result lower turnover rates are achieved (Nor & Abdullah, 2020; Popaitoon & Techalertsuwan, 2020; Sun & Huang, 2020).

In contrast it is not always in the best interest of the employee that they are fully embedded which implies that they are barred from freedom of movement and cannot leave the organisation, as this might cause unnecessary stress which can affect their wellbeing (Allen et al., 2016; Holtom et al., 2012; Naidoo, 2018; Ng et al., 2007; Singh et al., 2020). Allen et al. (2016) went on to emphasise that a lack of involvement in external opportunities can cause stagnation and eventually impact mortality rates and the mental health of the employees. Ng and Feldman (2010a; 2010b; 2012; 2013), as well as Ayuningtyas et al. (2020) supported this view saying that embeddedness is positive for the organisation, but it could obstruct career development of employees giving them limited exposure to the industry. Several researchers concluded that embeddedness could inhibit developing the diversification of their skills, expertise and knowledge by fully immersing employees into one organisation for a long time (Dirican & Erdil, 2020; Faisal et al., 2020; Ng et al., 2005; Shah et al., 2020).

3.3 THEORY AND RESEARCH: HARDINESS

The concept of hardiness will be explored extensively in the following sections. Furthermore, the concept will be conceptualised and the theoretical models will be discussed in detail.

Additionally, the variables influencing the development of hardiness and influence on talent management and talent retention will also be explored at length.

3.3.1 Conceptualisation and background

The construct of hardiness has been in existence for almost five decades. The unique notion and seeds of hardiness were deeply planted in 1970, due to the quest of how best to avoid stress and burnout (Maddi, 1970). Several studies demonstrated that hard attitudes together with Hardi social support (encouragement and assistance) and Hardi health practice (relaxation, physical exercises, medication and dieting) combined together provided and still provides causative protection against stress-related illnesses and moderate the stress-illness relationship (Kobasa, 1979a; Kobasa, 1979b; 1981; 1982; Maddi, 1970; 1987; Maddi & Kobasa, 1984; 1992; Maddi & Khoshaba, 1994; 2001; Maddi & Hightower, 1999; Maddi et al., 1996). Maddi and his colleagues went on to emphasise that hardiness extensively influences individuals' well-being, health and performance in the midst of stressful situations (Maddi et al., 1996; 2006a; 2010; 2012; 2017). Hardiness is defined as a design of three unique attitudes namely: commitment, control and challenge, and skills that give the ability and strategies to turn stressful and disruptive situations from potential disasters into growth opportunities for enhanced leadership, conduct, health, psychological and performance growth (Maddi, 1987; 2002; 2007; 2016). For the purpose of this research, this definition will be adopted, because it is central to Maddi's (2006) Hardiness model, which is the main model of the concept. It is postulated that stressful and challenging events are part of daily living, and hence, that hardiness as existential courage is needed in order to develop and grow, instead of denying and avoiding (Maddi, 1988; 2002; Maddi et al., 1996; 2012; 2010; 2017).

Employees with high levels of hardiness, dedicate themselves fully in whatever they are involved in; truthfully and honestly work as if they can impact the actions developing their lives; and totally accept that change is normal and an incentive for development (Azarian et al., 2016; Bartone, 1989; 1999; Ivaskevych et al., 2020; Kobasa et al., 1983; Maddi et al., 2017; Sandvik et al., 2015). Several researchers concluded that the concept of hardiness determine how individuals view circumstances and occasions in their daily lives (Azarian et al., 2016; Bartone, 2007; Britt et al., 2016; Dursun et al., 2022; Harooni et al., 2020; Maddi, 2016; Kowalski, 2018). However, the converse is also true - if an individual does not possess the three Cs of hardiness, their view of their life circumstances and events will be impaired. It is therefore critical for individuals to find ways to grow and expand their hardiness in order to gain motivation, courage and ability to change trying situations from potential disasters to growth and learning opportunities (Bartone, 2007; Bartone et al., 2018; Compton & Hoffman,

2020; Gravetter, 2016; Hossen et al., 2022; Ivaskevych & Mihaila, 2019; Kilchrist, 2020; Maddi et al., 2006; Woodson et al., 2015). Previous research found Hardi individuals to be highly determined, genius, intelligent, more success-oriented, highly motivated, hardworking, resilient and persistent, and are convinced that inter-personal problems, challenges and issues can be controlled and that there are no catastrophes, but rather normal occasions of life that must be utilised as an opportunity to develop and advance people expertise (Bartone et al., 2018; Kobasa et al., 1985; Maddi et al., 2009b; 2012; 2017; Maeng et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2021). Hardi employees possess a strong commitment in challenging events, a profound self-belief, strong sense of self-esteem, clear sense of direction and control that monitor daunting and unpredictable circumstances (Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020; Khoshaba & Maddi, 1999; Moradi & Shaker, 2015; Rodriguez et al., 2022; Woodson et al., 2015).

In conclusion, the concept of hardiness was conceptualised in the section above. Hardiness reflects individuals' personality characteristics that uniquely shield them from getting burnout and abnormal stress in difficult, unpredictable and challenging situations. It is this profound sense of commitment, control and challenge that assists in building and shaping people's view of events in their lives and helps in alleviating the negative effects of stressful situations (Bartone et al., 2018; Kobasa, 1982; 1985; Kobasa et al., 1981; 1982; 1985; Kumar, 2017; Malik, 2020). Life is saturated with experiences and events that inspire, challenge and empower peoples' ways of pondering, feeling and behaving every day of their lives. Throughout this interesting, tough and tedious life journey people are expected to fall, rise up with hope, learn and grow from these life events. However, many individuals are capable of going through life leaning on the three protective and comforting forces of hardiness. This means that some people will be able to cope with uncertain and unpredictable life events and some will not be able to cope. In contrast, those individuals without well-developed hardiness will not be able to go through difficult life situations at all, or they will live an unbalanced life. It is posited that Hardi-headed individuals view difficult and challenging circumstances as normal events of life situations that need to be managed astutely in order to grow into emotionally, psychologically, spiritually and physically fit and balanced individuals (Kulmiye, 2020; Maddi et al., 2009a; 2012; 2017). It was furthermore shown that hard individuals are self-directed, have strong self-esteem, confidence and control, and they face life's challenging situations head-on with vigour, hope and faith (Dursun et al., 2022; Khoshaba & Maddi, 1999; Nakamura & Tsuchiya, 2020; Woodson et al., 2015).

3.3.2 Hardiness theory

According to Kobasa (1979a; 1979b) hardiness is a multidimensional concept that was established by Kobasa and conceptualised from the research findings of her comprehensive research on supervisory and middle management. Hardiness is founded on existentialism and constitutes a set of beliefs that provide the existential courage and motivation to cope effectively, so as to avoid depression and anger, and get involved in Hardi, socially supportive interactions, leading the individuals to assist and encourage those around them or vice versa (Maddi et al., 2007; 2010; 2017; Sadeghpour et al., 2021). The Hardi-personality is therefore defined as a combination of the aspects of commitment, control and challenge which assist an employee to control stressful life events (Bartone, 2007; Bartone et al., 2018; Hosseni et al., 2022; Maddi & Khoshaba, 1994). Several researchers posited that an individual may be strong or weak in one or more aspects depending on the personality traits (Kobasa, 1982b; 1985; Khoshaba & Maddi, 1999; 2001; 2016).

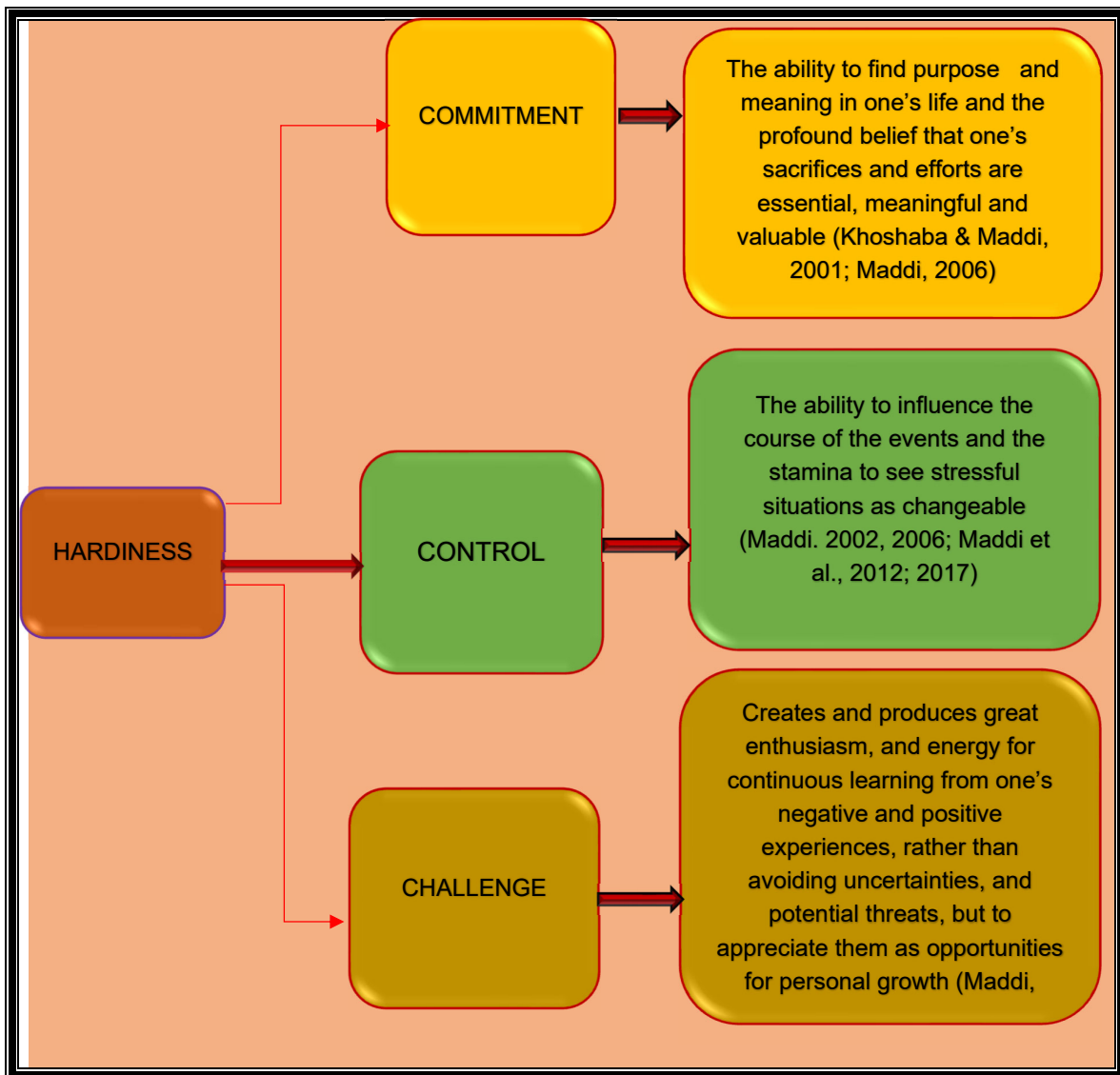
Research headed by Maddi further postulated that hardiness grows in individuals who are surrounded by individuals who encourage and motivate them to accept that they can change unpleasant situation into learning and growth opportunities and remain close to them to monitor and make sure that this actually happens (Maddi et al., 2006a; 2017; Maddi, 2002; 2004a; 2006; 2016). The contrast is also true, that if people are surrounded by individuals who moan and groan that life is unfair and tough, they make one lose confidence and hope, and thereby not develop Hardi attitudes. Maddi and his colleagues suggested that hardiness is further developed through Hardi health practices such as physical exercise, relaxation, eating nutritious foods and living a healthy life (Maddi et al., 2012; 2017). Many researchers concluded that Hardi training conditions were the most effective and efficient approach to developing hardiness (Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2004b; 2006; 2016; Maddi et al., 2007; 2017). Individuals are called and challenged to shield their hardiness by avoiding holding on to grudges, revenge, bitterness and self-pity (Maddi et al., 1998; 2012; 2017). Several researchers concluded that hardiness enhances and maintains well-being, performance and the health of individuals under immense stress, that might even lead to burnout and eventually death (Barton 1999; Kobasa et al., 1986; Maddi, 2001; 2002a; 2002b; 2016).

3.3.2.1 *The three Cs of hardiness*

The three Cs of hardiness (commitment, control and challenge) are defined as closely-knit, resilient attitudes that reflect profound beliefs, opinions and religious faith that influence the way individuals interpret challenging and stressful situations and events (Bartone, 1989; Bartone & Homish, 2020; Kobasa, 1979a; b; Maddi, 2004; 2005; 2006; 2007). Kobasa (1985;

1987) concluded that highly committed individuals strongly believe in the importance, value and truth of who they are and what they are engaged in, and they tend to get involved in various circumstances of life, that include interpersonal relationships, social institutions, work and family. These hardiness attitudes or behaviours and how they deeply enhance the performance and health of individuals are depicted in figure 3.4 (Maddi, 2006) and will be discussed in the remainder of the section.

Figure 3.4
The Hardiness Model



Source: Maddi (2006, p.161)

(a) Commitment

Commitment is the capability to find profound purpose and meaning in one's life and the accompanying religious faith that one's sacrifices and efforts are valuable and meaningful (Kobasa et al 1981; Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983). Highly committed individuals tend to fully involve themselves in whatever they are encountering, rather than experiencing alienation detachment (Britt et al., 2016; Harry, 2015; Maddi, 2002; Ng & Lee, 2020; Ogunsanwo. 2019; Rodriguez et al., 2022; Spiridon & Karagiannopoulou, 2015). Commitment is a deep, unique and internal, ability, courage, commitment and motivation to different areas of one's life, including interpersonal and social relationships, self and work (Compton & Hoffman, 2020; Dursun et al., 2022; Hystad et al., 2015; Kobasa, 1982a; Kobasa, 1982b; Romanova et al., 2019). Commitment is a holistic system of beliefs, opinions, religious faith and norms which aims to reduce the threat of uncertainty and difficult situations of life (Abid et al., 2019; Amlakian et al., 2020; Bartone et al., 2018; Hashemi et al., 2021; Hosseni et al., 2022; Sarani et al., 2015). Conversely, those individuals who are not fully committed or who are mediocre, will find it very challenging and difficult to find meaning and purpose in life and will not be fully engrossed in the activities of their daily lives. These employees might end up sinking into mediocrity, give up hope and perseverance and sacrifice themselves because of the loss of hope to do well in life.

(b) Control

Control is the ability to influence the course of events and the stamina to view stressors as changeable (Chightai & Rizvi, 2020; Fisher et al., 2016; Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2002; 2006; Maddi & Kobasa, 1984; Maddi et al., 2012; 2017; Rodriguez et al., 2022). Control is when individuals feel that they are influential (rather than helpless), confident, courageous and in charge in the midst of difficult situations of life and they feel that they can tackle the situation sufficiently and effectively on their own (Bartone, 1999; 2000; Bartone et al., 2015; 2018; Dursun et al., 2022; Falah et al., 2020; Maddi et al., 2012; 2017; Rakhami et al., 2020). Hardi-control encourages individuals to be energetic and remain focused even in the unpredictable situation and this inspires individuals to continue being involved in living their lives to the full rather than becoming detached (Hamre et al., 2020; Hosseni et al., 2022; Khoshaba & Maddi, 2001; Maddi et al., 2006; 2009; Sivrikaya, 2019; Puri, 2016). Several studies concluded that hardy individuals are highly committed, have a deep feeling of being in charge of their lives and they believe that trying to change or control a demanding and challenging life circumstance is part of their responsibility (Khoshaba & Maddi, 1999; Kobasa, 1979a; 1979b; Kowalski, 2018). Bartone (1999; 2007) noted that Hardi-persons have a deep sense of work commitment, control and life, and they are more open to change and challenges in live, proactive, adaptable and flexible.

In summary, a Hardi-resilient style person has a profound sense of commitment and control, courageously seeks challenge and variety, is adaptable, future-oriented, tolerant, compassionate, humorous and forgiving in the midst of demanding and uncertain situations, unlike the low-Hardi person (Babaei et al., 2020; Bartone et al., 2015; Bartone et al., 2018; Kobasa et al., 1985; Mazzetti et al., 2018; Rodriguez et al., 2022; Shukshina et al., 2019). Hardi-control deeply indicates an employee's profound feeling and ability to continue having an impact and control on the results happening around her or him, no matter how daunting and stressful the circumstance becomes (Dursun et al., 2022; Harry, 2015; Khosravi & Kasaeiyan, 2019; Kobasa, 1985; Kumar, 2017; Luzvinda & Saloom, 2020; Van't Wout & Van Dyk, 2016). Hardi-control motivates people to be pro-active, even in uncertain and unpredictable situations, and this will challenge individuals to be involved rather than helpless and detached (Ahmed & Singh, 2017; Hosseni et al., 2022; Hystad et al., 2015; Khoshaba & Maddi, 2001; Lin et al., 2020; Maddi, 2002; 2016; Sandvik et al., 2015; Sarani et al., 2015). The contrast is also true, especially if the individual is not driven by strong self-control and confidence. Such individuals relinquish control on the events around themselves, and will sink into detachment and helplessness and eventually deep depression and will eventually give up on life. It is postulated that individuals must stay alert and always be proactive and involved in the midst of difficulties and trying times.

(c) Challenge

According to Maddi (2002; 2016) challenge creates and produces great enthusiasm and energy for continuous learning from one's negative and positive experiences. Individuals who are strong in challenge view and accept stressful events as a normal way of living and they embrace them as opportunities to learn, develop and grow in wisdom (Kobasa, 1982a; b; Maddi, 2006; Maddi et al., 2009; Moradi et al., 2020). Individuals high in challenge are motivated to work tirelessly to bring about change in their circumstances and to practise answering to the unknown (Kobasa et al., 1981; 1985; Maddi et al., 2009). Research headed by Maddi concluded that they are able to examine their surroundings in detail in a continuous search for new and exciting experiences (Maddi et al., 2009; 2012; 2017). High challenge persons are characterised by tolerance, resilience, adaptability, cognitive, flexibility and endurance for ambiguity (Bartone, 1999; Bartone & Snook, 1999; Latif & Ranjbarian, 2020; Maddi, 1999; 2006; Sadeghpour et al., 2021; Dursun et al., 2022).

Hardi-challenge persons embrace and expect that life is changeable, and that change will support personal and career advancement and they accept difficult life situations as empowering and inspiring instead of as threats (Hosseni et al., 2022; Hystad et al., 2015;

Kazemi et al., 2020; Ko et al., 2017; Maddi, 2004; 2006; Sandvik et al., 2015; Sarani et al., 2015). It can therefore be said that Hardi-challenge individuals can continue living a meaningful and interesting life in the midst of difficult situations (Bartone et al., 2018; Bartone et al., 1989; Gond & Sharma, 2020; Kazemi, 2021; Rodriguez et al., 2022). This is an inspirational and empowering call for individuals to take every difficult situation as an opportunity to grow and change for the better. Hence, without the stamina to remain focused and persevering in the midst of tough and trying times, especially during this time of the Covid-19 pandemic that has locked the economic activities globally, Hardi-low individuals may sink into depression and hopelessness.

In conclusion, strong Hardi-attitudes combine to form strong motivation and existential courage to perform the hard work included in the hard-skills whereby one can master and control stress (Maddi, 1997; 1998; 2002; 2004; Maddi & Khoshaba, 1994; 2002). The three resilient attitudes of hardiness (as outlined in table 3.3) are essential in the current research, as these will be analysed and developed into robust and holistic retention strategies that will make up part of the psychological retention framework.

Table 3.3

Hardiness Dimensions

Dimension	Explanation	Sources
Commitment (vs alienation)	Epitomises those employees who are fully dedicated to and feel profoundly engrossed in their daily life activities.	Alexander-Stamatios & Cooper, (2016); Bartone, (1997); Compton & Hoffman, (2020); Gond & Sharma, (2020); Johnson & Christensen, (2019); Kobasa, (1987); Khoshaba & Maddi, 2002; Maddi, (1994; 2002; 2004; 2006); Sheard & Golby, (2007); Sethi & Singh, (2018); Yu et al., (2021).
Control (vs powerlessness)	Deeply shows the profound feeling to continue to have an impact on the results going on	Agustini, (2020); Bartone, (1997); Ivaskevych et al., (2020); Khoshaba & Maddi,

	around individuals no matter how difficult this becomes.	(2002) Kobasa et al., (1985); Kowalski, (2018); Ladstatter et al., (2018) Negri, (2018); Sadeghpour et al., (2021); Sheard & Golby, (2007); Shukshina & Khammatova, (2019)
Challenge (vs security)	Shows an expectation that life is capricious, that changes will stimulate personal development, and that potentially stressful situations are appraised as exciting and stimulating rather than threatening.	Bartone, (1999); Bartone & Homish, (2020); Dymecka et al., (2020); Hashemi et al., (2021); Maddi & Hightower, (1999); Khosravi & Kasaeiyan, (2019); Kobasa, (1979a; 1982a); Sebastian-Azcona et al., (2019); Sheard & Golby, (2007); Sinha, (2018)

Source: Author's own compilation

The important strength of Maddi's (2006) model is its relevance across diverse fields and in diverse contexts. Furthermore, the appropriateness of this model to the current study is strongly established founded on the data obtained from the literature review, because the main focus is why some people withstand stress and difficult situations better than others (Maddi et al., 1996; 1998; 2012; 2017). The model is appropriate in the South African context, and the three dimensions that comprise the model are especially relevant to the South African private sector organisations, particularly in this current trying time where people are losing their jobs, income and family members, and individuals need to hold on to their Hardi-characteristics. It is furthermore posited in this study that Hardi-attitudes will encourage, energise, motivate and empower employees within the South African private sector organisations to stay strong and to persevere in this difficulty time and stay in their jobs and organisations.

It has also been posited that hardiness is a strong source of resistance, such as a protective shield and those who are high in hardiness can effectively and efficiently confront problems and pressures of their daily life. The three resilient attitudes may have a strong influence on talent retention practices in an organisation, because they could influence whether or not an

individual would like to remain with an organisation (Bartone et al., 2015; Crossley et al., 2007; Maddi, 2004). Research studies have found that hardiness is a significant moderator in the stress-illness relationship. Studies by Bartone (1989) as well as Kobasa et al. (1982) acknowledged that hardiness can mitigate burnout and its consequences. Overall, hardiness is positively correlated with psychological and physical health by decreasing the unpleasant effects of stress and preventing mental and physical disorders (Maddi & Hess, 1992; Maddi et al., 2012; Sarani et al., 2015). Maddi (1987; 2006; 2010) also indicated that hardiness empowers and encourages optimistic views towards different stressors, since it promotes the courage to grow from stress. Consequently, hardiness leads to enhanced performance, leadership, morale, stamina and health under immense stress (Dursun et al., 2022; Jenaabadi et al., 2020; Maddi, 2002).

The limitations of Maddi's model (2006) is that as chronic and acute stresses increase, organismic strain may become so strong and prolonged, that it destroys bodily resources, and this will increase the risk of burnout and breakdowns in the form of emotional, physical, mental disorders, behavioural failures or spiritual illnesses. It is furthermore postulated that the breakdowns are most likely to occur (in spite of having high levels of the 3Cs of hardiness) because of the inherited vulnerabilities (from one's weakest genetic link) (Maddi, 2002, 2004a, 2006). Furthermore, the model might have failed to develop and sharpen hardiness into an effective and efficient talent retention strategy, to assist organisations to fight the "war for talent". The notion and seed of hardiness was planted fifty-two years ago, seventeen years before the "war" for talent that was declared by Hankins (1997) to date is still raging on, most organisations are failing to attract and retain top talent, and most organisations are not getting it right, after utilising this model for decades (Keller & Meaney, 2017; Manjiri, 2023; Postulka, 2022). This model has failed to provide the answers and solutions to this problem. The model did not end the "war for talent" not even curbing it, after more than fifty years of the notion and seeds of hardiness, neither does the current research claim to end the "war for talent", but has developed robust strategic retention policies that will inspire and assist the organisations to get it right. Also, the model is old it might not be moving with the signs of the time, especially in this high-tech business environment that needs new ideas (Keller & Meaney, 2017; Manjiri, 2023). This prompted the researcher to embark on this current research in order to sharpen the 3Cs of hardiness into effective and efficient talent retention strategies that will assist in the retention of highly talented employees in organisations. It was also postulated that empirical results argued that despite more than fifty years of research into hardiness, there are still unresolved issues concerning the nature of the construct (Maddi et al., 2012). The current study will attempt to shed some light on these unresolved issues by unravelling the concept deeply in order to find answers to these issues.

3.3.3 Variables influencing the development of hardiness

The following sections will describe in detail the variables that may influence the development of hardiness.

3.3.3.1 Age

Older and younger employees have different levels of hardiness, because it is believed that hardiness comes with age, different life experiences and tenure within the organisation (Kilchrist, 2020). Several empirical studies have reported positive and strong correlations between age and all three forces of hardiness (Bartone & Homish, 2020; Compton & Hoffman, 2020). Augustine (2020) as well as Kilchrist (2020) went on to emphasise that positive and strong relations between hardiness and age should be translated carefully. It is postulated that hardiness as a coping mechanism might be learned and accumulated through training, this means that it comes with age, life experience and tenure within an organisation, on the job, or life in general (Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020; Sinha, 2018). The contrast is also true in that young people with limited experience might possess the 3Cs of hardiness and take unpredictable and difficult circumstances as opportunities to grow for the better. Several studies concluded that older employees thought that they have grown into Hardi-commitment (Kulmiye, 2020; Ng & Lee, 2020). Various research studies have indicated that mature individuals have grown into deep hardiness as they age, that assists them to have positive health, zest, positive ageing, and positive coping strategies (Compton & Hoffman, 2020; Maeng et al., 2017).

3.3.3.2 Gender

Gender may have an effect on the perceptions of employees of an organisation as each gender appears to react differently to the three attributes of hardiness. In society males are generally believed to be hard and stronger than women (Augustine, 2020). The psychological hardiness level of tribal male students was found to be higher than the tribal female students (Compton & Hoffman, 2020; Sethi & Singh, 2018). It can therefore be concluded that tribal male students are psychologically more Hardi than tribal female students. The reason may be that tribal male students are given more freedom than the tribal female students (Compton & Hoffman, 2020; Malik, 2020). Malik (2020) adds that tribal male students received better opportunities in every field than tribal female students, so this may also make them psychologically more Hardi. Bartone and Homish (2020) posited that women have become accustomed to thinking about pain starting from their menstrual cycle every month, conceiving, giving birth, so they become patient, relentless and gentle. Conclusively, different tasks carried out by men and women make gender a predictor in determining individual hardiness, depending on the situation (Augustine, 2020; Bartone & Homish, 2020; Kilchrist, 2020;

Nakamura & Tsuchiya, 2020). On the other hand, many studies disputed the above statement, emphasising that gender can sometimes predict an individual's hardiness depending with the situation, but at times it does not (Asher et al., 2017; Gul et al., 2020; Haroon et al., 2020; Sethi & Singh, 2018). Women and men experience different types of problems, but men are more often dependent on substances, they suffer from physical problems and experience trouble with work and family (Gul et al., 2020). Sethi and Singh (2018) reported higher levels of hardiness in male students than in female students. Sethi and Singh (2018) as well as Ivaskevych and Mihaila (2019) pointed out that, because of their high levels of existential courage, males displayed a learned, growth-oriented personality style. Conversely, this perception is not true for all men, and arguably there are also women with high levels of existential courage who can change disruptive and stressful events into unique opportunities to grow. Some researchers have suggested that women's Hardi-attitudes are deeply rooted in such a way that they exceed the normal scale, going the extra mile in completing complex and vital projects (Gul et al., 2020; Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020; Sethi & Singh, 2018). Existing study has therefore indicated gender differences in hardiness, with male employees showing enhanced performance, leadership, morale, stamina and health under immense stress (Alexander-Stamatios & Cooper, 2016; Haroon et al., 2020). Furthermore, both female and male employees are likely to respond negatively to challenging and stressful situations, but male employees are more likely to respond by engaging in control whilst women will respond by engaging in commitment (Al-Rahim, 2016; Asher et al., 2017). Ivaskevych et al. (2020) concluded that women athletes' level of hardiness was average unlike men counterparts whose level of hardiness was high, but this depended on the kind of sports played.

3.3.3.3 Race

Strong racial differences exist between diverse hardiness and different race groups (Kilchrist, 2020). Ariyanto et al. (2018) reported that there are no significant differences between the 3Cs of hardiness and the various race groups. Furthermore, Compton and Hoffman (2020) found that black employees appear to be higher in Hardi-coping, Hardi-commitment, hard-control and Hardi-challenge. Research by Johnson and Christensen (2019) as well as Sebastian-Azcona et al. (2019) emphasised that there are strong differences between diverse hardiness and race groups. A study by Kilchrist (2020) reported that white respondents showed higher levels of hardness than black African participants.

3.3.3.4 Marital status

Marriage responsibilities and roles might influence on what people view as vital in terms of job characteristics. According to Jarwan and Al-frehat (2020) women in stressful and difficult marriages remain optimistic and emotionally calm because of high levels of psychological

hardiness. Jarwan and Al-frehat (2020) went on to emphasise that psychological hardiness subsumes the belief of these women that they can have control over their marriage difficulties, and that what happens regarding the aspect of their marriages is exciting and necessary for growth, rather than a threat to the marriage. Research studies have confirmed that married students suffer from roles with conflicting and low psychological rigidity (Al-Rahim, 2016; Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020; Johnson & Christensen, 2019; Kilchrist, 2020). Empirical evidence further revealed a positive relationship between conflicting roles and the low married students' psychological hardiness, mostly due to the economic situation and the duration of the marriage (Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020). The degree of psychological hardiness of married students was attributed to the duration of the marriage, monthly income rate and the educational qualifications of the husband (Al-Rahim, 2016; Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020; Salim et al., 2015). It can therefore be concluded that levels of hardiness in married women and men are affected by marital compatibility (psychologically and socially) (Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020). It was suggested that employees who are married and have children who need care are more likely to remain in their jobs, because the responsibility they are shouldering means they cannot just leave their jobs (Compton & Hoffman, 2020). Kilchrist (2020) argued that marital status roles might influence on what people view as vital in terms of job characteristics (childcare facilities, rewards, recognition and autonomy). Most, if not all, married individuals with children would like to work for an organisation that gives childcare facilities (Kilchrist, 2020). Ultimately being married might make employees to be immersed in their job and being prepared to go the extra mile because of family responsibilities that come with being married and having school going children.

3.3.3.5 Employment status

There is a clear distinction between the hardiness of permanent employees and the temporary, part-time and flexible contract employees and therefore their expectations and perceptions regarding their 3Cs of hardiness and employment status relationship will also differ (Shukshina et al., 2019). Gond and Sharma (2020) concluded that there is evidence of a strong and positive relationship between Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge and employment status. Research studies have confirmed that permanent employees are Hardi-persons with a profound sense of work commitment and control, they are flexible, adaptable and open to change and challenges in their working life and life in general (Khosravi & Kasaeiyan, 2019; Kilchrist, 2020; Ogunsanwo, 2019; Shukshina et al., 2019). Escolás et al. (2017) also add that employees who are employed full time are more dedicated to the organisation than the temporary, part-time and flexible contract employees. The reason for this is that the permanent employees considered their job not only as a job but as a daily lifestyle, unlike temporary employees who might be aware that at the end of the contract they

will leave the organisation, so there is no sense of belonging and very little commitment (Sadeghpour et al., 2021; Van Wout, 2016).

3.3.3.6 Job level

The three Cs of hardiness will vary between top management, middle management, supervisors and staff (Kazemi, 2020). Research has indicated that hardiness is not a stable force and can change suddenly depending on the situation (Chughtai & Rizvi, 2020; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2016). John and Christensen (2019) proposed that it is in discovering and learning more about the organisation and the job, that the new entrants experience the reality of being in a new position and growing into a Hardi-person who is fully committed in his or her job and life in general. The research study by Chughtai and Rizvi (2020) concluded that there is a positive significant relationship between hardiness and job level. It can therefore be concluded that employees in middle and senior management level positions are empowered and challenged to develop into Hardi-leaders and Hardi-committed individuals (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2016; Kazemi, 2020). Gravetter and Wallnau (2016) went on to emphasise that getting promoted inspires individuals to commit themselves fully to the organisation, to being able to control their working circumstances and being open to challenges and continuing to enjoy promotion. Job level might affect individuals' hardiness differently. According to Kilchrist (2020) non-supervisory employees are Hardi-individuals who are deeply dedicated, are more in charge of their work life and life in general than their managerial counterparts. However, Chughtai and Rizvi's (2020) survey concluded that male managerial individuals were reported to have higher levels of commitment and control than female participants in management positions, who were high in the challenge aspect.

Conclusively, it is vital to note that hardiness was rooted and founded on existentialism due to the zest of how best to avoid and curb stress, depression, anger and burnout in life (Maddi, 1970; 2007). Hardi attitudes combined with hardy health practice provide protection against stress-related illnesses and moderate the stress-related illnesses (Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 1970; 1987; Maddi & Khoshaba, 1994; 2001; Maddi & Kobasa, 1984). Hardi individuals are self-directed, have a profound self-esteem, self-belief, confidence and control, and they embrace life's daunting circumstances head-on with zest, hope, faith and love (Khoshaba & Maddi, 1999; Nakamura & Tsuchiya, 2020). Hardi individuals are emotionally, psychologically, spiritually and physically fit and balanced in all areas of life, and they are highly determined, genius, intelligent, more success-oriented, highly motivated, hardworking, resilient, persistent and compelling (Bartone et al., 2018; Kobasa et al., 1985; Maddi et al., 2009a; 2012; 2017). Research headed by Maddi concluded that, it is essential to note that although hardiness is a strong source of resistance, protective shield, moderator in the stress-

illness relationship, and prevents physical and mental disorders, it also has a weak side (Maddi et al., 2012; 2017). For example, breakdowns are most likely to happen (in spite of having high levels of all three attitudes of hardiness) because of the inherited vulnerabilities (Maddi, 2002; 2004a; 2006). Empirical research argued that despite more than thirty years of extensive research into hardiness, there are still outstanding issues concerning the nature of the construct (Maddi et al., 2012).

3.4 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

The concepts of organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness are summarised in the section below.

3.4.1 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment can be divided into unique and diverse theories that recognise the multi-dimensional binding forces, namely; affective, normative and continuance commitments (Meyer & Allen, 1984; 1991; 1997). Furthermore, the old and traditional models earned a special mention because they assisted deeply in comprehending the origin of organisational commitment. In the quest to determine whether the employee will remain with the organisation, these traditional and old models were pioneers in establishing how they developed, reshaped, rethought, reworked, refined, reintroduced and redefined organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984). The three-component model of organisational commitment is made up of three cardinal binding forces that bind the employees with organisations affectively, normatively and in continuance, and also motivate, encourage and empower employees to remain with the employing organisation (Bihani et al., 2019; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). The individuals become fully loyal, dedicated and committed (spiritually, emotionally and psychologically) to the organisation and become like family. The key model of organisational commitment is challenging organisations to realise that commitment is critical because it deeply binds the employee and the organisation and as a result this decreases employee turnover and absenteeism. It is paramount for organisations to develop organisational commitment extensively in order to profoundly support goals, values, ambitions, needs and the accountability to stay. Affective commitment creates a profound emotional bond between the employee and the organisation. On the other hand, certain individuals may stay with the organisation, not because they are really emotionally attached, but it might be due to the fear of the unknown. Individuals stay with the employing organisation because of the inconvenience of hunting for another job especially in the current

unpredictable times with high unemployment rates and the possible loss of all attractive benefits, because of the impact of Covid-19. Normative commitment compels employees under responsibility, accountability and moral concerns to remain with the employing organisation, because the employee has internalised the objectives, values, vision and mission of the organisation and cannot survive without them (Els et al., 2021; Mustafa et al., 2022; Singh & Singh, 2018). Continuance commitment ties the employee to the organisation because of the cost and risks connected with leaving the employing organisation. In contrast, most employees will remain with the employing organisation not because they enjoy their job, but because they are afraid of facing the cost and risks connected with departing the organisation (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Nam & Lan, 2022).

Organisational commitment further inspires, challenges and empowers employees to be faithful, trustworthy and loyal, and to internalise the organisational culture, values and goals thereby becoming a strong family member (Alsughayir, 2021; Moreira et al., 2022; Paul et al., 2016). Ultimately, individuals are obliged to remain with the organisation, because of the internalisation of values, norms, objectives, goals, vision and mission of the organisation. Contrasting results stipulated that those who feel out of place will find it difficult and unbearable to internalise the goals and values of the organisation. This might make the individual feel that they don't belong to the organisation and they will eventually leave. Employees often experience a deep sense of gratitude towards the organisation.

Research has concluded that age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level have a profound effect on the advancement of organisational commitment.

3.4.2 Job embeddedness

Job embeddedness was conceptualised as incorporating closely-knit binding forces namely: work fit, work sacrifices or links, community fit, community links and community sacrifices (DeMatthews et al., 2022; Holtom & Darabi, 2018; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Safavi, 2021; Sieraadj, 2018). It is concluded that these forces bind and keep individuals in their organisations and jobs. It is thus posited that it is due to these privileges that an individual becomes embedded in his/her organisation and job and thus it will become very difficult to quit the job (Felps et al., 2009; Ismail et al., 2021; Monyaki et al., 2022; You & Zhou, 2018). It is therefore concluded that most of the individuals might remain in their organisations and jobs for the wrong reasons due to fear of the unknown and ambiguity.

The theoretical models that have proved that job embeddedness is one of the strongest employee retention strategies globally and in South African private sector organisations were widely discussed. It was suggested in this study that employees might stay in their jobs and organisations not because of the right fit, sacrifices or links, but they stay because times are tough, the economy is ailing, and most companies are closed because of the Covid-19 pandemic. The limitations of the model emphasised on the dark side and the negativity of job embeddedness. It is pointed that even though job embeddedness is a casual, staying and retention concept, it also has the potential to affect employees negatively (Lee et al., 2014; Ng & Feldman, 2013; Pieters et al., 2022). It is further acknowledged that embedded employees might end up being stagnant and lack personal growth and career progression.

Finally, it is clearly outlined from the literature that being less embedded in one's job does not compel an employee to quit a job as dissatisfaction does. For instance, an individual can have a low level of embeddedness but be satisfied with his/her job. The current research must try to design a strategy to assist the reader to understand how embeddedness might prevent shocks and decrease employment searches, which may then increase the understanding of turnover in an organisation.

It is noted that age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level positively affect the advancement of job embeddedness.

3.4.3 Hardiness

In this section, hardiness was conceptualised as comprising closely-knit Hardi-attitudes of challenge, control and commitment that serve to lessen the negative impact of challenging and stressful life situations (Maddi et al., 1999; Maddi, 2006; Sheard & Golby, 2006). Maddi (2002) reported that these Hardi-attitudes (the courage to grow from stress) lead to enhanced leadership, performance, morale, stamina and good health even under immense stress. Researchers emphasised that it is Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge features that determine how people view situations and events in their daily lives (Azarian et al., 2016; DeMatthews et al., 2022; Kazemi, 2020; Maddi, 2016). Finally, these 3Cs of hardiness provide strong zeal, ability, motivation and existential courage to work hard in turning challenging and stressful situations from potential disasters to opportunities to learn, develop and grow in wisdom (Bartone et al., 2018; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022; Woodson et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2021). Conversely, those employees who do not possess the 3Cs of hardiness will not have zeal, ability, motivation and existential courage to persevere in the midst of life's difficulties.

Theoretical models that have proved that hardiness is one of the strongest and most important stress and burnout resilience concepts that will inspire, invigorate, empower and challenge individuals to change disruptive and stressful events into opportunities to grow were discussed. This will enhance employees' physical and mental health and make them strong to face difficult situations within their South African private sector organisations and also globally, especially during this time of lockdown and battling with Covid-19, where people are losing their lives in huge numbers, losing jobs and the economy is ailing.

Variables influencing the advancement of hardiness were deeply explored. It is found that age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level positively affect the development of hardiness.

The limitations of the model emphasised the empirical results that argued that despite more than thirty years of research into hardiness, there are still unresolved issues concerning the nature of the construct (Maddi et al., 2012; Ng & Lee, 2020). The current study will attempt to shed some light on these unresolved issues by unravelling the concept more deeply in order to find answers to these issues. Furthermore, over the years, a profound, diverse and rich main and central part of literature has developed, but it's very profoundness sometimes makes it impossible for researchers to recognise and find transparent patterns in the information. Several researchers have given superb qualitative reviews of the hardiness literature, discussing in detail the issues, patterns and problems, and which issues require more attention (Klag & Bradley, 2004; Lambert & Lambert, 1999; Maddi & Khoshiba, 1994; Pengilly & Dowd, 2000). The main aim of this research is to build upon those qualitative reviews and empirically examine the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness in relationship to resilience and career adaptability and develop a psychological framework for South African private sector organisations.

Finally, it is clearly outlined from the literature in the 3Cs of hardiness structure how an individual think about communicating with the whole world and how they give courage and motivation to do difficult and challenging things. Hardi-attitudes challenge and call individuals to be courageous and daring in the midst of challenging and stressful situations, to persevere and to continue living life to the full in spite of stressful moments. The current study must try to develop a strategy to help the reader to understand why some individuals resist difficult and stressful circumstances better than others.

3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The major purpose of chapter 3 was to conceptualise the constructs of organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness. The variables affecting the advancement of organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness were explained in detail.

The following aims were explored in detail in chapter 3:

Research aim 2: to conceptualise retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), in the context of talent management and talent retention.

Chapter 4 deals with research part of aim 2, namely, to conceptualise resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) in the context of talent management and talent retention, and to establish how individuals' biographical characteristics (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level) influence the development of resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

Chapter 4 will also deal with part of research aims 3 and 4, where the literature review is concluded.

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), as well as strategies influencing retention and the elements of the theoretical psychological retention framework that emerged from the relationship dynamics.

Research aim 4: To formulate recommendations for the discipline of Human Resource Management and specifically talent retention practices and make recommendations on possible future research based on the findings of this research study.

CHAPTER 4 RESILIENCE-RELATED BEHAVIOURAL CAPACITIES: RESILIENCE AND CAREER ADAPTABILITY

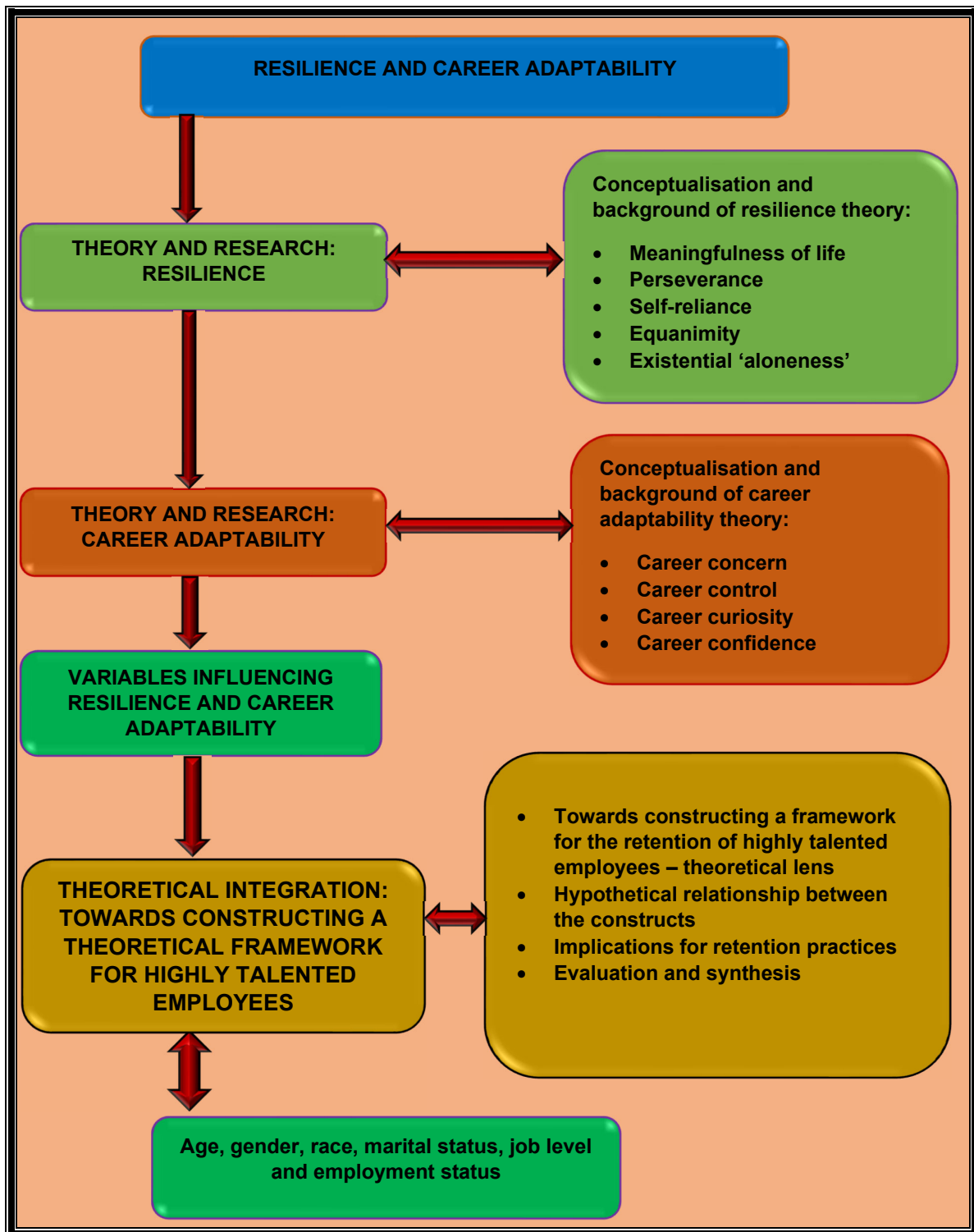
Keywords: resilience; meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity, existential 'aloneness', career adaptability, career concern, career control, career curiosity, career confidence; South African private organisations

Chapter 4 deals with part of research aim 2 namely: to conceptualise and explore deeply the two constructs of resilience and career adaptability in terms of the theoretical models in the literature. Resilience and career adaptability were selected to fall under resilience-related behavioural capacities because of the special and unique link between the two constructs, and how the two constructs can predict organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness. Resilience reflects how individuals adapt after negative events. Resilience brings positive adaptation, resilience assists and pushes people to adapt and resilience is the ability to positively adapt (Hartmann et al., 2022; Heredia et al., 2023). This will be done in the context of talent retention and talent management, and to determine how individuals' biographical characteristics (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level) affect the development of resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability). It also deals with research aim 3 namely: to conceptualise the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), as well as strategies influencing retention and the features of the theoretical psychological retention framework that emerged from the relationship dynamics. Furthermore, it explores research aim 4 namely to formulate recommendations for the discipline of Human Resource Management and specifically talent retention practices and to make recommendations on possible future research endeavours based on the findings of this research study. In this chapter, the constructs of resilience and career adaptability and the related theoretical models will be explored. The chapter concludes with constructing a theoretical psychological retention framework and an evaluation of the theoretical foundations of the constructs of resilience and career adaptability, highlighting the contributions and the limitations of this research.

Figure 4.1 below outlines an overview of the core themes of this chapter.

Figure 4.1

Overview of the Core Themes in Chapter 4



Source: Author's own compilation

4.1 THEORY AND RESEARCH: RESILIENCE

The concept of resilience will be explored extensively in the section below. The concept will be conceptualised, and the theoretical models will be deeply discussed in detail. Additionally, the variables influencing its development will be briefly explained.

4.1.1 Conceptualisation and background

The origins of resilience are contested. Resilience can be traced back to the Latin word 'resilio' literally translated as 'jump back' (Ageland et al., 1993; Engeland et al 1993; Frankowska et al., 1995; Hawley & De Haan, 1996; Hills, 1949; Masten et al., 1990; Sen, 1999). While the concept was already being utilised in psychology in the early 1940s, other disciplines such as sociology, physics, psychology, economics, medicine, political science, material science, engineering science and ecology have also been utilising the concept since 1930s, 1960s and 1970s to distinguish the response of material to physical stress such as force or change (Garmezy, 1971; Glantz & Johnson, 1996; Grimm & Wissel, 1997; Holling, 1973; McCubbin & McCubbin, 1988; 1993; 1996; Wagnild & Young, 1990; 1993; Walsh, 1996; 1998). It can therefore, be concluded that resilience was originally researched, introduced and defined 90 years ago in order to conceptualise how individuals adapt or bounce back from adverse circumstances (Aubin, 1990; Macgillivray & Grime, 1995; McCubbin et al., 1982; 1986a; 1986b; 1997; Rutter, 1985; 1987).

Resilience is experienced in two different unique ways: resilience as the capability to 'jump back' (to normality) from shock, disaster or adversity, and recover and positively adapt after negative events; and resilience as the ability to transform, innovate, and 'bounce forward', in response to transformed terms and conditions (Dettaran et al., 2002; Goodman et al., 2017; Grove, 2017; Halilova et al., 2020; Hezel et al., 2022; Van Breda, 2001). Conversely, this conceptualisation neglect to account for ways in which the workplace context encourages or hinders resilience (Hartmann et al., 2022; Kravchuk, 2021; Stokes et al., 2019; Stoverink et al., 2020; Vera et al., 2017). The current research will attempt to explore how workplace nurtures resilience and how at the same time it can also hinder resilience. Resilience is conceptualised as a personal trait or as positive mental health, such as self-concept, positive perception, academic achievement, and success at tasks (Aubin, 1990; Chang et al., 2016; Harooni et al., 2020; Heredia et al., 2022; Miller-Graff, 2022; Stuntzner et al., 2020; Yahan & Wenjie, 2021). Various studies noted that resilience is a group of behaviours that prompt individuals and communities to persist and move forward despite adversity (Bentley et al.,

2020; Brooks et al., 2018; Masten, 2018; PeConga et al., 2020; Quinton et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022). Studies by Barnard and Furtak (2020) added that resilience is continuing to show up and move on with one's life, even when one is at his/her lowest, engaging in adaptive behaviours while struggling and experiencing intense fear, anxiety, or grief. The concept gives an individual the capability to utilise their social, cultural and psychological resources, in recovering from adversity, conflict, uncertainty and failure encountered during difficult circumstances (Camp et al., 2020; Cunningham, 2018; D'onofrio & Emery, 2019; Hezel et al., 2022; King et al., 2021). Individuals with high psychological resilience can easily transform risky conditions into an opportunity for growth (Abe et al., 2019; Hartmann et al., 2022; Linnenluecke, 2017; Pessoa et al., 2018; Sagone et al., 2020). Conversely, individuals with low levels of resilience might not be able to recover amid of daunting and stressful events, and might not be able to transform risky situations into growthful opportunities. Resilient individuals are healthier, usually positive and optimistic, and have more mature, good and genuine relationships than the non-resilient individuals (Caniels & Baaten, 2019; de la Pena, 2016; Heredia et al., 2022; Kinay et al., 2021; Kuntz et al., 2017; Polizzi et al., 2020). Thus, resilience entails individual variations in response to risk and as such, it is necessary to recognise that people can experience the same stressors differently and therefore may require differing resources (Braun et al., 2017; Frei-Landau, 2020; Kuntz et al., 2016; Miller-Graff, 2022). Hostility, together with the lack of adequate resources or affective relational bonds and related secure attachments with those close to the individual might weaken one's resilience (Corlett & McConnachie, 2021; Gressgard 2017; Nadrowska et al., 2020; Pessoa et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2022). Research studies have postulated that resilience empowers individuals to persevere in the midst of difficulties, brings positive adaptation to significant adversity or recovery from trauma or adversity, and is a learned process that can help to protect against occupational stress and mental illness and to recover from stressful events (Amir & Mangundjaya, 2021; Gatt et al 2020; Halilova et al., 2020; Hezel et al., 2022; Jones-Bitton et al. 2019; Mary et al., 2020). Several researchers went on to emphasise that low levels of resilience to unpleasant situation places individuals at higher risk of developing psychiatric problems; with grief, anxiety, fear, depression and conduct disorder being the most common (Barnard & Furtak, 2020; Eken, 2019; Ford et al., 2020; Kravchuk, 2021; Moore et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2018).

Research studies conclude that resilience is the strength to deal with, overcome and adjust to traumatic experiences, rebuild oneself, grow and move on with life (Bene et al., 2017; Cao et al., 2018; Eisenberg et al., 2016; Hartmann et al., 2022; Nhemachena et al., 2020; Parker, 2018). Empirical evidence added that resilience is composed of trust, control, acceptance of change and optimism and it is a social factor that exists in teams and groups (Aldrich, 2017;

Heredia et al., 2022; Mary et al., 2020; Sakar and Fletcher, 2016; Seery & Quinton, 2016; Stuntzner, 2016; Yahan & Wenjie, 2021).

Resilience is defined as bouncing back to normality from a disastrous situation, and a pathway to recovery, the ability to positively adapt, transform, innovate and bounce forward in response to different conditions (Liu et al., 2017; Nilakant et al., 2016; Walsh, 2016a; b; c; Winblad et al., 2018). For the purpose of this study, this definition will be adopted, because it is central to Liu et al.'s (2017) Multi-System Model of Resilience, which is the main model of the concept. It can therefore be concluded that resilience is a multi-dimensional faceted concept that challenges, empowers, and profoundly touches people's lives at different levels and inspires them to live their lives fully in the midst of uncertainty and unpleasant situations (Al Eid et al, 2020; Bozza, 2016; Hidalgo-Rasmussen & Gonzalez-Betanzos, 2019; Massaro et al., 2018; Miller-Graff, 2022; Patriarca & Bergstrom, 2018; Quinton et al., 2021). According to philosophical and theological theories, resilience also includes ethical, spiritual and religious resources which enlighten and encourage people to proactively face unpleasant situations and remain robust and persevering in difficult circumstances through fostering their spiritual assets and skills (Alola & Alola, 2018; Bill, 2020; Collins, 2015; Harry, 2015; Marshall & Pichette, 2017; Rosa, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022). Fradelos et al. (2020) went on to emphasise that higher religiosity can act as a potential resilience factor in a specific group of people. High levels of religiosity will be associated with resilience and less depression and anxiety (Hartmann et al., 2022; Hezel et al., 2022; Kavcic et al., 2020; King et al., 2021; Kuntz et al., 2017; Rossi et al., 2020). Conclusively, resilience has a strong protective effect on psychotic experiences (Bill, 2020; Heredia et al., 2022; Kuntz et al., 2016; Rossi et al., 2020; Stokes et al., 2019; Vanhove et al., 2016). Table 4.1 outlines different facets of resilience.

Table 4.1

Different Facets of Resilience

Facet	Explanation	Source
Psychological resilience	A mental process and behaviour in promoting personal assets and protecting an individual from the potential negative effect of stress.	Becking et al., (2017); Elite et al., (2020); King, (2020); King et al., (2021); Liu et al., (2018); Moore et al., (2018) Niitsu et al., (2018); Sharpley et al., (2017)

Facet	Explanation	Source
Personal or individual resilience	An adaptive system shaped by biological and cultural evolution.	Chang et al., (2016); Kinay et al., (2021); Pessoa et al., (2018); Prince-Embury, (2014); Wadi et al., (2020); Wiig & Fahlbruch, (2019)
Community resilience	The emergency preparedness, mitigation or recovery.	Aldrich, (2017); Corlett & McConnachie, (2021); De Miliano & Jurriens, (2017); Kelifa et al., (2020); Paton & Johnston, (2017); Saetven et al., (2020); Wiiga & Fahlbruch, (2019)
Employee resilience	The dynamic and diverse way of functioning characterised by a profound sense of meaningfulness, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential 'aleness'.	Amir & Mangundjaya, (2021); Argyropoulou & Kaliris, (2018); Clements-Nolle & Waddington, (2019); Foster et al., (2020); Naswall et al., (2019); Schumacher et al. (2018)
Family resilience	The family's ability to cultivate strengths to positively meet the challenges of life.	Hill, (1947); Kalaitzaki et al., (2020); Kravchuk, (2021); Liu et al., (2017); Melamed et al., (2018)
Team resilience	The team's belief that it can absorb and cope with strain, as well as a team's capacity to cope and recover.	Chen & Bonanno, (2020); King, (2020); Vera et al., (2017); Yahan & Wenjie, (2021)
Strategic resilience	The extent to which a strategy initiative of the organisation either planned or emergent is capable of delivering it's expected results despite the presence of environmental risk and change.	Kelifa et al., (2020); Rangachari & Woods, (2020); Park & Kennedy, (2017)

Facet	Explanation	Source
Organisational/business resilience	The ability of an organisation to anticipate, prepare for, respond and adapt to incremental change and sudden disruptions in order to survive and prosper.	Djalante et al., (2020); Dojonckheere, (2016); Foster et al., (2020); Quinton et al., (2021)
Ego resilience	The individual's adaptive reserve, a dynamic ability to temporarily change the reactions and perceptions to meet the level of control in response to the environmental context.	King, (2020); King et al., (2021); Oshio et al., (2018); Sriyono et al., (2020); Theron, (2020);
Trait resilience	Associated with many other psychological resources, such as life satisfaction, tranquillity and optimism.	Kinay et al., (2021); Lock et al., (2019); Ruiz et al., (2020); Soonthornchaiya, (2020)
Spiritual/religious resilience	The ability to recover the emotional, psychological and physical strength required to adjust to adversity, or a traumatic change.	Bentley et al., (2020); Corlett & McConnachie, (2021); Crane & Searle, (2016); Galt et al., (2020)
Generic resilience	Properties, robustness, rapidity, redundancy and resourcefulness.	Amir & Mangundjaya, (2021); Frei-Landau, (2020); Jones-Bitton et al., (2019)
Emotional resilience	Emotional stability.	Kravchuk, (2021); Nishimi et al., (2020); Parker, (2018); Ruiz et al., (2020)
Career resilience	Career stability and career success.	D'onofrio & Emery, (2019); Kelifa et al., (2020); Yahan & Wenjie, (2021)
Cultural resilience	The consideration of how cultural background (i.e., culture, cultural values,	Chadwick & Raver, (2018); Kalaitzaki et al., (2020);

Facet	Explanation	Source
	language, customs, norms) helps individuals and communities overcome adversity.	Parker, (2018); Quinton et al., (2021)
Human resilience	Embedded in relationships and social support.	Blay, (2018); D'onofrio & Emery, (2019); King et al., (2021); Wadi et al., (2020)

Source: Author's own compilation

Conclusively, the concept of resilience was conceptualised in the section above. Resilience profoundly reflects how individuals adapt or bounce back from daunting situations. Several researchers noted that resilience is positive perception, self-concept, achievements and success, and it motivates and lead individuals to success (Crane et al., 2018; Heredia et al., 2022; Matthews, 2015; Pe Conga et al., 2020). This means that resilience prompts and pushes individuals, families and communities to persist and move forward in the midst of adversity (King et al., 2021; Rodriguez-Sanchez & Salanova, 2017; Saetven et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022). In the midst of daunting situations resilience is continuing to persevere, show up and move on with life by engaging in adaptive behaviours, even when one is at his/her lowest (Biri, 2020; Kinay et al., 2021; Miller-Graff, 2022; Mpofu et al., 2020; Rook et al., 2018; Vera et al., 2020). While struggling and experiencing intense fear, anxiety or grief, resilience motivates and encourages individuals to live life to the fullest in the midst of adversity (Barnard & Furtak, 2020; Hezel et al., 2022; Nhemachena et al., 2020; Pambudi et al., 2019). Resilience protects against the negative effects of stress, and protects against the negative mental health outcomes (Delle & Searle, 2020; Elite et al., 2020; Hartmann et al., 2022; Theron, 2020). Resilient individuals are healthier, usually positive and optimistic, and have more mature, good and genuine relationships than individuals showing lower levels of resilience (Adini et al., 2017; Chi-Wai et al., 2018; Ford et al., 2020; Gong, 2020; Heredia et al., 2022; Van Breda, 2018). Conversely, individuals indicating lower levels of resilience are at higher risk of developing psychiatric problems; with fear, anxiety, grief, depression and conduct disorder being the most common (Eken, 2019; Liu et al., 2017; Miller-Graff, 2022; Mpofu et al., 2020; Van Breda, 2018). However, lack of enough resources, hostility, lack of effective relational bonds and related secure attachments with those close to the individuals might weaken their resilience (Corlett & McConnachie, 2021; Marie et al., 2018; Pessoa et al., 2018; Sagone et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022). Ultimately, resilience is the strength to cope with and overcome circumstances, grow and move on with life.

4.1.2 Resilience theory

For the purpose of this study, Liu et al., (2017)'s Multi-System Model of Resilience (MSMR) is discussed.

4.1.2.1 Liu et al.'s Multi-System Model of Resilience (MSMR) (Liu et al., 2017)

Rather than trauma-contingent, the Multi-System Model of Resilience contains a comprehensive and global range of resilience that is not limited to any situation, event, or results, thus allowing a unique, wide, diverse, multi-faceted and multi-dimensional model of resilience as part of daily functioning (Cadier et al., 2020; Hezel et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2017; Tonkin, 2016; Unga, 2019). This model provides the recognition and examination of both global and situational resilience that is not risk-driven and stated on the experience of trauma (Fradelos et al., 2020; Hartmann et al., 2022; Masten, 2018; Nadat, 2019; Neenan, 2017; Teng, 2017). The MSMR builds on the strengths of past models that are more grounded in the communities, personal family and individual, and that depends on the belief that resilience should not exist within a vacuum; rather, it is a unique two-way process between trauma and inter-individual, intra-individual, and socio-ecological factors (Heredia et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2017; Revell & Dinnie, 2018; Sommer et al., 2016; Stoverink et al., 2020). The MSMR is a direct integration and extension of existing old models and approaches to studying resilience (Hills, 1949; Mancini & Bonanno, 2009; McCubbin & McCubbin, 1988; 1993; 1996; Prince-Embury, 2014; Wagnild & Young, 1990; Walsh, 1996).

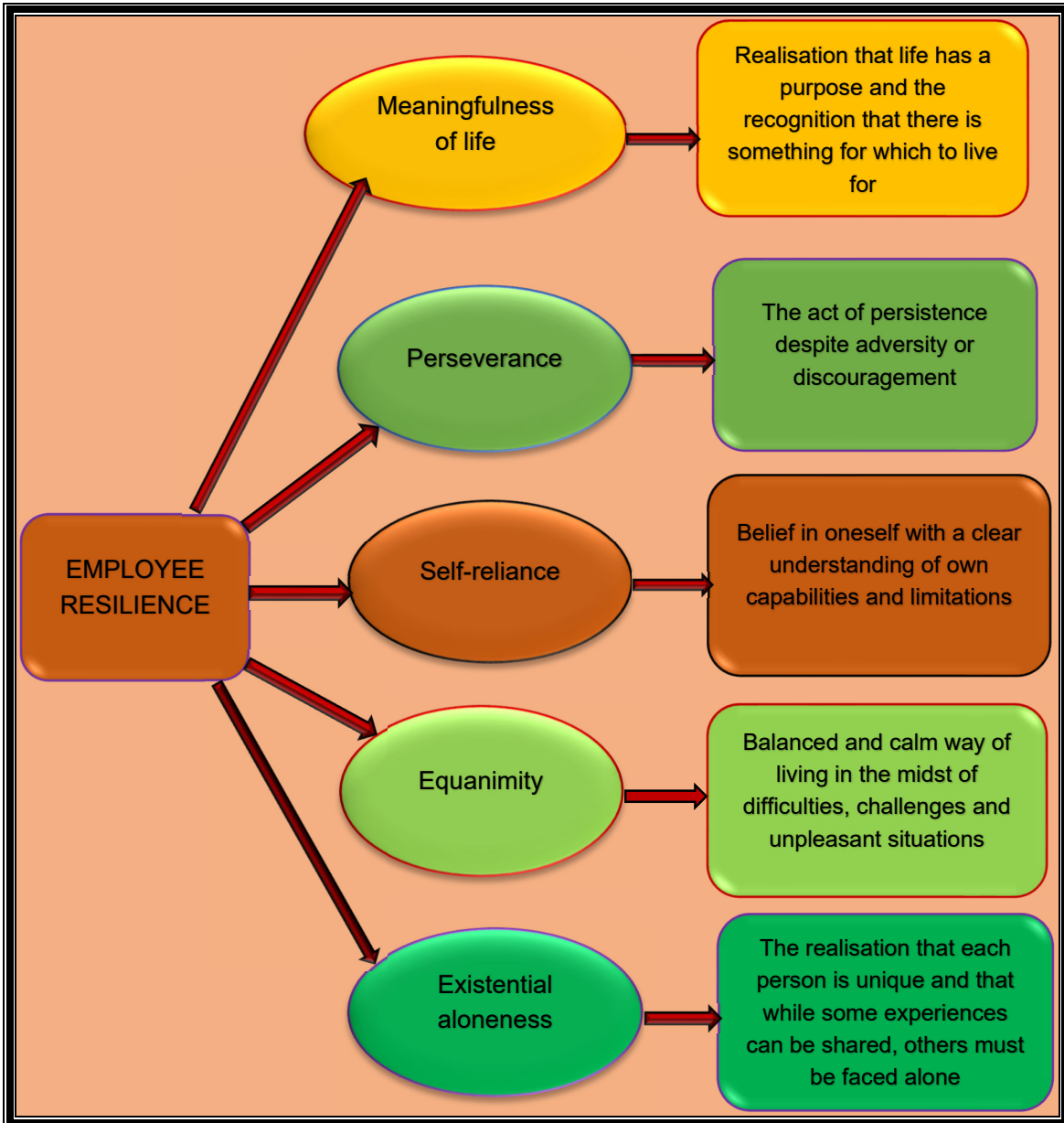
The MSMR recognises the two-way nature of resilience through three-tiered spherical structures namely employee resilience (core resilience); external resilience (socio-ecological indicators of resilience) and internal resilience (interpersonal indicators of resilience) (Al Eid et al., 2020; Bozdog, 2020; Gong, 2020; Miller-Graff, 2022). The current study will focus on core resilience that constitutes employee resilience. For the purpose of this current study, Wagnild and Young's (1990; 2009) five important characteristics that constitute employee resilience within the MSMR are explored in the sections below.

Liu et al. (2017) contributed hugely to the resilience literature by combining all the old models and devising an advanced and integrative multi-system model. Liu et al.'s (2017) multi-system model of resilience (MSMR) was carefully selected for this study, because it has been built and founded on myriads of tried and tested older models, and the models have undergone profound empirical evaluation to date. Additionally, the five closely knitted characteristics of employee resilience can be experienced in unique ways that will help individuals to bounce back from daunting situations (1) meaningfulness of life; (2) perseverance; (3) self-reliance;

(4) equanimity; and (5) existential aloneness (Wagnild & Young, 1990). Figure 4.2 describes in detail the profound relationship between the five characteristics of employee resilience on individuals to assist in comprehending resilience more deeply.

Figure 4.2

Multi-system Model of Resilience



Source : Liu et al., (2017, p. 6)

4.1.2.2 *Employee resilience (Core resilience)*

Researchers such as Liu et al. (2017) and Naswall et al. (2013) concluded that employee resilience is a developable positive psychological capacity that assists individuals to adapt and deal with, and bounce back from unpleasant situations, destabilising events, tragedy and severe traumatic change, failure or even increased responsibility, progress and positive events. Employee resilience is a personality feature that monitors the negative effects of stress and encourages adaptation (Brown et al., 2019; Fisher et al., 2016; Gong, 2020; Mckinley et al., 2019; Naswall et al., 2015; Sherlock-Story, 2016; Zhang et al., 2022). Several researchers have emphasised that employee resilience is attributed to strong and adaptive individuals who in the midst of difficult and challenging situations are able to adjust and return balance to their lives and prevent the potentially harmful impacts of stress (Altay et al., 2017; Amir & Mangundjaya, 2021; Hezel et al., 2022; Shoss et al., 2016; Wadi et al., 2020; Wolf et al., 2018). Heydarpour et al. (2018) and Hutcheon (2015) concur with these findings by adding that employee resilience focuses attention on constructive change, mastery, restorative powers, and the potential for development that remains existing within very daunting situations. Conversely, other researchers concluded that in a study of medical staff, some physicians still exhibited evidence of exhaustion, frustrations and burnout despite having high levels of resilience (Anasori et al., 2020; Foster et al., 2020; Hartmann et al., 2022; Kravchuk, 2021; Mckinley et al., 2020; O'Herlihy, 2016; Riekie, 2016). According to Halliday (2018) and Wolf et al. (2018) resilient employees have a clear and strong sense of direction and purpose in their lives. Resilient employees are productive, tenacious, always persevering and stay within the employing organisation (Bach, 2015; Bozdog, 2020; Heredia et al., 2018; Le Bris et al., 2018; Lock et al., 2019; Rurz et al., 2020; Singh-Petersen et al., 2015). Liu et al. (2017) added that resilient employees are able to engage new experiences and knowledge and enter into profound relationships with others, and they cope very well with change. Altay et al. (2017) and Berenbaum (2018) concur with these findings by adding that resilient individuals are more likely to encounter positive emotions even in the midst of difficult circumstances. It is essential for organisations to develop learning-oriented, collaborative and supportive work environment to promote employee resilience, in order to be able to keep resilient and highly talented employees (Bene & Doyen, 2017; Bill, 2020; Campbell-Sills et al., 2017; Miller-Graff, 2022; Naswall et al., 2015; Yahan & Wenjie, 2021).

Employee resilience explains a dynamic and diverse way of functioning, characterised by a profound sense of meaningfulness, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential 'aloneness' that help employees to live, succeed in life and to develop despite challenging and unpleasant situations (Ingrisch & Bahn, 2018; Lissoni et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2017; Meekes & Hassink, 2017; Paul et al., 2016; Southwick & Charney, 2018; Stoverink et al., 2020; Zhang

et al., 2022). Employee resilience has been conceptualised as a combination of five essential characteristics namely: meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential 'aloneness' (Prince-Embury et al., 2016; 2017; Wagnild & Young, 1990; 2009; Wardekker et al., 2020). For the purposes of this research, this definition will be adopted, because it is central to Wagnild and Young's (1990) five characteristics of employee resilience, which is the core of the concept. These knitted characteristics will be explained in the sections below.

- *Meaningfulness of life*

Meaningfulness of life refers to the realisation that life has a purpose and recognising that there is something to live for (Bozdag, 2020; Liu et al., 2017; Somoner et al., 2016; Stokes et al., 2019; Wagnild & Young, 1990).

- *Perseverance*

Perseverance reflects the act of persistence despite unpleasant situations (Liu et al., 2017; Wagnild & Young, 1990).

- *Self-reliance*

Self-reliance reflects the belief and confidence in oneself with a clear and profound understanding and knowledge of one's abilities, expertise, skills and limitations (Liu et al., 2017; Wagnild & Young, 1990; 2009).

- *Equanimity*

Equanimity reflects a balanced and calm way of living in the midst of difficulties or challenging and unpleasant situations (Liu et al., 2017; Wagnild & Young, 1990).

- *Existential 'aloneness'*

Existential 'aloneness' reflects the awareness that each individual is different and that while some experiences can be shared, others must be faced alone (Gullatt et al., 2018; Hezel et al., 2022; Kumhi et al., 2020; Laird et al., 2019; 2018; Li et al., 2018; Naswall et al., 2013; 2015; 2019; Oshio et al., 2018; Schumacker et al., 2018; Sheerin et al., 2018; Wagnild & Young, 1990).

In summary, Liu et al.'s (2017) model combines the unique and knitted characteristics of three main facets of resilience mainly employee resilience (meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential aloneness) (Teng, 2017; Wagnild & Young, 1990;

2009); generic resilience (robustness, rapidity, redundancy and resourcefulness) (Baldwin & King, 2017; Bruneau et al., 2003; Hezel et al., 2022); and individual or personal resilience (persistence, tenacity, self-efficacy, emotional and cognitive control) (Connor & Davidson, 2003; Hartmann et al., 2022; Nadrowska et al., 2020). Employee resilience with its five dimensions is cardinal to the current study and it is closely connected to generic and individual facets because their dimensions are intertwined.

An essential quality of Liu et al.'s (2017) model is its appropriateness across diverse contexts and multi-disciplines. Several researchers concluded that this model will have predictive validity in comprehending the multi-dimensional nature of resilience, and has the power to advance future research in resilience (Heredia et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2017; Southwick & Charney, 2018; Stoverink et al., 2020). The MSMR plans to forward research in resilience, with the aim of offering a new, advanced and unique way to measure and conceptualise it, that is different from past trauma-contingent and time-contingent models (Liu et al., 2017; Miller-Graff, 2022; Nadrowska et al., 2020; Stuntzner et al., 2020). The MSMR aims to take control of the complexity of resilience as the science of mastering the life's greatest challenge (Liu et al., 2017; Mckinley & Laukaitis, 2020; Southwick & Charney, 2018; Zhang et al., 2022). The model is appropriate in a South African context, especially as the five dimensions that comprise the model are relevant to the South African private sector organisations (Bussin, 2019; Govender, 2019; Halilova et al., 2020; Hezel et al., 2022; Latukha & Soyiri, 2018). It is theorised that the five dimensions that comprise the MSMR of Liu et al. (2017) will empower, inspire, energise, motivate and encourage employees within the South African private sector organisations to persevere and remain in their jobs and organisations (Hartmann et al., 2022; Steiner et al., 2016; Theron, 2020; Van Niekerk, 2018). Employees will be empowered to realise that life has a purpose and to recognise that there is something to live for within their organisations. These dynamic dimensions will inspire the employees within the South African private sector organisations to persist within their jobs even in the midst of unpleasant circumstances.

Liu et al.'s (2017) model is therefore appropriate for the current study. Firstly, it emphasises the importance of the combined and profound driving empowering, inspiring and motivators that keep individuals from leaving the organisation. Employee resilience will assist individuals and South African private sector organisations to change stressful and traumatic events from potential disasters into opportunities for growth through conquering challenges (Barnard & Furtak, 2020; Fazeli et al., 2018; Heredia et al., 2022; Theron, 2020). The concept will increase individuals' capability to adjust and respond to challenging and difficult demands of work by being more mentally and emotionally suitable prior to and following a new job (Biri,

2020; Britt et al., 2016; Miller-Graff, 2022; Van Niekerk, 2018). Biri (2020) goes on to reiterate that employee resilience is paramount in bringing healing and strength for those burdened by the effects of challenging events, to persevere and find meaning or purpose to continue living in the midst of traumatic and stressful events, and this will result in employees staying in their jobs. Secondly, it emphasises that employee resilience improves people's attitudes and outlooks, coping skills and, self-awareness, promotes purpose and meaning, develops inner strength, and increases perseverance and tenacity (Liu et al., 2017; Nadrowska et al., 2020; Stuntzner et al., 2020; Wagnild & Younger, 1990; Zhang et al., 2022). Conversely, individuals who have low levels of resilience will not be able to cope and survive in stressful situations and will leave their jobs.

A possible limitation of Liu et al.'s (2017) model for the current research is that although it has received extensive research attention, psychological researchers have yet to reach consensus on how resilience is defined, operationalised, or measured. Many researchers who conducted comprehensive literature studies found that there are 104 different definitions of resilience (Al Eid et al., 2020; Hezel et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2017; Marshall & Pichette, 2017; Teng, 2017). Several researchers concluded that in many cases, a myriad of definitions indicate the complexity of resilience, deeply reflecting scholarly different opinions over the meaning of resilience and how it can be facilitated, and perhaps the misuse of resilience concepts has delayed the ability to operationalise resilience (Frei-Landau, 2020; Hartmann et al., 2022; Naswall et al., 2019; Rosa, 2020; Shashi et al., 2020; Token et al., 2018). Because of this shortcoming the model did not provide effective and efficient retention strategies to assist organisations to fight the "war for talent". This is what prompted the research to embark on this current research in search of holistic talent retention strategies that would curb this problem. The "war for talent" that was coined by Hankins (1997) to date is still raging on, most organisations are failing to attract and retain top talent, and most organisations are not getting it right, after using this model for five years (Keller & Meaney, 2017; Manjiri, 2023; Postulka, 2022). Even though the model is fairly new it has failed to provide the answers and solutions to this problem. The model did not end the "war for talent" not even curbing it, neither does the current research claim to end the "war for talent", but has developed robust strategic retention procedures and policies that will challenge and inspire the organisations to get it right. The current study will explore and merge all these definitions and devise a refined, diverse, inclusive and robust definition of resilience. Previous research postulated that individual resilience in occupational situations is in its infancy and it's difficult to quantitatively measure and consequently use for management decisions (Heredia et al. 2022; Kumhi et al., 2020; Quinton et al., 2021; Sommer et al., 2016; Yildirim & Aislan, (under review). Research headed by Naswall concluded that sound and accurate measurement tools to assess

resilience are urgently needed (Naswall et al., 2019). Currently all the measures of resilience tried and tested on working populations centre mainly on perceptions of individual abilities, rather than on behaviours focused on the use of organisational resources (Chansky, 2020; Kuntz et al., 2016; 2017; Miller-Graff, 2022; Naswall et al., 2019). Yet, there is a need to identify observable behaviours that explain how individual resilience draw positive organisational results (Camp et al., 2020; Caniels & Baaten, 2019; Gatt et al., 2020; King et al., 2021; Mary et al., 2020). Current literature has challenged the opinion that resilience needs a main crisis to be activated and expressed and that it cannot be observed in non-crisis contexts (Braun et al., 2017; Djalante et al., 2020; Harooni et al., 2020; King, 2020; Rangachari & Woods, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022). A number of resilience theorists postulated that personal resilience is the eventual outcome of generic factors, it is not a culm characteristic, and it can be designed in environments that promote adjustive capability (Capuano et al., 2020; Hezel et al., 2022; Kinay et al., 2021; Kuntz et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017; Naswall et al., 2019). In addition, the vast majority of literature research on resilience fails to provide evidence of resilience's development and practical implication at the workplace and more research is needed to estimate its practical results, and the current research will try to uncover this issue (Bozdag, 2020; Corlett & McConnachie, 2021; Eid et al., 2020; Gong, 2020; Hartmann et al., 2022). A more lifespan-oriented approach and multi-disciplinary to the study of resilience is needed (Camp et al., 2020; Gatt, 2020; Heredia et al., 2022; Kumar, 2017; Sherlock-Storey, 2016). Conclusively, human resources practitioners still lack viewing resilience as an ability that can be developed proactively among employees (Amir & Mangundjaya, 2021; Harms et al., 2018; Kalaitzaki et al., 2020; Malik & Garg, 2017; Miller-Graff, 2022; Rossi et al., 2020; Sen, 1999).

4.1.3 Variables influencing the development of resilience

The variables that might influence the development of resilience will be explored in the following section:

4.1.3.1 Age

Age comes with extensive experience, expertise, wisdom and resilience (Chmitorz et al., 2020). Resilience attributes will be experienced differently by different age groups. One important aspect in retaining older workers is to understand possible differences better in respect of how older workers, when compared to younger workers, persevere despite adversity or discouragement. Furthermore, the older employees are capable of living a balanced and calm life in the midst of difficulties, challenges and unpleasant situations (Chansky, 2020; Mckinley & Laukaitis, 2020). Several researchers concluded that older

employees are more resilient than younger employees because of their vast experience, expertise, lived and developed wisdom (Chansky, 2020; Chmitorz et al., 2020; Mckinley & Laukaitis, 2020). Paton and Johnston (2017) concluded that older employees are more resilient, tenacious and loyal to their organisations than the younger employees and newcomers. Tengblad and Oudhuis (2018), however, emphasise that positive relationship dynamics between resilience and age should be explained carefully. Ageing is typically associated with reduced capabilities and increased dependence, which may affect well-being (Biri, 2020; Kalaitzaki et al., 2020; Mckinley & Laukaitis, 2020; Tengblad & Oudhuis, 2018). Foster et al. (2020) postulated higher levels of resilience amongst older and experienced nurses. Most researchers seem to agree that the more resilient an elder is, the better they cope with such stressors (Kalaitzaki et al., 2020; Kelifa et al., 2020; Marie et al., 2018; Shoss et al., 2016). Even though most of the research studies agreed that older employees are more resilient than younger employees, Baldwin and King (2017) disputed this and concluded that younger employees might become more persistent because they are faced with fewer job opportunities and have less or no experience. In agreement, Becking et al. (2019) reported that older individuals do not show more resilience than younger employees in the organisation. Research by De Miliano and Jurriens (2017), postulated that resilience is higher for the older and younger employees than employees within the middle age groups, due to industry or country specific factors.

4.1.3.2 Gender

Each gender is likely to differ significantly with regard to their levels of resilience depending with the situation they are in (Chang et al., 2016). Gender may have an effect on the perceptions of employees of an organisation as each gender appears to react differently to meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential aloneness (Harrooni et al., 2020; Paton & Johnston, 2017). Various researchers concluded that female individuals have strong levels of resilience than male individuals (Chadwick & Raver, 2018; Harrooni et al., 2020; Paton & Johnston, 2017). Additionally, research by Chansky (2020) argued that even though men are physically powerful, fit and strong, they have low levels of resilience in certain events. In contrast, Chang et al., (2016) disputed Bozdog, (2020)'s conclusion by stating that men are more resilient and tenacious compared to their women counterparts. However, several research studies found that females are just as resilient and tenacious as their male counterparts (Chmitorz et al., 2018; De Miliano & Jurriens, 2017; Ford et al., 2020; Wiig & Fahlbruch, 2019).

Meanwhile, research findings by King et al. (2021) also show that gender is an essential variable in exploring and predicting employee resilience within organisations. Pillay (2020)

went on to show that gender outlines contradicting outcomes. Some studies concluded that women are more resilient than men while others found that men are more resilient than their female colleagues (Ford et al., 2020; Kavcic et al., 2020; Shipway & Miles, 2020). Similarly, Stuntzner and Dalton (2018) emphasise that women and men encounter diverse daunting and stressful demands in the workplace, and are likely to differ significantly with regard to their resilience. Nishimi et al. (2020) emphasised that relative resilience was higher among female employees than male employees, showing that female respondents showed relatively lower levels of psychiatric distress despite experiencing trauma. Perceived trait resilience was higher among males than their female counterparts, suggesting that men tended to depict themselves as more resilient (Lisson et al., 2020; Marie et al., 2018; Nishimi et al., 2020). Kavcic et al. (2020) went on to emphasise that women were more resilient than their men counterparts during the social lockdown.

4.1.3.3 Race

Individuals from different race groups have different levels of resilience, in different contexts and situations. Furthermore, there is a need for further research into the important elements of resilience for individuals from different race groups (Stuntzner & Dalton, 2018). Research studies have confirmed that black participants in all industries are stronger in the individual resilience components. Black individuals are more persistent and tenacious than their white counterparts (Chansky, 2020; De Miliano & Jurriens, 2017). White people reported higher levels of generic resilience dimensions, especially robustness and resourcefulness than their black counterparts (Bhamra, 2016; Djalante et al., 2020; Stuntzner & Dalton, 2018; Wiig & Fahlbruch, 2019). On the other hand, individuals of Indian decent reported stronger individual resilience dimensions especially emotional and cognitive resilience than their coloureds counterparts (Chansky, 2020). Conclusively, individuals from different races will have different levels of resilience, in different contexts.

4.1.3.4 Marital status

Married individuals appear to have a significantly greater need for family resilience, because married individuals have to balance family and work issues, and have huge financial responsibilities that keep them persevering in their jobs (Nadrowska et al., 2020). Several researchers noted that since increasing resilience can improve quality of life, married mothers with higher levels of resilience can face life problems better and show flexibility when confronting them (Harooni et al., 2020; Heydarpour et al, 2018; Johnson & Christensen, 2019; Paton & Johnston, 2017). Conclusively, resilient married employees are more likely to stay in their jobs measured to their less resilient colleagues as their resilience motivates and enables them to widen their cognitive appraisals of stress (Chadwick & Raver, 2018; Mary et al., 2020).

Research findings by Chansky (2020) concluded that marital status can be associated with family resilience, since married individuals might have to balance work and family issues. Married individuals have huge financial responsibilities compared to single individuals, that is why married people remain and persevere in their jobs (Chansky, 2020; Nadrowska et al., 2020; Stuntzner & Dalton, 2018).

4.1.3.5 Employment status

The resilience of employees from various employment status might also differ. A temporary, part-time and flexible contract employee will have greater perseverance and self-reliance (Becking et al., 2017). Various researchers concluded that there is evidence of a positive and strong relationship between resilience and employment status (Becking et al., 2017; Brownhill et al., 2016; Kavcic et al., 2020; Tengblad & Oudhuis, 2018). Research studies by Baldwin and King (2017) postulated that permanent employees are resiliently and tenaciously dedicated to their employing organisations. Hay (2016) supported King (2017)'s view by adding that permanent employees are more resilient, self-reliant and persevering in their jobs than temporary, part-time and flexible contract employees. Several researchers concluded that employees who decide to stay with the organisation at this temporary stage, will definitely stay because they are tenacious, persistent and resourceful in their organisations (Chansky, 2020; Kinay et al., 2021; Pillay, 2020; Wiig & Fahlbruch, 2019).

4.1.3.6 Job level

The resilience of employees from various employment status might also differ. Individuals in top management, middle management, supervisors and staff will experience meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential aloneness differently (Camp et al., 2020; Pillay, 2020). Several research studies concluded that there is a positive and strong significant relationship between employee and resilience and job level (Pillay, 2020; Tengblad & Oudhuis, 2018; Wiig & Fahlbruch, 2019). Employees in middle and senior management level positions are inspired and challenged to advance and grow into better and dedicated leaders who are resourceful, self-efficient and loyal to the organisation (Camp et al., 2020; Corlett & McConnachie, 2021; Vostanis et al., 2020). In terms of job level or title McIntosh and Shaw (2017), concluded that non-managerial employees have high levels of individual resilience dimensions (persistence, tenacity, self-efficacy, emotional and cognitive control) compared to managerial individuals who have high levels of personal resilience dimensions (sense of connectedness, emotional reactivity and sense of mastery). However, study by Baldwin (2017) noted that male managerial employees were found to have a higher level of meaningfulness of life and existential aloneness than their female counterparts in management positions with high levels in perseverance and self-reliance.

4.2 THEORY AND RESEARCH: CAREER ADAPTABILITY

The concept of career adaptability will be explained in detail in the following sections. The concept will be conceptualised, and the theoretical models explored in detail. The variables impacting its advancement and impact on talent management and talent retention will be discussed in detail.

4.2.1 Conceptualisation and background

The construct of career adaptability is explained and defined in many inspiring, challenging, fascinating and dynamic ways. The unique notion of career adaptability was originally designed, shaped, presented and described in detail by Donald Super 67 years ago (Super, 1953; 1974; 1975) in order to present how individuals cope and adapt to the daunting challenges of the changing, unpredictable and dynamic business landscape. Born from Donald Super's career maturity, the concept career adaptability was introduced into the vocational psychology literature by Savickas (1997), to replace Super's (1955) great and unique idea of a career maturity concept, and combine the four segments of Super's life-span, life-space theory, identity, contextual and the individual development perspective (Savickas, 1997; 2005; 2009). Career adaptability is a resiliency and adjustive resource that assists individuals to cope and adapt with career changes and traumas in stressful situations (Atac et al., 2017; Cathcart, 2018; Dosunmu & Adeyemo, 2018; Francisco & Castano, 2020; Savickas, 2002). Savickas (1997; 2002; 2005), concluded that career adaptability is the readiness to face head-on the challenging and daunting work tasks and the unpredictable adjustments caused by changes at work and in the work environment. For the purpose of this study, this definition will be adopted, because it is central to Savickas' (1997) Career Adaptability Model, which is the main model of the concept.

Various studies indicated that career adaptability is an individual's profound ability to deal with career challenges and problems and find solutions, and change unpredictable and uncertain situations into career advancement opportunities (Argyropoulou et al., 2017; Brinks & Cambridge, 2017; Hirschi et al., 2019; John, 2018; Putri & Dewi, 2022; Savickas, 2009). Additionally, it comprises the preparedness to cope with daunting roles or tasks, and to work in ambiguous, challenging and stressful circumstances (Eryilmaz et al., 2020; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022; Taylor et al., 2018; Xu & Yu, 2019; Wang et al., 2018; Woo, 2018). According to Seymour et al. (2018) career adaptability is a set of attitudes, competencies, readiness,

behaviours and coping responses that individuals use to plan, explore, inform themselves and determine their future careers. Several studies reported that career adaptability shows an individual's abilities, resources and profound strength to deal with complex and uncertain work trauma, events and situations (Fusco et al., 2019; Lan & Chen, 2020; Seryakova et al., 2018; Shalihah et al., 2018). Furthermore, career adaptability is an important ability at all stages of an individual's life-space (Chen et al., 2022; Gong et al., 2020; Rottinghaus et al., 2018; Sullivan & Ariss, 2021; Super et al., 1996). It can therefore be concluded that individuals with low levels of career adaptability will not be able to resiliently remain in their jobs.

Various studies showed that career adaptability encompasses the employee's resiliency, capabilities, strengths and adaptivity to account, face and accept the challenging career roles and landscape and to effectively and efficiently manage these career trends (Charokopaki & Argyropoulou, 2019; Chui et al., 2022; Obschonka & Hahn, 2018; Omar, 2018; Parola & Marcionetti, 2021; Savickas et al., 2018). Additionally, the 4Cs of career adaptability, namely career concern, career control, career curiosity and career cooperation or confidence refer to an individual's willingness, preparation and flexibility to utilise dynamic job search engines, which in turn may assist the individual to find a new job (Bal & Afrikan, 2020; Karatepe et al., 2021; Nikander et al., 2022; Savickas, 1997; 2005). It is imperative for South African private sector organisations to comprehend the individual's career adaptability because this may impact talent retention in the organisation. It includes awareness of oneself, embracing daunting, dynamic and new circumstances as advancement opportunities rather than problems, acquiring of new and diverse expertise, skills, experiences, attitudes and continuous learning expertise, and acquisition of new skills, expertise, attitudes, experiences and redirecting expertise and skills from one circumstance to another (Haibo et al., 2017; Hirschi et al., 2018; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2017; Ramadhan & Prahara, 2020; Ramadhani & Suharso, 2021). Furthermore, career adaptability is also profoundly indicated in the rapidly changing demands of employers who are constantly searching proactive, retainable and adaptive workforce (Atac et al., 2017; Banfield et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2020a; Obe, 2021; Storme et al., 2020). However, individuals who are not proactive and not adaptive, will find it difficult to be retained.

In conclusion, career adaptability was conceptualised in the above section. Career adaptability empowers individuals to be resilient, adapt and cope with traumatic situations and career changes in difficult events (Francisco & Castano, 2020; McIlveen et al., 2018; Najib & Aljanabi, 2020; Rasheed et al., 2020; 2022). It is this profound sense of career concern, career control, career curiosity and career cooperation, that assists in developing and shaping people's views of events in their lives and helps in alleviating the negative effects of traumatic and stressful

circumstances (Bingol & Cakir, 2021; Haenggli & Hirschi, 2020; John, 2018; Muleya et al., 2022; Savickas, 1997). Conversely, individuals who are weak and afraid of facing daunting circumstances might not view challenging situations as career opportunities and therefore, will not grow. Ma et al. (2020b) postulated that career adaptability encourages individuals to extensively plan, organise, explore, inform themselves and seek direction for their future career.

4.2.2 Career adaptability theory

For the purpose of this research, Savickas' (1997) Career Adaptability Model is explained in detail.

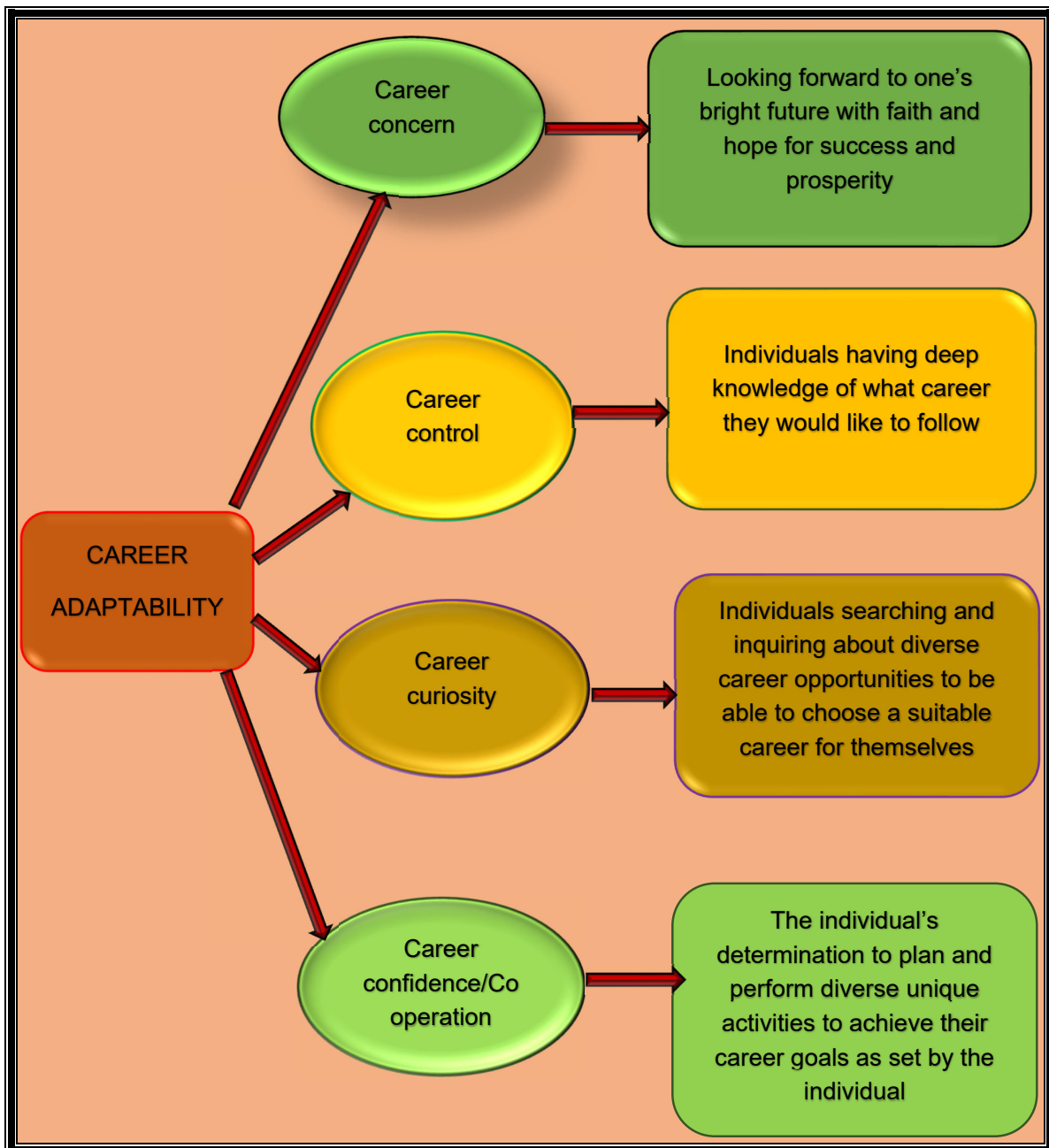
4.2.2.1 Savickas' (1997) Career Adaptability Model

Savickas (1997) contributed hugely to the career adaptability literature. Savickas' (1997) career construction theory was carefully selected for this study, because it has been tried and tested, and has undergone profound empirical evaluation to date and therefore it forms the main foundation of the measuring instrument utilised in this research. Additionally, the four cardinal multifaceted features of concern, control, curiosity and confidence (cooperation) represent general adaptability resources, strategies and procedures, that individuals use to manage traumas, tasks, transitions and key changes as they design, construct, plan and organise their careers. Figure 4.3 describes in detail the profound relationship between concern, control, curiosity and confidence/cooperation on career adaptability, to assist in comprehending career adaptability more deeply.

Figure 4.3 illustrates an overview of the four cardinal dimensions of career adaptability.

Figure 4.3

Career Adaptability Model by Savickas



Source: Savickas, (1997, p. 249)

Savickas (1997), went beyond the existing contrast between the 4Cs of career adaptability, as well as the close relationship shown in Figure 4.3. Additionally, Savickas (2005; 2016) emphasised that it is vital to design the concept of career adaptability in order to strongly support adaptivity, adapting responses and adaptation results within an individual's career lifespan. Various studies have concluded that it is essential for people to realise that career is

a challenging, inspiring, dynamic and diverse landscape to acquire new skills, expertise and marketing oneself extensively to remain retainable across all industries in this high technological environment. (Bingol & Cakir, 2021; Kirchknopf, 2020; Rossier et al., 2017; Salisu et al., 2019; Savickas, 2016). A career is a profound story that individuals tell about their journey, supported with individual qualities of willingness and flexibility to face head-on career trauma, transitions, tasks, changes and challenges with relevant responses (Fang et al., 2018; Furman, 2018; Lodi et al., 2020; Porfeli & Savickas, 2011; 2012; Putri & Dewi, 2022). Research headed by Coetzee pointed out the importance of career agility facets (agile learning, career navigation and technology adaptivity) for an individual's career to survive in the midst of difficult times (Affum-Osei et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2022; Coetzee et al., 2020). Conversely, people with low levels of the 4Cs of career adaptability will not be able to face career challenges head-on with vigour and relevant responses.

Several researchers concluded that this theory tests the challenges and dynamics whereby life melodies force various meaning on vocational behaviour and explores why individuals fit work into their lives in different ways (Farahani & Teymournejad, 2021; Luke, 2020; Savickas, 2002; 2005; 2016; Maeng et al., 2017; Weber et al., 2018). Research studies added that the career construction theory explores the 4Cs of career adaptability and puts them into a structural model with three dynamic levels (Kusyadi, 2020; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al., 2018; Sullivan & Ariss, 2021). Ultimately, at the intermediate level, this involves the specific attitudes, expertise, experiences, skills, beliefs and competencies that shape and deepen the concrete adjusting behaviours used to control developmental tasks, occupational transitions and resolve traumas (Fox, 2018; Nikander et al., 2022; Savickas & Porfeli, 2011; 2012; Purwoko et al., 2020; Parola & Marcionetti, 2021). Savickas (1997; 2005) identified these four close-knitted dimensions as concern, control, curiosity and confidence. These underlying resources will be explained in detail in the sections below.

(a) Career concern

Savickas et al. (2018) state that career concern is career preparation, planning, organising, being aware, involved and looking ahead with faith, hope and vigour to one's bright and promising future career. Career concern focuses on self-evaluation of career recognition, career aspiration, setting career goals, seeing career opportunities and career readiness (Lee & Jun, 2020; Mika et al., 2020; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016; Rasheed et al., 2022; Savickas et al., 2018). It is essential to realise that life-long learning is paramount because it shapes one's career development, career direction, career education and enhances a sense of personal development, talent and potential (Karatepe et al., 2021; Maggiori et al., 2017; Muleya et al.,

2022; Rudolph et al., 2017b; Savickas & Porfeli, 2011; 2012). Furthermore, planning for one's career is divided into three major dimensions namely: time perspective – is reflecting on past experiences and looking forward to the future; autonomy – individual's locus of control and self-esteem - is critical for individuals to encounter autonomy and a positive anticipation of the future (Argyropoulou et al., 2017; Berg et al., 2018; Ginevra et al., 2017; Lan & Chen, 2020; Putri & Dewi, 2022; Ramadhani & Suharso, 2021; Savickas et al., 2018; Seryakova et al 2018). Savickas (2009) emphasised that career counselling, guidance and coaching as part of career intervention is important at this stage in order to assist in designing lives that are conducive to assisting individuals to control repeated career transitions when they are challenged with daunting situations, in order to satisfy the needs of the globalised and high-tech unpredictable world of work.

(b) Career control

Research headed by Savickas noted that informed decision-making is when an individual is confident about what career she or he would like to follow (Savickas & Porfeli, 2011; 2012; Savickas et al., 2018). This is a critical time for career choices, bigger and unique opportunities, assertiveness, discipline, wilfulness and optimism (Eva et al., 2020; Rasheed, 2020). Furthermore, it is about having information, dedication, commitment and diverse and solid knowledge to decision-making strategies about one's career (Berg et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2022; Francisco & Castano, 2020; Henderson & Thompson, 2016; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022; Porfeli & Savickas, 2012; Seymour et al., 2018). Additionally, it determines acquaintances, job security, income, colleagues, residence, the amount of leisure and friends (Bal, 2020; Banfield et al., 2018; Berg et al., 2018; Chui et al., 2022; Gong et al., 2020; Savickas et al., 2018). Conversely, this is also the time that some individuals are caught in career indecision, confusion and instability (Nikander et al., 2022; Obe, 2021; Park et al., 2020; Savickas, 2016; Zhuang et al., 2018).

(c) Career curiosity

Savickas (1997; 2002; 2005; 2016) concluded that career curiosity deals with individuals searching and inquiring profoundly the different career choices to get knowledge and data about the type of occupation they would like to do. Career exploration behaviours assist individuals obtain new ideas about external environments and their own qualities, they act as important experiential sources that assist individuals to learn how to improve their skills and abilities (Briddick et al., 2018; Guan et al., 2018; Rasheed et al., 2022; Savickas et al., 2018; Storme et al., 2020). Various studies added that career curiosity explains the scale to which the individuals' inquiry about and understand themselves in terms of their institutional affiliations, awareness, the use of resources and their life (Bingol & Cakir, 2021; Henderson &

Thompson, 2016; Muleya et al., 2022; Tinajero-Pacheco, 2018). Ultimately, career curiosity calls for self-exploration, occupational exploration, risk taking, inquiring, experimenting, self-motivation, self-efficacy, self-determination, resiliency and proactivity in order to succeed in one's career (Berg et al., 2018; Guan et al., 2018; Kirchknopf, 2020; Putri & Dewi, 2022; Reardon et al., 2017; Savickas, 2016).

(d) Career cooperation/confidence

Career confidence or cooperation stresses the individual's profound emotions of self-efficacy for planning and performing successfully the activities needed to achieve her or his career objectives and goals (Chen et al., 2022; Obe, 2021; Savickas et al., 2018; Tokar et al., 2020). Additionally, career maturity, career commitment, career motivation, ongoing career engagement and career self-management are critical in the job search journey, career progression and success (Kang et al., 2019; Maree, 2020a; 2020b; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Career satisfaction and career achievement rely on the level of competencies, skills, knowledge and education of an individual (Chui et al., 2022; Ginevra et al., 2017; Maree, 2017; Savickas, 2009). On the other hand, people need solid cooperation or confidence to perform in respect and dedication of their career ambitions and interests (Francisco & Castano, 2020; Maree et al., 2017; Najib & Aljanabi, 2020; Nikander et al., 2022). Savickas (2013; 2016) emphasises that career resilience is the capability to adjust to dynamic situations challenging and changing and the readiness to take risks in the midst of difficult situations. Several researchers went on to emphasise that career resilience facilitates a high level of capability and adaptability to take advantage of belief in one's resilience, self-confidence, change, openness to new opportunities, networks, self-reliance and control over events regardless of unfavourable situations (Eryilmaz et al., 2020; Rasheed et al., 2022; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Sullivan & Ariss, 2021; Wang et al., 2018). Ultimately, career confidence is paramount in an individual's career journey.

In summary, Savickas' (1997) model of career adaptability challenges, inspires, empowers, and supports individuals' capabilities to tolerate, accommodate, cope and handle uncertainties and changes at the workplace and the working circumstances. Savickas' (1997) model joins the 4Cs of career adaptability, that offer unwavering support, optimism, turning pain into faith, hope, nurturing, sustaining and preparing individuals for prosperous and successful lives amid changing and challenging private sector business landscape (Francisco & Castano, 2020; Johnston, 2019; Muleya et al., 2022; Savickas, 1997; 2005; Schmid & Bogner, 2017; Shalihah et al., 2018). Additionally, the 4Cs of career adaptability are seen as global dimensions of resources that assist the realisation of personal goals and values, irrespective of challenging work conditions that may promote or constrain career adaptability (Jiang et al., 2018; Parola

& Marcionetti, 2021; Putri & Dewi, 2022; Ramadhan & Prahara, 2020; Ramosab & Lopezc, 2018; Sovet et al., 2018). Savickas' (1997) model is therefore appropriate for the current study, because concern, curiosity, control and confidence will motivate individuals to remain in their jobs.

A possible limitation of Savickas' (1997) model for the current research study is that the empirical literature on career adaptability has not been systematically reviewed and integrated, which might be the reason why this model did not provide holistic and effective retention strategies to assist organisations to fight "war for talent". The "war for talent" that was coined by Hankins (1997) to date is still raging on, most organisations are failing to attract and retain top talent, and most organisations are not getting it right, after utilising this model for twenty-five years (Keller & Meaney, 2017; Manjiri, 2023; Postulka, 2022). This model has failed to provide the answers and solutions to this problem. The model did not end the "war for talent" not even curbing it, neither does the current research claim to end the "war for talent", but has developed robust and holistic strategic retention policies and procedures that will inspire and empower the organisations to get it right. Savickas (2016) suggests that specific attention should be devoted to awareness of changes, to the need to pursue multiple routes and reflectivity. Also this model was coined twenty-five years ago it might not be moving with the signs of the time, especially in this high-technological business landscape (Keller & Meaney, 2017; Manjiri, 2023). Research must take into account that career construction in the future cannot be viewed in isolation from other live contexts of the individual, community, family, personal or social contexts (Savickas et al., 2016; 2018). The research must shed light on the effects of technological change, to prevent any negative effects on individuals at a developmental stage on the one hand, and stimulate attention to advantages for societal and individuals, on the other hand. Ultimately, the current study will try to delve deeply to explore and address these possible limitations of Savickas' (1997) model.

In conclusion, the concept of career adaptability's 4Cs are strong psychological resources that contribute to positive career transitions across the lifespan for both young and older adult employees (Chen et al., 2022; Karatepe et al., 2021; Kirdok & Bolukbasi, 2018; Savickas et al., 2018). Several authors concluded that career adaptability assists individuals to stay in their jobs and organisations, because the construct is attached to diverse constructs and concepts that are categorised as adaptability resources, adaptive work readiness, adaptability responses and adaptation outcomes (Savickas, 2016; Dewery et al., 2020; Mirkovic et al., 2020; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022). Conversely, it is essential for individuals to become fully aware of career transitions are surrounded by uncertainty, whether beginning a career or moving into a senior position with new and challenging responsibilities (Chui et al., 2022; Karatape &

Olugbade, 2017; Lestari & Tentama, 2020; Savickas et al., 2018). Paolini (2020) postulated that individuals should have robust and positive outlooks towards their career transition, as it is essential to view career transitions as vital opportunities to grow. Adaptability is considered one of the most critical resources that the South African private sector organisations should acquire to remain competent and prosperous in this turbulent and unpredictable business environment (Dosunmu & Adeyemo, 2018; Maree, 2017; 2020; Maree et al., 2017; Nikander et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2020). There might be a critical need for South African private sector organisations to develop, produce and retain individuals who have the strong 4Cs of career adaptability in this ambiguous, volatile, uncertain and complex work environment. It is imperative for South African private sector organisations to reskill their employees with adaptive thinking, decision making skills, problem solving skills, decision making skills, communication skills, adaptive thinking, moral and ethical responsibility, self-management skills, critical thinking skills, cross-cultural competence, social intelligence, team work, flexibility, digital skills and the ability to learn independently in trans-disciplinary ways in order to deepen and strength employees' career adaptability (Chen et al., 2020; Pre Karlerove & Kariery, 2020; Rasheed et al., 2022; Salisu et al., 2019). Contrary to this, adaptability of the upcoming workforce that is flexible, porous, versatile, boundaryless and protean represents yet another challenge, unlike the former linear and hierarchical order (Atac et al., 2017; Ginevra et al., 2017; Luke & Neault, 2020; Muleya et al., 2022; Ramadhani & Suharso, 2021). Conversely, individuals with low levels of the Cs of career adaptability might not be that successful in their career endeavours. Research headed by Coetzee also emphasised the importance of career agility facets (technological adaptivity, agile learning and career navigation) as other critical skills needed by employees within South African private organisations to survive this volatile business environment (Coetzee et al., 2020).

4.2.3 Variables influencing the development of career adaptability

The variables that may impact the advancement of career adaptability will be explored in detail in the following section. The impact of age, gender, marital status, employment and job level on an individual's career adaptability will be explored in detail in the section below.

4.2.3.1 Age

Older and younger employees' motivational structures may vary due to the changes across the life-space and lifespan in terms of their career development opportunities, career resilience, career success, career support, career interventions and career adapt abilities. Furthermore, individuals in early career stages have various expectations in terms of their goal orientation and career advancement. (Muleya et al., 2022; Spurk et al., 2018). Research

headed by Purwoko concluded that age was established to be a strong cause of career adaptability (Purwoko et al., 2020). Purwoko et al. (2020) continue to emphasise that young adults seem to have high levels of career curiosity and career concern. According to Cathcart (2018), younger adults have high levels of career curiosity and career concern than older individuals. Furthermore, older individuals seem to have high levels of career control and career confidence (Cathcart 2018; Francisco & Castano, 2020; Muleya et al., 2022; Pre Karlerove & Kariery, 2020; Spurk et al., 2018). Generally, older employees have higher levels of career adaptability than younger employees who might be struggling to settle into their jobs (Cathcart, 2018; Luke & Neault, 2020; Peila-Shuster, 2017; Putri & Dewi, 2022). Age is expected to influence the individuals' adaptivity, adapting responses and adaptation outcomes (Kim, 2020; Purwoko et al., 2020). Due to age, it may become very difficult and challenging to have the willingness, adaptation and flexibility to change in this uncertain and unpredictable business landscape (Chen et al., 2022; Luke & Neault, 2020; Pre-Karlerove & Kariery, 2020; Seow et al., 2018).

According to Pajic (2020), older and younger employees' motivational structures may vary due to the changes across the life-space and lifespan in terms of their career development opportunities, career resilience, career success, career support, career interventions and career adaptabilities. Younger employees are more concerned about goal orientations and career advancement opportunities while older employees are more concerned about keeping and maintaining their jobs (Fatimah & Salim, 2020; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022; Yildiz-Akyol & Boyaci, 2020). According to Mafirja & Bulantika, (2020), younger employees are more likely to persist on optimising performance while older adults persist in minimising career development and mostly focus on those activities that prepare for their retirement. According to Kurniawan et al. (2020) older women have higher levels of maturity in their careers than men. Several researchers showed that advancing in age is accompanied by a profound feeling of inadequateness in their expertise, skills, capabilities, talents and knowledge, decreased work-motivation, work ability and deterioration in speed and accuracy processing of information (Chhonker & Narang, 2020; Chui et al., 2022; Lee & Jun, 2020; Santilli et al., 2017; 2018).

4.2.3.2 Gender

Generally, the development, retention and advancement of women still fall short within South African private sector organisations, and worldwide. Women advance through their careers at diverse speed and in different order, based on their family responsibilities and status. A man's career direction is a bounded, and hierarchical career more focused on physical and traditional career success whereas woman's career is boundaryless more focused on non-

traditional and psychological career success (Kurniawan et al., 2020; Muleya et al., 2022; Rasheed et al., 2022). Research headed by Banfield indicated that women employees have greater levels of career confidence and control than male employees (Banfield et al., 2018). Various studies reported that women generally have robust and high levels of career cooperation and confidence that motivate them to get into new, exciting and daunting careers (Edokpolor & Muritala, 2018; Nikander et al., 2022; Obschonka & Hahn, 2018; Purwoko et al., 2020). According to Tinajero-Pacheco (2018), women seem to have deep adaptivity to move forward in traditionally male-dominated careers, such as mathematics and engineering. Research headed by Kurniawan concluded that women have higher levels of adaptation, adapting responses and adaptivity results levels than men (Kurniawan et al., 2020; Rasheed et al., 2022). Becoming a career woman is not an easy task – it is essential to note that the career women should be a multi-tasker, especially when it comes to combining family and work responsibilities (Ma et al., 2020b; Setiawati et al., 2020; Wikhamn, 2019). Ultimately, gender importantly declares career adaptability and it was found that female employees showed greater levels of career adaptability than male employees (Mika et al., 2020; Muleya et al., 2022; Salleh et al., 2020).

4.2.3.3 Race

There are essential differences regarding career adaptability and different race groups. Research into methods to address the career concerns of black employees in South Africa at different levels is particularly necessary (Kusyadi, 2020). Solberg and Ali (2017) found important and diverse disparities between the career adaptability levels of the different race groups, especially in the utilisation of the four adaptability sources. Solberg and Ali (2017) went on to conclude that black individuals reported high levels of curiosity and concern, compared to white individuals who tend to have high levels of control and confidence. In the opinion of Kusyadi (2020) white individuals tend to have high levels of confidence and control, compared to Indians who might have high levels of curiosity and concern, however, this might be caused by being in different careers and different working environments. Mansfield (2020) found that black participants are more adaptive than white participants. Research by Pre Karlerove and Kariery (2020) postulated that there are essential and unique differences regarding career adaptability and race groups. Kusyadi (2020) concluded that white individuals presented higher levels of adaptability than black African individuals.

4.2.3.4 Marital status

The career adaptability of employees from various marital status might differ according to their circumstances (Chen et al., 2022). Empirical evidence showed that there is a negative relationship between marital status and career adaptability (Berg et al., 2018; Mansfield, 2020;

Muleya et al., 2022). Furthermore, married individuals battle with their career adaptation, because married life comes with complicated life roles (Berg et al., 2018; Henderson & Thompson, 2016;). Research studies concluded that married people might encounter problems with balancing their marriage responsibilities and career demands (Gregor et al., 2020; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016; Putri & Dewi, 2022). Berg et al. (2018) postulate that divorced and single people indicated greater levels of career adaptability than married people, because they are not affected with diverse life roles in their careers.

Mikulincer and Shaver (2016) concluded that marital status negatively influences the career adaptability of married women, because of the need to balance diverse and challenging life roles. Furthermore, research indicated an unfavourable connection between a woman's marital status and her level of career adaptability (Pre Karlerove & Kariery, 2020; Von Stamm, 2017). It seems there is low levels of curiosity and concern for a married woman because of the great need to balance various life roles (Chen et al., 2022; Henderson & Thompson 2016; Schiersmann et al., 2017). Women who are divorced or single, or who married later in life, are inclined to have high levels of career confidence and career control (Berg et al., 2018; Gregor et al., 2020).

4.2.3.5 Employment status

The career adaptability of employees from various employment status might differ. Francisco and Castano (2020) posited that there is a significant positive connection between the 4Cs of career adaptability and employment status. Empirical evidence further shows that permanent employees are more career confident and have high levels of the 4Cs that will allow these individuals to cope and persevere with daunting work demands and remain dedicated to the employing organisations (Ozdemir & Koc, 2022; Yildiz-Akyol & Boyaci, 2020). Jacobs and De Vos (2020) supported this view by adding that permanent employees are more adaptive than the temporary, part-time and flexible contract employees. The reason being that the permanent employees considered their profession not only as a job but as a way of life, unlike temporary employees who might be aware that at the end of the contract they will leave the organisation, so there is no feeling of belonging and very little hope, optimism and adaptability in their career path (Chui et al., 2022; Kirchknopf, 2020). Conversely, several researchers vigorously disputed the positive relationship between career adaptability and employment status (Mansfield, 2020; Tabu & Nura, 2020).

4.2.3.6 Job level

The career adaptability of employees from various job levels might differ. Furthermore, employees will have to deploy the four adaptive dimensions of career adaptability in order to

be successful in their careers (Wang et al., 2017; Yildiz-Akyol & Boyaci, 2020). Empirical evidence showed that there is a positive significant relationship between career adaptability and job level (Nikander et al., 2022; Pajic, 2020; Pan et al., 2018; Tabu & Nura, 2020). Employees in junior level positions especially internships are inspired and empowered to grow into inspirational and charismatic future leaders through high levels of career concern (planning, organising, being aware, involved and preparing) and career curiosity (inquiring, exploring, experimenting and taking risk) (Pan et al., 2018; Rasheed et al., 2022). Additionally, employees in middle and senior management level positions are inspired, challenged and empowered to develop into greater inspirational and charismatic leaders through high levels of career control and career confidence (Chan et al., 2020; Muleya et al., 2022; Yildiz-Akyol & Boyaci, 2020). On the other hand, it seems that the notion of climbing the ladder is becoming redundant in many South African private sector organisations, because most of the jobs now are part-time projects. Ultimately, higher job levels may lead individuals to higher levels of career adaptability (Mansfield, 2020; Putri & Dewi, 2022; Peralaiiko & Indrawati, 2020; Wang et al., 2017). Job levels might affect individuals' career adaptability differently.

In summary, the old and traditional models assisted deeply in comprehending the origin of career adaptability. These old models also assisted in finding, developing, shaping, polishing, describing and analysing career maturity into career adaptability. Savickas' (1997) career adaptability model is made up of four adaptability resources or adaptive strategies (concern, control, curiosity and confidence) that will assist individuals to remain optimistic and be able to turn pain into hope in the midst of challenging circumstances. It is imperative for individuals to deploy these four adaptive dimensions to be successful in their careers. These four adaptive dimensions encompass each other with a unique set of specific competencies, beliefs and attitudes, that will allow people to deal with daunting work demands. Conversely, individuals with low levels of these career adaptability dimensions might not be able to cope in the midst of difficult situations. The fundamental model of career adaptability is calling, empowering and challenging South African private sector organisations to realise that career adaptability is vital because it offers unwavering support, nurturing, sustainable optimism and it prepares individuals for successful and prosperous lives as they navigate this unpredictable, uncertain and volatile business world. It is paramount for organisations to extensively develop career adaptability in order to profoundly support goals, values, ambitions, needs and the accountability to stay. Career adaptability, time perspective, resilience, optimism, hope and work preparedness all play a key role in work life and have an impact on individual well-being.

4.3 THE EXPLORATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP DYNAMICS BETWEEN THE CONSTRUCTS

The psychological retention framework came about when the researcher realised that most of the developed frameworks lack deeper effectiveness and efficiency in the recruitment of highly talented and superior employees (Dewi, 2022; Faisal et al., 2020; Kalio, 2020; Pieters et al., 2022). This framework was inspired by the realisation that most of the old and ancient models are not effective and efficient enough to fight and win this “war for talent” and most organisations are still using old traditional ideas and ways of retaining talent and are not result orientated (Keller & Meaney, 2017; Manjiri, 2023; Postulka, 2022). The relationship dynamics that may influence the development of the psychological retention framework for highly talented employees will be explored in detail in the section below.

4.3.1 The theoretical relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability

- ***The theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and job embeddedness***

Organisational commitment increases the embeddedness of employees to stay in an organisation (Akgunduz & Cin, 2015; Ismael et al., 2021; Moreira et al., 2022). Conversely, it seems that individuals with low levels of organisational commitment might not hold onto their jobs for long. There is a profound link between organisational commitment and job embeddedness, and employees' decision to remain with or leave an organisation (Akar, 2018; DeMatthews et al., 2022; Orie, 2018; Rebeiro et al., 2020; Safavi, 2021). Organisational commitment and job embeddedness often convert into robust and holistic retention policies and strategies, that strongly influence the retaining of highly talented individuals that organisations are being challenged to utilise in order to retain highly talented and qualified employees (Alsughayir, 2021; Khaleel et al., 2016; Kiazard et al., 2015; Mustafa et al., 2022; Orie, 2018; Yukongdi & Shrestha, 2020). Individuals high in affective, normative and continuance commitment are firmly immersed in their jobs and will stay in the organisation (Alkahtani et al., 2021; Jabbar & Mohammed, 2021; Lestari & Tentama, 2020; Moniyaki et al., 2022). Normative commitment and job embeddedness are deeply interconnected in that an individual's dedication can be organisationally (organisational commitment) and relationally (links) interconnected with colleagues in profound and unique methods that can effect affection

to a job and making it difficult to leave the organisation (Gibbs, 2015; Khorakian et al., 2021; Nam & Lan, 2022).

- ***The theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and hardiness***

There is a profound relationship between organisational commitment and hardiness and there are valuable predictors of employee retention practices or decisions to leave the job (Ahakwa et al., 2021; Dursan et al., 2022; Fatima et al., 2015). Employees with high levels of affective, normative and continuance commitment have high levels of Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge, and organisations would want to retain such employees (Hashemi et al., 2021; Hossen et al., 2022; Kalio, 2020; Noermijati et al., 2021).

- ***The theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and resilience***

Organisational commitment and resilience are closely linked and can strongly assist in the retention of highly talented individuals (Kinay et al., 2021; Miller-Graff, 2022; Zivkovic et al., 2021). Organisational commitment is a critical part of the resilience of employees, consequently, employees with greater levels of organisational commitment are most resilient and will be easy to retain (Kusyadi, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022).

- ***The theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and career adaptability***

Researchers found that there is a positive and strong connection between career adaptability and affective commitment, because career adaptability assists in the advancement of affective commitment, and individuals who are contented with their careers are shown to have higher levels of affective commitment. (Cronsell & Lindahl, 2020; Mustafa et al., 2022). Organisational commitment may influence career adaptability's effect on occupational change, however, high levels of organisational commitment requires employees to stay in their organisation, resulting in high levels of retention (Chen et al., 2022; Faisal et al., 2020). Career adaptability and organisational commitment and career adaptability is one of the unique and strongest talent retention strategies that organisations must utilise extensively in attracting and retaining their most talented and skilled employees. Ultimately, individuals with high levels of organisational commitment are embedded into their jobs, Hardi-personality, resilient and adaptive.

4.3.2 The theoretical relationship dynamics between job embeddedness, organisational commitment, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability

- ***The theoretical relationship between job embeddedness and organisational commitment***

Job embeddedness is strongly linked to organisational commitment and the intention to remain (Jabbar & Mohammed, 2021; Jolly & Self, 2020; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). Employees stay in their organisations because they are so immersed into their jobs that they don't see any reason to leave their organisations. Job embeddedness increases the affective, normative and continuance commitment of employees to stay in an organisation (Akgunduz & Cin, 2015; Jigjiddorj et al., 2021; Mustafa et al., 2022). Highly embedded employees are affectively attached to the organisation. Job embeddedness is strongly related to organisational commitment, because employees immersed in their jobs are also deeply embedded in organisation; their jobs are nested in organisations (Dewi & Piartrini, 2021; Kiazad et al., 2015; Nam & Lan, 2022). People with greater levels of job embeddedness are contented with their jobs, and have high levels of organisational commitment (Alsughayir, 2021; Arif, 2018; Monyaki et al., 2022). The greater the relationship between organisational commitment and job embeddedness, the more likely it is that employees will be committed to the organisation, immersed in their jobs and easy to retain (Moberg, 2020; Pieters et al., 2022; Rothausen et al., 2017). Job embeddedness is deeply and strongly connected to organisational commitment and they both often translate into higher retention strategies.

- ***The theoretical relationship between job embeddedness and hardiness***

Highly embedded employees are high in Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge (Nor & Abdullah, 2020; Rodriguez et al., 2022). Individuals high in job embeddedness are Hardi-headed individuals, they are highly talented, and they are more motivated to accomplish their tasks and duties perfectly and correctly (Arif, 2018; Karatepe et al., 2021; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). Job embeddedness combined with hardiness can develop into robust talent retention strategies that will empower and encourage employees to stay enmeshed in their jobs and it will be easier to retain them (Arif, 2018; Chotigavanich & Sorod, 2020; DeMatthew et al., 2022).

- ***The theoretical relationship between job embeddedness and resilience***

Job embeddedness and resilience are closely linked; highly immersed employees are both resilient and tenacious, they remain caught in their jobs and organisations and are easier to retain (DeMatthews et al., 2022; Kinay et al., 2021; Safavi, 2021).

- ***The theoretical relationship between job embeddedness and career adaptability***

Sieraadj (2018) postulated that individuals who are embedded in their jobs are deeply grounded in career adaptability, are more engaged in adaptive behaviours and are easier to retain. Employees with high levels of fit and links are high in career adaptability and they are easier to retain (Chen et al., 2022; Savickas and Porfeli, 2012). This means that job embeddedness may influence career adaptability's impact on occupational change. However, high levels of job embeddedness demand employees to stay in their organisation, resulting in high levels of retention (Faisal et al., 2020; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022). Ultimately, organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability can convert into robust and holistic retention practices.

4.3.3 The theoretical relationship dynamics between hardiness, organisational commitment, job embeddedness, resilience and career adaptability

- ***The theoretical relationship between hardiness and organisational commitment***

Hardi-personality have high levels of organisational commitment and will stay in the organisation. Organisational commitment and hardiness may have a robust influence on the retention of superior and talented employees. Hardiness is deeply connected to organisational commitment and might combine into robust retention strategies. Hardi-headed employees have greater levels of continuance, normative and affective commitment, are highly dedicated to their jobs and will remain in the organisation (Dursun et al., 2022; Kazemi, 2020; Noermijati et al., 2021).

- ***The theoretical relationship between hardiness and job embeddedness***

Employees with high levels of Hardi-attitudes are highly immersed in their work and will stay in the organisation therefore it will be easier to retain them (Hossen et al., 2022; Yu & Liang, 2021). Hardi-headed individuals have greater levels of job embeddedness and are greatly talented and retainable. Hardiness and job embeddedness are deeply connected and can be converted into holistic retention strategies.

- ***The theoretical relationship between hardiness and resilience***

Hardiness and resilience are closely related to each other as both concepts affect an individual's well-being and mental health (Gardner et al., 2020; Rodriguez et al., 2022). On the other hand, Rakhmi et al., (2020) concluded that hardiness is a psychological characteristic connected with good performance, good health and resilience in the midst of difficult situations and daunting and stressful events. Additionally, there is a positive and

strong connection between hardiness and resilience because hardiness is a pathway to becoming resilient under stressful and traumatic circumstances (Maddi, 2006; Zhang et al., 2022). Hardiness and resilience are deeply connected, both constructs have been found to mitigate and buffer the effects of traumatic life situations and assist employees to remain in the organisation (Hezel et al., 2022; Jarwan & Al frehat, 2020). Hardi-individuals are resilient and persistent and will not leave the organisation easily. A Hardi-resilient style person has high levels of resilience and will stay in the organisation. As an individual's levels of resilience increases, so too do their levels of hardiness (Kalaitzaki et al., 2020). Hardiness and resilience are one of the strongest retention policies and strategies that will assist in retaining highly talented individuals.

- ***The theoretical relationship between hardiness and career adaptability***

Career adaptability and hardiness are profoundly linked and are robust and holistic retention strategies that will help organisations to retain highly talented employees. Employees with greater levels of Hardi-attitudes (Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge) have high levels of career adaptability and will stay in the organisation. Hardi-personality are highly career adaptive and they are career oriented (Hartmann et al., 2022; Sadeghpour et al., 2021). Hardi-attitudes and career adaptability combined are a strong retention strategy (Karatepe et al., 2021). Ultimately, Hardi-individuals are dedicated, immersed, resilient and adaptive in their organisations and jobs, and will usually stay with the organisation.

4.3.4 The theoretical relationship dynamics between resilience, organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness and career adaptability

- ***The theoretical relationship between resilience and organisational commitment***

Alola and Alola (2018) found a significant positive relationship between resilience and organisational commitment. The relationship dynamics between resilience and organisational commitment perform a critical role in the retaining of highly talented employees. Resilience is strongly connected to normative and affective commitment, consequently, highly affective committed employees have an emotional attachment towards the organisation and thus fully and willingly involve themselves in organisational activities (Dewi & Piartrini, 2021; Heredia et al., 2022; Kusyadi, 2020). The more resilient the employees are, the higher their continuance commitment and the easier they are to retain (Ahakwa et al., 2021; Kinay et al., 2021; Miller-Graff, 2022). Resilient employees are able to experience meaningful life in whatever they do, and this sense of purpose in their job has been established to be the main source of organisational commitment. Resilience predicts organisational commitment, it is only through

highly committed employees who are highly talented that organisations can become competitive (Alsughayir, 2021; Francisco & Castano, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022). Ultimately, resilient and tenacious employees are fully committed and embedded to their jobs, and have high levels of hardiness and career adaptability, and will be easier to retain.

- ***The theoretical relationship between resilience and job embeddedness***

Highly resilient individuals are deeply enmeshed in their jobs and they will find it difficult to leave their jobs (Quinton et al., 2021; Safavi, 2021). Similarly, the confidence of resilient individuals in themselves and in the job itself equip them with the strong embeddedness to carry on with the organisation (Khorakian et al., 2021).

- ***The theoretical relationship between resilience and hardiness***

Furthermore, resilient individuals are typically seen as having strong Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge (Hashemi et al., 2021; Hezel et al., 2022; Ko et al., 2017). Highly resilient employees are equivalent to Hardi-resilient style persons who will remain in the organisation and will be easier to retain (DeMatthews et al., 2022; King et al., 2021; Sadeghpour et al., 2021).

- ***The theoretical relationship between resilience and career adaptability***

Resilience is interconnected with career adaptability. Highly resilient and tenacious employees have greater levels of career adaptability, and they will do whatever it takes to stay in the organisation and promote their careers steadily (Kravchuk, 2021; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022). Resilience motivates employees to adapt quickly and utilise adaptive responses in the midst of difficult situations and remain with the organisation (Chui et al., 2022; Parola & Marcionetti, 2021). Resilient employees not only persevere and sustain through daunting and challenging circumstances, they also exhibit organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, and career adaptability in their capabilities which ultimately lead to increased levels of retention practices (Cooke et al., 2016; Hodliffe, 2014; Kilchrist, 2020; Nikander et al., 2022). Therefore, employee resilience combined with career adaptability could be seen as an essential strategic resource for organisations in promoting talent retention practices (Etile et al., 2020; Heredia et al., 2022; Rosa, 2020; Sullivan & Ariss, 2021). Anasori et al. (2020) adds that the contemporary organisations require highly committed, immersed, Hardi-personality, resilient and adaptive employees and thus demand a pool of highly retainable employees. Ultimately, highly resilient individuals believe in their capabilities and thus become more committed, immersed and adaptive in their roles and much easier to retain (Khorakian et al., 2021; Pillay, 2020; Sullivan & Ariss, 2021; Zhanga et al., 2022).

4.3.5 The theoretical relationship dynamics between career adaptability, organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness and resilience

- ***The theoretical relationship between career adaptability and organisational commitment***

There is a profound positive relationship between career adaptability and organisational commitment. Career adaptability will increase the organisational commitment of individuals to their jobs, decrease job losses and increase retention (Gong et al., 2020; Ivanov & Das, 2020; Nam & Lan, 2022; Yahan & Wenjie, 2021). Individuals with high levels of career adaptability are affectively, normatively and continually committed to the organisation and easy to retain (Chhonker & Narang, 2020; Moreira et al., 2022; Zivkovic et al., 2021). Ultimately, employees with greater levels of career adaptability are fully committed and embedded to their jobs, have greater levels of resilience and hardiness, and are easier to retain because they will want to remain with the organisation.

- ***The theoretical relationship between career adaptability and job embeddedness***

The four adaptive strategies or 4Cs of career adaptability (career concern, career control, career curiosity and career confidence) combined with job embeddedness critically assist in retaining superior and talented individuals (DeMatthews et al., 2022; Lan & Chen, 2020; Mika et al., 2020). Highly adaptive employees are immersed in their work and will stay in the employing organisation. These individuals enjoy their fit in the job, organisation and community, have relationships within the organisation and community, and eventually they will remain with the organisation because it will be very difficult to sacrifice all these profound relationships (Ismael et al., 2021; Karatepe et al., 2021; Rasheed et al., 2022). Highly career adaptive employees are highly committed and immersed in their jobs; they are Hardi-headed individuals and are resilient.

- ***The theoretical relationship between career adaptability and hardiness***

The 4Cs of career adaptability are strongly related to the 3Cs of hardiness, in that employees with high levels of career adaptability have high levels of Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge in handling their jobs and careers will remain in the organisation (Farahani & Teymournejad, 2021; Maddi et al., 2017; Rodriguez et al., 2022). These 7Cs are pivotal in retaining competent and talented individuals. Highly adaptive employees have high levels of Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge (Bingol & Cakir, 2021; Maddi et al., 2017; Maeng et al., 2017; Putri & Dewi, 2022). Hardiness and career adaptability and hardiness motivate employees to stay in the organisation.

- ***The theoretical relationship between career adaptability and resilience***

Career adaptability is positively interconnected to resilience, especially in that high career adaptability individuals are resilient and will persevere in their jobs and remain with the organisation (Lestari & Tentama, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022). Career adaptability is a profound resilient and adaptive strategy that encourages employees to adjust, persevere and deal with traumas and career transitions in daunting circumstances and to remain with the organisation (Atac et al., 2017; Francisco & Castano, 2020; Hezel et al., 2022). Adaptability is resilience; it creates and promotes adaptive responses to stressful situations and strengthens employees to stay with the organisation (Cadier et al., 2020; Fazeli et al., 2018; Hartmann et al., 2022). Career adaptability encompasses individuals' resiliency and tenacity, thereby assisting employees to manage their careers in order to remain in the organisation (Charokopaki & Argyropoulou, 2019; Delle & Searle, 2020; Putri & Dewi, 2022). The 4Cs of career adaptability are positively related to resilience, especially in that career adaptability can assist prepare, nature, sustain, motivate and support individuals' hope for a prosperous life as they plan their career and remain in the organisation (Chen et al., 2022; Corlett & McConnachie, 2021; Delle & Searle, 2020). High levels of adaptability facilitate career resilience and will strengthen individuals to stay with the organisation (Eryilmaz et al., 2020; Heredia et al., 2022; Woo, 2018). Career adaptability is deeply shown in the rapid-changing requests of organisations who are continuously looking for a committed, flexible, adaptive, proactive, embedded, Hardi-personality, resilient and retainable workforce (Jabbar & Mohammed, 2021; Ma et al., 2020a; Miller-Graff, 2022; Safari et al., 2021). Ultimately, career adaptability is strongly linked to organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness and resilience, and each disposition plays a critical role in retaining highly talented individuals. In conclusion, the literature extensively explored and mapped out the significant positive relationship dynamic between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability). The literature went on to outline that these positive connections between the constructs have an influence on the retention of the highly talented individuals. Organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability are strong and holistic retention strategies, that will motivate, empower and strengthen employees to remain in their jobs and organisations.

4.3.6 Variables (socio-demographical, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) which hypothetically predict resilience and career adaptability

Resilience has organisational outcomes such as employee attitudes, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, flexibility, employee behaviours (such as psychological features, effectiveness, employee performance) or experiences (such as well-being, work happiness, self-esteem and self-awareness) (Amir & Mangundjaya, 2021; Bene et al., 2017; Camp et al., 2020; Mathew, 2015; Nguyen, 2015; Paul et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2022). According to Marshall and Pichette (2017) as well as Osofsky (2018) resilience is strongly connected to affective and normative commitment. Employees with highly affective commitment have a deep emotional attachment towards the organisation and thus willingly participate in organisation activities and will therefore remain with the organisation (Carnevali et al., 2018; Hezel et al., 2022; Kravchuk, 2021; Marshall & Pichette, 2017; Nock et al., 2018; Paul et al., 2016; Vostanis et al., 2020). It can therefore be concluded that the more resilient the individuals are, the higher their job satisfaction and organisation commitment will be (Efimova et al., 2019; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022; Yahan & Wenjie, 2021).

Highly embedded and devoted employees might be resilient, have Hardi-personality styles and be easier to retain (DeMatthew et al., 2022; Mckinley et al., 2020; Nafei, 2015b; Pranitasari, 2020). Hystad et al. (2015) concluded that the three attributes of hardiness constitute personal qualities that has been connected with high performance and resilience. Maddi (2006) adds that hardiness is a pathway to resilience in the midst of stressful circumstances.

Hardiness is a strong psychological style connected with resilience, good performance and good health under challenging and traumatic events (Ahmed & Singh, 2017; Genry & Kobasa, 1984; Monyaki et al., 2022; Yu & Liang, 2021). On the other hand, affective commitment is reported to be important in the current context where career adaptability is vital to develop an emotional attachment between employees and organisations to retain talented employees (Chui et al., 2022; Naim & Lenka, 2018; Ramadhani & Suharso, 2021). Career adaptability might increase the commitment of individuals to their jobs and lessen job losses.

Socio-demographical factors might hypothetically predict resilience in that older employees were found to be more resilient, tenacious and loyal to their organisations (Chansky, 2020; Hartmann et al., 2022; Kinay et al., 2021). Biri (2020) added that permanent employees were

also resilient, tenacious, loyal and dedicated to their employing organisation. Socio-demographical factors might hypothetically predict career adaptability because age is found to be a strong determinant of career adaptability (Chui et al., 2022; Luke & Neault, 2020; Obe, 2021). Mika et al. (2020) added that gender predicts career adaptability.

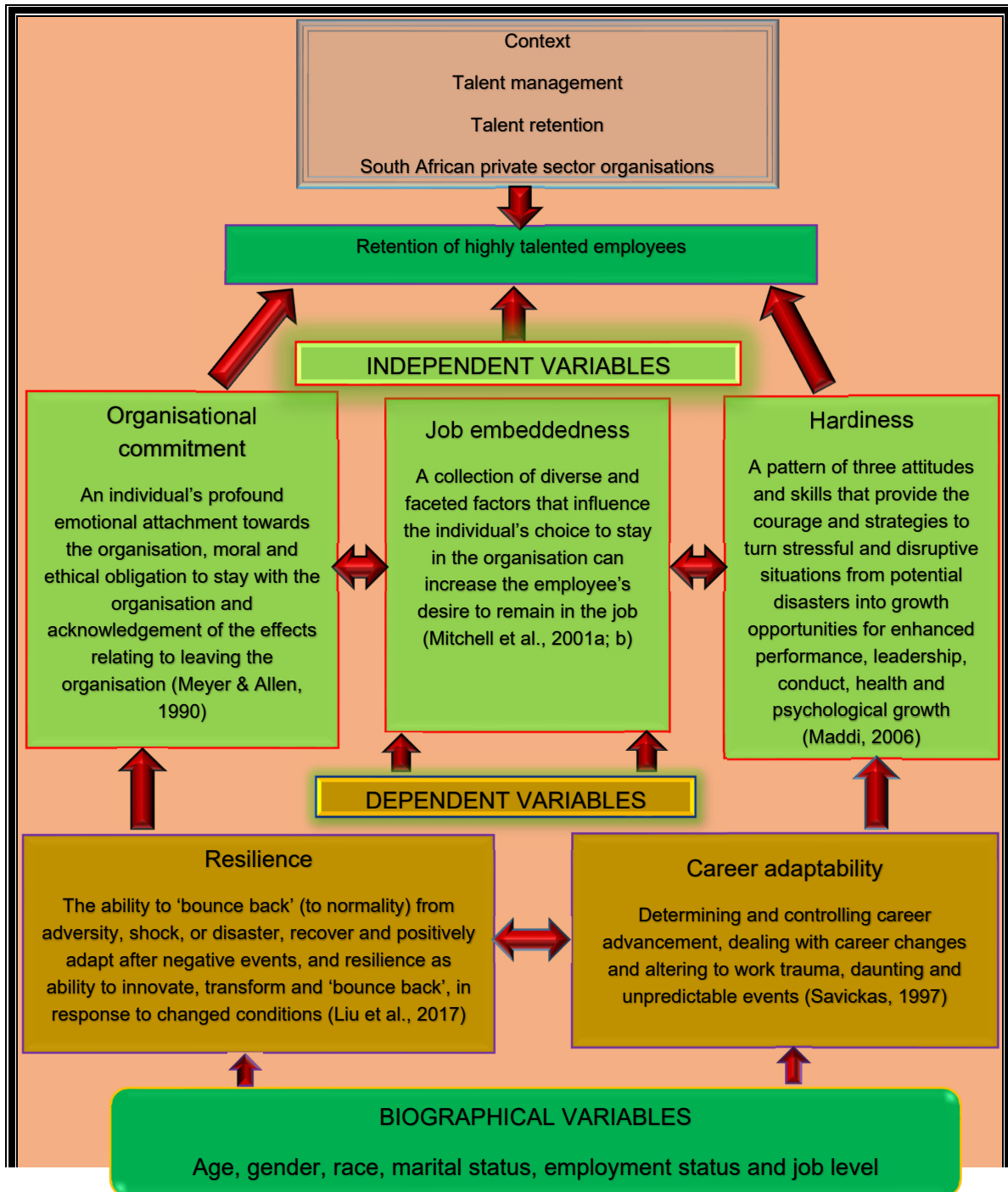
4.4 TOWARDS CONSTRUCTING A PSYCHOLOGICAL RETENTION FRAMEWORK: THEORETICAL LENS


The rationale for the theoretical model behind the study was prompted by the realisation that most of the existing talent retention models or frameworks are not effective and efficient enough, to assist organisations to win the “war for talent” and be able to attract and retain the best employees (Keller & Meaning, 2017; Manjiri, 2023; Postulka, 2022). Furthermore, the fact that there is not enough understanding about the psychological aspects that assist with retention of superior talent prompted the current study. According to Cerutti et al. (2020) highly talented employees drive the success of South African private sector organisations. Talent is vital for private sector organisations to stay successful and it is essential for these organisations to plan, acquire, attract, lead, develop, deploy, reward, engage, recruit and retain highly talented individuals to remain successful (Lesenyeko et al., 2018; Mwila & Turay, 2018; Shingenge & Saurombe, 2022). South African private sector organisations must understand the expectations of the talented employees in order to acknowledge them better, both on the individual and collective level (Cerutti et al., 2020; Govender, 2019; Swanepoel & Saurombe, 2022). Many private sector organisations and human resource managers and practitioners are deeply worried about retaining their knowledgeable and talented individuals (Govender, 2019; Hoque et al., 2022; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Mwila & Turay, 2018). Keeping talented individuals is a daunting challenge encountered by various organisations; and this could get worse in the future because knowledgeable and skilled individuals are scarce and rare (Bussin, 2019; Nakato et al., 2021; Thakhathi, 2022; Warnich et al., 2018). Additionally, organisations that do not strategically plan and direct on how to keep their highly talented individuals will be left with their non-performing and average individuals, which will impact their competitive edge and productivity. Several researchers concluded that the scarce talents which organisations would like to keep are found in loyal, committed, embedded, Hardi-committed, resilient and adaptable individuals (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Bussin et al., 2019; Muthusamy, 2018; Saurombe & Barkhuizen, 2022). Furthermore, such individuals take a more proactive and flexible way to control their careers (Latukha, 2016; Maree, 2020b; Shingenge & Saurombe, 2022). Highly committed, embedded, Hardi, adaptable and resilient individuals are in great demand in various private sector organisations.

Figure 4.4 outlines the proposed integrated theoretical relationship between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

Figure 4.4

An Integrated Overview of the Hypothesised Relationship Between Retention-related Dispositions and Resilience-related Behavioural Capacities





Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 4.4 will be briefly discussed in the remainder of the section.

4.4.1 Implications for retention management in the private sector organisations

Retention management is the assumption that highly talented employees must be acquired, segmented, nurtured, and deployed in key positions that are vital for the competitive advantage of the organisation and must then be retained (Barkhuizen et al., 2020; Mukweyi, 2016; Tarique et al., 2022). It is a challenge for South African private sector organisations to make sure that the four forces of organisational commitment are implemented in order to assist in the retention of highly talented individuals. Empirical evidence has shown that retaining highly talented individuals is extremely essential for the competitiveness and survival of organisations in general and specifically for the South African private sector organisations (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021; Bussin, 2019; Kalio, 2020; Muthusamy, 2018; Swanepoel & Saurombe, 2022).

Organisational commitment is an important force that increases the eagerness of individuals to remain in organisations to stay in organisations, since it has a direct effect on turnover intention, especially for the permanent, experienced and managerial employees (Akgunduz & Cin 2015; Alkahtani et al., 2021; Dung & Hai, 2020; Karatepe, 2016; Khan et al., 2022). According to Moreira et al. (2022), affective, normative and continuance commitment vary in gender perspectives; females have lower occupational stress than males. Murnieks et al. (2020) also emphasised that non-managerial employees have highly affective commitment compared to managerial employees. Furthermore, the impacts of stress are lower on the performance of managerial positioned employees when compared to non-managerial employees. (Ahakwa et al., 2021 ; Haque & Aston, 2016; Moreira et al., 2022; Murnieks et al., 2020). Ahluwalia and Preet (2017) concluded that overall organisational commitment is high amongst permanent and experienced employees, and low amongst entry level or intern employees. Greater and strong levels of continuance and normative commitment are found as years of experience increase and for long serving executive employees (Cohen et al., 2020; Jigjiddorj et al., 2021; Mustafa et al., 2022). Normative commitment and job embeddedness are closely linked especially when individuals of all ages, gender, races, marital status and varied permanence are working on job-related projects (Gibbs, 2015; Jolly & Self, 2020; Nam & Lan, 2022; Zivkovic et al., 2021). On the other hand, affective commitment is closely linked

to career adaptability especially in the current work environment of high workforce mobility, yet it is paramount to develop an emotional closeness between employees and organisations to retain young, highly talented and intelligent employees (Luke & Neault, 2020; Masrukhin, 2020; Moreira et al., 2022; Noermijati et al., 2012).

It is essential for private sector organisations to design and implement the three dynamic forces of job embeddedness as robust retention strategies, in order to keep highly talented individuals. Job embeddedness is an essential factor that increases the eagerness of employees to stay in organisations, since it has a direct impact on turnover intention, especially for the permanent, experienced and managerial employees (Akgunduz & Cin 2015; Dung & Hai, 2020; Karatepe, 2016; Monyaki et al., 2022). Job embeddedness is a valuable predictor of employee retention or intention to leave the job (Fatima et al., 2015; Ismael et al., 2021; Pieters et al., 2022; Shah et al., 2020). Kiazad et al. (2015) added that job embeddedness is closely linked to organisational commitment because older individuals embedded in jobs are also embedded in organisations and are fully committed to achieve the goals of the organisation. It is concluded that the higher the relationship between the organisation and employees, the more likely it is that employees will be embedded and devoted to the organisation and these individuals might be resilient and Hardi-personality style and easier to retain (Bingol & Cakir, 2021; Mckinley et al., 2020; Nafei, 2015b; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022; Pranitasari, 2020).

The three attitudes of hardiness are critical here in the retention of highly talented employees. It is imperative for South African private sector organisations to be highly productive, service-oriented, to attain increased revenues and profits, reduce costs and improve the quality of the service and product. This requires the development and retention of highly talented employees who are capable of achieving the objectives and goals of the organisation (Horwitz, 2017; Jasim & Yasir, 2020; Mokgojwa et al., 2017; Rodriguez et al., 2022). Hardiness' three attributes constitute a personality style that has been connected with resilience and high levels of performance among long serving and male emergency responders in the midst of stressful conditions (Dursun et al., 2022; Foster et al., 2020; Hystad et al., 2015; Kelifa et al., 2020). In addition, hardiness is a pathway to resilience under stressful events across all ages and genders (Amlakian et al., 2020; Hossenli et al., 2022; Hystad et al., 2015; Maddi, 2005; 2000). Ahmed and Singh (2017), as well as Murnieks et al. (2020), added that hardiness is an essential psychological style and personality connected with great performance, better health and resilience in the midst of highly demanding circumstances and careers, which affects all ages, races and both genders. Affective commitment differs across career stages (Abosede

& Akintola, 2017; Ahakwa et al., 2021; Dung & Hai, 2020; King et al., 2021; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022).

The five characteristics of resilience may play a pivotal role in retaining talented and intellectual individuals (Al kurdi et al., 2020; Bakker, 2020; Hartmann et al., 2022; Kinay et al., 2021). Ultimately, the current study will combine all the forces and attitudes of the concepts of the research to design strong retention strategies for South African private sector organisations. Career adaptability as a resilience resource, on the other hand, can be formulated as an essential dimension of resilience which shields employees of all ages, both genders, races, marital status, permanent and temporary, managerial and non-managerial employees and is vital for retaining talented employees (Albien et al., 2020; Chui et al., 2022; Farahani & Teymournejad, 2021; McIlveen et al., 2018; Nishimi et al., 2020). Ultimately employees with career growth opportunities, especially those who recognise career opportunities in an organisation, who are dedicated, immersed, Hardi-committed, resilient and adaptive are unlikely to leave the employing organisation and are much easier to retain (Ayuningtyas et al., 2020; Compton & Hoffman, 2020; King, 2020; Kravchuk, 2021; Nikander et al., 2022; Putra et al., 2020).

4.4.2 Organisational commitment

The organisational commitment concept was conceptualised in Section 3.1 of Chapter 3, as outlined in Figure 3.2 and summarised in Table 3.1. The most crucial features of organisational commitment were extensively explored, and the variables that impact the advancement of organisational commitment were described in detail. Organisational commitment is a factor that contributes positively to the organisation, especially in the retention of highly committed employees with critical skills, expertise, experience and competencies. Organisational commitment positively contributes to the retention of talented individuals. In the current study it is deemed that affective, normative and continuance commitment will be analysed and utilised in the development of robust retention strategies that will form part of the retention framework. It is thus expected that these three powerful forces of organisational commitment will play a critical role in retaining talented individuals in South African private sector organisations.

4.4.3 Job embeddedness

The job embeddedness concept was conceptualised in Section 3.2 of Chapter 3, as outlined in Figure 3.3 and summarised in Table 3.2. The six forces of job embeddedness were discussed in detail, including the on-the-job and off-the-job embeddedness, also including the traditional and new theoretical models that help the readers to comprehend job embeddedness. Job embeddedness has proved to be one of the strongest retention strategies locally and globally. The current study might inspire the South African private sector organisations to utilise the six binding forces of job embeddedness in designing holistic retention strategies that will influence employees to stay with the employing organisations. Deeply immersed employees have profound relationships with their colleagues and they would sacrifice a lot if they leave their organisation. Job embeddedness employees have a desire to stay in the job, thus deeply enmeshed individuals would be unlikely to quit the organisation. It can therefore be concluded that job embeddedness is a critical employee retention strategy that enables managers to keep highly talented individuals, since it focuses on reasons why individuals remain on their jobs rather than why they quit their jobs.

4.4.4 Hardiness

The concept of hardiness was conceptualised in Section 3.3 of Chapter 3, as diagrammatically outlined in Figure 3.4 and summarised in Table 3.3. The three attitudes of hardiness were extensively explored, including the traditional and new theoretical models that assist to understand hardiness. These three resilient attitudes of hardiness (commitment, control and challenge) may have a strong impact on retaining talent in an organisation, because they could influence whether or not an employee would like to stay with an organisation. Hardi-committed individuals are less likely to quit the employing organisation and are much easier to retain.

4.4.5 Resilience

The concept of resilience was conceptualised in Section 4.1 of this chapter, as explained in Figure 4.2 and summarised in Table 4.1. The five closely knitted characteristics or factors that constituted employee resilience were discussed in detail, including the traditional and new theoretical models that assist to comprehend resilience. The current study will include the five factors of resilience as part of the psychological retention framework, especially in the development of strong and holistic retention strategies that can be used by South African private sector organisations in retaining their highly competent and knowledgeable

employees. It is critical for organisations to develop supportive, collaborative and learning-oriented workplaces to promote and enhance employee resilience, beneficial to keep resilient and talented employees. It can therefore be concluded that resilience is a strong retention strategy that organisations should promote to retain their top talented employees. Ultimately, the five factors of resilience take a pivotal part in retaining highly talented and intellectual individuals.

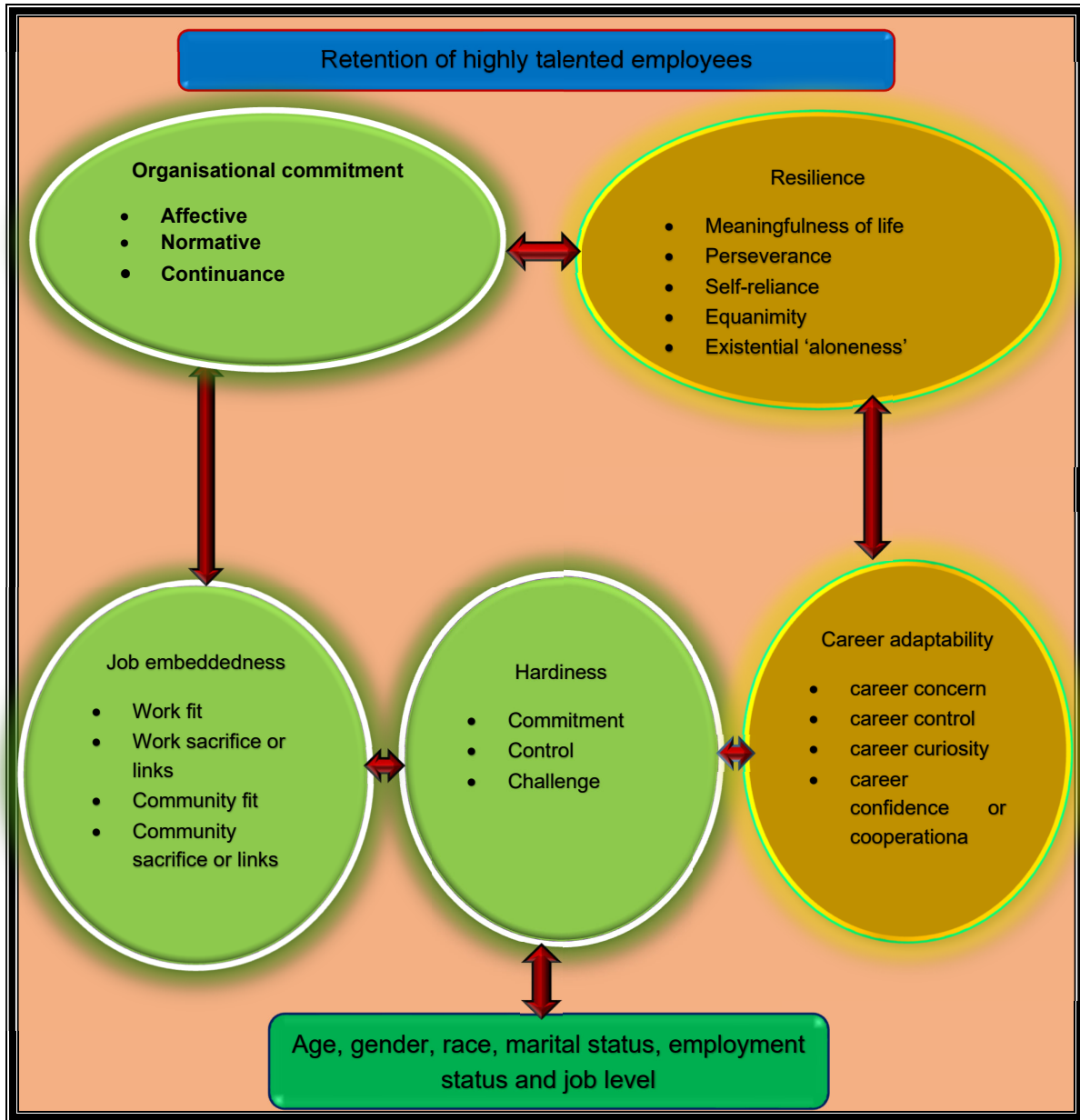
4.4.6 Career adaptability

The concept of career adaptability was conceptualised in Section 4.2 in this chapter, as explained in Figure 4.3 and outlined in Table 4.2. The 4Cs of career adaptability were discussed in detail, including the traditional and new theoretical models that assist to comprehend career adaptability. The 4Cs of career adaptability play a critical function in retaining top talented individuals. The current study will try to help South African private sector organisations to comprehend the career adaptability of the individuals because this might impact retaining talent in the organisation. It is therefore expected that the 4Cs of career adaptability will be part of the psychological retention framework. Ultimately, the current study will analyse the binding forces and attributes of all five constructs to design robust and holistic retention strategies.

Figure 4.5 summarises the hypothesised relationships between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

Figure 4.5

The Hypothesised Relationships Between Retention-Related Dispositions (Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness and Hardiness) and Resilience-Related Behavioural Capacities (Resilience and Career Adaptability)



Source: Author's own compilation

4.5. HYPOTHETICAL RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE CONSTRUCTS

Essentially, it was critical to discuss in detail the relationship dynamics between the five constructs. It was envisaged that this exploration would supply human resource practitioners with vital understandings into the relationships dynamics between the current research constructs and ultimately provide the processes needed to keep highly talented individuals. The hypothesised relationship dynamics between the constructs, founded on information gathered from the literature review, are outlined in Figure 4.5. The hypothesised integrated relationships between the retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) are briefly summarised in Table 4.5. These theoretical relationships could be used by human resource professionals and human resource managers to develop robust and holistic talent retention policies and strategies for highly talented and superior employees. Eventually, this could deepen and increase the retention of highly talented and gifted employees. Furthermore, this study will develop an empirically tested psychological retention framework, to assist human resource managers and practitioners.

Table 4.2

Psychological Retention Framework Constituting Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness, Resilience and Career Adaptability

LEVELS OF RETENTION PRACTICES	ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT	JOB EMBEDDEDNESS	HARDINESS	RESILIENCE	CAREER ADAPTABILITY
Individual	Affective, continuance and normative commitment	Work-fit, work-links or work-sacrifice, community-fit, community-links or community-sacrifice	Commitment, control and challenge	Meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential aloneness	Career concern, career control, career curiosity and career confidence
Organisational	Affective, continuance and normative commitment	Work-fit, work-links or work-sacrifice, community-fit, community-links or community-sacrifice	Commitment, control and challenge	Meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential aloneness	Career concern, career control, career curiosity and career confidence
Implications for retention practices	The three cardinal binding forces of organisational	The six unique, dynamic and powerful forces	The three attitudes of hardiness	The five factors of employee resilience might	The 4Cs of career adaptability

LEVELS OF RETENTION PRACTICES	ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT	JOB EMBEDDEDNESS	HARDINESS	RESILIENCE	CAREER ADAPTABILITY
	commitment might have a profound influence in the retention of highly talented employees	of job embeddedness might have an impact on the retention of highly talented employees	might have a strong impact on the retention of highly talented individuals	have a strong influence on the retention of highly talented employees	might have a deep impact on the retention of highly talented employees

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 4.6 depicts the theoretical hypothesised psychological retention framework that contains retention-related dispositions and resilience-related behavioural capacities.

Figure 4.6

Theoretical Psychological Retention Framework for the Retention of Highly Talented Employees



Source: Author's own compilation

Note: IV: Independent variable; DV: Dependent variable; OC: Organisational commitment; JE: Job embeddedness; H: Hardiness; R: Resilience; CA: Career adaptability

As indicated in Figure 4.6, the theoretical psychological retention framework has two features namely individual level and organisational level.

On both an individual and an organisational level, the retention of highly talented employees might be influenced by organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Retention practices should consider the binding forces, attitudes and

factors of the organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. This would help in designing robust and holistic retention strategies that might assist in the retention of highly talented employees. Retention practices should be developed with these concepts in mind. Based on the hypothesised theoretical framework, the following theoretical hypotheses were formulated. Their implications for retention practices are discussed below:

4.5.1 Hypothetical relationship between the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level), organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

Individuals from different age groups, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level are likely to experience and be impacted by the crucial dimensions of organisational commitment, binding forces of job embeddedness, three Hardi-attitudes of hardiness, five characteristics of resilience and 4Cs of career adaptability differently at different levels. (Host et al., 2017; Ishmael et al., 2021; Jigjiddorj et al., 2021; Khan et al., 2022; Orie, 2018; Rasheed et al., 2022). It is essential for South African private sector organisations, when designing the retention strategies, to implement the five constructs of the research in such a way that employees will stay with the employing organisation (Alsughayir, 2021; Budd & Bhave, 2019; Carrasco, 2019; Harry, 2020; Tarique et al., 2022). It is vital to strengthen the individuals' awareness of job embeddedness by deepening the factors that keep them strongly joined to their jobs and the organisation, which might lead to deeper dedication and an incentive to remain with the organisation. For example, hardiness comes with age and life experience, the three attitudes of hardiness could influence whether or not individuals will remain with the organisation (Haroon et al., 2020; Hashemi et al., 2021).

For example, control and challenge over marriage difficulties are a less important issue for single individuals. There are unique disparities in terms of the levels of commitment and work control between permanent and part-time employees, as well as interns (Gond & Sharma, 2020; Wang & Miao, 2022). Married individuals with children requiring care are more likely to remain in their jobs because the responsibility they are shouldering means they cannot leave their jobs (Kilchrist, 2020; Kravariti et al., 2022). It is therefore important for organisations to design, implement and evaluate retention programmes and strategies that will be able to retain hardy-personality style (for example highly productive and tenacious) employees to remain

competitive in this high-tech smart economy (Holt & Davis, 2022; Hystad et al., 2015; Ladstatter et al., 2018; Maddi et al., 2012; Sadeghpour et al., 2021; Sarani et al., 2015).

On the other hand, resilience is vital in retaining highly competent individuals; it is essential for private sector organisations to manage their employees in a way that promotes a strong sense of employee resilience. For instance, men and women have different and unique levels of resilience (Hartmann et al., 2022; King et al., 2021; Nishimi et al., 2020). Different race groups excelled in different kinds of resilience and their dimensions, and had different levels of resilience in different contexts. The perceptions, expectations and needs of employees from different socio-demographics variables are completely different, as well as their levels of resilience. Married employees remain and persevere in their jobs because they have greater financial responsibilities contrasted to single individuals (Haroon et al., 2020; Hezel et al., 2022).

Older employees are more resilient, tenacious and loyal to their organisations than young employees and new-comers, because of their vast experience, acquired expertise, and developed wisdom (Calder & Archer, 2016; Chansky, 2020; Heredia et al., 2022; Kinay et al., 2021). Ultimately, permanent employees would consider remaining at the organisation because they are resilient, tenacious and dedicated to their employing organisation (Corlett & McConnachie, 2021; Miller-Graff, 2022; Pillay, 2020).

It is further presumed that employees who are flexible, adaptable and proactive, are supremely retainable and these unique employees are in great demand. Luke and Neault (2020) found that older employees would consider remaining at the organisation because they have remarkable levels of career adaptability than younger employees who might be struggling to settle into their jobs.

Gender predicted career adaptability, showed that female employees had higher levels of career adaptability than the male employees (Mens et al, 2016; Mika et al., 2020; Sullivan & Ariss, 2021). On the other hand, diverse race groups had significant disparities between the career adaptability levels of the different race groups, especially when using the 4Cs of career adaptability.

Permanent employees were more concerned about their career adaptability than younger and new entrance employees (Karatepe et al., 2021; Naim & Lenka, 2018; Putri & Dewi, 2022).

Ultimately, for these reasons, as outlined above, retention policies and strategies should be developed in such a way that the diverse needs of individuals from various socio-demographic variables are taken into consideration, so that their unique and diverse needs are met.

4.6 IMPLICATIONS FOR RETENTION PRACTICES

The implications for retention practices will be explored in detail in the section below.

4.6.1 Organisational level retention practices

On an organisational level, the retention of highly talented employees may be influenced by the three cardinal binding forces of organisational commitment, that might bind, encourage, challenge, motivate, empower and inspire individuals to remain with the employing organisation. Organisational commitment binds the employee in a unique way to the organisation (Alsughayir, 2021; Bihani et al., 2019; Dewi & Piartrini, 2021; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022; Sharma & Jabeen, 2020). South African private sector organisations must manage their employees in such a way that they have a strong affective, continuance and normative commitment towards the organisation in order to keep their highly talented employees for longer periods of time (Jasim & Yasir, 2020; Jigjiddorj et al., 2021; Moreira et al., 2022; Rasdi et al., 2018). Organisations should be involved in research and development to increase commitment among their employees in order to increase retention and reduce turnover (Mustafa et al., 2022; Pranitasari, 2020). Highly committed employees will remain with the organisation.

The six unique, dynamic and powerful forces of job embeddedness might also have an influence on the retention of highly talented individuals. Conversely, employees with low levels of these six forces (work-fit, work-links, work-sacrifice, community-fit, community-links, community-sacrifice) will be difficult to retain (DeMatthews et al., 2022; Jolly & Self, 2020; Mitchell et al., 2001a). Additionally, it is important for private sector organisations to strengthen their employees' awareness of job embeddedness by deepening the factors that keep them strongly enmeshed to their jobs and the organisation (Home et al., 2017; Khorakian et al., 2021; Monyaki et al., 2022). South African private sector organisations must do whatever it takes to create holistic strategies and environments that will lead employees to be embedded in their jobs in order to retain them. Highly embedded employees will be easier to retain.

Additionally, the three Hardi-attitudes of hardiness may have a strong influence on the retention of highly skilled and gifted employees, because they could influence whether or not individuals would remain with the organisation (Ahmed & Singh, 2017; Hashem et al., 2021; Hossen et al., 2022). Maddi et al. (2017) concluded that hardiness was a more valid and reliable measure of retention, and this inspires organisations to realise the value of using hardiness in the selection and training of highly talented employees. The other important way to develop the 3Cs (Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge) of hardiness in employees is to utilise Hardi-training programmes focusing on the individual's domains of function (Maddi et al 2009; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2001). It is critical for private sector organisations to assist their employees to grow into Hardi-individuals, Hardi-headed individuals and Hardi-personality individuals as these individuals will stay with the organisation.

Furthermore, the retention of highly talented individuals may be impacted by the five attributes of resilience. It is important for organisations to design a collaborative, learning-oriented and supportive work environment to promote employee resilience, to be able to retain resilient and highly competent individuals. South African private sector organisations must provide training programmes for their employees to enhance their resilience, and also to coach and mentor employees on how to cope with challenging and stressful circumstances at work. The training programmes are vital because they will improve and build resilience, will also encourage and motivate individual employees to deal with difficult times and grow to a better person in the midst of adversity, and will ensure that they remain in the organisation (Mckinley & Laukaitis, 2020; Miller-Graff, 2022).

Ultimately, the retention of highly talented employees may be impacted with the 4Cs of career adaptability. It is imperative for South African private sector organisations to comprehend deeply the career adaptability of individuals because this might impact on the retention of talented employees in the organisation. Hosen (2018) challenges organisations to focus on designing career skills, career-oriented attitudes in order to enhance the retainability of the current employees and to improve their being retainable in the organisation. It is essential for organisations to implement the best career opportunities and career development in order to assist their employees to be highly committed and able to gain promotion and advance to higher levels, thereby retaining them for longer periods of time (Farahani & Teymournejad, 2021; Tabu & Nura, 2020; Putri & Dewi, 2022). The combination and analysis of the forces, attitudes and factors of the research concepts would help in the designing of robust, holistic and specific retention strategies that might help the organisation to retain dedicated, immersed, Hardi-challenged, resilient and adaptive employees.

Bakker (2020) adds that today's business landscape is volatile and competitive thus making highly talented and skilled individuals the vital distinguishing attribute for most organisations. Furthermore, it is vital for organisations to do whatever it takes, to make sure that their highly talented employees stay with the organisation in order to develop a unique and solid talent pool within the organisation (Al Kurdi et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2022). These are individuals who are highly committed, embedded, Hardi-committed, resilient, have strong work identities or career identities, who are proactive, flexible and adaptive in order to be marketable in this daunting and unpredictable business environment (Abioro et al., 2020; Kusyadi, 2020; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022; Wikhamn, 2019). Several researchers expanded that it is essential for organisations to comprehend and firmly grip the forces and factors that encourage individuals to remain or quit the organisation, to be able to efficiently keep its high calibre and competent individuals, who will assist the organisational to be successful and competitive (Alruwaili, 2018; Divekar & Raman, 2020; Kajwang, 2022; Nakato et al., 2021). Studies conducted by Kenon and Palsole, (2019) assert that the major aim of talent retention is to assure that key performers and highly talented do not depart from the organisation because this might have an influence on the profitability and productivity of the organisation and this will possibly impact the effectiveness and efficiency of the organisation.

Various studies concluded that the forces motivating long-term retention are adequate and relevant training and development opportunities, interesting and challenging work, learning, values and brand, culture, supportive leadership, development, career opportunities, recognition and healthy working environments (Bakker, 2020; Kerga & Asefa, 2018; Konstanek & Khoreva, 2018; Tarique et al., 2022; Wiblen, 2021). Kalio (2020) reiterates that organisations should encourage their highly talented and qualified employees with both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to retain them on a long-term basis. Conversely, even if the organisation ensures that all these talent retention forces are fully implemented and evaluated in order to keep its qualified and talented individuals, it is the individual's final choice to remain or leave the organisation, especially due to poor managerial support (Aejaz & Kumar, 2020; Khan et al., 2022). Additionally, organisations should implement robust and holistic retention strategies to decrease turnover, because employee turnover is costly for the organisation, namely: loss of tacit knowledge, loss of cohesion within the teams, conveyance costs, training employees, trainer's cost, reduced productivity, loss of customers, disruption to business operations and output (Cerutti et al., 2020; Matongolo et al., 2018; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021; Wang & Miao, 2022). Employee turnover may impact the reputation and image of the organisation, impact the organisation's profitability, damage employees' morale and quality of work (Berger & Berger, 2018; Magaisa & Musundire, 2022). Ultimately organisational

commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability are robust retention strategies.

4.6.2 Individual-level retention practices

On an individual level organisational commitment predicts important variables such as turnover, performance, organisational citizenship behaviour and absenteeism (Kallio, 2020; Lestari & Tentama, 2020; Mustafa et. al, 2022). It is essential for individuals to strengthen and deepen these three binding forces of organisational commitment in order to be able to reduce the probability of turnover and remain with the organisation. It is therefore imperative for individuals to do whatever it takes to strengthen their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, career adaptability and resilience in order to remain within the organisation. Furthermore, organisational commitment is one of the most unique and strongest retention strategies that assist employees to remain within organisations.

Several researchers concluded that highly enmeshed employees have strong and unique relationships with their colleagues (i.e. interconnectedness), and they would sacrifice a lot if they depart from the organisation (i.e. sacrifice) (Alsar & Badir, 2016; Ayuningtyas et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2014; Pieters et al., 2022; Watson, 2018). Individuals' links with peers and awareness of sacrifices should be deepened in order to remain within the organisation. Employees with high levels of job embeddedness are satisfied with their jobs, highly productive, committed, loyal, trustworthy and are highly involved with their organisations, and always ready to go the extra mile to exceed expectations (Arif, 2018; Jabbar & Mohammed, 2021; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). They are top performers, and they are more concerned with accomplishing their tasks and duties perfectly and correctly; they are resilient, industrious, innovative, creative, victorious and stable; they tend to do whatever they think is necessary for completing and accomplishing the work (Arif, 2018; DeMatthew et al., 2022; Karatepe, 2016; Khaleel et al., 2016; Safavi, 2021). Ultimately, it is critical for individuals to make sure that their level of job embeddedness is kept consistently high in order to stay within the organisation.

The three attitudes of hardiness (hardy-commitment, hardy-control and hardy-challenge) may have a strong effect on individual retention practices, because they could influence whether or not an employee would like to remain with an organisation (Bartone et al., 2015; Crossley et al., 2007; Dursun et al., 2022; Maddi, 2004). Hardiness provides the motivation, confidence and courage to discover positive meaning in one's job and life in general, grow in wisdom, keep trying and stay involved regardless of whether life is difficult or easy (Maddi, 2004b).

Individuals should grow in Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge in order to remain within the organisation. It can therefore be concluded that hardy personality type individuals may be more demanding to keep because they are target, goal and success driven (Escolas et al., 2017; Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020; Kazemi, 2020; Rodriguez et al., 2022). It is essential for individuals to realise that they need to develop and grow in all 3Cs of hardiness in order to be courageous, and to have full and operational existential courage to remain with the organisation (Maddi, 2002). Hardiness increases coping self-efficacy in an individual's life, it allows for effective coping behaviour, thus helps most individuals to respond positively to adversity (Hossenli et al., 2022; Ko et al., 2017; Miller-Graff, 2022). Hystad et al. (2015) encouraged individuals to be involved in any training and development that will enhance their hardiness.

Resilience may prove favourable for individuals to quickly adjust to the unpredictable expectations and perform effectively even in difficult and emotionally stressful circumstances (Amir & Mangundjaya, 2021; Fredrickson et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2018; Ogunsanwo, 2019; Zhang et al., 2022). Resilient employees not only persevere and sustain through daunting and challenging circumstances, but they also show confidence and courage in their capabilities which ultimately leads to improved levels of retention practices (Cooke et al., 2016; Hartmann et al., 2022; Hodliffe, 2014; Kilchrist, 2020; Yahan & Wenjie, 2021). Therefore, employee resilience could be viewed as an essential strategic resource for individuals in promoting talent retention practices, that will assist them to remain within the organisation (Etile et al., 2020; Quinton et al., 2021; Rosa, 2020). Resilience should become the focal point of each individual's daily life whether or not that person has encountered difficult or stressful situations, because resilience is about overcoming hardships and enjoying life more (improving relationships) (Capuano et al., 2020; Kenyon, 2017). Highly resilient employees will remain with the organisation.

Career adaptability is a profound, resilient and adaptive resource that encourages employees to adjust, persevere and deal with career transitions and traumas in daunting circumstances and to stay with the organisation (Atac et al., 2017; Francisco & Castano, 2020; Hezel et al., 2022; Parola & Marcionetti, 2021). Career adaptability can prepare, support, motivate, sustain and nurture each individual's hope for a prosperous life as they navigate this unpredictable and changing world of work (Delle & Searle, 2020; Heredia et al., 2022). Career adaptability encompasses individuals' resiliency, strengths, capacities, adaptivity to track, face and accept their challenging career landscapes and roles, and to effectively, efficiently and courageously control these career movements in order to remain in the organisation (Charokopaki & Argyropoulou, 2019; Delle & Searle, 2020; Farahani & Teymournejad, 2021). Empirical

evidence further showed that career resilience expedites a high level of adaptability, and a capability to take advantage of resilience, deep faith in one's control, self-reliance, networks, self-confidence, openness to new opportunities and change in the midst of difficult events (Bingol & Cakir, 2021; Eryilmaz et al., 2020; Miller-Graff, 2022; Woo, 2018). It can therefore be concluded that career adaptability will strengthen the affective, continuance and normative commitment of individuals to their jobs and immerse them into their jobs, and thereby increase retention (Chhonker & Narang, 2020; Gong et al., 2020; Obe, 2021; Zhang et al., 2022). The four adaptive strategies or 4Cs of career adaptability (career concern, career control, career curiosity and career confidence) importantly assist in the retention of highly talented employees (Hartman et al., 2022; Lan & Chen, 2020; Mika et al., 2020; Ramadhani & Suharso, 2021).

Ultimately, organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability might motivate and strengthen employees to remain within the organisations (Haenggli & Hirschi, 2020; Hezel et al., 2022; Marie et al., 2018).

4.7. EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

The major purpose of the literature review was to establish the dynamic relationships between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability, and how these constructs relate to talent retention and talent management, and ultimately design a psychological retention framework. This literature study concluded that South African private sector organisations are faced with a daunting shortage of skilled workforce, and are experiencing it very demanding to keep highly talented individuals to be competitive and successful (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021; Kumar, 2017; Swanepoel & Saurombe, 2022). Failure to retain highly talented employees, will result in South African private sector organisations incurring high turnover costs and this will result in lower productivity (Budd & Bhave, 2019; Bussin et al., 2019; Hoque et al., 2022). In an effort to assist South African private sector organisations, human resource practitioners and several researchers have identified eleven retention challenges that are faced by these private sector organisations, and which must be considered to enhance the retention of talented individuals (Cascio, 2018; Cui et al., 2018; Davis & Frolova, 2019; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Thakhathi, 2022; Wojcik, 2018). These retention challenges are summarised in Table 4.3 below and these are critical to the retention of knowledgeable and talented employees who are the lifeboats of any organisation and who are the most dynamic, critical and unique assets required to support and enhance productivity and competitiveness (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Ncube, 2016; Ployhart et al., 2018; Saurombe & Barkhuizen, 2022).

Currently South African private sector organisations are faced with rapid developments such as demographic changes, workforce diversity, ageing workforce and generational diversity (Cui et al., 2018; Gani, 2017; Maisiri & Van Dyk, 2021; Shingenge & Saurombe, 2022). These developments have serious consequences for the administration of talent practices in South African private sector organisations (Hoque et al., 2022; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Muthusamy, 2018).

Table 4.3

Retention Challenges Faced by South African Private Sector Organisations

RETENTION CHALLENGES	SOURCE
Critical global skills shortage	Cui et al., (2018); Davis & Frolova, (2019); Maisiri & Van Dyk, (2021)
Competition among organisations in attracting, acquiring and retaining highly talented employees	Branfield et al., (2018); Musakuro & De Klerk, (2021); Naim & Lenka, (2018)
Workforce diversity	Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Cascio, (2018); Hosen et al., (2018)
Globalisation	Barkhuizen et al., (2020); Mahfoozi et al., (2018); Mone & London, (2018)
Creativity and innovation	Cross, (2018); Dadheech, (2020); Pirzada et al., 2021; Ross, (2018)
Comprehensive and competitive compensation packages	Al-Lozi et al., (2018); Martinez-Moran et al., 2021; Waweru & Kagiri, (2018)
Training and development opportunities	Dubey et al., 2021; Gallardo-Gallardo et al., (2018); Tambajong et al., (2018)
Recognition on individual levels	Adamska-Chudzinska, 2020; Barkhuizen & Gumede, (2021); Budd & Bhave, (2019); Latukha, (2016)
Managerial and supervisor support	Akunda et al., (2018); Berger, (2018); Dagogo & Ogechi, (2020); Lanvin & Evans, (2017); Safari et al., (2021)
Health and well-being	Cronsell & Lindahl, (2020); Ekhsan et al., (2021); Holston-Okae & Mushi, (2018); Ramu, (2018); Waweru & Kagiri, (2018)

RETENTION CHALLENGES	SOURCE
Organisational culture	Bughin et al., (2018); Langat et al., (2020); Masadeh et al., (2018); Naim & Lenka, (2018); Wiblen, (2021)

Source: Author's own compilation

Camp et al. (2020) concluded that there is a break in research studies that have been done and very few supply better techniques to encourage organisations in their understanding of managing employees from diverse and different socio-demographical variables. Managing and understanding employees from different socio-demographical variables in an improved way could contribute to the development of advanced talent retention policies and strategies that are more dynamic and holistic in keeping individuals. The problems connected to employees from diverse socio-demographic variables might result in their different and diverse needs, perceptions and expectations being left unsatisfied. In order to make sure that the needs of individuals from diverse socio-demographics are met, the current study will try to develop an inclusive psychological retention framework, that will try to accommodate all the needs and expectations of these diverse employees (Chansky, 2020; Kravariti et al., 2022; Orie, 2018). In contrast, employees have the final decision whether to leave or stay with the employing organisations, even if their needs and expectations are fully met. The antecedents of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability differ in different socio-demographics (Holt & Davis, 2022; Murnieks et al., 2020).

The literature review has made it clear that the constructs of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability contribute positively and significantly in retaining highly talented employees with critical skills, expertise, experience and competencies. Ultimately, the current research will combine and analyse all the dimensions, forces, characteristics and attitudes of the five constructs of the research to design robust and holistic retention strategies for South African private sector organisations.

4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The main purpose of Chapter 4 was to conceptualise the concepts of resilience and career adaptability (resilience-related behavioural capabilities). Additionally, the researcher sought to give an overview of the literature appropriate to the theoretical models that mainly impact the understanding of resilience and career adaptability. The variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status) influencing the development of resilience and career

adaptability have been discussed extensively. Furthermore, the chapter also explored the relationship dynamics between the constructs.

The chapter concluded with a discussion on towards designing a psychological retention framework for South African private sector organisations (theoretical lens), the hypothetical relationships between the constructs and the implications for talent retention practices and talent management on organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

The following aims were discussed in detail in Chapter 4:

Research aim 2: To conceptualise resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) in the context of talent management and talent retention, and in terms of theoretical models in the literature.

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), as well as strategies influencing retention and the elements of the theoretical psychological retention framework that emerged from the relationship dynamics.

Research aim 4: To formulate recommendations for the discipline of Human Resource Management and specifically talent retention practices and make recommendations on possible future research based on the findings of this research study.

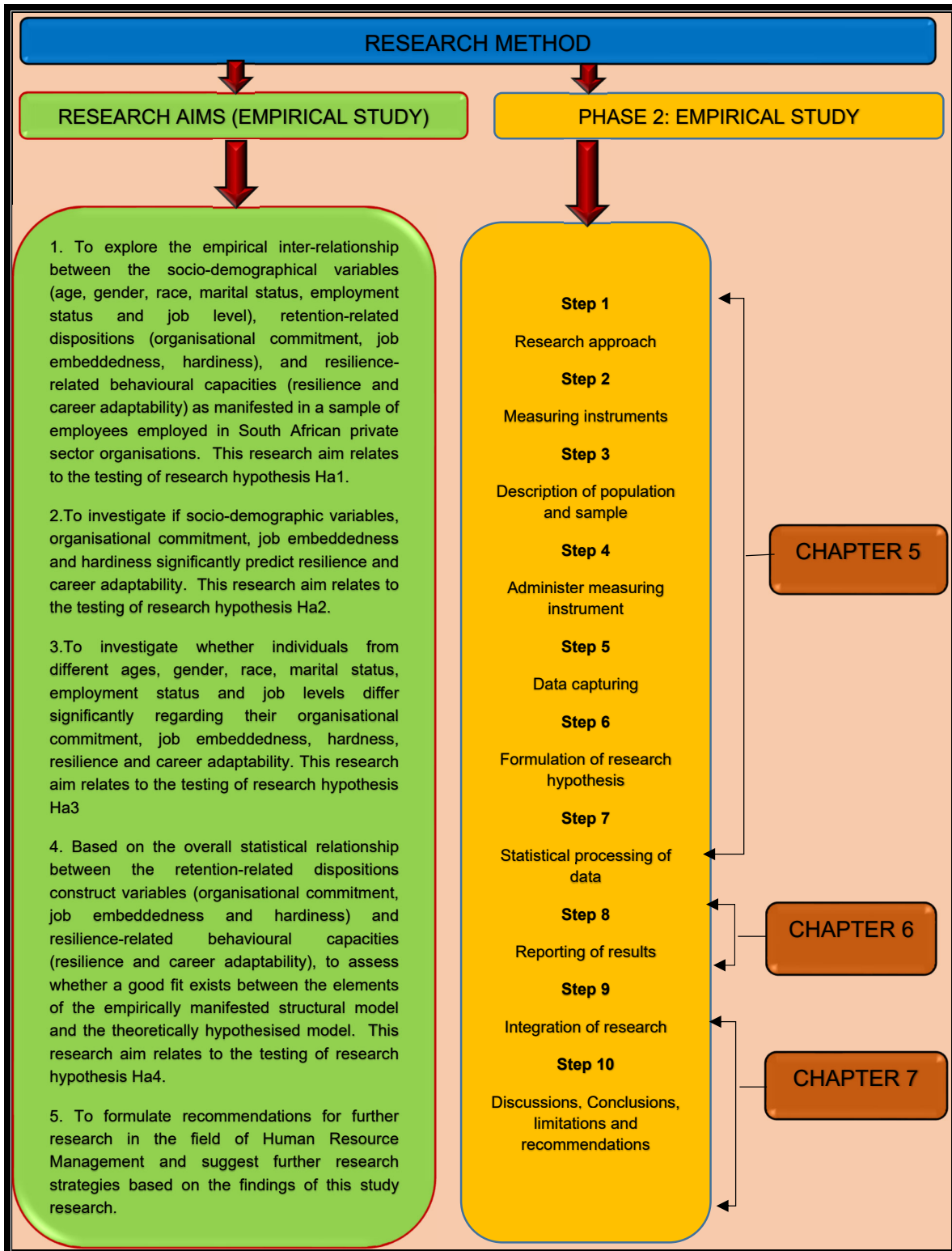
In summary, literature aims numbers 2, 3 and 4 were achieved in this chapter. The research strategy and methodology used in this research are explained in detail in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: EMPIRICAL STUDY

This chapter discusses in detail the statistical processes, procedures and strategies utilised to test the fit of the unique proposed psychological retention framework to be utilised for the retention of highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations could be designed. This was successfully achieved by exploring the unique relationship dynamics between retention-related disposition (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level). The main aim of this chapter was to supply ample information on the empirical study done. Additionally, the selection and motivation for the five measuring instruments were described in detail. Furthermore, the data gathering procedures and statistical processing procedures used were outlined in detail. The purposes of the empirical study, the characteristics of the sample size and the population were also explained in detail. The chapter ended with the creation of the research hypotheses. This research aim is related to the testing of research hypothesis Ha1. In Chapter 1 (see section 1.9.2), the empirical phase of the research consists of ten systematically connected steps aimed at addressing the empirical research aims as outlined in Figure 5.1. This chapter addressed steps one to seven of the empirical study. Furthermore, step eight is addressed in Chapter 6 and steps nine and ten are addressed in Chapter 7.

Figure 5.1 outlines the main themes of this chapter.

Figure 5.1
The Empirical Study – Research Aims and Steps



Source: Author's own compilation

5.1 RESEARCH APPROACH

5.1.1 Quantitative

The researcher utilised a deductive research method in this research to draw a unique conclusion. Deductive research uses empirical data to test theoretically hypothesised relationship dynamics between identified constructs (Alam et al., 2021; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Hayes, 2022; Saunders et al., 2016). This approach inspired and encouraged the researcher to (1) recognise and conceptualise the constructs suitable to the proposed psychological retention framework for highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations; (2) suggest relationship dynamics between the five constructs based on the existing literature; and (3) obtain empirical validation and supply strong evidence of these hypothesised relationships dynamics.

5.1.2 Research design

A cross-sectional quantitative survey design using reliable, valid and standardised measuring instruments was utilised for this research. Empirical data was collected by means of an electronic survey (Lime survey), from individual employees in a South African private sector organisation. Gathering main data ensured that the collected information was comparable with the aims of the current study, and that the utilisation of the constructs tallied with the theoretical conceptualisation of the constructs (Babbie, 2017; Babbie et al., 2022; Hays & McKibben, 2020). Even though a cross-sectional research design has several limitations, such as: (1) the results cannot be used to analyse attitudes or behaviour over a period of time; and (2) it does not make causal inferences from the collected data, it was still considered to be relevant to the aims of the current study (Babbie, 2017; Hays & McKibben, 2020). The cross-sectional research design was suitable for the current research because of the exploratory nature of the study, and also because it is critical in the collection of large-scale data from a large target population (Babbie et al., 2022; Creswell & Poth, 2017). This research design is also cost-effective, it saves time and it gathers diverse information at a specific point in time (Creswell & Path, 2017). Furthermore, this research design seems to contain multiple constructs, the results can be analysed to develop new theories and profound research, and it can be used to substantiate or disprove assumptions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Saunders et al., 2016). Additionally, the cross-sectional research design was relevant to the current study because the empirical interconnectedness among the constructs are unknown which needs to be explored to estimate the capability of future longitudinal research (Creswell & Path, 2017;

Hayes, 2022). In the current research, the quantitative nature of the data assisted the researcher to get explanatory, inferential and descriptive information that could be utilised to test hypotheses relating to the relationship dynamics between the constructs (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Goodwin & Goodwin, 2017).

5.2 SELECTING AND MOTIVATING THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The choice of the assessment instruments for the purposes of this research was motivated and inspired by the literature review. The literature review was viewed particularly as exploratory research, wherein appropriate and unique theories and models of the retention-related disposition and resilience-related behavioural capacities were presented in a professional, systematic, integrated and logical way. Measuring instruments were chosen according to their efficiency, cost effectiveness, reliability, validity, suitability and relevance in evaluating these constructs. The assessment instruments are projected to measure the constructs of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

The chosen assessment instruments are explained in detail in the sections below.

- A biographical questionnaire to obtain data regarding age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status.
- The Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS), developed by Meyer and Allen (1997), to measure the organisational commitment (three dimensional) construct.
- The Job Embeddedness Scale (JES), developed by Mitchell et al. (2001), to measure the job embeddedness (three dimensional) construct.
- The Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R), developed by Maddi and Khoshaba (2001), to measure the hardiness (multifaceted) construct.
- The Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes), developed by Naswall et al. (2013), to measure employee resilience.
- The Career Adaptability Inventory (CAI), developed by Savickas (1997), to measure the career adaptability construct.

5.2.1 The biographical questionnaire

A biographical questionnaire was utilised to obtain all personal information of the sample, namely: age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status.

5.2.2 The Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)

The following section examines the rationale, purpose, scale description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and motivation for choosing and using the OCS.

5.2.2.1 Rationale and purpose of the OCS

The Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS), developed by Meyer and Allen (1997), was utilised to measure organisational commitment by calculating three main features of an employee's organisational commitment, namely: affective, normative and continuance commitment. The main aim of this measuring instrument is to ascertain the employee's commitment to the organisation.

5.2.2.2 Description of the scales of the OCS

The OCS consists of 24 structured statements or items measuring affective (emotional), continuance and normative commitment within organisational commitment. The scale has 24 structured questions or items, eight per dimension of organisational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It is divided into three subscales. The following provides a detailed description of the three dimensions:

Affective or Emotional Commitment Subscale

The affective commitment subscale connects to an individual's intense affection to the organisation and comprises 8 statements, including, for example, the following statements: "I think I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one", "I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation" and "I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation". Affective (emotional) commitment measures the individual's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organisation.

Continuance Commitment Subscale

Continuance commitment subscale relates to an individual's commitment to the organisation based on the costs associated with leaving it and comprises of 8 statements, including, for example, the following statements: "I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up", "It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to" and "Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decide that I want to leave my organisation right now". Continuance commitment assesses the employee's commitment to the organisation based on the costs connected with quitting it.

Normative Commitment Subscale

The normative commitment subscale connects to an individual's feelings of responsibility to stay with the organisation and comprises 8 statements, including, for example, the following statements: "If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere", "I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer" and "Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now". Normative commitment assesses the individual's strong emotions of responsibility to remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

5.2.2.3 Administration of the OCS

The OCS is a self-administered questionnaire and takes 5 minutes to complete, even though there is no time limit. Clear instructions for its completion were given. The items are structured in a statement format with a rating scale for each statement. Participants rate the statements based on their self-perceived organisational commitment. The higher the score, the truer the statement was for the participant. Subscales with the highest mean scores are regarded as the participants' influential organisational commitment characteristics. The OCS consists of three subscales and utilises a seven-point Likert-type scale to assess the respondent's response to each of these items, with anchors of 1 being "strongly disagree" and 5 being "strongly agree". Research studies approve the validity and reliability of the affective, continuance and normative commitment scales. The OCS questionnaire is self-explanatory and no supervision is required.

5.2.2.4 Interpretation of the OCS

Each subscale (affective or emotional, normative and continuance) is assessed separately and shows the participants' preferences and emotions on the diverse items that connect to that specific aspect. As a result, analysis can be carried out as to which aspects are perceived to be true for the participants and which are not. Subscales with the highest mean scores within each of the three scale components are regarded as the respondents' dominant organisational commitment facets.

The classifications are outlined as follows:

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Sometimes disagree
- 4 = Neutral
- 5 = Sometimes agree
- 6 = Agree

7 = Strongly agree

5.2.2.5 Validity and reliability of the OCS

The internal consistencies of the OCS dimensions vary between .85 for affective commitment, .79 for continuance commitment and .73 for normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). It was found that the correlation between the OCS antecedent variables confirms that the scale is a valid measure of organisational commitment and can be utilised for future studies. The construct of validity is based on the reality that the three multifaceted constructs are linked, as predicted in the proposed antecedent variables (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

5.2.2.6 Motivation for using the OCS

The OCS was developed for the measuring of employees' organisational commitment and is relevant to this study. The main aim of this research study was to investigate the dynamic relationships between variables but not to make any predictions based on the OCS. Therefore, the OCS can inspire the construct of organisational commitment in this research study. The OCS was selected for this study because of its relevance to this research, and the fact that it is an easy and fast instrument to manage. Its reliability and validity have been determined and it is free of any cultural biases (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2013).

The psychometric dimensions of the OCS also make it a valid and reliable assessment of the three-component features of organisational commitment in the South African private sector organisation context (Ferreira, 2012; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2013; Paltu & Brouwers, 2020).

5.2.3 Job Embeddedness Scale (JES)

The following section examines the rationale, purpose, scale description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and motivation for choosing and utilising the JES.

5.2.3.1 Rationale and purpose of the JES

The Job Embeddedness Scale (JES), developed by Mitchell et al. (2001), was utilised to assess job embeddedness by measuring three main features of an employee's job embeddedness namely: organisational or work and community fit, organisational or work and community links and organisational or work and community sacrifice. The main aim of this measuring instrument is to ascertain the employee's embeddedness to the organisation.

5.2.3.2 Description of the scales of the JES

The JES comprises 17 statements assessing organisational fit, organisational links or organisational sacrifice of job embeddedness. The scale has 17 structured statements or items that represent the three dimensions (Mitchell et al., 2001), and consists of three subscales. The section below explains these three features in detail.

Fit Subscale

The organisational fit subscale reflects the participant's job embeddedness on this dimension. It also comprises job or work fit and community fit, and includes the following statements: "I feel like I am a good match for this company", "I fit with the company's culture" and "My values are compatible with the organisation's values".

Sacrifice/Links Subscale

The organisational sacrifice or links subscale reflects the participant's job embeddedness on this dimension. It comprises work-sacrifice or links and community sacrifice or links and includes the following statements: "I like the members of my group", "My co-workers are similar to me", "My job utilises my skills and talents well".

5.2.3.3 Administration of the JES

The JES is a self-managed questionnaire and takes 15 minutes to complete. Easily understandable instructions are given for its completion. The units are well organised in a statement format with a rating scale for each statement. Participants rate the statements based on their self-perceived job embeddedness. The higher the score, the truer the statement for the participant. The subscales with the highest mean scores are viewed as the participants' most important job embeddedness qualities. The JES utilises a six-point Likert-type, with responses of 1 being "strongly disagree" and 6 being "strongly agree". Each subscale (fit, links or sacrifice) is assessed separately and shows the respondents' job embeddedness on these features. Hence, it is possible to analyse which features are perceived to be true for the respondents and which are not. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the respondents. The research results on the reliability of this questionnaire show that it is a reliable measuring instrument for assessing job embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001). The internal consistencies of the JES dimension vary between .64 for organisational fit and .66 for organisational sacrifice or links, the internal consistency reliability estimates (Cronbach Alpha) for all the other variables were higher than the recommended .70 (Mitchell et al., 2001). Research studies support the validity and reliability of organisational fit, organisational links and organisational sacrifice scales. JES is self-explanatory, therefore there is no supervision required.

5.2.3.4 Interpretation of the JES

Each facet subscale (organisational, work and community fit, organisational, work and community links and organisational, work and community sacrifice) is assessed separately and shows the participants' preferences and emotions on the different items that connect to that unique aspect. As a result, analysis can be carried out as to which aspects are perceived to be true for the participants and which are not. Subscales with the highest mean scores within each of the three scale components are viewed as the participants' influential job embeddedness aspects.

The classifications are outlined as follows:

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Moderately disagree

3 = Slightly disagree

4 = Slightly agree

5 = Moderately agree

6 = Strongly agree

5.2.3.5 Validity and reliability of the JES

The research results on the reliability of this questionnaire show that it is a reliable assessment instrument for assessing job embeddedness (Mitchell et al., 2001). The internal consistencies of the JES feature differ between .64 for organisational fit and .66 for organisational sacrifice or links, the internal consistency reliability estimates (Cronbach Alpha) for all the other variables were higher than the recommended .70 (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2013; Mitchell et al., 2001).

5.2.3.6 Motivation for using the JES

The JES was developed for the assessment of each individual's job embeddedness and is appropriate to this research. The main aim of this study was to discuss the dynamic relationships between variables but not to make any predictions based on the JES. Therefore, the JES can inspire the construct of job embeddedness in this research study. The JES was selected for this research study because of its relevance to the research. It is a quick and easy instrument to manage. Its validity and reliability have been proven and it is free of any cultural biases (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2013; Mitchell et al., 2001).

5.2.4 Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R)

The following section examines the rationale, purpose, scale description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and motivation for choosing and using the (PVS-III-R).

5.2.4.1 Rationale and purpose of the (PVS-III-R)

The Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R), developed by Maddi and Khoshaba (2001), was utilised to determine hardiness by measuring three major features of an employee's hardiness namely: commitment, control and challenge, and was designed with the intent of measuring a multifaceted construct. The main aim of this measuring instrument is to ascertain the employee's hardiness to the organisation.

5.2.4.2 Description of the scales of the PVS-III-R

The PVS-III-R consists of 18 items which measure three features of hardiness, namely: control, commitment and challenge. Each of these features have a number of items and structured questions to assess hardiness (Maddi & Khoshaba, 2001). It is divided into three subscales. The three dimensions' subscales are explored in the section below:

Commitment Subscale

Commitment subscale reflects the participants' hardiness on this dimension. It includes the following statements: "I often wake up eager to take up my life where I left off the day before", "I like a lot of variety in my work" and "Most of the time my bosses or superiors will listen to what I have to say".

Control Subscale

Control subscale reflects the participants' hardiness on this dimension. It includes the following statements: "*No matter how hard I try, my efforts will accomplish nothing*", "*I find it difficult to imagine getting excited about working*" and "*No matter what you do, the "tried and true" ways are always the best*".

Challenge Subscale

Challenge subscale reflects the participants' hardiness on this dimension. It includes the following statements: "When you marry and have children you have lost your freedom", "No matter how hard you work, you never really seem to reach your goal" and "A person whose mind seldom changes can usually be depended on to have reliable judgements".

5.2.4.3 Administration of the PVS-III-R

The PVS-III-R is a self-managed questionnaire and takes about 15 minutes to complete. Clear instructions are provided for its completion. The items are well organised in statement format with the rating scale for each statement. Participants rate the statements based on their self-perceived hardiness. The PVS-III-R comprises three subscales and a four-point Likert-type scale is utilised for classifying both preferred and existing responses to the questionnaire. Each subscale (commitment = 6 items, control = 6 items, challenge = 6 items) is assessed separately and shows the respondents' hardiness on these features. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the participant. Subscales with the highest mean score are viewed as the participants' influential hardiness characteristic, with anchors of 0 being "not at all true" and 3 being "completely true". PVS-III-R is self-explanatory and there is no supervision required.

5.2.4.4 Interpretation of the PVS-III-R

Each facet subscale (commitment, control and challenge) is assessed separately and shows the participants' preferences and emotions on the different items that connect to that unique aspect. As a result, analysis can be carried out as to which aspects are viewed to be true for the participants and which are not. Subscales with the highest mean scores within each of the three scale components are viewed as the participants' most important hardiness attributes.

The clarifications are explained as follows:

1 = Not at all true

2 = A little true

3 = Reasonably true

4 = Completely true

5.2.4.5 Validity and reliability of the PVS-III-R

Research headed by Maddi and colleagues on the reliability of this questionnaire show that it is a reliable measuring instrument for assessing PVS-III-R (Maddi et al., 2006; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2001). Kobasa (1982) reports a significant test-retest correlation of .69 for commitment, .69 for control and .73 for challenge, which are consistent with the obtained research reports. The subscales of the PVS-III-R showed a significant internal validity of .85 for commitment, .70 for control and .71 for challenge, and the internal consistency reliability estimates (Cronbach Alpha) for all the other variables were stable at .61 (Ferreira, 2012; Kobasa et al., 1982).

5.2.4.6 Motivation for using the PVS-III-R

The PVS-III-R was developed for the assessment of individuals' hardiness and is appropriate to this research study. The main aim of this current study was to explore the dynamic relationships between variables but not to make any predictions based on the PVS-III-R. Therefore, the PVS-III-R can inspire the construct of hardiness in this research study. The PVS-III-R was selected for this current study because of its relevance to the research. It is a quick and easy instrument to manage. Its validity and reliability have been demonstrated and it is free of any cultural biases (Kobasa et al., 1982).

5.2.5 Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes)

The following section examines the rationale, purpose, scale description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and motivation for selecting and utilising the EmpRes.

5.2.5.1 Rationale and purpose of the EmpRes

The Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes), developed by Naswall et al. (2013), was utilised to assess employee resilience by assessing five factors of an individual's resilience, namely: meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential "aloneness", and was crafted with the purpose of assessing a multifaceted construct. The main aim of this assessing instrument is to ascertain the employee's resilience to the organisation.

5.2.5.2 Description of the scales of the EmpRes

The EmpRes comprises 9 statements assessing resilience (one-dimensional measure of employee resilience with high reliability), which include the following: "I effectively collaborate with others to handle unexpected challenges at work", "I use change at work as an opportunity for growth".

5.2.5.3 Administration of the EmpRes

The revised EmpRes uses a seven-point Likert- scale, with anchors of 1 being "Almost never" and 7 being "Almost always". The reliability of the old EmpRes 12 – time resilience scale was .89, this old scale used 12 factor analysis statements (Naswall et al., 2013), but for this research study the revised scale was used with nine statements. Clear instructions were given for its completion. The items are well organised in a statement format with a classifying scale for each statement. Participants rate the statements based on their self-perceived employee resilience. The greater the score, the truer the statement for the respondents. The statements with the highest mean scores are viewed as the participants' significant employee resilience.

The EmpRes utilises a seven-point Likert-type, with anchors of 1 being “Almost never” and 7 being “Almost always”. Each statement (meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity, existential “aloneness”) is assessed separately and shows the respondents’ employee resilience on these features. Hence, it is possible to analyse which features are viewed to be truer for the respondents and which are not. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the respondents. The revised 9-item scale was subjected to an exploratory factor analysis (principal axis factoring) with oblique (direct oblimin) rotation to examine the dimensional structure of the scale’s validity and reliability. The reliability for the revised scale was .91 (Naswall et al., 2015). EmpRes is a self-explanatory questionnaire, therefore no supervision is required.

5.2.5.4 Interpretation of the EmpRes (one-dimensional measure of employee resilience with high reliability).

All five factors of employee resilience (meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential “aloneness”) are measured together (one-dimensional measure of employee resilience with high reliability) and represent the participants’ preferences and emotions on the different items that connect to that unique factor. As a result, analysis can be carried out as to which facets are viewed to be true for the participants and which are not. Statements with the highest mean scores are viewed as the participants’ most important employee resilience facets.

The classifications are explained as follows:

1 = Almost never



7 = Almost always

5.2.5.5 Validity and reliability of the EmpRes

The reliability for the revised scale was .91 (Naswall et al., 2015). The internal consistency reliability calculates (Cronbach Alpha) for all the other variables were higher than the recommended number and ranged from .55 to .70 (Naswall et al., 2013; Padmanabhanunni et al., 2022).

5.2.5.6 Motivation for using the EmpRes

The EmpRes was developed for the assessment of employee resilience and is appropriate to this current study. The main aim of this current study was to explore the dynamic relationships between variables but not to make any declarations based on the EmpRes. Therefore, the

EmpRes can measure the construct of employee resilience in this research study. The EmpRes was selected for this current study because of its relevance to the research study. It is a quick and easy instrument to manage. Its validity and reliability have been determined and it is free of any cultural biases (Naswall et al., 2015; Padmanabhanunni et al., 2022).

5.2.6 The Career Adaptability Inventory (CAI)

The following discussion will focus on the purpose, rationale, scale description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and motivation for selecting and utilising the CAI.

5.2.6.1 Rationale and purpose of the CAI

Savickas' (1997) Career Adaptability Inventory (CAI) was utilised to assess career adaptability by measuring four main features of an employee's career adaptability, namely concern, control, curiosity and cooperation (confidence) as psychosocial resources for administering developmental tasks, work traumas, occupational changes and developmental tasks. The main purpose of this assessing instrument is to ascertain the employee's career adaptability.

5.2.6.2 Description of the scales of the CAI

The CAI comprises 35 items and measures four major features of career adaptability, namely concern, control, curiosity and cooperation (confidence), each with six items that assess concern, control, curiosity and cooperation (confidence) as psychosocial resources for the administering of work trauma, developmental tasks and occupational changes.

CAI is categorised into four unique and interconnected subscales. The section below explores the four dimensions in detail:

Concern Subscale

Concern subscale reflects the participants' career adaptability on this dimension. It includes the following statements: "Thinking about what my future will be like", "Realising that today's choices shape my future" and "Preparing for the future".

Control Subscale

Control subscale reflects the participants' career adaptability on this dimension. It includes the following statements: "Counting on myself", "Doing what's right for me" and "Making decisions by myself".

Curiosity Subscale

Curiosity subscale reflects the participants' career adaptability on this dimension. It includes the following statements: "Probing deeply into questions that I have", "Becoming curious about new opportunities" and "Exploring my surroundings".

Cooperation (Confidence) Subscale

Cooperation subscale reflects the participants' career adaptability on this dimension. It includes the following statements: "Learning new skills", "Working up to my ability" and "Overcoming obstacles".

5.2.6.3 Administration of the CAI

The CAI is a self-administered questionnaire, which can be managed in groups or individually and takes approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete, even though there is no time limit. Clear instructions are given on the questionnaire. The items are well organised in a statement format with the rating scale for each statement. Participants rate the statements based on their self-perceived career adaptability. The CAI comprises four subscales and utilises a five-point Likert-type scale for rating both existing and preferred responses of the questionnaire. Each subscale (concern = 8 items, control = 9 items, curiosity = 9 items, cooperation/confidence = 9 items) is assessed separately and shows the respondents' career adaptability on these features. Participants are required to rate each item on a five-point Likert-type scale. The higher the score, the truer the statement is to the participant. Subscales with the highest mean score are viewed as the participants' most important career adaptability attributes.

5.2.6.4 Interpretation of the CAI

Each facet subscale (concern, control, curiosity and cooperation or confidence) is assessed separately and shows the participants' preferences and emotions on the different items that connect to that unique aspect. As a result, analysis can be carried out as to which aspects are viewed to be true for the participants and which are not. Subscales with the highest mean scores within each of the five scale components are viewed as the participants' influential career adaptability facets.

The Likert Scale is outlined as follows:

1 = Not strong

2 = Somewhat strong

3 = Strong

4 = Very strong

5 = Strongest

5.2.6.5 Validity and reliability of the CAI

Confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the data for the CAI fit the theoretical model very well. Research has shown that Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) – South Africa, CAAS – International and CAI function similarly in terms of psychometric qualities and factor structure (Maree, 2012; Porfeli & Savickas, 2012; Savickas & Porfeli, 2011; Savickas, 1997). Savickas (1997) furthermore performed coefficients of Cronbach data alpha coefficient, correlation coefficient matrix, linear regression and regression analysis for the total sample, which are included in the initial test-retest reliability research study. The four subscales showed acceptable internal consistency reliability, varying from .74 (Control) to .85 (Confidence), and the internal consistency reliability estimates (Cronbach Alpha) for all the other variables were stable at .88 (Ferreira & Potgieter, 2018; Maree et al., 2022; Savickas, 1997).

5.2.6.6 Motivation for using the CAI

The CAI was chosen for the assessment of career adaptability and is relevant to the current study. The main aim of this study was to explore deeply the dynamic relationships between variables but not to make any predictions based on the CAI. Therefore, the CAI can inspire the construct of career adaptability in this research. The CAI was selected for this current study because of its relevance to this research. It is a quick and easy instrument to manage. Its validity and reliability have been shown and it is free of any cultural biases (Savickas, 1997).

5.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The measuring instruments utilised in this research were all self-report assessment instruments. Self-report assessment instruments inspect a respondent's perceptive encounters of his/her personal behaviour through interviews, questionnaires or surveys. Self-reporting instruments have several disadvantages. Self-reports focus on what individuals' say about their emotions towards themselves or others. Individuals might be unable or unwilling to divulge features about themselves (Chan et al., 2021; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). The self-perceptions will only be correct if the participant is eager to convey him or herself truthfully and honestly (Idalan et al., 2021; Levin, 2022; Raykov & Bluemke, 2021). Another disadvantage of self-reports is the possibility of respondents 'pretending' and thus giving a fraudulent response set (this is when the respondents rate themselves positively, are set to respond 'true' no matter what the content of the inventory item may be and are therefore respond deviantly). Additionally, self-reporting instruments are naturally subjective and can easily be exaggerated (Denis, 2016; Everitt & Howell, 2005; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). When using self-reporting instruments, the outcome may be prejudiced because of the inclination of

respondents to be untruthful and by their incapability to respond to unique constructs. Additionally, the uniqueness of the instruments might limit the nature of the methodologies utilised to ascertain their validity and compare them with other instruments (Everitt & Howell, 2005; Idalan et al., 2021; Levin, 2022).

In conclusion, the five measuring instruments utilised in the current study (OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAI) were chosen after a profound assessment of various instruments developed to measure organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptabilities. Furthermore, the measuring instruments were selected on the basis of their capability to utilise and interpret statistical correlation analysis to establish the depth of relationship dynamics between concepts utilised in this research.

Limitations of the five research instruments were taken into consideration during the translation of the results derived from the study results. The participants were clearly informed of the aims and purpose of the study, and both the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses were guaranteed. Moreover, valid and reliable measuring instruments were utilised to increase construct reliability and validity (Babbie & Roberts, 2018; Idalan et al., 2021; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). Although the five measuring instruments of the current study (OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAI) were deemed suitable to assist in achieving this study's aims, it was established that some limitations exist. These limitations were addressed during the interpretation of the outcomes resulting from the outcome of the study.

5.4 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE POPULATION AND SAMPLE

According to Nardi (2018), a sample is a small percentage of a population chosen for observation and analysis to answer a certain set of research questions; where a population refers to the total or sum of all members. The population and sample of the current research consisted of employees from the motor industry in the South African labour market. The sample was taken from one huge organisation in the Motor Industry or Motor Euro, the organisation has eleven huge branches in South Africa in all provinces, Gauteng has two branches. The organisation has plus five thousand employees nationally, excluding its five huge international branches in China, Japan, North and South Korea, and Germany, and these international branches have myriads of branches in their respective countries nationally and have thousands of employees. The organisation focuses in the new replacement parts for VW, AUDI, OPEL, BMW, MERC, TOYOTA, RENAULT, FORD AND MAZDA vehicles.

Members of the target population meet practical criteria such as easy accessibility, availability and the willingness to participate (Kontogeorgos et al., 2022; Mike, 2015; Nardi, 2018). Mike (2015) concluded that sampling is done to save resources, such as time and money. It is critical to consider when sampling whether the size of the sample will be representative of the total population (Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Schumacker, 2015).

The non-probability sampling method's main aim is to produce a sample which is representative of a unique population (Beaumont & Rao, 2021; Nardi, 2018; Rahman et al., 2022). A non-probability sampling approach refers to a situation where every individual or element has the exact same probability or chance of being selected as part of the sample (Beaumont & Rao, 2021; Cash et al., 2022; Nardi, 2018; Schumacker, 2015). The other approach, a non-probability sampling approach, refers to a situation where the probability of being chosen for the sample is unknown (Nardi, 2018; Mike, 2015; Rahman et al., 2022).

The convenience sampling technique was chosen and used for this study. A convenience sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations was targeted to ensure that a maximum number of usable questionnaires could be obtained. Convenience sampling embodies a variety of non-probability sampling techniques (Nardi, 2018; Rahman et al., 2022). In convenience sampling members of the target population meet practical criteria such as easy accessibility, availability and the willingness to participate (Beaumont & Rao, 2021; Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Mike, 2015; Nardi, 2018). Convenience sampling is affordable, easy and the subjects of the population are readily available and accessible to the researcher to collect information. Convenience sampling is applicable to quantitative studies (Nardi, 2018; Rahman et al., 2022; Verhoest et al., 2017). The convenience sampling which was applied in this research is homogeneous sampling. Homogeneous sampling is a convenience sampling technique which aims to achieve a homogeneous sample, which can be explained as a sample where the units share the same characteristics or traits, in this case being full-time and part-time employees employed in a South African private sector organisation (Arrazola et al., 2018; Cash et al., 2022; Schumacker, 2015). Homogeneous sampling focuses on a particular group in which all the sample members are similar, such as a particular occupation, specialisation or level in an organisation's hierarchy, in this case being full-time and part-time employees employed in South African private sector organisations (Kontogeorgos et al., 2022; Nardi, 2018; Schumacker, 2015).

In this current research study, part-time and full-time employees, different in age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level employed within South African private sector organisation, were targeted to ensure a maximum number of usable questionnaires.

Prospective participants were required to complete an online survey of six measuring instruments and 574 usable responses were obtained (n = 574). A response rate of 9.81% was obtained. The profile of the sample is described according to the following demographical variables: age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level. These categories were included, based on the inquiry in the literature review of the impact of these variables on the retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

5.4.1 Distribution of age groups in the sample

The information on the age distribution of the sample is explored extensively in the following section. Table 5.1 and Figure 5.2 summarise the distribution of the age groups in the sample. The ages of the respondents were put into categories, ranging between 18 to 65 years. The frequencies were relatively equally distributed among the age groups. Participants aged 18 to 25 years made up 3.8% of the sample; those between 26 and 35 years comprised 20.6%. Participants aged between 36 and 45 years encompassed 35.9% of the sample and the group of 46 to 55 years made up 22.6% of the total sample and the group of 56 to 65 years comprised 17.1 % of the total sample (n = 574).

Table 5.1

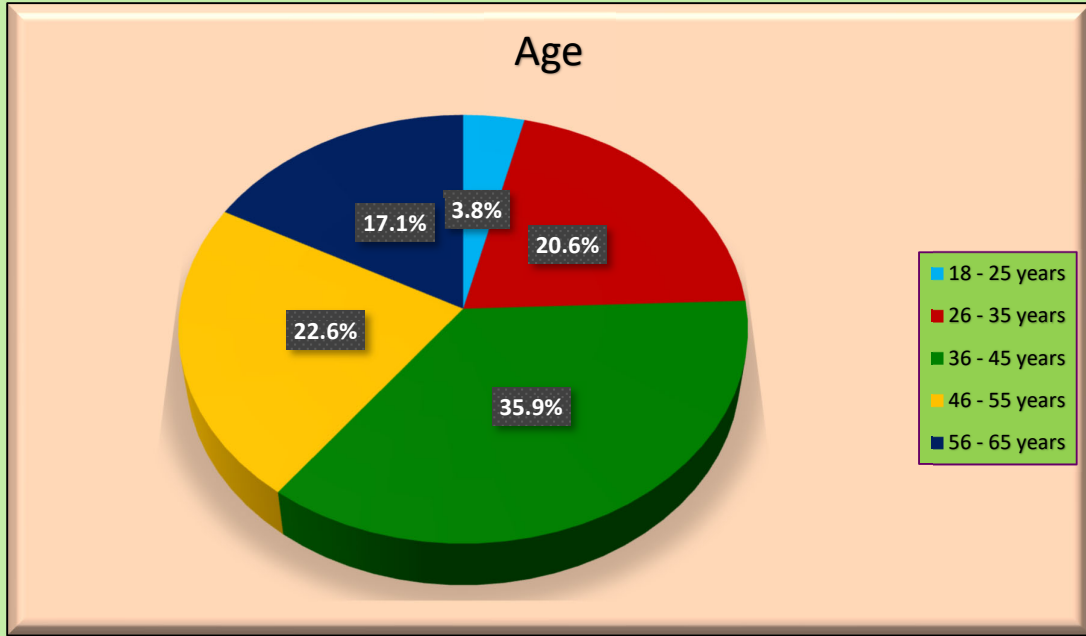
Age Distribution in the Sample (n = 574)

AGE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	18 - 25 years	22	3.8	3.8	3.8
	26 - 35 years	118	20.6	20.6	24.4
	36 - 45 years	206	35.9	35.9	60.3
	46 – 55 years	130	22.6	22.6	82.9
	56 – 65 years	98	17.1	17.1	100.0
	Total	574	100	100	

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 5.2

Age Distribution in the Sample (n = 574)



Source: Author's own compilation

5.4.2 Distribution of gender groups in the sample

The gender distribution of the participants is outlined in this section. Table 5.2 and Figure 5.3 provide the distribution of gender groups of participants in the sample. Female participants made up 62.5% of the sample and male participants, 37.5% (n = 574).

Table 5.2

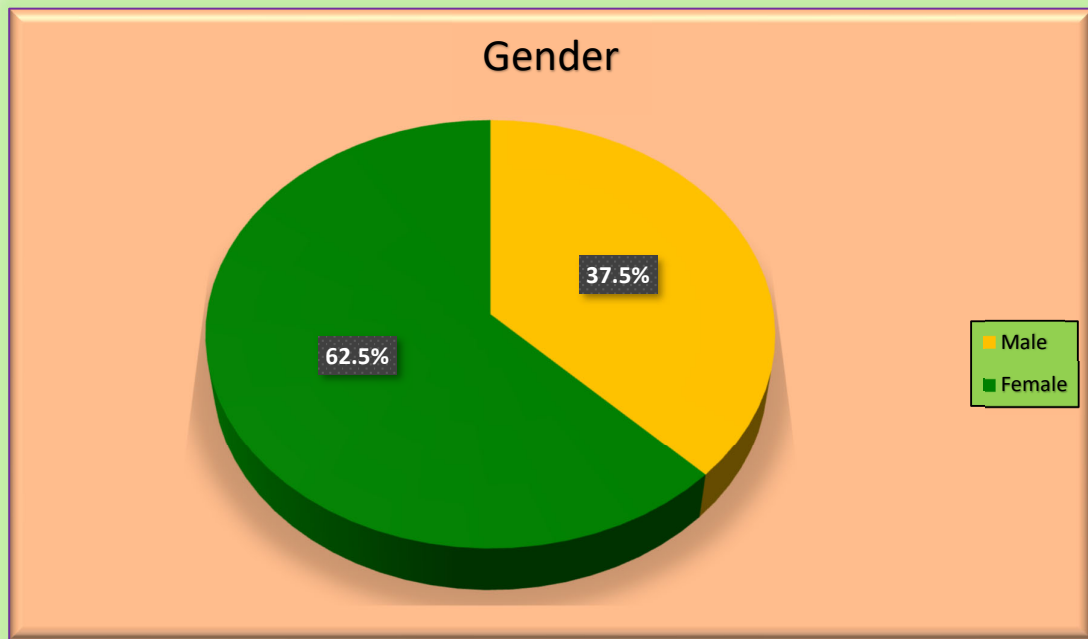
Gender Distribution in the Sample (n = 574)

GENDER					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Females	359	62.5	62.5	100.0
	Males	215	37.5	37.5	37.5
	Total	574	100.0	100.0	

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 5.3

Sample Distribution by Gender (n = 574)



Source: Author's own compilation

5.4.3 Distribution of race groups in the sample

The distribution of race groups in the sample is discussed in this section. Table 5.3 and Figure 5.4 outline the racial distribution in the sample. Black Africans comprised 47.1%, Coloureds comprised 16.9%, Indian/Asians, 14.8% and Whites 21.1% of the total sample of research participants (n = 574). These frequencies showed that the black African racial group comprised the majority of the sample (47.1%). Overall, participants from black ethnic origins (Africans, Coloureds and Indian/Asians: 78.9%) were the majority of the sample.

Table 5.3

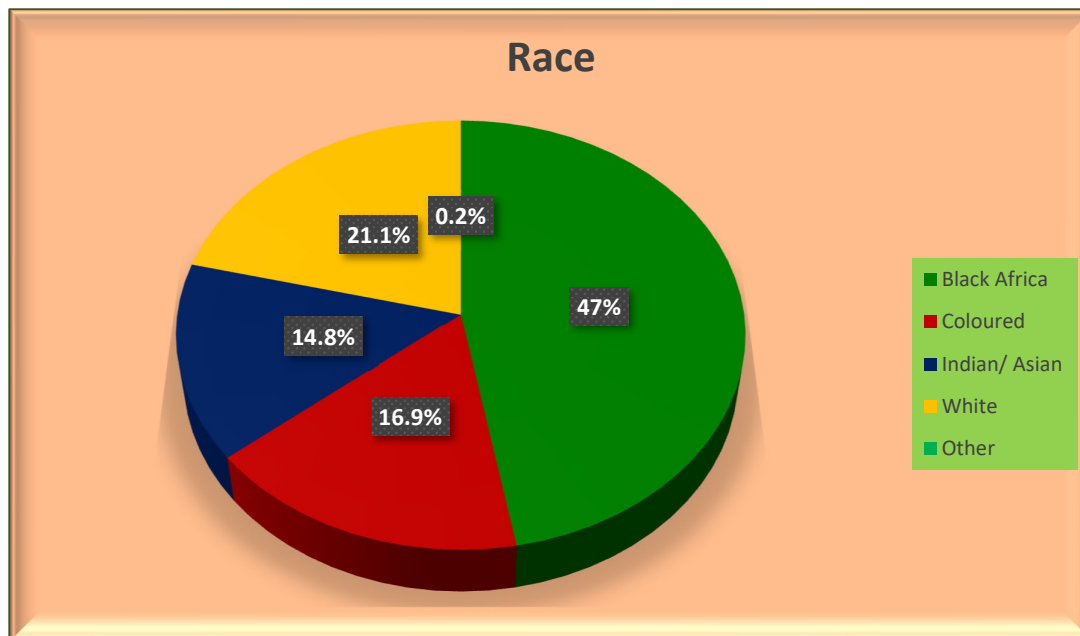
Race Distribution in the Sample (n = 574)

RACE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	African	270	47.0	47.1	47.1
	Coloured	97	16.9	16.9	64.0
	Indian	85	14.8	14.8	78.9
	White	121	21.1	21.1	100.0
	Other	1	0.2		
	Total	574	100.0	100.0	

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 5.4

Sample Distribution by Race (n = 574)



Source: Author's own compilation

5.4.4 Distribution of marital status groups in the sample

The following section explained in detail the marital status of the sample. Table 5.4 and Figure 5.5 illustrate the marital status distribution of the participants in the sample. The greater

number of participants were either married (48.6%) or single (24.9%). Only 19.2% were separated or divorced and 7.3% were widowed.

Table 5.4

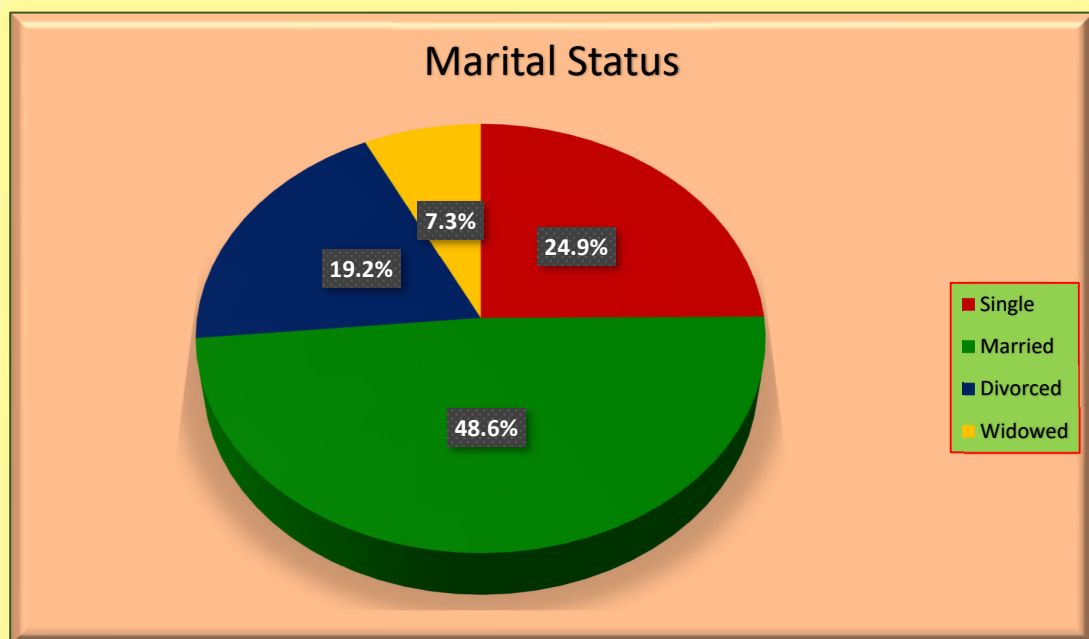
Marital Status Distribution in the Sample (n = 574)

MARITAL STATUS					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Single	143	24.9	24.9	24.9
	Married	279	48.6	48.6	73.5
	Divorced	110	19.2	19.2	92.7
	Widowed	42	7.3	7.3	100.0
	Total	574	100.0	100.0	

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 5.5

Sample Distribution by Marital Status (n = 574)



Source: Author's own compilation

5.4.5 Distribution of employment status groups in the sample

The section below explores the employment status of the sample. Table 5.5 and Figure 5.6 illustrate the employment status distribution of the sample. The sample consisted of participants who were employed full time 82.1%, or on a part-time basis 14.8, while 3.1% were interns/graduates.

Table 5.5

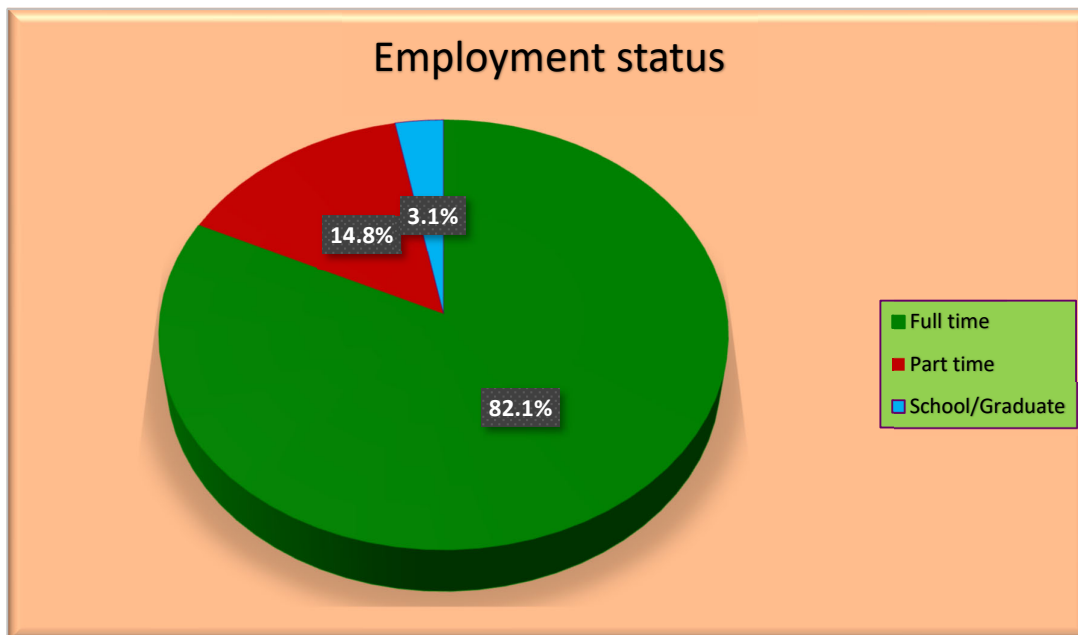
Frequency Distribution: Employment Status Profile of the Sample

EMPLOYMENT STATUS					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Full time	471	82.1	84.7	84.7
	Part time	85	14.8	15.3	100.0
	Interns/Graduates	18	3.1	100.0	
	Total	574	100.0		

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 5.6

Sample Distribution by Employment Status (n = 574)



Source: Author's own compilation

5.4.6 Distribution of employment status by tenure groups in the sample

The following section provided employment status by tenure of the sample. Table 5.6 and Figure 5.7 outline the employment status by tenure distribution of the sample. The sample consisted of participants who were employed within the organisation for 6 to 10 years (51%), less than 5 years (36.1%), 11 to 15 years (10.1%) and more than 15 years (2.8%).

Table 5.6

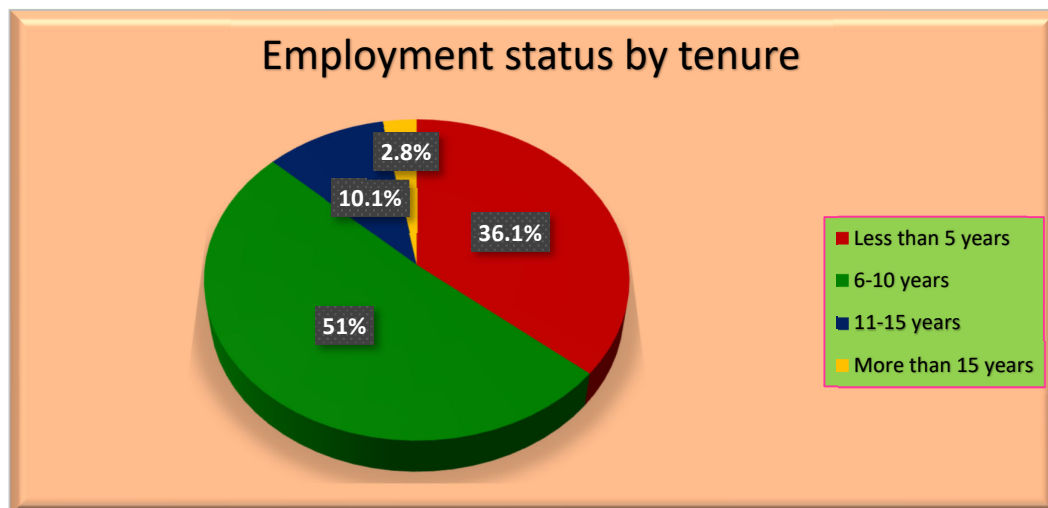
Frequency Distribution: Employment Status by Tenure Profile of the Sample

EMPLOYMENT STATUS BY TENURE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Less than 5 years	207	36.1	36.1	36.1
	6 -10 years	293	51.0	51.0	87.1
	11-15 years	58	10.1	10.1	97.2
	More than 15 years	16	2.8	2.8	100.0
	Total	574	100.0	100.0	

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 5.7

Sample Distribution by Employment Status by Tenure (n = 574)



Source: Author's own compilation

5.4.7 Distribution of job level groups in the sample

The following section discussed job levels of the sample in detail. Table 5.7 and Figure 5.8 summarise the job level distribution in the sample. The distribution of the sample indicates that 51.0% were employed at staff level, 15.9% at supervisory level, 12.9% were employed at middle management level, 10.3% were employed at senior management level and 9.9% were working on executive/top management level.

Table 5.7

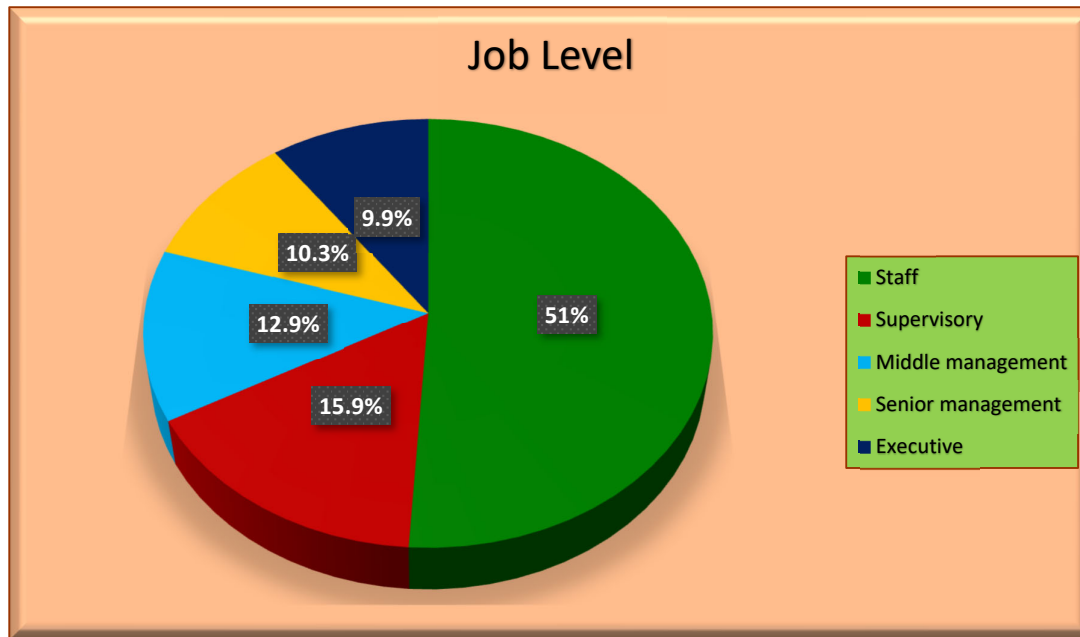
Job Level Distribution of the Sample (n = 574)

JOB LEVEL					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	Staff level	293	51.0	51.0	51.0
	Supervisory level	91	15.9	15.9	66.9
	Middle management level	74	12.9	12.9	79.8
	Senior management level	59	10.3	10.3	90.1
	Executive level	57	9.9	9.9	100.0
	Total	574	100.00	100.0	

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 5.8

Sample Distribution by Job Level (n = 574)



Source: Author's own compilation

5.4.8 Summary of socio-demographic profile of sample

The socio-demographic profile obtained from the sample showed that the major sample features that need to be considered in the explanation of the empirical results were as follows: age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level. The respondents in the sample were mainly permanently employed (84.6%), job level (at staff level) (51.0%), females (62.5%), married (48.6%), Black African (47.1%), aged between 36 and 45 years (35.9%).

Table 5.8 provides the major features of the sample profile.

Table 5.8

The Main Characteristics of the Sample Profile (n = 574)

Socio-demographic variable	Predominant characteristic	Percentage
Age	Between 36 and 45 years	35.9
Gender	Females	62.5
Race	Black African	47.1

Marital status	Married	48.6
Employment status	Full-time	82.1
Job level	Staff	51.0

Source: Author's own compilation

5.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN ADMINISTRATION OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

Ethics is described as a set of rules and moral principles. It emphasises whether the research procedures, code of conduct, code of principles, the standards of conduct of a given profession, the responsibility of the researcher and social responsibility to the respondents were followed (Crooks et al., 2021; Gelman, 2018; Ladkin, 2018).

The researcher obtained ethical clearance from the University Research Ethics Committee (refer to Appendix A). The researcher adhered to the moral principles of ethics as outlined in the UNISA Research Ethics Policy, which are the following (UNISA, 2013):

- Autonomy (the research will respect the autonomy, rights and dignity of the participants)
- Beneficence (the research should make a positive contribution towards the welfare of people)
- Non-maleficence (the research will not cause harm to the participants specifically or to people in general)
- Justice (the benefits and risks of research should be fairly distributed among people)

The researcher also obtained permission from one participating organisation (refer to Appendix B). After permission had been obtained, an online survey and the invitation letter were sent to the CEO of the participating organisation who emailed the link and invitation letter to HR Managers in their respective departments and these HR Managers emailed the link to the employees within their departments. The email included the following information: (1) the aim of the research study, (2) the role of participants and the estimated time necessary for completion of the questionnaire, (3) the researcher's personal information and contact details, (4) an explanation and guarantee of their privacy, anonymity and confidentiality, (5) an explanation of future use of the information, and (6) an explanation of voluntary participation

in this research study. Completion of the online survey was regarded as informed consent from participants, and this was indicated clearly in the invitation letter.

Anonymity of participants was ensured, during both data collection and analysis, as participants were not required to provide any information that would identify them. Names of participants were not recorded, and participants could not be connected to their answers. Participants' responses were codified and are referred to in this manner in the data, publications and in any future conference proceedings. The completed questionnaires were automatically sent to a web-based software platform where they were downloaded to guarantee confidentiality.

Questionnaires that requested information about the opinions of individuals were administered and research instruments included in the psychometric test battery were scientifically valid and reliable, cautiously administered to participants and free from prejudice. The process of data collection was reliable, and the data was analysed, reported and interpreted in a fair, valid and reliable manner (Babbie et al., 2022; Crooks et al., 2021; Gelman, 2018; Mike, 2015).

5.6 CAPTURING OF CRITERION DATA

Lime survey (an online survey tool) was utilised to distribute the survey and to collect responses from the participants. The web-based software also exported the data into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet for analysis and processing. Utilising an electronic platform for the recording of the data removed the element of human error in the data capturing process, in that way improving the accuracy of the data (Montabon et al., 2018; Stone, 2018). Furthermore, the accuracy of the data was guaranteed by means of relevant statistical techniques (see the description of the statistical processing and analysis of the data in Section 5.8). The statistical programs, namely, IBM SPSS Statistics version. 27 (Field, 2018), were used to import and analyse the data.

5.7 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The research hypotheses were formulated to achieve the aims of this study. A research hypothesis is a short statement that states something. It explains in real terms what the researcher states that will happen in the research, which has to be empirically proven before it can be regarded as factual and integrated into a theory (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Levine, 2022).

Important research hypotheses were outlined to achieve the overall purpose of the doctoral study, which was to design an empirically tested psychological framework for retention from diverse construct variables. For reasons of parsimony, the vital research hypotheses were more appropriate for achieving the overall purpose of the doctoral research, rather than the micro-level research hypotheses that one would expect in a research article. The research hypotheses are outlined in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9

Summary of the Research Aims, Hypotheses and Applicable Statistical Procedures

Empirical research aims	Research hypothesis	Statistical Procedure
<p>Research aim 1: To explore the empirical inter-relationship between the socio-demographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level), retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) as manifested in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations.</p>	<p>Ha1: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations.</p>	<p>Descriptive statistical analysis, Bivariate correlations, non-parametric correlations, Spearman's rho and canonical correlations</p>
<p>Research aim 2: To investigate if socio-demographic variables, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness significantly predict resilience and career adaptability.</p>	<p>Ha2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status, and job levels) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.</p>	<p>Moderated hierarchical regressions analysis (Stepwise hierarchical regression analysis), ANOVA, and</p>

		Collinearity statistical analysis
Research aim 3: To investigate whether individuals from different ages, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.	Ha3: There are significant mean differences between the biographical variables and the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).	Test for mean differences (non-parametric based on tests for normality), Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test (test for normality), Mann Whitney U-Test (Two groups), Kruskal Wallis (Multiple groups)
Research aim 4: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), to assess whether a good fit exists between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.	Ha4: The theoretically hypothesised model has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.	Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (A type of Structural equation modelling) (SEM)

Source: Author's own compilation

5.8 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA

A quantitative research approach is an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on testing a theory that is composed of or measured with numbers and analysed with statistical principles, variables and procedures to ascertain whether the predictive generalisations in the theory are true (Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Mike, 2015; Nardi, 2018; Verhoest et al., 2017). The main objective and goal of quantitative research is to determine, confirm and validate relationships dynamics from the sample data available and to design generalisations to the larger population (Arrazola et al., 2018; Hayes, 2022; Nardi, 2018; Schumacker, 2015). A non-probability convenience sample cannot be expected to produce sample parameters of the population. For this reason, statistical methodologies were designed and implemented to make it possible to ascertain the confidence with which such inferences can be drawn. The two most commonly used methods of statistical inferences are estimation using confidence intervals and null hypotheses testing.

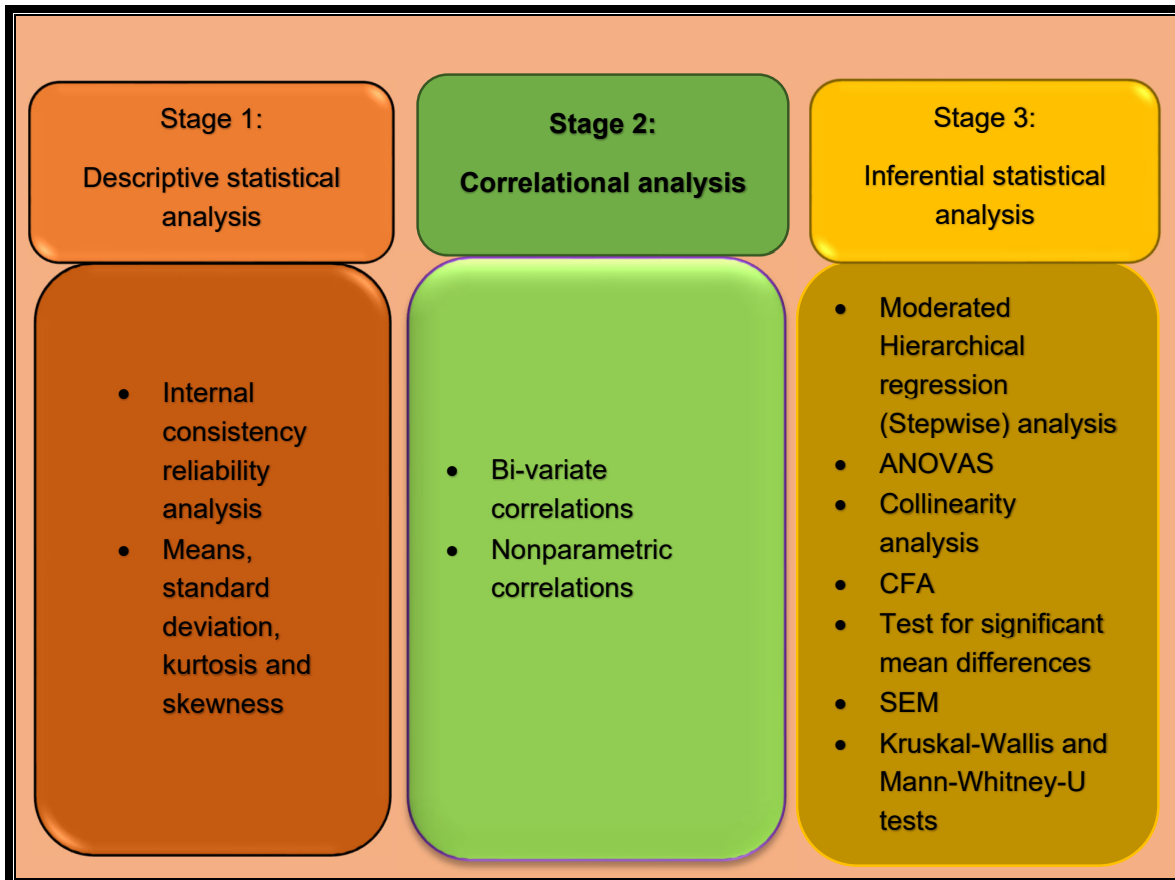
The statistical processes and procedures utilised in this study included:

- descriptive statistical analysis (including internal consistency reliability statistics (Cronbach alpha plus Raykov's rho, CR, AVE, SIC), means, median, variance, frequency data, kurtosis, standard deviations and skewness).
- correlation analysis (including bi-variate correlations, nonparametric correlations, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), canonical correlations and Spearman's rho).
- inferential statistical analysis (test for significant mean differences, hierarchical moderated regression analysis, collinearity analysis, regression analysis, collinearity analysis and ANOVAS).
- Nonparametric tests (Independent-Samples Kruska-Wallis Test, Independent-Sample Mann-Whitney U Test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Test) (Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Schumacker, 2015; Scott, 2016). The current research utilised the Kruska-Wallis Test and Mann-Whitney U Test to test the null hypotheses in order to verify the formulated hypotheses, and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro Wilk Test was used to test the normality of all the five concepts.

Figure 5.9 below outlines the three stages of data analysis process.

Figure 5.9

Overview of the Data Analysis Process and Statistical Procedures



Source: Author's own compilation

5.8.1 Stage 1: Descriptive statistical analysis

Stage one focused on establishing the standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness of categorical and frequency data, means, median and variance. This study utilised descriptive statistics to clarify those characteristics of the data which related to the main construct variables, namely, the retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

5.8.1.1 Means, median, variance, standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness and frequency data

The IBM SPSS statistics version 27 was utilised to calculate the means and standard deviations for all the features of the retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience

and career adaptability). Descriptive statistics provide summaries of data and the purpose of these statistics is to give an overall, coherent and straightforward picture of a large amount of data (Broen et al., 2021; Field, 2012; Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Mike, 2015; Nardi, 2018; Shang, 2021). Nardi (2018) further explains that descriptive statistics sum up the broad nature of the data that is obtained: for example, how certain measured characteristics are 'on average', how much variability exists among different pieces of data, or how strongly two or more features are interrelated. Frequency and categorical and frequency data, including standard deviations and means, were established for the total sample to assist in the application of the statistical procedures. The standard deviation is the average amount by which each of the individual scores varies from the mean of the set of scores (Bajpai & Chaturvedi, 2021; Dunn et al., 2021; Hayes, 2022; Mike, 2015; Nardi, 2018). When the mean score is calculated, the sum of the confirmed values is divided by the total number of values in a group (Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Rizvi & Nabi, 2021; Xu et al., 2021).

The mean score is calculated mainly to establish the central inclination of the sample, and the standard deviation is intended to determine the inconsistency of the sample responses (Dunn et al., 2021; Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Montabon et al., 2018). The standard deviation is the average amount by which each of the individual scores varies from the mean of the set of scores (Hayes, 2022; Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Ning et al., 2021). The larger the standard deviation, the more variable the set of scores (Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Juul et al., 2021; Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Rizvi & Nabi, 2021). Skewness refers to the degree of which a distribution of scores variates from flawless symmetry (Hayes, 2022; Schumacker, 2015; Xie & Li, 2021). When the data of a sample group is parallel on both sides of the middle viewpoint, it is regarded as symmetrical (Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Rizvi & Nabi, 2021). When distributions are skewed to the left, they are regarded as negatively skewed distributions and those distributions which are skewed to the right are regarded as positively skewed (Hayes, 2022; Saunders et al., 2016; Xie & Li, 2021). In practical terms this means that when the distribution of scores is more slanting to the left, they are considered to be negative, and when the distribution of scores are more slanting to the right they are considered to be positive. Kurtosis indicates the extent to which a distribution is flat or peaked with respect to the normal curve (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2017; Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Hair et al., 2016; Permanasasi et al., 2021).

Descriptive statistics were used to test the validity and reliability of the five instruments, namely the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1997); Job Embeddedness Scale (JES) (Mitchell et al., 2001); Personal Views Survey (PVS-II1-R) (Maddi & Khoshaba, 2001); Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes) (Naswall et al., 2013) and Career Adaptability Scale (CAS) (Savickas, 1997).

Cronbach's alpha, Raykov's rho and CR, AVE coefficients were used to determine the internal consistency of all the measuring instruments, OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. The internal consistency reliability of the six research instruments as well as the average homogeneity between the various test items was concluded. The value of a Cronbach's alpha coefficient varies from 0 to 1, with a higher score indicating a greater internal consistency (Yildiz, 2021). A Cronbach alpha coefficient of $\geq .70$ is an acceptable threshold to show reliability of the scale. The higher the alpha coefficient, the more reliable the item or test (Dunn et al., 2021; Nardi, 2018; Peeters, 2021).

5.8.2 Stage 2: Correlation analysis

During this stage, bi-variate correlations and canonical correlation coefficients were established to describe the direction and strength of the relationship dynamics between the concepts. A correlation coefficient describes the relationship between concepts and assists a researcher to make predictions from one concept to another (de Vrles et al., 2021; Hayes, 2022; Mike, 2015; Nardi, 2018).

5.8.2.1 Bi-variate correlations analyses

Bi-variate correlations analyses are statistical procedures which assess and describe the type of the relationship that occurs between variables (de Vrles et al., 2021; Hayes, 2022; Kiss et al., 2018). Knowles et al. (2018) added that when a change in one variable is supplemented by a continuous change in another variable, this is an indication that a relationship exists between these variables. In the current research study, the bi-variate correlation analysis, utilising IBM SPSS Statistics version 27, was used to measure the direction and strength of the relationship between the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status), the retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related capacities (resilience and career adaptability). If there is a correlation between two variables, it is an indication that if one variable is present at a given time, the other variable will also be present at a certain level (de Vrles et al., 2021; Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Mike, 2015; Nardi, 2018).

5.8.2.2 Canonical correlation analysis

Canonical correlations analysis is a classical statistical tool for two-set/row view factor analysis and it aims to extract a common latent structure of a set of entities observed in two different feature domains which are referred to as "views" of the entities (Keller et al., 2021; Sorensen

et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2021). Canonical correlation analysis (nonparametric canonical correlation analysis) was utilised to establish the relationship dynamics between all the variables: individuals' socio-demographic characteristics (moderating variables), organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness (independent variables) and resilience and career adaptability (dependent variables) (Heiss et al., 2020; Melie-Garcia et al., 2018; Michael et al., 2016; Mike, 2015). Gu et al. (2021) and concluded that canonical correlation analysis is a multivariate technique that can be utilised to study the linear relationship dynamics between two sets of variables.

Correlation analysis was used to test Research Hypothesis 1:

Ha1: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations.

Statistical significance level was set at $p \leq .05$. The significance level refers only to the unexpected that a diverse or impact exists between the sample and the whole population from which the sample was drawn from, whereas the effect size is the magnitude of that influence (Gu et al., 2021; Knowles et al., 2018; Scott, 2016).

5.8.3 Stage 3: Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics were utilised to determine the relationship between the variables of the organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability which influence talent retention. Inferential statistics assist the researcher to make decisions about the data and allow the researcher to make inferences about large populations by collecting data on relatively small samples (Kontogeorgos et al., 2022; Melie-Garcia et al., 2018; Nardi, 2018; Scott, 2016). Thus, the features of a population can be generalised utilising inferential statistics. In order to make judgements from the collected data, inferential statistics were utilised (Babbie et al., 2022; Vivian et al., 2021). Inferential statistics are concerned with inferences about the data and were applied as follows:

5.8.3.1 Hierarchical moderated regression analysis (Step-wise)

Stepwise regression comprises of regression analysis models in which the choice of predictive variables is automatically removed (Melie-Garcia et al., 2018; Park et al., 2018; Peeter, 2021; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). Furthermore, stepwise regression analysis examines the statistical significance of each independent variable within the model (Alzahawi & Monin, 2021;

Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Melie-Garcia et al., 2018). The current research applied the backward elimination procedure which involves testing variables one by one for statistical significance, and eliminating insignificant ones (Hayes, 2022; Melie-Garcia et al., 2018; Park et al., 2018).

Thus, stepwise regression analysis was applied to test Research Hypothesis 2:

Ha2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment level) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

The main aim of stepwise regression analysis is to establish a unique combination of independent variables which predict the dependent variables (Arriaga et al., 2021; Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Melie-Garcia et al., 2018). Stepwise uses t-tests in order to find the best set of independent variables that significantly predict the dependent variables (Hayes, 2022; Mike, 2015; Stassen et al., 2021). Stepwise regression analysis with backward elimination has several advantages, including the following: (1) it allows the discovery of the variables' cooperative predictive ability, (2) it has the capability to manage huge quantities of possible predictor variables and to modify the model with the purpose of selecting the best predictor variables from the obtainable options, (3) it delivers results more rapidly than other automatic model selection methods, and (4) it provides valuable information on the value of the predictor variables (Melie-Garcia et al., 2018; Mike, 2015).

5.8.3.2 Hierarchical moderated regressions analysis

Several researchers concluded that hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used to establish whether the relationship dynamics between a criterion and a predictor is moderated by another predictor – the moderating and moderator variable (Hayes, 2022; Nardi, 2018; Scott, 2016; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Hierarchical moderated regression was used to establish whether the biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level) moderate the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Hierarchical moderated regression is an appropriate technique for identifying moderator variables, accompanied by procedures for clarifying relationships (Hayes, 2022; Kiss et al., 2018; Nardi, 2018; Scott, 2016).

Hierarchical moderated regression analysis was utilised to test Research Hypothesis 2 (Ha2):

Ha2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

Multiple regression analysis was utilised to establish the value of independent variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) from the values of the dependent variables (resilience and career adaptability). The level of significance was set at an interval confidence level of 95% ($p \leq .05$). The relationship dynamics between two different variables is called the effect size. Several researchers emphasised that a relationship between an independent and dependent variable in an observational research can be featured in terms of the robustness of the relationship or its effect size (Kiss et al., 2018; Leeuwenberg et al., 2021; Mike, 2015; Nardi, 2018; Park et al., 2018).

5.8.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA is a type of structural equation modelling (SEM) that tests measurement models related to observed measures or indicators and latent variables or factors (Adril & Muzdalifah, 2021; Hayes, 2022; Ludtke et al., 2021). Confirmatory factor analysis (SEM) was used to test the hypothesis regarding the dependence relationship among a set of variables simultaneously (Hayes et al., 2017; Nardi 2018; Wang & Rhemtulla, 2021; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). CFA (SEM) refers to the detailed and accurate models (CFA models 1 to 4) of dependence between independent and dependent undeveloped variables (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017; Geiser, 2020; Levine, 2022). The assumption is that there is a satisfactory match between the structural model and the measurement data when there is a confirmatory fit index (CFI) of .90 or higher, a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of .08 or lower and a standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) of .05 or lower (Arrazola et al., 2018; Mike, 2015; Schumacker & Lomax, 2016; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). CFA (SEM) was used to determine whether there is an important relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability, as well as to develop a unique and diverse psychological talent retention framework from the empirical results by assessing whether the theoretically hypothesised model does have a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model. CFA (SEM) was used to determine whether the variable empirical inter-dynamics have a good fit with the data and to decide about the extent to which the data informs the designing of a psychological retention framework (research aim 5). Therefore, CFA (SEM) was used as a foundation and covariance structural analysis was applied to test Research Hypothesis 4 (Ha4):

Ha4: The theoretically hypothesised model has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.

The CFA (SEM) in this study was based on the significant moderation impact of the moderating variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status) on the relationship between the independent (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and dependent (resilience and career adaptability) variables. Hence, founded on the data from the moderated analysis, CFA (1,2,3,4) models were tested so that the best model fit data for the final empirically manifested retention framework could be developed. CFA (SEM) is a statistical technique which is mainly used to fit networks of constructs to data (Burkholder et al., 2021; Hayes, 2022; Hayes et al., 2017). CFA is a type of SEM that is frequently utilised to measure models related to observed measures or indicators and unobservable 'latent' constructs or factors (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Levine, 2022; Petocz et al., 2017; Wang & Rhemtulla, 2021).

The main goal of CFA is to explain and clarify the relationships between observed and latent variables in diverse kinds of theoretical models (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Mike, 2015; Petocz et al., 2017; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). Additionally, the CFA's (SEM) main purpose is to conclude whether the sample data is in support of the theoretical model (Geiser, 2020; Hayes, 2022; Petocz et al., 2017). Ultimately, the CFA offers a strong and flexible framework for examining variability and change across time at the level of latent variables, which are corrected for random measurement error (Geiser, 2020; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). CFA is generally executed in either one- or two-stage methods (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Burkholder et al., 2021; Geiser, 2020; Hayes, 2022; Mike, 2015), as follows: (1) to carry out the statistical analysis with synchronised estimations of both measurement and structural models. (2) to commence with the designing of the measurement model and then to modify it with the intention of estimating the structural model (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Heiss et al., 2021; Levine, 2022; Ludtke et al., 2021).

In this research, CFA was applied to assess the relationship between the data from the sample and the theoretical model of retention framework. To ascertain the model fit (fit index) on the measuring instrument, CFA utilised the unique values of Chi-square and absolute fit indexes, namely the Storra-Bentler non-normed index (NNI), Bayesian (BIC), the Akaike information criterion (AIC), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), the comparative fit index (CFI), the standardised root-mean-square residual (SRMR), root mean square error of approximation and p-value

(chi-squared test) (Adil & Muzdalifa, 2021; Geiser, 2020; Hayes, 2022; Viviani et al., 2021; Wang & Rhemtulla, 2021).

The chi-squared test was utilised to compare the fit of CFA models to the data (Hayes, 2022; Mike, 2015; Petocz et al., 2017). The chi-squared test of model fit has the disadvantage that a model with a good-fit might be excluded because of a large sample size, and a model with a poor fit may perhaps not be rejected owing to a small sample size (Levine, 2022; Mike, 2015; Petocz et al., 2017). The NNI examines the discrepancies amongst the chi-squared value of the hypothesised model and the chi-squared value of the null model (Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Schumacker, 2015; Wang & Rhemtulla, 2021). Empirical research concluded that the comparative fit index (CFI) shows the fit of the hypothesised model in contrast to the Baseline model (Hayes, 2022; Mike, 2015; Petocz et al., 2017). The Akaike information criterion (AIC) is a predictive fit index, and it is typically used to connect non-hierarchical hypothesised models with related data (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Burkholder et al., 2021; Levine, 2022; Mike, 2015; Petocz et al., 2017). The standardised root-mean-square residual (SRMR), plus the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were determined. The RMSEA has the main aim of determining the degree to which the model does not fit the data (Geiser, 2020; Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Hayes et al., 2017; Ludtke et al., 2021; Vivian et al., 2021). In other words, the RMSEA calculates the total level of inaccuracy and indicates the right purpose connected with the degrees of freedom (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Hayes et al., 2017; Levine, 2022; Viviani et al., 2021). A further technique applied to determine model fit was the standardised RMR (SRMR) (Denis, 2016; Hayes, 2022; Heiss et al., 2020; Petocz et al., 2017). The SRMR is regarded as the standardised difference between the detected correlation and the predicted (hypothesised) correlation (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Geiser, 2020; Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Schumacker & Lomax, 2016).

In summary, for the intention of this research, a model fit: CFA models were developed and utilised to estimate the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested CFA model and the theoretically hypothesised model. The fit was based on the statistical relationship between the organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability with retention practices. Cut-off fit index showed RMSEA $<.06$, SRMR $<.08$, CFI $>.82$, and TLI $>.80$ and Chi-Square (P-Value) $>.05$. After the model was declared fit, the next step was testing whether the statement is significant or not, to measure the desired variable using R-Studio Version 1.2.5019 © 2009-2019 Studio, Inc.

5.8.5 Test for significant mean differences

Tests for significant mean differences were calculated to determine whether individuals from the various age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status groups differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability (research aim 3). Thus, tests for significant mean differences were applied to assess whether the outcome gave significant information in support of Research Hypothesis 3 (Ha3):

Ha3: There are significant mean differences between the biographical variables and the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

A non-parametric test (Mann-Whitney U Test) was performed to determine whether there were any important differences between the mean scores of females and males, and also to determine whether these cohorts differ in terms of their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. The current study's level of statistical significance was set at $p < .50$. Tests for mean differences, including the Kruskal-Wallis test were utilised to established whether individuals from the various age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status groups differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Empirical research emphasised that tests for significant mean differences were performed to compare the mean scores of the different socio-demographic groups (Greenland, 2020; Hayes, 2022; Mike, 2015; Schumacker, 2015). Based on the tests of Shapiro-Wilks, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and normality techniques were utilised to test for differences between two independent groups (Ceccaron et al., 2021; Denis, 2016; Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Xie & Li, 2021). In order to measure the differences between cohorts and to test for the differences between two independent groups statistics tests were performed (Meyners & Hasted, 2021; Mike, 2015; Yildiz, 2021; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). ANOVAs or Kruskal-Wallis was conducted, to test for differences between multiple groups (Dunn et al., 2021; Hayes, 2022; Meyers & Hasted, 2021; Saunders et al., 2016; Scott, 2016). Furthermore, to measure the differences between the socio-demographic variables of age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status, ANOVAs were performed.

5.8.6 Statistical significance level

The statistical significance level of the current study was set at $p \geq .05$ and this ensured that if the null hypothesis was dismissed, there was only a 5% chance of being incorrect (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Aguinis et al., 2021; de Winter et al., 2016; Levine, 2022). If it happens that the test for significance specifies a $p \geq .05$ value, it can be concluded that the final scores are not statistically significant (de Winter et al., 2016; Headrick, 2016). Thus, outcome showing a p-value less than .05 will lead to the dismissal of the null hypothesis and consequently the outcome will be statistically important.

The level of significance states clearly the statistical significance in terms of unique probability (Francis & Jakicic, 2022). Additionally, the level of significance $p < .05$ is selected to test the hypothesis, and it provided a 95% confidence level in the outcome as the standard when applied in the research context. The most frequently utilised significance levels are $p < .05$ and $p < .01$ (Aguinis et al., 2021; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). The level of significance that was utilised in this study was set at $p < .05$. Furthermore, researchers are mostly concerned about missing a significant outcome or making a type II error, as they are worried about incorrectly ending an important outcome (Hayes, 2022; Wason & Robertson, 2021). A type II error happens when the researcher believes that there is a real impact in the population when in actual fact there is not one (Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Fadeyi, 2021; Parsons et al., 2018); in other words, when the researcher incorrectly accepts a null hypothesis when it is invalid (Aguinis et al., 2021; Mike, 2015; Zubko & Nechaev, 2022). As the total number of statistical tests to be done on a sample intensifies, the probability of a type I error also increases. A type I error takes place when the researcher believes that there is no impact in the population when in reality there is (Fadeyi, 2021; Levin, 2022; Parsons et al., 2018). Several researchers concluded that sometimes a researcher incorrectly dismisses a null hypothesis when it is in fact true (Hayes, 2022; Mike, 2015; Scott, 2016; Wason & Robertson, 2020). However, finalising on the significant level is a daunting experience and making the final choice is arbitrary (Francis & Jakicic, 2022; Mike, 2015; Xu et al., 2021). Different and unique levels of significance have been identified and depicted in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10
Different Levels of Statistical Significance

Probability	Level	Significance
<i>p-value</i>	.10	Less significant
<i>p-value</i>	.01 to .05	Significant

p-value	.001 to .01	Very significant
p-value	.001	Extremely significant

Source : Aguinis et al., (2021 p. 40)

When a test of significance reveals a p-value lower than the chosen significance level, the null hypothesis is dismissed and the final scores are considered as statistically significant (Denis, 2016; Levine, 2022; Van den Bergh et al., 2021). In the current study results showing a p-value less than .05 led to the dismissal of the null hypothesis and consequently the outcomes were statistically significant.

5.8.6.1 Level of significance: bi-variate correlation analysis

The effect size is taken into consideration in order to establish whether the results are practically relevant to the real world (Cohen et al., 2013a). It is essential to establish the effect size, when determining practical significance (de Winter et al., 2016; Headrick, 2016). Various studies pointed out that the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) is commonly utilised to establish the effect size (Cohen, 1988; 1992; de Vries et al., 2021; de Winter et al., 2016; Nardi, 2018; Thirumalai et al., 2017), where $r \leq .29$ indicates a small practical effect at $p < .05$, while $r \geq .30 \leq .49$ shows a medium practical effect at $p < .05$ and $r \geq .50$ represents a large practical effect at $p < .05$. For the purpose of this study, the significance levels of $p \leq .05$ and $r \geq .36$ (medium practical effect size) were chosen as the limit for rejection of the null hypotheses (Cohen, 1992; Cohen et al., 2013b; Levine, 2022; Newmann et al., 2021).

Below is Table 5.11 that outlines different levels of statistical significance (de Winter et al., 2016; Headrick, 2016):

Table 5.11

Levels of Statistical Significance of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlations

Practical effect size	Significance at $p \leq .05$
Small effect	$\geq .10 \leq .29$
Moderate effect	$r \geq .30 \leq .49$
Large effect	$r \geq .50$

Source: de Winter et al.,(2016, p. 20); Headrick, (2016, p. 1026)

5.8.6.2 Level of significance: stepwise regression analysis

In order to determine significance in terms of the stepwise regression analysis, ANOVAs was calculated. A low p-value of ($< .05$) is a sign that the null hypothesis can be dismissed.

Significance testing uses p-values for information measurement, on the other hand, hypothesis testing uses p-values only for decision rules (e.g. “reject” is $p < \alpha$) and their disastrous hybrids known as null hypotheses (Greenland, 2020; Hayes, 2022; Peeters, 2021). Consequently, when a predictor value has a low Fp-value ($p < .05$), it is likely that this variable significantly predicts the dependent variable. When stepwise multiple regression is conducted, the adjusted R^2 value indicates the level to which the independent variable clarifies the variation in the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2016; Hayes, 2022; Peeters, 2021). The adjusted R^2 value always ranges between 0% and 100%, and this shows whether the model clarifies none (0%) or all (100%) of the inconsistency of the response data around its mean (Arriaga et al., 2021; Hair et al., 2016).

R^2 is problematic because it becomes higher when more variables are added. This could mistakenly show that a model with an increased number of variables had a better fit to the data merely owing to the fact that it had more relationships (Cohen et al., 2013a; Hair et al., 2016; Stassen, et al., 2021). To prevent this problem, the altered R^2 is calculated and the explanatory power of the corresponding models compared with a different number of predictors (Denis, 2016; Hair et al., 2016; Keller et al., 2021). As a result, the altered R^2 is an unprejudiced estimation of the R^2 value and is explained in the same way as the R value (Hair et al., 2016; Neumann et al., 2021). Table 5.12 shows the different practical effect sizes of the adjusted R^2 cut-off values at $F_p \leq .05$ (Cohen et al., 2013a; Denis, 2016).

Table 5.12

Levels of Statistical Significance of Moderated Hierarchical Regression (Stepwise Multiple Regression)

Practical effect size	Significance at $p \leq .05$
Small effect	$R^2 \geq .02 \leq .12$
Moderate effect	$R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$
Large effect	$R^2 \geq .26$

Source: Cohen et al., (2013a, p. 98); Denis (2016, p. 174)

5.8.6.3 Level of significance: CFA (SEM)

The measurement procedure applied is CFA. The R-Studio Version 1.2.5019 © 2009-2019 Studio, Inc. was used to run the CFAs. The CFA models were improved by excluding variables with loadings $p < 0.5$ and the modification indices were used (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Burkholder et al., 2021; Everitt & Howell, 2005; Geiser, 2020; Hayes, 2022; Wang & Rhemtulla, 2021)

Empirical research emphasised that in CFA, the goodness of fit index (CFI) values range between 0 and 1 and the model will have an acceptable fit with the data when the CFI values are near 1. (Burkholder et al., 2021; Levine, 2022; Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). Absolute fit indices consisted of the Storra-Bentler non-normed index (NNI), the Akaike information criterion (AIC), the comparative fit Index (CFI), the standardised root-mean-square residual (SRMR), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and chi-squared test (Hayes, 2022; Vivian et al., 2021). These absolute fit indices were established using R-Studio Version 1.2.5019 © 2009-2019 Studio, Inc.

Chi-square values indicated the degree to which the predicted and observed covariance's are different from one another (Denis, 2016). A smaller value of chi-square shows small variances between the covariance, hence signifying a better fit to the data (Denis, 2016; Levine, 2022; Ludtke et al., 2021). Research postulated that an NNI value between .90 and .95 is seen as the boundary, above .95 is good, and below .90 is perceived to be a model with a poor fit (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Everitt & Howel, 2005; Hayes, 2022). In this research CFI values close to >.90 and higher were considered to indicate a satisfactory model fit (Adil & Muzdalifah, 2021; Denis, 2016; Levine, 2022; Ludtke et al., 2021). Research headed by Schumacker and Lomax (2016) noted that low AIC values indicated a narrow fit versus models that failed to fit the data. A borderline value of RMSEA and SRMR for model approval is < .10, whereas a value of < .08 and lower, is regarded as satisfactory for model fit (Everitt and Howel, 2005; Hayes, 2022; Viviani et al., 2021).

5.8.6.4 Level of significance: tests for significant mean differences

A significance level of $p \leq .05$ shows that the tests of mean differences are valid and significant. The effect size is essential because it enables the strength of empirically identified relationships or differences to be estimated, which can assist researchers comprehend if they have a practical meaning (Levine, 2022; Lovakov & Agadullina, 2021). Furthermore, the effect size is required for priori power analysis and circulation of sample sizes of sufficient power in future research (Lovakov & Agadullina, 2021). The most widely used thresholds in most literatures by which the effect size is interpreted as small, medium, or large are those proposed by Cohen (1988; 1992). In particular; $d = .20$, $r = .10$ is interpreted as small effect, $d = .50$ or $r = .30$ as medium effects, and $d = .80$ or $r = .50$ as large effects (small .20, medium .50, large .80) (Cohen, 1988; 1992; Cohen et al., 2001; Cohen et al., 2013b). In order to determine the effect size of the mean differences, Cohen's d is utilised (Cohen, 1988; 1992; Lamer, 2014; Thrane & Cohen, 2014). The practical effect sizes of Cohen's d are outlined in Table 5.13 below (Cohen et al., 2013a; Denis, 2016; Lovakov & Agadullina, 2021):

Table 5.13

Levels of Statistical Significance of Cohen's d

Practical effect size	Significance at $p \leq .05$
Small effect	$d = .02$
Moderate effect	$d = .05$
Large effect	$d = .08$

Source: Cohen et al., (2013a, p. 69); Denis, (2016, p.174); Lovakov and Agadullina, (2021, p. 25)

5.9. LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN

As a result of the design of the research there were a number of limitations to this study's research design, and these limitations were taken into consideration in the interpretation of the findings:

- The cross-sectional design of the study did not enable the researcher to influence the research variables. Furthermore, the cross-sectional design did not enable the researcher to determine the causal connectedness of the significant and dynamic relationships between the current research variables. Unfortunately, this research design did not enable the researcher to determine cause and effect, but rather to determine the direction, magnitude and nature of the dynamics relationship between the variables with the aim of designing a psychological retention framework for South Africa private sector organisations.
- The cross-sectional moderation regression analysis utilised in this research made the study susceptible to the possibility of bias, and the support for moderated effects when there is no true moderation process in the sample (Dunn et al., 2021; Hayes, 2022; Park et al., 2018; Scott, 2016). In this study, however, the cross-sectional moderation analysis did not aim to assess causal effects, but rather the importance and direction of the dynamic interconnectedness of the research variables. The socio-demographic variables were restricted to age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment level.
- The size of the sample ($n = 574$) was large enough, but the research used one organisation and one industry, this cannot permit the conclusions of the study to be generalised to the entire South African private sector organisations population.

5.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The empirical investigation was extensively discussed in this chapter. Furthermore, the population and determination and the description of the sample, the measuring instruments, the data collection process, administration of the measuring instrument and data analysis processes were also discussed in detail. The chapter concluded with the formulation of the research hypotheses; the statistical processing of the data, including the three stages (descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analysis) conducted during the empirical investigation; and the statistical significance levels which were used to interpret the data.

The empirical research aims highlighted in Table 5.9 are addressed in chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH RESULTS

This chapter explored, clarified and discussed in detail various statistical results of the study and described the research hypotheses that were tested. Additionally, the chapter also focussed on integrating the empirical research findings with the findings of the literature review. Furthermore, the statistical results were discussed and the descriptive, correlations and inferential statistical analysis of the research study clarified and tested in order to test the formulated hypotheses. In order to achieve the research objectives and aims, descriptive statistics, correlations and an inferential statistical analysis were performed, and presented in tables and figures. The chapter furthermore addressed the empirical research aims based on the overall statistical relationship between the retention-related dispositions constructs (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), to assess whether a good fit exists between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha4. The following empirical research aims were executed and achieved in this chapter:

Research aim 1: To explore the empirical inter-relationship between the socio-demographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level), retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) as manifested in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha1.

Research aim 2: To investigate if socio-demographic variables, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness significantly predict resilience and career adaptability. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha2.

Research aim 3: To investigate whether individuals from different ages, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha3.

Research aim 4: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability),

to assess whether a good fit exists between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha4.

Research aim 5: To formulate recommendations for further research in the field of Human Resource Management and suggest further research strategies based on the findings of this study research.

6.1 PRELIMINARY STATISTICAL ANALYSIS: TESTING FOR COMMON METHOD BIAS

It was imperative to perform tests for common method bias on the five scales, namely the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS), Job Embeddedness Scale (JES), PVS-III-R Scale, EmpRes Scale and Career Adaptability Scale (CAS). Because a cross-sectional research design and self-report assessment instruments were utilised in this research study, it was essential to test for common method bias (Hadiannasab, 2021). Common method bias (CMB) was determined by utilising the Harman’s one factor solution and a one factor Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) method (N = 574). A Harman’s one factor test value of $>.50$ implies a one factor scale and presence of common method bias (Baumgartner et al., 2021; Hayes, 2022; Kock, 2020). The CFA good model fit of the one factor involves the presence of common method bias. The results of these tests are summarised in Table 6.1. Goodness-of-fit is shown where RMSEA and SRMR are $\leq .08$ and AIC and CFI $\geq .90$ or higher (Burkholder et al., 2021; Vivian et al., 2021; Wang & Rhemtulla, 2021). The analyses were performed utilising the R-Studio version 1.2.5019 © 2009-2019 studio, Inc.

Table 6.1

One-Factor CFA

Chi-square	Chi-square	Df	P	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	AIC	BIC
Organisational commitment (OCS)									
HOFS	8010.07	276	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
One factor CFA	1349.60	252	.000	.09	.08	.73	.71	40605.58	40814.50
Job embeddedness (JES)									
HOFS	7847.25	136	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

Chi-square	Chi-square	Df	P	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	AIC	BIC
One factor CFA	531.46	118	.000	.08	.13	.87	.86	2182.33	2167.99
Hardiness (PVS-III-R)									
HOFS	3891.33	153	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
One factor CFA	1004.55	135	.000	.11	.12	.58	.53	19354.32	19511.72
Resilience (EmpRes)									
HOFS	1645.22	36	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
One factor CFA	13.59	10	.000	.04	.04	1.00	.98	1084.31	1099.68
Career adaptability									
HOFS	1244.55	595	.000	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
One factor CFA	6600.54	560	.000	.15	.17	.41	.38	4173.13	4203.81

Note: N = 574; HOFS: Harman's One Factor Solution

6.1.1 Common method bias of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)

Table 6.1 indicates that the Harman's one-factor solution for the OCS loaded onto one construct reported only the chi-squared, df and p of the covariance between the scale variables. When the different factors of the OCS were loaded onto one factor CFA, the fit indices indicated a poor model fit. The chi-squared is considered a good fit when it has a value of < 3. The chi-square in the model = 1349.60, which was too high. Desirably the RMSEA and SRMR should be between 0 and 1. A better model fit should have a value closer to 0, for instance, < .05 is considered a good fit, the values between .05 and .10 is a moderate fit and > .10 depicts a poor fit. CFI and TLI values of >.90 are considered to be acceptable fits. This was the case because values closer to 0 depicts a good fit, unlike the values greater than .10 might depict an exaggerated model. The one factor CFA fit indices were: RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .08; CFI = .73; TLI = .71; AIC = 4061.58; BIC = 4081.50. Overall, the one-factor CFA of the OCS shows a poor fit. Concluding from these results common method bias was not an intense

threat to explaining the outcome concerning the OCS (Vivian et al., 2021; Wang & Rhemtulla, 2021).

6.1.2 Common method bias of the Job Embeddedness Scale (JES)

Table 6.1 indicates that the Harman's one-factor solution for the JES loaded onto one construct reported only the chi-squared, df and p of the covariance between the scale variables. When the various factors of the JES were loaded onto a single construct in the CFA one-factor model, the fit indices indicated a poor model fit. This was the case because there were too many factors loaded onto a single construct and this caused overloading that is why there was a poor model fit. The chi-square in the model = 531.46, which was too high. The one factor CFA fit indices were as follows: RMSEA = .13; SRMR = .13; CFI = .87; TLI = .86; AIC = 2182.33 and BIC = 2167.99. Overall, the one-factor CFA of the JES indicated a poor fit (Dursun et al., 2022; Fadeyi, 2021). These findings suggested that common method bias was not a grave threat to interpreting the results concerning the JES.

6.1.3 Common method bias of the Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R)

Table 6.1 indicates that the Harman's one-factor solution for the PVS-III-R loaded onto one construct reported only the chi-squared, df and p of the covariance between the scale variables. When the various factors of PVS-III-R were loaded onto one factor CFA, the fit indices depicted a poor model fit. The chi-square in the model = 1004.55 which was too high. The one factor CFA fit indices were: RMSEA = .15; SRMR = .12; CFI = .57; TLI = .51; AIC = 1935.31; BIC = 1951.01. Overall, the one-factor CFA of the PVS-III-R showed a poor fit. These results concluded that common method bias was not an intense threat to explaining the outcome affecting the PVS-III-R (Hossen et al., 2022; Wason & Robertson, 2020).

6.1.4 Common method bias of the Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes)

Table 6.1 indicates that the Harman's one-factor solution for the EmpRes loaded onto one construct reported only the chi-squared, df and p of the covariance between the scale variables. When the different factors of the EmpRes were loaded onto a single construct in the CFA one-factor model, the fit indices showed a poor model fit. The chi-square in the model = 13.591, which was too high. The one factor CFA fit indices were as follows: RMSEA = .04; SRMR = .04; CFI = 100.00; TLI = .98; AIC = 1084.31 and BIC = 1099.68. Overall, the one-factor CFA of the EmpRes showed a poor fit (Hartmann et al., 2022; Hayes & Rockwood,

2017). This outcome indicated that common method bias was not a severe threat to translating the findings pertaining to the EmpRes.

6.1.5 Common method bias of the Career Adaptability Scale (CAS)

Table 6.1 indicates that the Harman's one-factor solution for the CAS loaded onto one construct reported only the chi-squared, df and p of the covariance between the scale variables. When the different factors of the CAS were loaded onto one factor CFA, the fit indices showed a poor model fit. The chi-square in the model = 6600.54, which was too high. The one factor CFA fit indices were as follows: RMSEA = .15; SRMR = .17; CFI = .41; TLI = .38; AIC = 4173.13; BIC = 4203; 81. Overall, the one-factor CFA of the CAS showed a poor fit. These findings proposed that common method bias was not a severe concern to interpreting the findings pertaining to the CAS (Hadiannasab, 2021; Putri & Dewi, 2022).

In summary, it was clear that the one-factor CFA results for the various scales were in agreement with the principles and rules of Hadiannasab (2021), which proposed that common method bias was not a probable concern to the research results.

6.2 PRELIMINARY STATISTICAL ANALYSIS: DETERMINING CONSTRUCT VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE ASSESSMENT SCALES

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), utilising the R-Studio Version 1.2.5019 © 2009-2019 Studio, Inc., was utilised to establish the construct validity of the five measurement scales used in the current study. On the other hand, the robust CFA was measured using the Satorra-Bentler correction. It is imperative to measure the validity of the measurement model in order to make valid conclusions (Hayes et al., 2017; Nardi 2018; Wang & Rhemtulla, 2021). This plan assisted in achieving the best model fit of each scale before proceeding with the testing of the research hypotheses.

Two CFAs were performed on each measurement scale. Model one tested the data fit of the initial multifactor model, while model two tested an optimised version of the corresponding measurement scale in order to improve the model fit of the scale (Selmi et al., 2018).

The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Composite Reliability (CR) were performed to determine the fit validity and reliability of the assessment models of each scale (Fornell-Larcker, 1981; Selimi et al., 2018). AVE and CR focuses on assessing the amount of shared

variance between the latent variables in a model. According to Dilekli and Tezci (2019), an AVE value of $>.70$ is validated as a gauge of good model fit and a CR value of $>.70$ is accepted as a good statistic. For AVE, $.50$ is acceptable when the CR index is higher than $.60$, AVE's acceptable value can be higher than $.40$ (Delekli & Tezci, 2019; Fornell-Larker, 1981;). Such values show the construct validity and reliability of a scale (Fornell-Larker, 1981; Baumgartner et al., 2021).

AVE measures the extent of variance detected by a construct versus the level that is a result of a measurement error (Mike, 2015; Parsons et al., 2018; Schumacker, 2015). Measurement error refers to the variance between the correct value of a variable and the value assessed through data collection (Fadeyi, 2021; Parsons et al., 2018). Measurement error may be caused by diverse factors such as mistakes in an assessment instrument, participants' responses to the researcher, factors specific to the respondent such as fatigue or pain, unclear questions, or environmental factors such as noisy areas (Fadeyi, 2021; Wason & Robertson, 2020).

Internal consistency reliability of each assessment scale was also measured using Cronbach alpha coefficient and composite reliability (CR) coefficient (Raykov's rho). Cronbach alpha coefficients between $.60$ and $.70$ are partially acceptable, while in more advanced stages the score has to be higher than $.70$. However, a score that is more than $.90$ is not acceptable (Dilekli & Tezci, 2019; Hamid et al. 2017). Cronbach Alpha values provided evidence of the reliability of the scales. These results can be accepted as indicators that respondents replied to the scale questions in a consistent way (Dilekli & Tezci, 2019).

6.2.1 Measuring construct validity and reliability of OCS

Table 6.2 outlines the CFA findings for the OCS.

Table 6.2

Results for CFAs Testing the Construct Validity of the OCS

	Chi-square	Df	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	AIC	BIC
CFA Model 1	897.988	249	.000	.09	.07	.84	.83	3974.87	3996.85
CFA IMD	413.393	165	.000	.05	.05	.93	.92	3108.96	3127.83

Model									
2									

Notes: N = 574; df: degrees of freedom; IMD: improved

Second order CFA model 1 showed the following fit indices: Chi-square = 897.988; df = 249; p = .00; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .07; CFI = .84; TLI = .83; AIC = 3974.87 and BIC = 3996.85. For the chi-squared to be considered a good fit it must have a value of < 3. The chi-square in the model = 897.988, which was too high. The RMSEA and SRMR should preferably be between 0 and 1. A value closer to 0 represents a better model fit; a value < .05 is believed to be a good fit, between .05 and .10 is believed to be a moderate fit, and >.10 represents a poor fit. The values for RMSEA and the SRMR in the model = .09 and .07 respectively. This shows a moderate fit, observing that the RMSEA and the SRMR values were between .05 and .10. CFI and TLI values of >.90 are believed to be a desirable fit. The CFI = .84 and the TLI =.82, which shows a poor fit, because it is below .90 (Baumgartner et al, 2021; Kock, 2020).

Second order CFA Model 2 (improved) indicated the following fit indices: Chi-square = 413.393; df = 165; p = .000; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .05; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; AIC = 3108.96; BIC = 3127.83. The chi-square in the model = 413.393, which was a bad fit. RMSEA = .05 and the SRMR = .05 values in the model, which indicates a good model fit (Geiser, 2020).

In model 2, the CFI = .93 which shows a satisfactory fit, and the TLI = .92, which is considered a satisfactory model for the purpose of this study. Model 1 consisted of observed variables only, and in order to improve the model fit, the items were loaded on the latent variables as well (model 2 improved). When comparing the improved model 2 with model 1, model 2 indicated a better fit than model 1. The AIC of the improved model 2 was also higher than the AIC value of model 1. Thus, the best fit CFA measurement model (2) of the OCS was used in the further statistical analyses conducted. Table 6.3 outlined the internal consistency reliability and validity of the OCS.

Table 6.3

Reliability and Construct Validity of the OCS

Scale Dimension	Cronbach alpha coefficient	CR	AVE	Construct validity CR > AVE AVE > .50
Affective	.88	.88	.52	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50
Normative	.87	.94	.57	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50
Continuance	.87	.87	.52	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50
Overall OCS	.94	.96	.61	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50

Notes: N = 574; CR: composite reliability; AVE: average variance extracted

The Cronbach alpha coefficients and CR values were all above $>.85$ which indicates high internal consistency reliability of the OCS. Table 6.3 also supplies evidence of construct validity of the OCS with the CR values being greater than the AVE values, and the AVE values of affective (.52), normative (.57) and continuance (.52) being $\geq .50$, which is acceptable.

Overall, the structural construct validity of OCS, as provided by the CFA findings, confirmed that further statistical analysis was warranted and valid. Furthermore, the OCS partially achieved construct validity, and all three of the subscales gained high reliabilities. The AVEs of the three subscales (affective, normative and continuance) fell within the threshold of .50. Thus, the OCS showed satisfactory construct validity and reliability for the purpose of this study.

6.2.2 Measuring construct validity and reliability of JES

Table 6.4 outlines the CFA findings for the JES.

Table 6.4

Results for CFAs Testing the Construct Validity of the JES

	Chi-square	Df	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	AIC	BIC
CFA Model 1	531.458	118	.000	.08	.13	.88	.86	2167.99	2182.33
CFA IMD Model 2	144.686.51	.51	.000	.06	.09	.97	.96	1383.02	13995.54

Notes: N = 574; df: degrees of freedom; IMD: improved

Model 1 (second order CFA) showed the following fit indices: Chi-square = 531.458; df = 118; p = .000; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .13; CFI = .88; TLI = .86; AIC = 2167.99; BIC = 2182.33. The chi-square in the model = 531.458, which was too high. The RMSEA in the model = .08 which shows a moderate fit. SRMR score in the model = .13 and this shows a poor fit. The CFI = .88 and the TLI .86, AIC = 2167.99, BIC = 2182.33, which shows a satisfactory fit.

Model 2 (improved) showed the following fit indices: Chi-square = 144.686; df = 51; p = .000; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .09; CFI = .97; TLI = .96; AIC = 1383.02; BIC = 1395.54. The chi-square in the model = 144.686, which was too high. The RMSEA in the model = .06 which shows a moderate fit. SRMR scores in the model = .09 and this shows a good fit. CFI and TLI scores of >.90 are considered to be a satisfactory fit. The CFI = .97 and the TLI = .96; AIC = 1383.02; BIC = 1395.54, which indicates a satisfactory fit. Model 1 is comprised of observed variables only and in order to improve the model fit, the items were loaded on the latent variables as well (improved model 2). When comparing the improved model 2 with the model 1, most of the fit indices of model 2 are lower than model 1 fit indices. However, when the values of model 1 are compared to the improved model 2, it is clear that model 2 (with lower AIC value) showed a more improved fit than model 1. Thus, the best fit CFA measurement model (2) of the JES was used in the further statistical analyses. Table 6.5 outlined the internal consistency reliability and validity of the JES.

Table 6.5

Reliability and Construct Validity of the JES

Scale Dimension	Cronbach alpha coefficient	CR	AVE	Construct validity CR > AVE AVE > .50
Fit	.85	.82	.60	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50
Sacrifice/Link	.96	.95	.78	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50
Overall JES	.94	.92	.56	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50

Notes: N = 574; CR: composite reliability; AVE: average variance extracted

The Cronbach alpha coefficients and CR values were all above $>.82$ which indicates high internal consistency reliability of the JES. Table 6.5 also supplies evidence of construct validity of the JES with the CR scores being greater than the AVE scores, and the AVE scores of fit (.60) and sacrifice/links (.78) being $\geq .50$, which is satisfactory.

Overall, the structural construct validity of JES, as provided by the CFA findings, established that further statistical analysis was guaranteed and valid. Furthermore, the JES partially achieved construct validity, and both subscales gained high reliabilities. The AVEs of the two subscales (fit and sacrifice) fell above the threshold of .50. Thus, the JES showed satisfactory construct validity and reliability for the purpose of this study.

6.2.3 Measuring construct validity and reliability of PVS-III-R

Table 6.6 outlines the CFA findings for the PVS-III-R.

Table 6.6

Results for CFAs Testing the Construct Validity of the PVS-III-R

	Chi-square	Df	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	AIC	BIC
CFA Model 1	641.461	116	.000	.11	.12	.73	.69	1757.23	1773.27
CFA IMD Model 2	102.415	35	.000	.07	.06	.97	.94	1280.76	1298.93

Notes: N = 574; df: degrees of freedom; IMD: improved

Model 1 (second order CFA) showed the following fit indices: Chi-square = 641.461; df = 116; p = .000; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .12; CFI = .72; TLI = .67; AIC = 1757.23; BIC = 1773.27 The chi-square in the model = 641.461, which was too high. The RMSEA in the model = .11 which shows a poor fit. SRMR score in the model = .12 and this shows a poor fit. The CFI = .73, TLI .69; AIC = 1757.23 and BIC = 1773.27 which shows a poor fit.

Model 2 (improved) showed the following fit indices: Chi-square = 102.415; df = 35; p = .000; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .06; CFI = .97; TLI = .94; AIC = 1280.76; BIC = 1298.93. The chi-square in the model = 102.415, which was too high. The RMSEA in the model = .06 which shows a moderate fit. SRMR scores in the model = .06 and this shows a moderate fit. CFI and TLI scores of >.90 are considered to be a satisfactory fit. The CFI = .97 and the TLI = .94, which indicates a satisfactory fit. Model 1 is comprised of observed variables only and in order to improve the model fit, the items were loaded on the latent variables as well (improved model 2). When comparing the improved model 2 with model 1, most of the fit indices of model 2 are lower than model 1 fit indices. However, when the values of model 1 are compared to the improved model 2, it is clear that model 2 (with lower AIC value) showed a more improved fit than model 1. Thus, the best fit CFA measurement model (2) of the PVS-III-R was used in the further statistical analyses. Table 6.7 outlined the internal consistency reliability and validity of the PVS-III-R.

Table 6.7

Reliability and Construct Validity of the PVS-III-R

Scale Dimension	Cronbach alpha coefficient	CR	AVE	Construct validity CR > AVE AVE > .50
Commitment	.77	.74	.43	Partially CR > AVE AVE > .50
Control	.58	.66	.42	Partially CR > AVE AVE > .50
Challenge	.83	.84	.52	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50
Overall PVS-R-III	.85	.84	.50	Partially CR > AVE AVE > .50

Notes: N = 574; CR: composite reliability; AVE: average variance extracted

The Cronbach alpha coefficients and CR values were all above $>.58$ which indicates moderate internal consistency reliability of the PVS-III-R (moderate results). Table 6.7 also supplies evidence of construct validity of the PVS-III-R with the CR scores being greater than the AVE scores, and the AVE scores of commitment (.43), control (.42) and challenge (.52) being $\geq .50$, which is satisfactory.

Overall, the structural construct validity of PVS-III-R, as provided by the CFA findings, established that further statistical analysis was guaranteed and valid. Furthermore, the PVS-III-R partially achieved construct validity, and the three subscales gained high reliabilities. The AVEs of the two subscales namely commitment and control fell below the threshold of .50 and challenge fell above the threshold of .50. Thus, the PVS-III-R showed satisfactory construct validity and reliability for the purpose of this study.

6.2.4 Measuring construct validity and reliability of EmpRes

Table 6.8 outlines the CFA findings for the EmpRes.

Table 6.8

Results for CFAs Testing the Construct Validity of the EmpRes

	Chi-square	Df	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	AIC	BIC
CFA Model 1	13.591	10	.000	.03	.04	.000	.98	1084.31	1099.66

Notes: N = 574; df: degrees of freedom

Model 1 (one factor CFA) showed the following fit indices: Chi-square = 13.591; df = 10; p = .000; RMSEA = .03; SRMR = .04; CFI = 100; TLI = .98; AIC = 1084.31; BIC = 1099.66. The chi-square in the model = 13.591, which was too high. The RMSEA in the model = .03 which shows a good fit. SRMR score in the model = .04 and this shows a good fit. The CFI = 100, TLI .98; AIC = 1084.31 and BIC = 1099.66, which shows a satisfactory fit because CFI and TLI values are above .90.

Table 6.9

Reliability and Construct Validity of the EmpRes

Scale Dimension	Cronbach alpha coefficient	CR	AVE	Construct validity CR > AVE AVE > .50
Resilience	.67	.58	.26	Partially CR > AVE AVE > .50

Notes: N = 574; CR: composite reliability; AVE: average variance extracted

The Cronbach alpha coefficients and CR values were all above >.58 which indicates moderate internal consistency reliability of the EmpRes. Table 6.9 also supplies evidence of construct validity of the EmpRes with the CR scores being greater than the AVE scores, and the AVE scores of Resilience (.26), which is unsatisfactory.

Overall, the structural construct validity of EmpRes, as provided by the CFA findings, established that further statistical analysis was guaranteed and valid. Furthermore, the EmpRes partially achieved construct validity, and the scale gained high reliabilities. The AVEs of the scale fell below the threshold of .50, thus, the EmpRes showed moderate construct validity and reliability for the purpose of this study.

6.2.5 Measuring construct validity and reliability of CAS

Table 6.10 outlines the CFA findings for the CAS.

Table 6.10

Results for CFAs Testing the Construct Validity of the CAS

	Chi-square	Df	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	AIC	BIC
CFA Model 1	3215.13	550	.000	.10	.14	.73	.71	3799.87	3833.10
CFA IMD Model 2	8469.50	331	.000	.05	.08	.93	.92	2704.58	2737.03

Notes: N = 574; df: degrees of freedom; IMD: improved

Model 1 (second order CFA) showed the following fit indices: Chi-square = 3215.13; df = 550; p = .000; RMSEA = .10; SRMR = .14; CFI = .73; TLI = .71; AIC = 3799.87; BIC = 3833.10. The chi-square in the model = 3215.13, which was too high. The RMSEA in the model = .10 which shows a moderate fit. SRMR score in the model = .14 and this shows a poor fit. The CFI = .73, TLI .71, AIC = 3799.87 and BIC = 3833.10, which shows a poor fit.

Model 2 (improved) showed the following fit indices: Chi-square = 8469.50; df = 331; p = .000; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .08; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; AIC = 2704.58; BIC = 2737.03. The chi-square in the model = 8469.50, which was too high. The RMSEA in the model = .05 which shows a moderate fit. SRMR scores in the model = .08 and this shows a moderate fit. CFI and TLI scores of >.90 are considered to be a satisfactory fit. The CFI = .93 and the TLI = .92, which indicates a satisfactory fit. Model 1 is comprised of observed variables only and in order to improve the model fit, the items were loaded on the latent variables as well (improved model 2). When comparing the improved model 2 with model 1, most of the fit indices of model 2 are lower than model 1 fit indices. However, when the values of model 1 are compared to the improved model 2, it is clear that model 2 (with lower AIC value) showed a more improved fit than model 1. Thus, the best fit CFA measurement model (2) of the CAS was used in the further statistical analyses. Table 6.11 outlined the internal consistency reliability and validity of the CAS.

Table 6.11

Reliability and Construct Validity of the CAS

Scale Dimension	Cronbach alpha coefficient	CR	AVE	Construct validity CR > AVE AVE > .50
Concern	.84	.85	.53	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50
Control	.81	.80	.40	Partially CR > AVE AVE > .50
Curiosity	.94	.93	.70	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50
Confidence	.81	.83	.63	Yes CR > AVE AVE > .50
Cooperation	.88	.88	.47	Partially CR > AVE AVE > .50
Overall CAS	.92	.95	.47	Partially CR > AVE AVE > .50

Notes: N = 574; CR: composite reliability; AVE: average variance extracted

The Cronbach alpha coefficients and CR values were all above $>.80$ which indicates a very high internal consistency reliability of the CAS. Table 6.11 also supplies evidence of construct validity of the CAS with the CR scores being greater than the AVE scores, and the AVE scores of concern (.53), control (.40), curiosity (.70), confidence (.64) and cooperation (.47) being $\geq .50$, which is satisfactory.

Overall, the structural construct validity of CAS, as provided by the CFA findings, established that further statistical analysis was guaranteed and valid. Furthermore, the CAS partially achieved construct validity, and the four subscales gained high reliabilities. The AVEs of the two subscales namely control and cooperation fell below the threshold of .50 and the other three subscales namely concern, curiosity and confidence fell above the threshold of .50.

Thus, the CAS showed satisfactory construct validity and reliability for the purpose of this study.

Finally, the following major conclusions were deduced from the above outcome:

- Overall, Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1997), obtained overall construct validity and the three subscales indicated high reliability. The levels of AVE constructs were higher than the trustable level indicating strong reliability.
- The complete Job Embeddedness Scale (JES) (Mitchell et al., 2001a; b) reliability was very high and the Cronbach Alpha coefficients for JES subscales were outstanding. Overall, the two subscales' AVEs were over the dependable level, indicating robust reliability.
- Holistically, the Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R) (Maddi & Khoshaba, 2001) obtained high reliability, although only one subscale obtained high reliabilities and the other two fell below the dependable threshold of .41 and .43. The AVEs for challenge were very high, indicating robust validity.
- As a whole, Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes) (Naswall et al., 2013) obtained high reliability and was deemed satisfactory for the purpose of this current research study.
- Generically, the reliability of Career Adaptability Scale (CAS) (Savickas, 1997) was low and the subscales indicated low reliability. However, the overall scale AVE was very high, while on the other hand the subscales AVEs were low. Unfortunately, two subscales fell below the trustable level.

Ultimately, all five assessment scales achieved construct validity and reliability. However, some subscales had problems, as they showed problematic reliability coefficients, but these problematic scales were included in the statistical analysis (sacrifice was left out, commitment and control; and control and cooperation) and indicated low reliability. Furthermore, the appropriate problematic subscales were included in the scales. CFA analysis resulted in adequate reliability and construct validity. However, low internal consistency reliabilities were considered in the interpretation of the results.

6.3 CFA: MEASURING CONSTRUCT VALIDITY OF THE OVERALL ASSESSMENT MODEL

R-Studio Version 1.2.5019 © 2009-2019 Studio, Inc. was used to run the CFAs, to assess whether the measurement model included all five scales and their subscales, namely the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS), Job Embeddedness Scale, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and

Career Adaptability Scale (CAS). Four CFA models were carried out on each assessment scale. Model 1 to 4 tested the data fit of the five scales and optimisation was performed in all five scales in order to improve the model fit of all five scales. The improvement of four CFA models in the current study were achieved by excluding variables with loadings <0.5 and the modification indices were used. Goodness-of-fit were shown when SRMR and RMSEA values were $\leq .08$ and CFI and Satorra-Bentler Correction (SBC) values $\geq .90$ or higher (Geiser, 2020; Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

CFA was performed to determine the reliability and construct validity of the overall assessment model on all five scales, both by means of CFA model 3, as well as CFA model 4. As indicated in Table 6.12, the results of the CFA Model 4 showed a better goodness-of-fit and were utilised for further analysis.

The findings of the CFA are outlined in Table 6.12 below. Goodness-of-fit was indicated when: (1) Chi-square value was <3; (2) RMSEA and SRMR should be desirable between 0 and 1, a value closer to 0 represents a better model fit, a value <.05 is believed to be a good fit, between .05 and .10 is believed to be a moderate fit and >.10 represents a poor fit. (3) The values of TLI and CFI of $\geq .90$ or higher are believed to be a desirable fit (Geiser, 2020; Hayes & Rockwood, 2017).

Table 6.12

CFA: Reliability and Construct Validity

CFA Model 1 All sub-factors of ALL five scales loadings in one CFA Model		
Overall structural model	Chi-Square	6195.95
	RMSEA	.04
	SRMR	.13
	CFI	.86
	TLI	.85
	AIC	9511.33
	BIC	9612.79

Notes: N = 574

The CFA for the CFA overall structural model showed construct validity, with the fit indices indicating RMSEA and SRMR of .04 and .13 respectively and a CFI and TLI $\geq .90$. (Chi-square = 6195.95; RMSEA = .04; SRMR = .13; CFI = .86; TLI = .85; AIC = 9511.33; BIC = 9612.79).

There was a good fit because RMSEA = .04 and at the same time a poor fit because SRMR = .13, however, the CFI and TLI values were lower than $\geq .90$ (Geiser, 2020).

The CFA findings therefore gave evidence of the construct validity of the overall Structural model and justified proceeding with the testing of the research hypotheses.

6.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

This section expounded on the means (M), standard deviations (SD), skewness and kurtosis that were calculated for each of the five scales, as well as Kolmogorov-Smirnova and Shapiro-Wilk that was utilised to measure the normality of the five scales.

Descriptive statistical analysis comprises statistical calculations directed at explaining the characteristics of the sample or the relationship dynamics between the variables in the sample (Babbie & Roberts, 2018; Hayes, 2022; Juul et al., 2021; Shang, 2021). The purpose of this section is to utilise descriptive statistics to provide the correlational and inferential statistical analyses. The major purpose of descriptive statistics is to address the unique research undertaken by a study, and can also be used to assist in finding vital, yet often hidden, patterns in the data that may shed further light on the problems that need to be resolved through the study (Broen et al., 2021; Levine, 2022; Yildiz, 2021).

6.4.1 Reporting of means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis

Descriptive analysis was performed to explore in detail the distribution of the scores. Means is the measurement of interval and ratio data only and is calculated mainly to establish the central inclination of the sample. A mean value is determined by estimating the total of all the individual values for each subscale and then dividing the total value by the number of values in each subscale (Babbie et al., 2022; Dunn et al., 2021; Montabon et al., 2018). Standard deviations are an estimation of the average variability of a set of data and this is utilised to determine the inconsistency of the sample (Hayes, 2022; Mike, 2015; Nardi, 2018). Skewness is a measure of the symmetry of a frequency distribution, where symmetrical distributions have a skewness of 0 (Schumacker, 2015; Xie & Li, 2021; Zubkov & Nechaev, 2022). In this section the means (M), standard deviations (SD), skewness and kurtosis were calculated for each scale (OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS) and are discussed in detail in the following section.

6.4.1.1 Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS)

The OCS scores were established by determining the mean scores for all the items connected to the three subscales, namely affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. Furthermore, a mean score is established by determining the sum of all the different scores for each sub-scale and then dividing the whole score by the number of scores in each subscale. The affective, normative and continuance subscales were assessed on a 7-point Likert-type scale where 1 indicated no commitment or weak commitment and 5 showed strong commitment to the organisation. Participants rated the statements based on their self-perceived organisational commitment. The higher the score, the truer the statement was for the respondent. Subscales with the highest mean scores are regarded as the respondents' dominant organisational commitment attribute (Hayes, 2022; Zubkov & Nechaer, 2022). Table 6.13 outlines the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of the OCS subscales.

Table 6.13

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis of the OCS

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Affective	5.92	.95	-1.07	1.66
Normative	5.60	.96	-1.03	2.02
Continuance	5.52	1.00	-.87	1.23
Overall OCS	5.69	.85	-.70	.71

Notes: N = 574; OCS; Organisational Commitment Scale

Table 6.13 outlines the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of each of the three subscales of the OCS, as well as of the overall scale. As outlined in Table 6.13 the respondents scored the affective commitment subscale highest M = 5.92 and continuance commitment subscale highest SD = 1.00; the continuance commitment subscale was the lowest but stable M= 5.52 and affective commitment subscale was the lowest but stable SD = .95. Hence, the standard deviations for all the subscales were moderately in the same range of .95 and .96. Two of the means for the OCS (affective and normative) showed distributions skewed to the right and are regarded as positively skewed. OCS skewness scores varied from -1.07 to -1.03, which indicates the extent to which a distribution is flat or peaked with respect to the normal curve, thereby falling within the -1 and 1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Babbie et al., 2022; Permanasasi et al., 2021). The skewness values show that all the scores for the subscales were negatively skewed (bounded to the right). The kurtosis scores varied from 1.66 to 2.03, notably falling within the -3 and 3 normality range. Kurtosis

values between -2 and 2 are deemed satisfactory in order to demonstrate normal univariate distribution; on the other hand, kurtosis values between -3 and 3 are considered acceptable in order to demonstrate normal distribution (Babbie et al., 2022; Goodwin & Goodwin, 2017). Kurtosis values showed that all the subscales had a leptokurtic distribution (positive, left).

6.4.1.2 Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of Job Embeddedness Scale (JES)

The JES is scored by achieving a mean score across both subscales. Respondents rate the statements on the basis of their self-perceived job embeddedness. Each subscale ranges between 1, indicating that there is no embeddedness in one’s job and 6 indicating strong embeddedness in one’s job. The higher the score, the truer the statement was for the respondent. The subscales with the highest mean scores are regarded as the respondents’ most important job embeddedness attribute. Respondents have to reply to statements on the extent to which they feel worried about their job embeddedness, on a 6-point Likert-type scale (Hayes & Roockwood, 2017; Xie & Li, 2021). The mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the two subscales are outlined in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis of the JES

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Fit	5.37	.64	-1.84	7.98
Sacrifice/Links	4.08	1.16	-.45	-.29
Overall JES	4.62	.86	-.66	.69

Notes: N = 574; JES; Job Embeddedness Scale

The overall JES mean score was 4.62 and .86 for standard deviations. All the subscales mean scores varied in the range of 5.37. The respondents provided the highest classifications to work and community Fit Subscale M = 5.37 and work and community sacrifice/links SD = 1.16, and the lowest to work and community sacrifice/links Subscale M = 4.08 and work and community Fit Subscale SD = .64. The standard deviations of the subscales were moderately the same, varying from .97 to 1.19. As outlined in Table 6.14 the skewness values for the two JES subscales varied between -1.84 and -.45 stipulating that the distribution was flatter than a normal distribution with a wider peak. The kurtosis scores varied from 7.98, which is an indication that the possibility for extreme values was lower than in a normal distribution, and the values were more widely spread around the mean (Dunn et al., 2021; Hayes, 2022).

6.4.1.3 Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R)

The PVS-III-R values were established by determining the mean scores for all the items connected to the subscales of commitment, control and challenge. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the respondent. Subscales with the highest mean scores are viewed as the respondents' main hardiness attributes, with 0 indicating that participants are low in commitment, control and challenge attributes, and 4 showing that respondents are strong in commitment, control and challenge attributes, on a 4-point Likert-type scale. Table 6.15 summarises the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of each of the three subscales of the PVS-III-R, as well as of the overall scale (Babbie et al., 2022; Yu & Liang, 2021).

Table 6.15

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis of the Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R)

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Commitment	3.59	.59	-1.71	1.99
Control	3.53	.35	-1.47	1.81
Challenge	3.11	.76	-.99	-.23
Overall PVS-III-R	3.37	.50	-1.22	.33

Notes: N = 574; PVS-III-R; Personal Views Survey

As outlined in Table 6.15 the respondents scored the commitment subscale highest M = 3.59 and challenge subscale highest SD = .76, and the challenge subscale was the lowest but stable M = 3.11 and control subscale was the lowest SD = .35. Hence, the standard deviations for all the subscales were moderately in the different ranges between .59 and .76. Two of the means for the PVS-III-R (commitment and control) showed distributions skewed to the right and are regarded as positively skewed. The skewness values for the PVS-III-R subscales varied from -.122 to -.99, showing that the distribution was flatter than a normal distribution and had a wider peak. The kurtosis scores varied from 1.99 to -.23, showing that the possibility for exceptional scores was lower than for a normal distribution, and the scores were more greatly spread on every side of the mean.

6.4.1.4 Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes)

The EmpRes scores were established by measuring the mean scores for all the items connected to meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential “aloneness”. A mean score is assessed by determining the sum of all the values for each sub-scale and then dividing the total score by the number of values in each sub-scale. The meaningfulness of life, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential “aloneness” were determined as one-dimensional measures of employee resilience with high reliability, with 1 indicating no or less engagement in resilient behaviours and how participants manage challenges that arise as part of their role, and 9 indicating full engagement in resilient behaviours and how strongly participants manage challenges that arise as part of their role. Participants rate the statements based on their self-perceived employee resilience. The higher the score, the truer the statement was for the participants. Anchors with the highest mean scores are regarded as the respondents’ dominant employee resilience. Table 6.16 outlines the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of the EmpRes.

Table 6.16

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis of the EmpRes

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Resilience	6.18	.43	-1.04	7.16

Notes: N = 574; EmpRes, Employee Resilience Scale

As indicated in Table 6.16 the mean value of the one-dimensional measure of employee resilience was 6.18 and standard deviation .43. The mean for the EmpRes indicated a distribution skewed to the left. The skewness score was -1.04, which is an indication of a flatter than normal distribution with a wider peak. The kurtosis score was very high at 7.16. High kurtosis tends to have heavy tails or outliers and weak shoulders (leptokurtic) (Good & Goodwin, 2017; Nayas, 2022; Permanasasi et al., 2021). This might have been caused by non-normality and was taken into consideration for further analysis.

6.4.1.5 Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of Career Adaptability Scale (CAS)

The CAS values were assessed by determining the mean values for all the items connected to the five CAS subscales of career concern, career control, career curiosity and career confidence/cooperation. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the participants. Subscales with the highest mean scores are regarded as the participants’ most important career adaptability attributes, with 1 indicating weak development or no development in each

of the career adaptability attributes and 5 showing robust development in each of the career adaptability attributes, on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Table 6.17 outlines the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of the CAS.

Table 6.17

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis of the CAS

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Concern	4.47	.52	-1.40	2.29
Control	3.94	.53	.30	-.34
Curiosity	3.57	.83	.08	-.51
Confidence	4.62	.54	-1.72	2.46
Cooperation	4.02	.50	-.24	.85
Overall CAS	3.97	.42	.54	.89

Notes: N = 574; CAS; Career Adaptability Scale

Table 6.17 outlines the means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis of each of the five subscales of the CAS, as well as of the overall scale. The means of the five subscales varied from 3.57 to 4.62. As summarised in Table 6.17, the highest mean value was M = 4.62 for the subscale confidence and SD = .83 for the subscale curiosity, and the lowest mean value was obtained for the subscale curiosity M = 3.57 and SD = .50 for the subscale cooperation. The skewness scores indicated that all the values for the CAS subscales were negatively skewed (bounded to the right). Skewness for the five subscales varied from -1.40 to -.24, thus they are negatively skewed distributions skewed to the left, and this indicates that the tail on the left side of the distribution is longer than that on the right side and most of the values are clustered to the right of the mean (Ning et al., 2021; Xie & Li, 2021). Kurtosis scores indicated that all the subscales had a leptokurtic distribution, because it is positive, left, has many scores in the tails and it is pointy. The kurtosis values ranged between 2.29 and .89, thereby falling within the -3 and 3 normality range (Permanasasi et al., 2021).

From the above outcome the following main conclusions were drawn:

- Organisational Commitment Scale's (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1997) highest value was on affective commitment. The value for affective commitment 5.92 showed that participants had strong affective commitment to the organisation. The score on normative commitment of 5.60 showed that respondents were normatively committed to the organisation.

- The scores on the Job Embeddedness Scale (JES) (Mitchell et al., 2001a; b) were above average, indicating that respondents did possess strong and profound organisational, work and community sacrifices/links, job, community and organisational fit.
- The participants scored moderately on most of the subscales of the Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R) (Maddi & Khoshaba, 2001), showing that they were trivially contented with commitment and control. The values indicated that the sample was trivially dissatisfied with challenge, because challenge had the lowest values.
- The highest score on Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes) (Naswall et al., 2013) was on mean indicating that the respondents were resilient and the lowest kurtosis = -1.04.
- The scores on the Career Adaptability Scale (CAS) (Savickas, 1997) were average on most of the subscales, which might be an indication that respondents did not have strong concerns, curiosity and cooperation regarding their careers. However, high confidence about their careers was predominant in the sample, thus indicating that confidence was critical to the participants' careers.

6.5 CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS

Correlations were performed to determine the magnitude and direction of the relationship between the research variables. Correlations were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics version.27, to determine the empirical interrelationship between the socio-demographic variables, organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. In addition, they were used to assess whether the results delivered significant evidence in support of Research Hypothesis H1.

Ha1: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations.

6.5.1 Correlations between the demographic variables and the scale constructs

Spearman correlations and IBM SPSS Statistics version.27 were utilised to assess the relationship dynamics between the socio-demographic and the construct research variables. Table 6.18 below summarises the correlations between the socio-demographic and the constructs study variables.

Table 6.18

Bivariate Correlations of the Socio-demographic, Independent and Dependent Variables

Variables	Age	Gender	Race	Marital status	Job level	Employment status
Affective	.48**	.07	.17**	.26**	.38**	.23**
Continuance	.44**	.09*	.15**	.24**	.31**	.13**
Normative	-.44**	.02	.11**	.27**	.40**	-.23**
Overall OCS	.50**	.07	.17**	.29**	.33**	.21**
Fit	.43**	.07	.07	.24**	.46**	.22**
Sacrifice/Links	.47**	-.06	.04	.18**	.55**	.25**
Overall JES	.51**	-.02	.06	.21**	.57**	-.27**
Commitment	.04	-.13**	-.15**	-.10**	-.88**	.01
Control	.04	.12**	-.02	.02	.01	-.04
Challenge	.01	.16**	.28**	.06	-.18**	.11**
Overall PVS-III-R	.03	-.16**	.24**	.08	-.17**	.07
Resilience	.09*	-.08	-.17**	.09*	.25**	-.19**
Concern	-.26**	.06	-.06	-.05	-.21**	.10
Control	.21**	.07	-.04	.11**	.24**	-.08
Curiosity	-.38**	.14**	-.29**	-.22**	-.15**	.00
Confidence	-.03	.09*	.03	.08	-.05	-.04
Cooperation	-.34**	.16**	.04	.20**	.29**	-.13*
Overall CAS	-.14**	.02	-.14**	-.03	-.05	-.05

Notes: N = 574; **p ≤ .01 *p ≤ .05; r ≤ .30 (small practical effect size), r ≥ .30 ≤ .49 (medium practical effect size), r ≥ .50 (large practical effect size)

**Correlation is significant at .01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at .05 level (2-tailed)

For regression analysis the following dummy variables were used in the analysis:

In the case of gender, male is equal to zero and female is equal to one. For race Black, which is comprised of African, Coloured and Indian, is equal to zero and white is equal to one. Additionally, single or divorced participants are equal to zero and married participants are equal to one. Furthermore, job level, especially staff and supervisory, is equal to zero, Middle, Senior and Executive Management is equal to one. Finally, for employment status, permanent participants are equal to zero and contract participants are equal to one.

6.5.1.1 Age

Table 6.18 indicates significant positive bivariate correlations between age and affective commitment {OCS} (r = .48; medium practical effect size; p ≤ .01); continuance commitment

{OCS} ($r = .44$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); fit {JES} ($r = .43$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); sacrifice/links {JES} ($r = .47$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); resilience {EmpRes} ($r = .09$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$); control {CAS} ($r = .21$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); cooperation {CAS} ($r = .34$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There were no significant positive bivariate correlations between age and the scale of PVS-III-R. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between age and normative {OSC} ($r = -.44$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); concern {CAS} ($r = -.26$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); curiosity {CAS} ($r = -.38$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There were no significant negative bivariate correlations between age and the scales of JES, PVS-III-R and EmpRes. Additionally, there were significant positive bivariate correlations between age and overall scales of the {OCS} ($r = .50$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); {JES} ($r = .51$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There was no significant positive bivariate correlation between age and overall scales of the PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were significant negative bivariate correlations between age and overall scale of the CAS ($r = -.14$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Conclusively, there were no significant negative bivariate correlations between age and overall scales of OCS, JES, PVS-III-R and EmpRes.

6.5.1.2 Gender

Table 6.18 indicates significant positive bivariate correlations between gender and continuance commitment {OCS} ($r = .09$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$); control {PVS-III-R} ($r = .12$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); challenge {PVS-III-R} ($r = .16$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); confidence {CAS} ($r = .09$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$); cooperation {CAS} ($r = .16$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There were no significant positive bivariate correlations between gender and scales of JES and EmpRes. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between gender and commitment {PVS-III-R} ($r = -.13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); curiosity {CAS} ($r = -.14$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There were no significant negative bivariate correlations between gender and scales of OCS, JES and EmpRes. Additionally, there were no significant positive bivariate correlations between gender and overall scales of the OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were significant negative bivariate correlations between gender and overall scale of the PVS-III-R ($r = -.16$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Unfortunately, there were no significant negative bivariate correlations between gender and overall scales of OCS, JES, EmpRes and CAS.

6.5.1.3 Race

Table 6.18 indicates significant positive bivariate correlations between race and affective commitment {OCS} ($r = .17$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); continuance commitment {OCS} ($r = .15$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); normative {OCS} ($r = .11$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$); commitment {PVS-III-R} ($r = .15$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); challenge {PVS-III-R} ($r = .28$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There were no significant positive bivariate correlations between race and scales of JES, EmpRes and CAS. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between race and resilience {EmpRes} ($r = -.17$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); curiosity {CAS} ($r = -.29$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There was no significant negative bivariate correlation between race and scales of OCS, JES and PVS-III-R. Additionally, there were significant positive bivariate correlations between race and overall scales of the {OCS} ($r = .50$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); {JES} ($r = .51$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There was no significant positive bivariate correlation between race and overall scales of PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were significant negative bivariate correlations between race and overall scale of the CAS ($r = -.14$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Conclusively, there were no other significant negative bivariate correlations between race and overall scales of OCS, JES, PVS-III-R and EmpRes.

6.5.1.4 Marital status

Table 6.18 indicates significant positive bivariate correlations between marital status and affective commitment {OCS} ($r = .26$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); continuance commitment {OCS} ($r = .24$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); normative {OCS} ($r = .27$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); fit {JES} ($r = .24$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); sacrifice/links {JES} ($r = .18$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); resilience {EmpRes} ($r = .09$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$); control {CAS} ($r = .11$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); cooperation {CAS} ($r = .20$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There was no other significant positive bivariate correlation between marital status and the scale of PVS-III-R. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between marital status and commitment {PVS-III-R} ($r = -.10$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$); curiosity {CAS} ($r = -.22$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There was no other significant negative bivariate correlation between marital status and the scales of OCS, JES and EmpRes. Additionally, there were significant positive bivariate correlations between marital status and overall scales of the {OCS} ($r = .29$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); {JES} ($r = .21$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There was no further significant positive bivariate correlation between marital status and overall scales of the PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were no significant

negative bivariate correlations between marital status and overall scales of OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS.

6.5.1.5 Job level

Table 6.18 indicates significant positive bivariate correlations between job level and affective commitment {OCS} ($r = .38$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); continuance commitment {OCS} ($r = .31$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); normative commitment {OCS} ($r = .40$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); fit {JES} ($r = .46$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); sacrifice/links {JES} ($r = .55$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); resilience {EmpRes} ($r = .25$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); control {CAS} ($r = .24$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); cooperation {CAS} ($r = .29$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There was no significant positive bivariate correlation between job level and the scale of PVS-III-R. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between job level and commitment {PVS-III-R} ($r = -.88$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); challenge {PVS-III-R} ($r = -.18$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); concern {CAS} ($r = -.21$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); curiosity {CAS} ($r = -.15$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There was no significant negative bivariate correlation between job level and the scales of OCS, JES and EmpRes. Additionally, there were significant positive bivariate correlations between job level and overall scales of the {OCS} ($r = .38$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); {JES} ($r = .57$; large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There was no significant positive bivariate correlation between job level and overall scales of PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were significant negative bivariate correlations between job level and overall scale of the PVS-III-R ($r = -.17$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Conclusively, there were no other significant negative bivariate correlations between job level and overall scales of OCS, JES, EmpRes and CAS.

6.5.1.6 Employment status

Table 6.18 indicates significant positive bivariate correlations between employment status and challenge {PVS-III-R} ($r = .11$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); concern {CAS} ($r = .10$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There was no significant positive bivariate correlation between employment status and the scales of OCS, JES and EmpRes. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between employment and affective {OCS} ($r = -.23$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); continuance {OSC} ($r = -.13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); normative {OSC} ($r = -.23$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); fit {JES} ($r = -.22$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); sacrifice/links {JES} ($r = -.25$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); resilience {EmpRes} ($r = -.19$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); cooperation {CAS} ($r = -.13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There were no significant negative bivariate correlations between employment status and the scale of PVS-III-R. Additionally, there were

no significant positive bivariate correlations between employment status and overall scales of the OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were significant negative bivariate correlations between employment status and overall scale of the OCS ($r = -.21$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); JES ($r = -.27$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); EmpRes ($r = -.19$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$); CAS ($r = -.13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Conclusively, there were no other significant negative bivariate correlations between employment status and overall scale of PVS-III-R.

6.5.2 Correlations between the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS), Job Embeddedness Scale (JES), Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R), Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes) and Career Adaptability Scale (CAS)

Spearman's rho and Pearson-product moment correlations were performed to determine the relationship dynamics between the current research study variables. Table 6.19 outlines the findings of these correlations.

Table 6.19

Bivariate Correlations of the Independent and Dependent Variables

Variables	Cooperation	Confidence	Curiosity	Control	Concern	Overall CAS	Resilience	Challenge	Control	Commitment	Overall Hardiness	Sacrifice/Links	Fit	Overall JES	Normative	Continuance	Affective	Overall OC	
Cooperation	--																		
Confidence	.39**	--																	
Curiosity	.11**	.13**	--																
Control	.30**	.21**	.58**	--															
Concern	.30**	.37**	.51**	.33**	--														
Overall CAS	.68*	.65**	.69**	.48**	.61**	--													
Resilience	.37**	.13**	.35**	.32**	-.14**	.36**	--												
Challenge	-.31**	-.05	.16**	-.16**	-.31**	.28**	.02	--											
Control	.11**	.18**	.45**	.34**	.35**	.23**	.36**	.45**	--										
Commitment	.39**	.49*	-.06	.22**	.31**	.07	-.15**	.47**	.27**	--									
Overall H	.73**	.33*	.92**	-.23**	.08	.24**	-.07	-.26**	.39**	.14**	--								
Sacrifice	-.28**	-.10*	.04	-.35**	.32**	-.01	-.17**	.21**	-.04	-.07	.26**	--							
Fits	.54**	.01	.15**	.27**	-.10**	.30**	.18**	.03	.33**	-.03	.15**	.43**	--						
Overall JES	.72**	.97**	-.22**	-.03	.12**	-.31**	.34**	.05	-.13**	.27**	-.04	-.00	.34**	--					
Normative	.54**	.54**	.47**	.13**	.27**	.08	.04	.14**	.05	.04	.12**	-.24**	.25**	.34**	--				
Continuance	.73**	.48**	.46**	.42**	.10*	.20**	.04	.04	.03	-.01	-.02	.07	-.32**	.20**	.32**	--			

Affective	.64**	.72**	.49**	.57**	.40**	.22**	.37**	.17**	.11**	.15**	.11**	.08	.16**	-.23**	.30**	.40**	
Overall OCS	.87**	.87**	.91**	.55**	.56**	.47**	.19**	.33**	.11**	.09*	.11**	.06	.05	.12**	-.30**	.30**	.39**

Notes: N = 574; H: Hardiness **p ≤ .01 *p ≤ .05; r ≤ .30 (small practical effect size), r ≥ .30 ≤ .49 (medium practical effect size), r ≥ .50 (large practical effect sized)

Table 6.19 outlines the outcome of the correlations between the five scales. The outcome showed significant positive correlations between the three subscales of the OCS, which ranged between $r \geq .03 \leq .73$ (small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .05$; $p \leq .01$). The three subscales of the OCS also had positive and significant correlations with the overall JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS scales $r \geq .10 \leq .98$ (small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .05$ $p \leq .01$), showing the construct validity of the overall construct of organisational commitment.

In terms of the JES, significant positive correlations were monitored between the two subscales, which varied between $r \geq .15 \leq .54$ (small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .05$; $p \leq .01$). The two subscales' dimensions of the JES also had positive and significant correlations with the overall EmpRes and CAS scales ($r \geq .18 \leq .32$; small to medium practical effect size; $p \leq .05$; $p \leq .01$), showing the construct validity of the overall construct of job embeddedness.

In terms of the PVS-III-R, significant positive correlations were recorded between the three subscale dimensions, which varied between $r \geq .18 \leq .49$ (small to medium practical effect size; $p \leq .05$; $p \leq .01$). The two subscale dimensions of the PVS-III-R (commitment and control) also had positive and significant correlations with the overall CAS scale ($r \geq .22 \leq .45$; small to medium practical effect size; $p \leq .05$; $p \leq .01$), showing the construct validity of the overall construct of hardiness.

As outlined in Table 6.19, the outcome indicated significant correlations between the one-dimensional measure of employee resilience with high reliability of the EmpRes, in the range of $r \geq .13 \leq .37$ (small to medium practical effect size; $p \leq .05$; $p \leq .01$). The one-dimensional measure of employee resilience of the EmpRes also had positive and significant correlations with the four subscales of CAS (concern, control, curiosity and cooperation) ($r \geq .13 \leq .36$; small to medium practical effect size; $p \leq .05$; $p \leq .01$) and the overall CAS scale ($r \geq .37$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .05$), indicating the construct validity of the overall construct of resilience.

Generally, the findings indicate positive and significant correlations among the socio-demographic variables of age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status, the variables on the OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes, and the CAS, with the scores ranging from small to large practical effect size. Ultimately, the findings for the correlation analysis generated profound support for Research Hypothesis 1 (Ha1).

Ha1: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations.

6.6 INFERENCE STATISTICS: STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

This section explained in detail the stepwise regression analysis with backward elimination, using IBM SPSS Statistics version.27, which was used to determine whether the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status), organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability significantly and positively predict satisfaction with talent retention practices. Stepwise regression analysis was utilised to determine whether the outcome provided significant evidence in support of Research Hypothesis 2 (Ha2). Hierarchical moderated regression analysis was utilised to test Hypothesis 2 (Ha2):

Ha2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

As expounded in Chapter 5, a stepwise regression analysis with backward elimination procedure was performed to determine the variables that significantly predict the statistical significance. Fourteen steps were performed in order to eliminate the non-significant variables, and only the final step (step 14) is reported in Table 6.20. The outcome of the final step of the stepwise regression analysis with backward elimination is reported in Table 6.20 below. The results deeply explained this final step utilising four models that are reported below: (1) model 1 included only socio-demographic variables; (2) model 2 included the scale variables; (3) model 3 included the interaction effect (cJE*cOC); and (4) model 4 integrated models 1-3.

Table 6.20

Final step: Stepwise Regression Analysis

Variables	Estimate(β)	Standard error	t-value	p	Tolerance
Constant	6.09	.05	14.78	.00	-
Age	.01	.03	.23	.82	.68
Gender	-.01	.04	-.36	.72	.87
Race	-.07	.04	-1.60	.11	.89
Marital status	.15	.04	4.29	.00	.93
Job level	.16	.04	3.72	.00	.76
Employment status	-.14	.05	-2.88	.00	.92

Variables	Estimate(β)	Standard error	t-value	p	Tolerance
Model 1 summary					
<i>F</i>	9.99				
<i>P</i>	.000				
Adjusted R ²	.89				
Constant	5.58	.17	32.80	.00	-
Age	-.03	.03	-1.05	.29	.62
Gender	.02	.04	.06	.95	.86
Race	-.08	.04	-1.78	.77	.87
Marital status	-.12	.04	3.26	.01	.88
Job level	.06	.04	1.35	.77	.65
Employment status	-.10	.05	-2.02	.04	.65
Job embeddedness	.06	.04	1.35	.18	.68
Hardiness	-.03	.04	-.86	.38	.81
Model 2 summary					
<i>F</i>	20.83				
<i>P</i>	.000				
Adjusted R ²	.15				
Constant	5.61	.17	32.39	.00	-
Age	-.03	.03	-.85	.40	.60
Gender	2.5	.04	.00	.99	.86
Race	-.08	.04	-1.80	.07	.87
Marital status	.11	.04	3.21	.00	.88
Job level	.06	.04	1.37	.17	.65
Employment status	-.10	.05	-2.08	.04	.90
Job embeddedness	.16	.03	5.88	.00	.49
Hardiness	-.02	.04	-.43	.67	.71
Organisational commitment	-.03	.03	-1.07	.29	.54
Model 3 summary					
<i>F</i>	1.14				
<i>P</i>	.29				
Adjusted R ²	.15				
Constant	5.72	.19	30.34	.00	-

Variables	Estimate(β)	Standard error	t-value	p	Tolerance
Age	-.01	.03	.17	.87	.57
Gender	.01	.04	.24	.81	.85
Race	-.06	.04	-1.49	.14	-.14
Marital status	.09	.03	2.77	.01	.87
Job level	.03	.04	.79	.43	.62
Employment status	-.12	.05	-2.53	.01	.89
Job embeddedness	.18	.03	5.97	.00	.41
Organisational commitment	-.05	.03	-1.82	.07	.53
cJE*cOC	.08	.02	4.32	.00	.71
cHardiness*cOC	-.28	.04	-6.79	.00	.77
Model 4 summary					
<i>F</i>	26.31				
<i>P</i>	.000				
Adjusted R ²	.22				

Notes: N = 574; OC; organisational commitment; dependent variables: Resilience and career adaptability; cJE*cOC, cHardiness*cOC: interaction effect between the concepts; c: means that the variables are mean centred

Table 6.20 outlines the overall four moderated hierarchical regression models. Model 1 reported on socio-demographic variables and scored the following values ($F = 9.99$; $p = .00$; Adjusted $R^2 = .89$; small to large practical effect size). Model 2 reported on socio-demographic variables and on job embeddedness and hardiness and scored the following values ($F = 20.83$; $p = .000$; Adjusted $R^2 = .15$; small practical effect size). Model 3 reported on the socio-demographics and on job embeddedness, hardiness and organisational commitment as independent variables and scored the following values ($F = 1.14$; $p = .000$; Adjusted $R^2 = .15$; small practical effect size). Model 4 reported on the socio-demographics variables, independent variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and the interaction between the three independent variables in predicting the dependent variables (resilience and career adaptability) and scored the following values ($F = 26.31$; $p = .000$; Adjusted $R^2 = .22$; small practical effect size). In Model 2 job embeddedness contributed the most in explaining in detail the variance in the resilient and career adaptability constructs ($\beta = .15$; t-value = 6.26). Hardiness (Model 2) contributed to a lesser extent to explaining the variance in the resilience construct (dependent variable) ($\beta = -.03$; t-value = $-.86$). Job embeddedness predicted a significant and positive relationship between dependent variables (resilience and career adaptability) and demographic variables.

In Model 3 job embeddedness contributed the most in expounding in detail the variance in resilience and career adaptability (dependent variables) ($\beta = .17$; t-value = 5.88). Organisational commitment ($\beta = -.03$; t-value = -1.07) and hardiness ($\beta = -.02$; t-value = -.43) contributed to a lesser extent to explain the variance in the resilience and career adaptability constructs. Furthermore, the tolerance scores were all high (OC = .54; JE = .49; hardiness = .72).

In Model 4 job embeddedness contributed the most in expounding in detail the variance in resilience and career adaptability (dependent variables) ($\beta = .18$; t-value = 5.97). Organisational commitment ($\beta = -.05$; t-value = -1.82) and hardiness ($\beta = -.04$; t-value = -1.01) contributed to a lesser extent to explaining the variance in the resilience and career adaptability constructs. There was a positive interaction effect between cJE*cOC ($\beta = .08$; t-value = 4.32) in predicting resilience and career adaptability, and on the other hand, there was also a negative interaction between cHardiness*cOC ($\beta = -.28$; t-value = -6.79). Furthermore, the tolerance scores for all the independent concepts and the socio-demographic variables were all high, except for race = .14.

In summary, the results indicated that all socio-demographic variables, (except race and employment status), positively and significantly moderated the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Ultimately, the outcome for the stepwise regression analysis produced strong support for Research Hypothesis 2 (Ha2).

Ha2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status, and job levels) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

Preliminary analysis 1: Towards developing a psychological framework for highly talented employees

Core conclusions drawn in testing Research Hypothesis 1 (Ha1):

The correlation findings in Section 6.5 provided supportive evidence for Research Hypothesis Ha1. Overall, these findings indicated significant bivariate correlations between the socio-demographic variables of age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status,

as well as the subscales of the OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS, which were small to large in practical effect size. With regard to the development of a psychological retention framework for the retention of highly talented employees in the South African private sector organisations, this shows that some relationship dynamics between the constructs were obvious and justified further investigation.

In summary, the following major conclusions were deduced:

6.6.1 Socio-demographic variables, Organisational Commitment Scale, Job Embeddedness Scale, Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R), Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes) and Career Adaptability Scale (CAS)

- Age was significantly, positively correlated with affective commitment, continuance commitment, fit, sacrifice or links, resilience, control, cooperation, and sacrifice/links with small and medium practical effect size. There were no significantly positive bivariate correlations between age and the scale of PVS-III-R. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between age and normative, concern, and curiosity with medium practical effect size. There were no significant negative bivariate correlations between age and the scales of JES, PVS-III-R and EmpRes. Additionally, there were significant positive bivariate correlations between age and overall scales of the OCS and JES with large practical effect size. There were no significant positive bivariate correlations between age and overall scales of the PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were significant negative bivariate correlations between age and overall scale of the CAS with small practical effect size. Conclusively, there were no significant negative bivariate correlations between age and overall scales of OCS, JES, PVS-III-R and EmpRes.
- In terms of gender, significant positive correlations were observed with continuance commitment {OCS}, control and challenge {PVS-III-R}, confidence, cooperation {CAS} with small practical effect size. There were no significant positive bivariate corrections between gender and scales of JES and EmpRes. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between gender and commitment {PVS-III-R}, curiosity {CAS} with small practical effect size. There were no significant negative bivariate correlations between gender and scales of OCS, JES and EmpRes. Additionally, there were no significant positive bivariate correlations between gender and overall scales of the OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were significant negative bivariate correlations between gender and overall scale of the PVS-III-R with small practical effect. Unfortunately, there were no significant negative bivariate correlations between gender and overall scales of OCS, JES, EmpRes and CAS.

- With regard to race, significant positive bivariate correlations were found between race and affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment {OCS} and challenge (PVS-III-R) with small practical effect size. There were no significant positive bivariate correlations between race and scales of JES, EmpRes and CAS. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between race and resilience {EmpRes} with small practical effect size. There was no significant negative bivariate correlation between race and scales of OCS, JES and PVS-III-R. Additionally, there were significant positive bivariate correlations between race and overall scales of the OCS and JES with large practical effect size. There were no significant positive bivariate correlations between race and overall scales of PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were significant negative bivariate correlations between race and overall scale of the CAS with small practical effect size.
- Marital status was significantly, positively correlated with affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment {OCS}, fit, sacrifice/links {JES}, resilience {EmpRes}, control, cooperation {CAS} with small practical effect size. There was no other significant positive bivariate correlation between marital status and the scale of PVS-III-R. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between marital status and commitment {PVS-III-R} with small practical effect size. There were no other significant negative bivariate correlations between marital status and the scales of OCS, JES and EmpRes. Additionally, there were significant positive bivariate correlations between marital status and overall scales of the OCS and JES with small practical effect size. There were no further significant positive bivariate correlations between marital status and overall scales of the PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were no significant negative bivariate correlations between marital status and overall scales of OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS.
- With regard to job level, the results indicated significant positive bivariate correlations between job level and affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment {OCS}, fit, sacrifice/links {JES}, resilience {EmpRes}, control and cooperation {CAS} with small to large practical effect size. There was no significant positive bivariate correlation between job level and the scale of PVS-III-R. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between job level and commitment, challenge {PVS-III-R}, concern, curiosity {CAS} with small and large practical effect size. There were no significant negative bivariate correlations between job level and the scales of OCS, JES and EmpRes. Additionally, there were significant positive bivariate correlations between job level and overall scales of the OCS and JES with medium to large practical effect size. There were no further significant positive bivariate correlations between job level and

overall scales of PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were significant negative bivariate correlations between job level and overall scales of the PVS-III-R with small practical effect size. Conclusively, there were no other significant negative bivariate correlations between job level and overall scales of OCS, JES, EmpRes and CAS.

- Employment status was also significantly and positively correlated with challenge {PVS-III-R} and concern {CAS} with small practical effect. There were no significant positive bivariate correlations between employment status and the scales of OCS, JES and EmpRes. Furthermore, the results showed a significant negative bivariate correlation between employment status and affective, continuance, normative {OCS}, fit, sacrifice/links {JES}, resilience {EmpRes}, cooperation {CAS} with small practical effect size. There was no significant negative bivariate correlation between employment status and the scale of PVS-III-R. Additionally, there were no significant positive bivariate correlations between employment status and overall scales of the OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS. There were significant negative bivariate correlations between employment status and overall scales of the OCS, JES, EmpRes, CAS with small practical effect size. Conclusively, there were no other significant negative bivariate correlations between employment status and the overall scale of PVS-III-R.

6.6.2 Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS), Job Embeddedness Scale (JES), Personal Views Survey (PVS-III-R), Employee Resilience Scales (EmpRes) and Career Adaptability Scale

- The outcome showed significant positive correlations between the three subscales of the OCS, with small to large practical effect size. The three subscales of the OCS also had positive and significant and correlations with the overall JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS scales with large practical effect size showing the construct validity of the overall construct of organisational commitment.
- Significant positive correlations were monitored between the two subscales of JES, with small to large practical effect size. The two subscale dimensions of the JES also had positive and significant correlations with the overall OCS, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS scales with large practical effect size, showing the construct validity of the overall construct of job embeddedness.
- In terms of the PVS-III-R, the outcome indicated significant positive correlations between the three subscales of PVS-III-R, with small to large practical effect size. Additionally, the three subscale dimensions of the PVS-III-R also had positive and significant correlations

with the overall OCS, JES, EmpRes and CAS scales with large practical effect size showing the construct validity of the overall construct of hardiness.

- The outcome indicated a significant correlation between the one-dimensional measure of employee resilience with high reliability of the EmpRes, with small to medium practical effect size. Furthermore, the one-dimensional measure of employee resilience of the EmpRes also had positive and significant correlations with the overall OCS, JES, PVS-III-R and CAS scales with large practical effect size, indicating the construct validity of the overall construct of resilience.
- Generally, the findings indicated positive and significant correlations among the socio-demographic variables of age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status, the variables on the OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes, and the CAS, with the scores ranging from small to large practical effect size. Ultimately, the findings for the correlation analysis generated profound support for Research Hypothesis 1 (Ha1) and indicated the construct validity of the overall constructs of the research study.

The following are major conclusions drawn in testing Research Hypothesis 2 (Ha2):

The stepwise regression findings, summarised in section 6.5, provided strong supportive evidence for Research Hypothesis Ha2. Overall, the findings indicated that all independent concepts (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and all six socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status) acted as significant predictors of resilience and career adaptability. Furthermore, the findings indicated that all the dimensions of the OCS, namely affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment positively and significantly predicted resilience and career adaptability. With regard to the JES, both dimensions (fit and sacrifices or links) contributed hugely in explaining resilience and career adaptability. Additionally, PVS-III-R dimensions had a negative relationship with resilience and career adaptability (dependent variables).

In conclusion, the psychological retention framework for the retention of highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations, which was the major purpose of this current research study, should take into account that employees' ages, gender, race, marital status, job levels and employment status, will predict their resilience and career adaptability. Additionally, the retention framework should note that employees' affective, continuance and normative commitment, all predict their resilience and career adaptability. Furthermore, the psychological retention framework should acknowledge that employees' fit for the job, within the organisation and community, and sacrifice or links within the organisation, job and

community, as well as their commitment, control and challenge, also predict their resilience and career adaptability. The next essential step was to measure the relationship dynamics between the research construct and socio-demographic variables using moderated hierarchical regression analysis to further influence the designing of the psychological retention framework for highly talented employees for South African private sector organisations.

6.7 INFERENCE STATISTICS: MODERATED HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSIS

This section reports on the moderated regression analysis, utilising IBM SPSS Statistics version 27 to determine whether:

Research aim 2: To investigate if socio-demographic variables, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness significantly predict resilience and career adaptability. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha2.

Research aim 3: To investigate whether individuals from different ages, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha3.

Research aim 4: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), to assess whether a good fit exists between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha4.

Ha4: The theoretically hypothesised model has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.

The moderated hierarchical regression analysis was utilised to determine whether the findings provided significant supportive evidence for Research Hypotheses 2 and 3 (Ha2 and Ha3). Based on the findings of the stepwise regression results (section 6.6), all six socio-demographic variables were considered as predictors, as well as organisational commitment,

job embeddedness and hardiness which were taken as predictor variables. Overall, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness were presented as independent variables, resilience and career adaptability were presented as dependent variables, and socio-demographical variables were presented as predictors.

Several researchers concluded that hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used to establish whether the relationship dynamics between a criterion and a predictor is moderated by another predictor – the moderating and moderator variable (Hayes, 2022; Nardi, 2018; Scott, 2016; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Hierarchical moderated regression was used to establish whether the biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level) moderate the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Hierarchical moderated regression is an appropriate technique for identifying moderator variables, accompanied by procedures for clarifying relationships (Babbie et al., 2022; Kiss et al., 2018; Nardi, 2018; Scott, 2016).

Hierarchical moderated regression analysis was utilised to test Research Hypothesis 2 (Ha2):

Ha2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status, and job levels) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

Based on the canonical correlations and best fit structural equation model hierarchical regression analyses were performed in order to determine whether or not demographic characteristics (measured as age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status) acted as moderators in the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Multiple-collinearity regression analysis was utilised to establish the value of independent variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) from the values of the dependent variables (resilience and career adaptability).

6.7.1 Moderation effects

Tables 6.21 to 6.26 outline the moderated regression analysis findings showing the moderating effect of all the socio-demographics on the organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness in predicting resilience and career adaptability

Table 6.21

Results of the Moderated Analysis: The Effects of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness and Age on Resilience, Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence and Cooperation

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Organisational Commitment												
Age	.17**		-.21**		.13**		-.36**		-.05		.10**	
OC	.06		.12**		.01		-.14**		.19**		.17**	
Age x OC	.10**	.02	.08	.02	.01	.02	-.14**	.02	.12**	.02	.03	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR^2	.05		.08		.03		.16		.10		.14	
F	50.98		119.14		62.17		355.04		268.65		320.68	
ΔF	.17		53.70		.70		54.12		101.99		5.40	
Job Embeddedness												
Age	.11**		-.11**		.06		-.49**		.07		.12**	
JE	.13**		-.05		.13**		.11**		.02		.14**	
Age x JE	.09*	.02	.05	.02	.02	.02	-.03	.02	.16**	.02	.04	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR^2	.15		.05		.06		.14		.04		.11	
F	147.98		174.05		100.28		318.83		62.25		243.40	
ΔF	10.41		40.26		2.02		2.47		159.05		12.86	

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Hardiness												
Age	.18**		-.16**		.13**		-.38**		.02		.18**	
Hardiness	.08		.47**		-.05		-.38**		.63**		.20**	
Age x H	-.29**	.02	-.14**	.02	-.05	.02	-.49**	.05	-.11**	.02	.01	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.07		.25		.03		.21		.35		.11	
F	53.64		622.53		66.12		543.36		656.25		291.78	
ΔF	23.78		24.56		4.02		230.44		25.48		.29	

Note: N = 574. The results represent the final step in the regression model. Standardised regression beta weights (β), significant at 0.05; **p ≤ .01 *p ≤ .05; r = ≤ .30 (small practical effect size); r = ≥ .30 ≤ .49 (medium practical effect size); r = ≥ .50 (large practical effect size). f² = Cohen's practical effect size. OC: Organisational Commitment; JE: Job Embeddedness; H: Hardiness; Conf: confidence; Coop: cooperation

6.7.1.1 Age as a moderator

Table 6.21 reports the results of the moderated regression analysis with age as a moderator of the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness with resilience and career adaptability.

As outlined in Table 6.21, in terms of the major effects, organisational commitment acted as a significant predictor of concern ($\beta = .12$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\beta = .19$; $p \leq .01$), cooperation ($\beta = .17$; $p \leq .01$), while age acted as a predictor of resilience ($\beta = .17$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .13$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .10$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, age significantly moderated the relationship between organisational commitment and resilience ($\Delta R^2 = .05$; $\Delta F = .17$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\Delta R^2 = .03$; $\Delta F = .70$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .14$; $\Delta F = 5.40$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between age and organisational commitment. Furthermore, the effects of organisational commitment and age on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Organisational commitment and age were mean centred prior to analysis.

With regard to job embeddedness, Table 6.21 showed, in terms of the major effects, that job embeddedness acted as a significant predictor of resilience ($\beta = .13$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .13$; $p \leq .01$), curiosity ($\beta = .11$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .14$; $p \leq .01$), while age acted as a predictor of resilience ($\beta = .11$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .12$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, age significantly moderated the relationship between job embeddedness and resilience ($\Delta R^2 = .15$; $\Delta F = 10.41$; $p \leq .01$) and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .11$; $\Delta F = 12.86$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between age and job embeddedness. Furthermore, the effects of job embeddedness and age on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Job embeddedness and age were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.21 outlined, in terms of the major effects, that hardiness acted as a significant predictor of concern ($\beta = .47$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\beta = .63$; $p \leq .01$) and cooperation ($\beta = .20$; $p \leq .01$),

while age acted as a predictor of resilience ($\beta = .18$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .13$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .18$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, age significantly moderated the relationship between hardiness and resilience ($\Delta R^2 = .07$; $\Delta F = 23.78$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\Delta R^2 = .03$; $\Delta F = 4.02$; $p \leq .01$) and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .11$; $\Delta F = .29$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, most of the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between age and hardiness. Furthermore, the effects of hardiness and age on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Gres et al., 2021; Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Hardiness and age were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.22

Results of the Moderated Analysis: The Effect of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness and Gender on Resilience, Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence and Cooperation

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Organisational Commitment												
Gender	-.08		.09*		.05		-.22**		.15**		.12**	
OC	.11**		.10**		.14**		-.13**		.16**		.27**	
Gender x OC	-.05	.02	-.07	.02	-.14**	.02	-.20**	.02	.02	.02	-.10**	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.03		.02		.02		.10		.09		.15	
F	34.23		36.16		34.40		212.91		205.85		238.57	
ΔF	5.81		15.30		49.07		52.71		.70		25.63	
Job Embeddedness												
Gender	-.07		.10**		.06		-.24**		.16**		.14**	
JE	.22**		-.08		.19**		.05		-.09*		.16**	
Gender x JE	-.09*	.02	-.02	.00	-.07	.02	-.20**	.02	.13**	.02	.03	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.13		.03		.06		.03		.03		.11	
F	199.51		73.06		100.65		49.18		49.18		214.79	
ΔF	33.20		1.66		13.23		49.60		66.89		3.21	

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Hardiness												
Gender	-.05		-.00		.06		-.18**		.03		.10**	
Hardiness	-.14**		.61**		.08		-.10**		.76**		.25**	
Gender x H	.04	.02	-.30**	.02	-.25**	.02	-.52**	.08	-.25**	.02	-.11**	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.03		.22		.02		.09		.36		.06	
F	40.09		541.26		20.06		173.82		792.47		80.23	
ΔF	1.93		119.28		55.87		144.11		78.14		11.39	

Note: N = 574. The results represent the final step in the regression model. Standardised regression beta weights (β), significant at 0.05; **p ≤ .01 *p ≤ .05; r = ≤ .30 (small practical effect size); r = ≥ .30 ≤ .49 (medium practical effect size); r = ≥ .50 (large practical effect size). f² = Cohen's practical effect size. OC: Organisational Commitment; JE: Job Embeddedness; H: Hardiness; Conf: confidence; Coop: cooperation

6.7.1.2 Gender as a moderator

Table 6.22 explored the final step of the results of the moderated regression analysis, with gender as a moderator of the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness and gender with resilience and career adaptability.

As outlined in Table 6.22, in terms of the major effects, organisational commitment acted as a significant predictor of resilience ($\beta = .11$; $p \leq .01$), concern ($\beta = .10$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .14$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\beta = .16$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .27$; $p \leq .01$) while gender acted as a predictor of concern ($\beta = .09$; $p \leq .05$), confidence ($\beta = .15$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .12$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, gender significantly moderated the relationship between organisational commitment and concern ($\Delta R^2 = .02$; $\Delta F = .15.30$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\Delta R^2 = .09$; $\Delta F = .70$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .15$; $\Delta F = .25.63$; $p \leq .01$) Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between gender and organisational commitment. Furthermore, the effects of organisational commitment and gender on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018; 2022). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Organisational commitment and gender were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.22 showed, in terms of the major effects, that job embeddedness acted as a significant predictor of resilience ($\beta = .22$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .19$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .16$; $p \leq .01$), while gender acted as a predictor of concern ($\beta = .10$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\beta = .16$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .14$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, gender significantly moderated the relationship between job embeddedness and concern ($\Delta R^2 = .03$; $\Delta F = 1.66$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\Delta R^2 = .03$; $\Delta F = 66.89$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .11$; $\Delta F = 3.21$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between gender and job embeddedness. Furthermore, the effects of job embeddedness and gender on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Job embeddedness and gender were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.22 outlined, in terms of the major effects, that hardiness acted as a significant predictor of concern ($\beta = .61$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\beta = .76$; $p \leq .01$) and cooperation ($\beta = .25$; $p \leq .01$), while gender acted only as a predictor of cooperation ($\beta = .10$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, gender significantly moderated only the relationship dynamics between hardiness and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .06$; $\Delta F = 11.39$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, half of the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between gender and hardiness. Furthermore, the effects of hardiness and gender on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Hardiness and gender were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.23

Results of the Moderated Analysis: The Effects of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness and Race on Resilience, Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence and Cooperation

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Organisational Commitment												
Race	-.04		-.12**		.05		-.33**		-.01		.01	
OC	.10**		.08		.00		-.21**		.17**		.20**	
Race x OC	-.09*	.02	-.06	.02	-.02	.02	-.18**	.02	.00	.00	.03	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.03		.02		.01		.12		.08		.13	
F	31.86		42.50		7.84		334.79		171.87		170.92	
ΔF	27.64		5.80		9.5		46.37		.00		1.58	
Job Embeddedness												
Race	-.06		-.04		-.05		-.36**		.05		.04	
JE	.19**		-.07		.15		.02		-.03		.18**	
Race x JE	-.12**	.02	-.16**	.02	.02	.02	-.34**	.05	.05	.02	-.05	.08
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.13		.04		.06		.06		.00		.09	
F	178.29		72.36		75.86		170.19		7.20		138.25	
ΔF	68.84		42.25		7.3		104.85		5.17		6.52	
Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²

Hardiness												
Race	-.02		-.23**		-.01		-.39**		-.09*		-.00	
Hardiness	-.14**		.46**		-.07		-.34**		.63**		.16**	
Race x H	.11**	.02	.20**	.02	.24**	.02	.05	.02	.10**	.02	.38**	.05
Model statistics												
ΔR^2	.03		.23		.01		.09		.35		.06	
F	28.52		466.51		17.84		198.51		677.56		186.64	
ΔF	17.80		30.32		51.63		1.03		6.72		153.21	

Note: N = 574. The results represent the final step in the regression model. Standardised regression beta weights (β), significant at 0.05; ** $p \leq .01$ * $p \leq .05$; $r = \leq .30$ (small practical effect size); $r = \geq .30 \leq .49$ (medium practical effect size); $r = \geq .50$ (large practical effect size). f^2 = Cohen's practical effect size. OC: Organisational Commitment; JE: Job Embeddedness; H: Hardiness; Conf: confidence; Coop: cooperation

6.7.1.3 Race as a moderator

Table 6.23 reported the results of the moderated regression analysis with race as a moderator of the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness with resilience and career adaptability.

As outlined in Table 6.23 in terms of the major effects, organisational commitment acted as a significant predictor of resilience ($\beta = .10$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\beta = .17$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .20$; $p \leq .01$), while race did not act as a predictor of resilience and career adaptability. In terms of the interaction effects, race did not moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, resilience and career adaptability. Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between race and organisational commitment. Furthermore, the effects of organisational commitment and race on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Organisational commitment and race were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.23 showed, in terms of the major effects, that job embeddedness acted as a significant predictor of resilience ($\beta = .19$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .15$; $p \leq .01$), cooperation ($\beta = .18$; $p \leq .01$), while race did not act as a predictor of resilience and career adaptability. In terms of the interaction effects, race did not moderate the relationship between job embeddedness, resilience and career adaptability. Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between race and job embeddedness. Furthermore, the effects of job embeddedness and race on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018; 2022). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Job embeddedness and race were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.23 outlined, in terms of the major effects, that hardiness acted as a significant predictor of concern ($\beta = .46$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\beta = .63$; $p \leq .01$) and cooperation ($\beta = .16$; $p \leq .01$), while race did not act as a predictor of resilience and career adaptability. In terms of the interaction effects, race did not significantly moderate the relationship between hardiness and

resilience and career adaptability. Overall, all the interaction effects were equally distributed between small, medium and large practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between race and hardiness. Furthermore, the effects of hardiness and race on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018; 2022). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Hardiness and race were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.24

Results of the Moderated Analysis: The Effects of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness and Marital Status on Resilience, Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence and Cooperation

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Organisational Commitment												
Marital status	.16**		-.01		.20**		.17**		-.09		.08	
OC	.01		-.00		.02		-.43**		.15**		.21**	
MS x OC	.12**	.02	.12**	.02	.07	.02	.32**	.05	.02	-.01	-.01	.00
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.07		.02		.05		.12		.09		.13	
F	140.67		41.04		81.54		341.81		170.44		165.62	
ΔF	36.92		53.44		12.25		164.55		10.89		3.0	
Job Embeddedness												
Marital status	.11**		.02		.16**		.19**		-.08		.02	
JE	.04		-.18**		.05		-.34**		-.05		.15**	
MS x JE	.24**	.02	.18**	.02	.16**	.02	.54**	.08	.08	.02	.05	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.19		.05		.10		.09		.01		.09	
F	300.29		121.20		141.61		185.40		29.91		132.88	
ΔF	250.96		136.94		64.57		405.67		29.50		6.72	

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Hardiness												
Marital status	.14**		.13**		.21**		.08		.09*		.15**	
Hardiness	.02		.64**		.12**		-.23**		.75**		.38**	
MS x H	-.12**	.02	-.23**	.02	-.16**	.02	-.21**	.02	-.14**	.02	-.19**	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.05		.22		.04		.06		.35		.07	
F	85.78		358.55		75.75		107.80		641.44		109.43	
ΔF	16.64		48.26		19.63		21.86		18.13		29.55	

Note: N = 574. The results represent the final step in the regression model. Standardised regression beta weights (β), significant at 0.05; **p ≤ .01 *p ≤ .05; r = ≤ .30 (small practical effect size); r = ≥ .30 ≤ .49 (medium practical effect size); r = ≥ .50 (large practical effect size). f² = Cohen's practical effect size. OC: Organisational Commitment; JE: Job Embeddedness; H: Hardiness; Conf: confidence; Coop: cooperation; MS: Marital status

6.7.1.4 Marital status as a moderator

Table 6.24 reported the results of the moderated regression analysis with marital status as a moderator of the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness with resilience and career adaptability.

As outlined in Table 6.24 in terms of the major effects, organisational commitment acted as a significant predictor of confidence ($\beta = .15$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .21$; $p \leq .01$), while marital status acted as a predictor of resilience ($\beta = .16$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .20$; $p \leq .01$), and curiosity ($\beta = .17$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, marital status significantly moderated the relationship between organisational commitment and resilience ($\Delta R^2 = .07$; $\Delta F = 36.92$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\Delta R^2 = .05$; $\Delta F = 12.25$; $p \leq .01$), and curiosity ($\Delta R^2 = .12$; $\Delta F = 164.55$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between marital status and organisational commitment. Furthermore, the effects of organisational commitment and marital status on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Organisational commitment and marital status were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.24 showed, in terms of the major effects, that job embeddedness acted only as a significant predictor of cooperation ($\beta = .15$; $p \leq .01$), while marital status acted as a predictor of resilience ($\beta = .11$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .16$; $p \leq .01$), and curiosity ($\beta = .19$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, marital status significantly moderated the relationship between job embeddedness and resilience ($\Delta R^2 = .19$; $\Delta F = 250.96$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\Delta R^2 = .10$; $\Delta F = 64.57$; $p \leq .01$), and curiosity ($\Delta R^2 = .09$; $\Delta F = 405.67$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between marital status and job embeddedness. Furthermore, the effects of job embeddedness and marital status on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Job embeddedness and marital status were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.24 outlined, in terms of the major effects, that hardiness acted as a significant predictor of concern ($\beta = .64$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .12$; $p \leq .01$) confidence ($\beta = .75$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .38$; $p \leq .01$), while marital status acted as a predictor of resilience ($\beta = .14$; $p \leq .01$), concern ($\beta = .13$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .21$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\beta = .09$; $p \leq .05$), and cooperation ($\beta = .15$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, marital status significantly moderated the relationship between hardiness and resilience ($\Delta R^2 = .05$; $\Delta F = 16.64$; $p \leq .01$), concern ($\Delta R^2 = .22$; $\Delta F = 48.26$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\Delta R^2 = .04$; $\Delta F = 19.63$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\Delta R^2 = .35$; $\Delta F = 18.13$; $p \leq .01$) and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .07$; $\Delta F = 29.55$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, most of the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between marital status and hardiness. Furthermore, the effects of hardiness and marital status on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Hardiness and marital status were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.25

Results of the Moderated Analysis: The Effects of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness and Job Level on Resilience, Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence, Cooperation.

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Organisational Commitment												
Job level	.16**		-.32**		.22**		.01		-.22**		.10**	
OC	.05		.06		-.01		-.27**		.16**		.14**	
JL x OC	.00	.00	.11**	.02	.06	.02	-.02	.02	.14**	.02	.14**	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.05		.09		.04		.08		.12		.15	
F	94.35		128.31		78.09		161.57		185.58		268.26	
ΔF	.000		34.71		9.57		.04		52.12		45.32	
Job Embeddedness												
Job level	.02		-.32**		.05		-.19**		-.21**		.01	
JE	.14**		-.10**		.06		-.08		-.07		.10**	
JL x JE	.07	.02	.27**	.02	.22**	.02	.22**	.02	.30**	.02	.22**	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.12		.08		.08		.01		.04		.11	
F	196.65		155.79		133.31		27.01		53.90		184.42	
ΔF	7.31		132.38		54.71		27.99		147.67		76.22	

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Hardiness												
Job level	.15**		-.16**		.24**		-.25**		.05		.30**	
Hardiness	-.04		.48		-.04		-.29**		.69**		.16**	
JL x H	-.13**	.02	.13**	.02	.12**	.02	.33**	.05	-.11**	.02	.26**	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.06		.22		.05		.08		.35		.13	
F	103.48		426.66		97.63		162.99		641.23		339.80	
ΔF	21.51		19.86		12.50		54.52		13.00		61.07	

Note: N = 574. The results represent the final step in the regression model. Standardised regression beta weights (β), significant at 0.05; **p ≤ .01 *p ≤ .05; r = ≤ .30 (small practical effect size); r = ≥ .30 ≤ .49 (medium practical effect size); r = ≥ .50 (large practical effect size). f² = Cohen's practical effect size. OC: Organisational Commitment; JE: Job Embeddedness; H: Hardiness; Conf: confidence; Coop: cooperation; JL: job level

6.7.1.5 Job level as a moderator

Table 6.25 reported the results of the moderated regression analysis with job level as a moderator of the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness with resilience and career adaptability.

As outlined in Table 6.25 in terms of the major effects, organisational commitment acted as a significant predictor of confidence ($\beta = .16$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .10$; $p \leq .01$), while job level acted as a predictor of resilience ($\beta = .16$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .22$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .10$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, job level significantly moderated the relationship between organisational commitment and resilience ($\Delta R^2 = .05$; $\Delta F = .00$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\Delta R^2 = .04$; $\Delta F = 9.57$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .15$; $\Delta F = 52.12$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between job level and organisational commitment. Furthermore, the effects of organisational commitment and job level on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018; 2022). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Organisational commitment and job level were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.25 showed, in terms of the major effects, that job embeddedness acted as a significant predictor of resilience ($\beta = .14$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .10$; $p \leq .01$), while job level did not act as a predictor of resilience and career adaptability. In terms of the interaction effects, job level did not significantly moderate the relationship between job embeddedness, resilience and career adaptability. Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between job level and job embeddedness. Furthermore, the effects of job embeddedness and job level on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Job embeddedness and job level were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.25 outlined, in terms of the major effects, that hardiness acted as a significant predictor of concern ($\beta = .48$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\beta = .69$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .16$; $p \leq .01$), while job level acted as a predictor of resilience ($\beta = .15$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .24$; $p \leq .01$),

and cooperation ($\beta = .30$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, job level significantly moderated the relationship between hardiness and resilience ($\Delta R^2 = .06$; $\Delta F = 21.51$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\Delta R^2 = .05$; $\Delta F = 12.50$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .13$; $\Delta F = 61.07$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, most of the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between job level and hardiness. Furthermore, the effects of hardiness and job level on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018; 2022). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Hardiness and job level were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.26

Results for the Moderated Analysis: The Effects of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness and Employment Status on Resilience, Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence and Cooperation

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Organisational Commitment												
ES	.16**		.18**		-.15**		-.17**		.04		.09*	
OC	.05		.05		.04		-.27**		.20**		.20**	
ES x OC	.00	.00	-.03	.02	-.08	.02	-.09*	.02	-.08	.02	.02	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.05		.03		.01		.08		.08		.13	
F	94.35		50.30		32.78		163.10		178.97		193.18	
ΔF	0.00		1.55		8.49		5.18		6.78		0.42	
Job Embeddedness												
ES	.02		-.09*		-.10**		-.09*		-.06		.11**	
JE	.14**		-.07		.15**		-.02		-.01		.17**	
ES x JE	.07	.02	-.04	.02	.11**	.02	-.12**	.02	-.08	.02	-.07	.02
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.12		.03		.05		.00		.00		.09	
F	196.65		83.11		69.20		6.29		5.60		135.46	
ΔF	7.31		3.09		17.26		10.25		11.37		8.29	

Variables	Resilience	f ²	Concern β	f ²	Control β	f ²	Curiosity β	f ²	Conf β	f ²	Coop β	f ²
Hardiness												
ES	.02		.05		-.13		.04		-.20**		-.28**	
Hardiness	.14**		.43**		-.02		-.41**		.62**		.22**	
ES x H	.07	.02	.15**	.02	-.01	.02	.10**	.02	.46**	.05	.37**	.05
Model statistics												
ΔR ²	.12		.20		.01		.06		.36		.08	
F	196.65		342.22		29.16		115.34		651.45		152.79	
ΔF	7.31		5.08		0.01		.58		36.65		14.07	

Note: N = 574. The results represent the final step in the regression model. Standardised regression beta weights (β), significant at 0.05; **p ≤ .01 *p ≤ .05; r = ≤ .30 (small practical effect size); r = ≥ .30 ≤ .49 (medium practical effect size); r = ≥ .50 (large practical effect size). f² = Cohen's practical effect size. OC: Organisational Commitment; JE: Job Embeddedness; H: Hardiness; Conf: confidence; Coop: cooperation; ES: Employment status

6.7.1.6 *Employment status as a moderator*

Table 6.26 reported the results of the moderated regression analysis with employment status as a moderator of the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness with resilience and career adaptability.

As outlined in Table 6.26, in terms of the major effects, organisational commitment acted as a significant predictor of confidence ($\beta = .20$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .20$; $p \leq .01$), while employment status acted as a predictor of resilience ($\beta = .16$; $p \leq .01$), concern ($\beta = .18$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .09$; $p \leq .05$). In terms of the interaction effects, employment status significantly moderated the relationship between organisational commitment and resilience ($\Delta R^2 = .05$; $\Delta F = .00$; $p \leq .01$), concern ($\Delta R^2 = .03$; $\Delta F = 1.55$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .13$; $\Delta F = 0.42$). Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between employment status and organisational commitment. Furthermore, the effects of organisational commitment and employment status on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Organisational commitment and employment status were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.26 showed, in terms of the major effects, that job embeddedness acted as a significant predictor of resilience ($\beta = .14$; $p \leq .01$), control ($\beta = .15$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .17$; $p \leq .01$), while employment status acted only as a predictor of cooperation ($\beta = .11$; $p \leq .01$). In terms of the interaction effects, employment status significantly moderated only the relationship between job embeddedness and cooperation ($\Delta R^2 = .09$; $\Delta F = 8.29$; $p \leq .01$). Overall, all the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between employment status and job embeddedness. Furthermore, the effects of job embeddedness and employment status on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Job embeddedness and employment status were mean centred prior to analysis.

Table 6.26 outlined, in terms of the major effects, that hardiness acted as a significant predictor of resilience ($\beta = .14$; $p \leq .01$), concern ($\beta = .43$; $p \leq .01$), confidence ($\beta = .62$; $p \leq .01$), and cooperation ($\beta = .22$; $p \leq .01$), while employment status did not act as a predictor of resilience and career adaptability. In terms of the interaction effects, employment status did not significantly moderate the relationship between hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Overall, half of the interaction effects were small in practical effect size.

A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used to explore the dynamic interactions between employment status and hardiness. Furthermore, the effects of hardiness and employment status on resilience and career adaptability were explored utilising a simple matrix and process procedure for SPSS version 3.4 (Hayes, 2018). Socio-demographic values are the mean and plus or minus standard deviations from the mean. Hardiness and employment status were mean centred prior to analysis.

In summary, the findings showed that organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness acted as significant predictors of resilience and career adaptability. Additionally, age, gender, marital status and job level acted as predictors of resilience and career adaptability in all three independent variables, except in terms of job embeddedness where job level did not act as a predictor of resilience and career adaptability. In terms of the interaction effects, age, gender, marital status and job level significantly moderated the relationship between organisational commitment, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Race did, however, not act as a significant predictor of resilience and career adaptability in all three independent variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), and furthermore, race did not significantly moderate the relationship between the three independent variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and the two dependent variables (resilience and career adaptability). Ultimately, the findings for the moderated regression analysis provide strong supportive evidence for Research Hypothesis 2 (Ha2).

Ha2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status, and job levels) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

6.8 INFERENCE STATISTICS: SEM

SEM was utilised to test Research Hypothesis 4 (Ha4) empirically.

Ha4: The theoretically hypothesised model has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.

Table 6.27 provides the goodness-of-fit statistics for the four CFA (SEM) models that were tested. Four CFA models were carried out on each assessment scale. Models 1 to 4 tested the data fit of the five scales and optimisation was performed in all five scales in order to improve the model fit of all five scales. Goodness-of-fit was shown when SRMR and RMSEA values were $\leq .08$ and CFI and Satorra-Bentler Correction (SBC) values $\geq .90$ or higher (Geiser, 2020; Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). CFA was performed to determine the goodness of fit of the overall assessment model on all five scales, both by means of CFA Model 1 as well as CFA Model 2. As indicated in Table 6.27, the results of the CFA Model 1 showed a better goodness-of-fit and was utilised for further analysis.

Table 6.27

Model Fit Statistics: Competing Structural Models

Model	Chi-square	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	AIC	BIC
1	30.90	.000	.06	.13	.82	.81	95110.33	96115.79
2	.33	.000	.00	.00	1.00	1.00	3782.85	3952.60

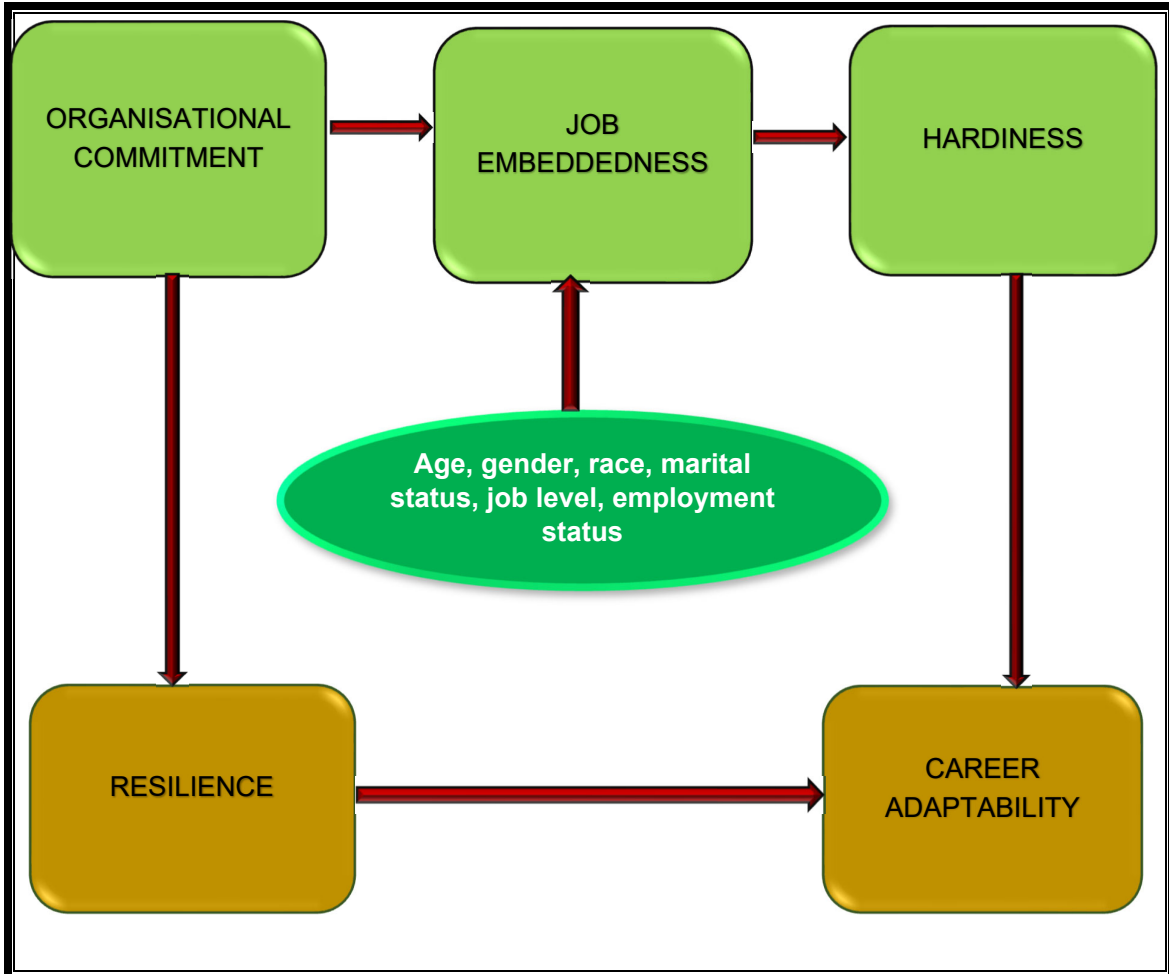
Source: Author’s own compilation

The two models were compared. Model 1 had high RMSEA and chi-square/df values while Model 2 had lower RMSEA and chi-square/df values but high TLI and zero SRMR. However, the CFI was acceptable for Model 2. As indicated in Table 6.27, Model 2 had a lower chi-square value (.33) than Model 1 (30.90). The AIC value for Model 1 (95110.33) was considerably higher than that of Model 2 (3782.85), therefore the decision was made to retain Model 1 as the assessment model with the best fit because of the better RMSEA, SRMR and chi-square/df fit indices.

Figure 6.1 below illustrates the moderating effect of organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness on the relationship dynamics between resilience and career adaptability.

Figure 6.1

Illustration of the Moderated Effect of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness and Socio-Demographical Variables Between Resilience and Career Adaptability



Source: Author's own compilation

In summary, the findings of the SEM and the final best fit structural equation model indicated that the psychological retention framework derived from the empirical relationship dynamics among the variables had a good fit with the data and could help in designing a psychological retention framework from the data.

Preliminary analysis 2: Towards designing a psychological retention framework for the retention of highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations

Main conclusions drawn in testing Research Hypothesis 2 (Ha2)

Ha2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status, and job levels) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

The findings of the moderated hierarchical analysis, with special focus on the moderation effects, provided strong supportive evidence for Ha2. Overall, the results indicated that the socio-demographic variables, showed a significantly moderating impact on organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness in predicting resilience and career adaptability.

This means that, individuals' socio-demographic variables, (their age, gender, race, marital status, job levels and employment status) impacted the direction or strength of the relationship dynamics between their organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness, in predicting their personal resilience within their jobs and their career adaptability. In summary, the findings showed that only age, gender, marital status and job level showed a significant and positively moderated relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness in predicting resilience and career adaptability. Ultimately, the findings for the moderated regression analysis provided significant supportive evidence for Research Hypothesis 2 (Ha2). Even though the stepwise regression analysis indicated that most of the socio-demographic variables did predict individuals' resilience and career adaptability, the moderated mediation analysis showed that most of the socio-demographic variables indicated a moderate relationship between individuals' organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness in predicting their resilience and career adaptability.

In this current study the strongest model, with highest values was chosen to enhance the development of a unique and robust psychological retention framework for the retention of highly talented employees for South African private sector organisations. The psychological retention framework for the retention of highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations, which was the major purpose of this current study, would focus on socio-demographic variables as significant predictors between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, and the individuals' resilience and career adaptability.

6.9 INFERENCE STATISTICS: TESTS FOR SIGNIFICANT MEAN DIFFERENCES

This section explains in detail the tests for significant mean differences, utilising IBM SPSS statistics version.27, which was utilised to assess whether individuals from the various age groups, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability (research aim 3). Thus, tests for significant mean differences were utilised to determine whether the findings provided significant evidence in support of Research Hypothesis 3 (Ha3). The Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U Test, Wilcoxon and Kruskal Wallis Tests were utilised to predict significant mean differences. The Mann-Whitney U Test and Kruskal Wallis Test for investigating significant mean differences were performed to test Research Hypothesis 3 (Ha3). They were performed in order to establish whether the samples of participants differ significantly regarding the moderating effect of socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status) in terms of the mean ranks on the retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

Ha3: There are significant mean differences between the biographical variables and the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

This section will focus on the variances between variables that were significant for the socio-demographic variables of age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status. The test for the normal distribution performed indicated that the data was not normally distributed and for this reason the non-parametric test was performed, and the current research study reported on the mean ranks not the means and standard deviation. The distribution of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, career adaptability and their subscales are the same across categories of biographical variables when using Wilcoxon, Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U Tests; probably that is the reason these Test were utilised to normalise the distribution of data. The IBM SPSS statistics version.27 was used to perform non-parametric statistical analysis. Independent-Samples Wilcoxon, Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U Tests were used to measure the differences between the socio-demographic variables of age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status

and the construct variables (to test for differences between multiple groups). In this current research study significant values have been adjusted by Bonferroni correction for multiple tests (testing all variables – age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status).

6.9.1 Age

Table 6.28 provides a summary of the Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Tests exploring the relationship dynamics between the socio-demographic variable of age and the organisational commitment related-variables, job embeddedness related-variables, hardiness related-variables, resilience and career adaptability related-variables. Overall Organisational Commitment (affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment), job embeddedness (fit and sacrifice/links), hardiness (commitment, control and challenge), as well as resilience and career adaptability (concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation) indicated significant mean differences and are reported in Table 6.28.

Table 6.28

Results of Kruskal-Wallis Test for Age in terms of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness, Resilience and Career Adaptability

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Organisational commitment related variables						
Affective	18-25 years	22	146.43	133.369	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	189.26			
	36-45 years	206	262.38			
	46-55 years	130	349.56			
	56-65 years	98	407.98			
Continuance	18-25 years	22	165.93	113.286	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	202.84			
	36-45 years	206	257.73			
	46-55 years	130	345.17			
	56-65 years	98	402.80			
Normative	18-25 years	22	139.68	113.629	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	200.03			
	36-45 years	206	262.49			
	46-55 years	130	356.13			
	56-65 years	98	387.55			

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Job embeddedness related variables						
Fit	18-25 years	22	108.07	111.892	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	193.98			
	36-45 years	206	283.48			
	46-55 years	130	338.99			
	56-65 years	98	380.54			
Sacrifice/Links	18-25 years	22	133.34	126.540	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	194.98			
	36-45 years	206	261.36			
	46-55 years	130	357.22			
	56-65 years	98	395.94			
Hardiness related variables						
Commitment	18-25 years	22		4.629	4	.327
	26-35 years	118				
	36-45 years	206				
	46-55 years	130				
	56-65 years	98				

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Control	18-25 years	18		8.253	4	.083
	26-35 years	118				
	36-45 years	206				
	46-55 years	130				
	56-65 years	98				
Challenge	18-25 years	18	298.18	21.010	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	311.62			
	36-45 years	206	271.45			
	46-55 years	130	250.18			
	56-65 years	98	339.23			
Resilience related variables						
Resilience	18-25 years	22	203.05	14.160	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	260.37			
	36-45 years	206	299.04			
	46-55 years	130	313.98			
	56-65 years	98	279.73			

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Career Adaptability related variables						
Concern	18-25 years	22	339.25	51.263	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	330.91			
	36-45 years	206	304.66			
	46-55 years	130	289.94			
	56-65 years	98	184.70			
Control	18-25 years	22	119.75	38.899	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	237.50			
	36-45 years	206	292.37			
	46-55 years	130	336.99			
	56-65 years	98	302.74			
Curiosity	18-25 years	22	366.34	89.450	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	349.86			
	36-45 years	206	323.81			

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
	46-55 years	130	249.70			
	56-65 years	98	168.52			
Confidence	18-25 years	22		1.755	4	.781
	26-35 years	118				
	36-45 years	206				
	46-55 years	130				
	56-65 years	98				
Cooperation	18-25 years	22	135.39	70.399	4	.000
	26-35 years	118	217.90			
	46-55 years	130	323.02			
	56-65 years	98	369.98			

Note: N = 574; 95% Confidence limit; **p ≤ .01; *p ≤ .05

As indicated in Table 6.28, significant mean differences were found with regard to the socio-demographic variable of age.

The Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether organisational commitment-related variables: affective, continuance and normative commitment of respondents showed significant differences according to age at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 133.369; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between affective and age group; Chi-square = 113.286; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between continuance and age group; Chi-Square = 113.628; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between normative and age group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those between 56-65 years of age have greater affective, continuance and normative commitment (mean rank affective = 407.12; mean rank continuance = 402.80; mean rank normative = 387.55), whereas those aged 18-25 years reported the lowest affective, continuance and normative commitment (mean rank affective = 189.26; mean rank continuance = 165.93; mean rank normative = 139.68). The high levels of commitment between 56-65 years of age might be attributed to age, because profound commitment to one's job is believed to come with age; on the other hand, the low levels of commitment between 18-26 years of age might be because they are young, have just entered the organisation and are still learning and developing their careers.

In the case of job embeddedness-related variables: fit and sacrifice or links, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether fit and sacrifice or links of respondents showed significant differences according to age at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 111.892; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between fit and age group; Chi-square = 126.540; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between sacrifice or links and age group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those between 56-65 years of age have greater job, organisation and community fit and sacrifice or links (mean rank fit 380.54; mean rank sacrifice/links = 395.94), whereas those aged 18-25 years reported the lowest fit and sacrifice or links (mean rank fit = 108.07; mean rank sacrifice or links = 133.34). The high levels of embeddedness between 56-65 years of age might be attributed to age, because embeddedness or immersion in one's job is believed to come with age, on the other hand the low levels of embeddedness between 18-26 years of age might be because they are young, have just entered the organisation and are still learning and developing their careers.

In terms of hardiness-related variables: commitment, control and challenge, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether the levels of commitment, control and challenge of respondents showed significant differences according to age at the significance level of .05. The mean difference was only reported for challenge. The results showed a Chi-

square = 21.010; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between challenge and age group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those between 56-65 years of age have greater challenge (mean rank challenge 339.23), whereas those aged 46-55 years reported the lowest challenge (mean rank challenge -250.18). The high levels of hardiness between 56-65 years of age might be attributed to age, because growing in high levels of hardiness is believed to come with age; on the other hand, the low levels of hardiness between 18-26 years of age might be because they are young, have just entered the organisation and are still learning and developing their careers.

The Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether the resilience of respondents showed significant differences according to age at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 14.160; $df = 4$; $p = .007$ between resilience and age group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those between 46-55 years of age have greater resilience (mean rank resilience = 313.98), whereas those aged 18-25 years reported the lowest resilience (mean rank resilience = 203.05). The high levels of resilience between 46-55 years of age might be attributed to age, because being resilient in one's job is believed to come with age, on the other hand the low levels of resilient between 18-26 years of age might be because they are young, have just entered the organisation and are still learning and developing their careers. There is strong empirical evidence to support this.

In the case of career adaptability-related variables: concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether career concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation of respondents showed significant differences according to age at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 51.263; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between concern and age group; Chi-square = 38.899; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between control and age group; Chi-square = 89.450; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between curiosity and age group; Chi-square = 1.755; $df = 4$; $p = .781$ between confidence and age group; Chi-square = 70.399; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between cooperation and age group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those between 46-55 years of age showed greater career control and those between the 56-65 years of age showed greater career cooperation (mean rank career control 336.99; mean rank career cooperation = 369.98), whereas those aged 18-25 years reported the lowest career control and career cooperation (mean rank control = 119.75; mean rank cooperation = 135.39). Furthermore, those between 18-25 years of age showed great career concern and career curiosity (mean rank career curiosity = 366.34; mean rank career concern = 339.25), whereas those aged 56-65 years reported the lowest career concern and career curiosity (mean rank career concern = 184.70; mean rank career curiosity = 168.52). The high levels of control and cooperation between 56-65 years of age might be attributed to

age, because strong career control and cooperation in one's job is believed to come with age, on the other hand the low levels of control and cooperation between 18-26 years of age might be because they are young, have just entered the organisation and are still learning and developing their careers.

6.9.2 Gender

The outcome of the Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U tests and mean scores exploring the relationship dynamics between the socio-demographic variable of gender and the organisational commitment-related variables (OC), job embeddedness-related variables (JE), the hardiness-related variables, resilience-related variables and career adaptability-related variables (CA) are outlined in Table 6.29. Table 6.29 indicates the results of the Mann-Witney U tests which were conducted in order to determine whether organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability of the respondents indicated a significant difference according to gender at the significance level of .05.

Table 6.29

Results of Mann-Whitney U Tests for Gender in terms of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness, Resilience and Career Adaptability

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	p
Organisational commitment-related variables (OCS)					
Affective	Male	215	271.69	41991.000	.076
	Female	359	296.97		
Continuance	Male	215	268.45	42689.000	.032
	Female	359	298.91		
Normative	Male	215	283.45	39463.000	.650
	Female	359	289.92		
Job embeddedness –related variables (JES)					
Fit	Male	215	273.11	41689.500	.100
	Female	359	296.12		
Sacrifice/Links	Male	215	301.00	35691.000	.130
	Female	359	279.42		
Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	p

Hardiness –related variables (PVS-R-III)

Commitment	Male	215	261.45	44193.500	.002
	Female	359	303.10		
Control	Male	215	266.23	43164.500	.005
	Female	359	300.24		
Challenge	Male	215	254.15	45763.500	.000
	Female	359	307.47		

Resilience-related variables (EmpRes)

Resilience	Male	215	303.73	35103.500	.062
	Female	359	277.78		

Career adaptability-related variables

Concern	Male	215	274.65	41355.500	.146
	Female	359	295.20		
Control	Male	215	273.15	41677.500	.107
	Female	359	296.09		

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	p
Curiosity	Male	215	316.46	32366.500	.001
	Female	359	270.16		
Confidence	Male	215	270.05	42341.500	.036
	Female	359	297.94		
Cooperation	Male	215	252.63	46090500	.000
	Female	359	308.39		

Note: N = 574; 95% Confidence limit; **p ≤ .01; *p ≤ .05; CL: confidence limit

Table 6.29 shows the Mann-Whitney U Test that was performed in order to establish whether organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability showed a significant difference according to gender.

The Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether organisational commitment-related variables: affective, continuance and normative commitment of respondents showed significant differences according to gender at the significance level of .05. An insignificant difference (affective $p = .076$; continuance $p = .032$; normative $p = .650$) was statistically observed for affective, continuance and normative at the insignificance level of .05. Considering the mean rank, affective, continuance and normative amongst the females are all higher than amongst the males.

In the case of job embeddedness, the Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether job embeddedness-related variables: fit and sacrifice or links of respondents showed an insignificant difference according to gender at the significance level of .05. An insignificant difference (fit $p = .100$; sacrifice/links $p = .130$) was statistically observed for fit and sacrifice or links at the significance level of .05.

In terms of hardiness the Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether hardiness-related variables: commitment, control and challenge of respondents showed significant differences according to gender at the significance level of .05. A significant difference (commitment $p = .002$; control $p = .05$) was statistically observed for commitment and control at the significance level of .05. Considering the mean rank, commitment, control and challenge amongst the females are all higher than amongst the males. A significant difference was detected between gender groups in terms of challenge.

The Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether the resilience of respondents showed insignificant differences according to gender at the significance level of .05. An insignificant difference (resilience $p = .062$) was statistically observed for resilience at the level of .05.

In the case of career adaptability, the Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether career adaptability-related variables: concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation of respondents showed significant differences according to gender at the significance level of .05. A non-significant difference (concern $p = .146$; control $p = .107$; curiosity $p = .001$; confidence $p = .036$) was statistically observed for concern, control, curiosity and confidence at the significance level of .05. Considering the mean rank, concern, control,

confidence and cooperation amongst the females are all higher than amongst the males. Curiosity amongst males is higher than amongst the females. Significant differences were detected between gender groups in terms of cooperation.

6.9.3 Race

Table 6.30 provides a summary of the Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Tests exploring the relationship dynamics between the socio-demographic variable of race and the organisational commitment related-variables, job embeddedness related-variables, hardiness related-variables, resilience and career adaptability related-variables. Overall Organisational Commitment (affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment), job embeddedness (fit and sacrifice/links), hardiness (commitment and challenge), as well as resilience and career adaptability (control, curiosity and cooperation) indicated significant mean differences and are reported in Table 6.30.

Table 6.30

Results of Mann-Whitney U Tests for Race in terms of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness, Resilience and Career Adaptability

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Organisational commitment variables (OCS)						
Affective	Black African	270	260.38	20.093	3	<.001
	Coloured	97	298.60			
	Indian/Asian	85	282.97			
	White	121	339.93			
Normative	Black African	270	274.44	12.472	3	.006
	Coloured	97	281.63			
	Indian/Asian	85	267.60			
	White	121	333.38			
Continuance	Black African	270	264.44	18.267	3	<.001
	Coloured	97	299.42			
	Indian/Asian	85	271.02			
	White	121	338.60			

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Job embeddedness variables (JES)						
Fit	Black African	270	284.67	20.576	3	<.001
	Coloured	97	272.02			
	Indian/Asian	85	238.68			
	White	121	338.16			
Sacrifice/Links	Black African	270	290.80	19.979	3	<.001
	Coloured	97	253.66			
	Indian/Asian	85	244.57			
	White	121	335.05			
Hardiness variables (PVS-R-III)						
Commitment	Black African	270	260.55	14.968	3	.002
	Coloured	97	312.34			
	Indian/Asian	85	300.69			
	White	121	316.10			
Control	Black African	270	295.89	6.524	3	.089
	Coloured	97	255.37			
	Indian/Asian	85	283.97			
	White	121	294.64			

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Challenge	Black African	270	235.78	49.943	3	<,001
	Coloured	97	327.78			
	Indian/Asian	85	337.05			
	White	121	333.45			
Resilience variables (EmpRes)						
Resilience	Black African	270	324.54	34.067	3	<,001
	Coloured	97	236.81			
	Indian/Asian	85	232.25			
	White	121	281.93			
Career adaptability variables (CAS)						
Concern	Black African	270	293.26	5.315	3	.150
	Coloured	97	294.59			
	Indian/Asian	85	301.20			
	White	121	256.98			
Control	Black African	270	300.56	8.151	3	.043
	Coloured	97	256.31			
	Indian/Asian	85	260.49			
	White	121	299.95			

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Curiosity	Black African	270	338.94	53.998	3	<,001
	Coloured	97	243.12			
	Indian/Asian	85	264.54			
	White	121	222.07			
Confidence	Black African	270	280.92	.937	3	.817
	Coloured	97	292.17			
	Indian/Asian	85	297.29			
	White	121	289.19			
Cooperation	Black African	270	284.35	9.052	3	.029
	Coloured	97	285.58			
	Indian/Asian	85	250.46			
	White	121	319.71			

Note: N = 574; 95% Confidence limit; **p ≤ .01; *p ≤ .05; CL: confidence limit

According to Table 6.30, significant mean differences were found in terms of race as a socio-demographic variable.

With regard to the organisational commitment-related variables, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether organisational commitment-related variables: affective, continuance and normative commitment of respondents showed significant differences according to race at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 20.093; df = 3; $p = <,001$ between affective and race group; Chi-square = 18.267; df = 3; $p = <,001$ between continuance and race group; and Chi-Square = 12.472; df = 3; $p = .006$ between normative and race group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that white participants have greater affective, continuance and normative commitment (mean rank affective = 339.93; mean rank continuance = 338.60; mean rank normative = 333.38), whereas black Africans reported the lowest affective and continuance commitment (mean rank affective = 260.38; mean rank continuance = 264.44). Furthermore, Indian/Asian participants reported the lowest normative commitment (mean rank normative = 267.60). The high levels of commitment among the white participants might be attributed to performing their jobs at their best, because they are motivated due to huge salaries, on the other hand the low levels of commitment among the black African participants might be because they are not motivated to perform at their best level, possibly because of being paid lower salaries.

In the case of job embeddedness-related variables: fit and sacrifice or links, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether fit and sacrifice or links of respondents showed significant differences according to race at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 20.276; df = 3; $p = <,001$ between fit and race group; Chi-square = 19.979; df = 3; $p = <,001$ between sacrifice or links and race group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that white participants have greater job, organisation and community fit and sacrifice or links (mean rank fit 338.16; mean rank sacrifice/links = 335.05), whereas Indians/Asian participants reported the lowest fit and sacrifice or links (mean rank fit = 238.68; mean rank sacrifice or links = 244.57). The high levels of embeddedness among white participants might be attributed to being paid good salaries, that might motivate them to be embedded in their jobs, on the other hand the low levels of embeddedness among the Indian/Asian participants might be because they are not paid well, therefore might not be motivated to be immersed in their jobs,

In terms of hardiness-related variables: commitment, control and challenge, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether the levels of commitment, control and challenge of respondents showed significant differences according to race at the significance

level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 14.968; df = 3; p = .002 between commitment and race group; Chi-square = 6.524; df = 3; p = .089 between control and race group; and Chi-square = 49.943; df = 3; p = <.001 between challenge and race group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that white participants have greater commitment, Black African participants have lower control and Indian/Asian participants have greater challenge (mean rank commitment = 316.10; mean rank control = 295.89; mean rank challenge = 337.05), whereas coloured participants reported the lowest control and challenge (mean rank control = 255.37; mean rank challenge = 327.78). Furthermore, Black African participants reported the lowest commitment (mean rank commitment = 260.53). The high levels of commitment among the white participants might be because they are motivated to stay fully dedicated and committed to their current organisations, on the other hand the low levels of control and challenge among coloured participants might be because they are not motivated enough to be in control of their lives and to accept challenges as opportunities to grow.

The Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether the resilience of respondents showed significant differences according to race at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 34.067; df = 3; p = <.001 between resilience and race group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that Black African participants have greater resilience (mean rank resilience = 324.54), whereas Indian/Asian participants reported the lowest resilience (mean rank resilience = 232.25). The high levels of resilience among Black African participants might be attributed to their high levels of tenacity, on the other hand the low levels of resilience among Indian/Asian participants might be because of their lower levels of perseverance in difficult situations.

In the case of career adaptability-related variables: concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether career concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation of respondents showed significant differences according to race at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 5.315; df = 3; p = .150 between concern and race group; Chi-square = 8.151; df = 3; p = .043 between control and race group; Chi-square = 53.998; df = 3; p = <.001 between curiosity and race group; Chi-square = .937; df = 3; p = .817 between confidence and race group; and Chi-square = 9.052; df = 3; p = .029 between cooperation and race group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that Black African participants showed greater career control and curiosity (mean rank control = 300.56; mean rank curiosity = 338.94), furthermore, Indian/Asian participants reported greater concern (mean rank concern = 301.20); additionally, white participants showed greater career cooperation (mean rank cooperation = 319.71), whereas white participants reported the lowest career concern and career curiosity (mean rank concern

= 256.98; mean rank curiosity = 222.07). Furthermore, coloured participants showed the lowest career control (mean rank control = 256.31), additionally, Black African participants reported the lowest career confidence (mean rank confidence = 280.92), at the same time, Indian/Asian participants reported the lowest career cooperation (mean rank cooperation = 250.46). The high levels of concern and confidence among Indian/Asian participants might be attributed to their deep concern for their career, that motivates them to remain confident within their jobs in order to grow in their careers. Furthermore, the high levels of control and curiosity among Black African participants might be attributed to their quest to control their careers, which is connected to their curiosity. Additionally, the high levels of cooperation among white participants might be attributed to their zest to grow in their career that leads them to cooperate, whereas, the low levels of concern and curiosity among the white participants might be attributed to their lack of concern for their careers and therefore, they are not curious about their careers. Furthermore, the low levels of control among coloured participants might be attributed to lack of motivation. Additionally, the low levels of confidence among the Black African participants might be because of lack of motivation to do better and the low levels of cooperation among the Indian/Asian participants might be attributed to lack of team spirit.

6.9.4 Marital status

Table 6.31 provides a summary of the Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis tests expounding the relationship dynamics between the socio-demographic variable of marital status and the organisational commitment-related variables (OCS), job embeddedness-related variables (JES), hardiness-related variables (PVS-R-III), resilience-related variables (EmpRes) and career adaptability-related variables (CAS). Overall, OC (affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment), job embeddedness (fit and sacrifice/links), hardiness (commitment, control and challenge), as well as resilience and career adaptability (concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation) indicated significant mean differences and are reported in Table 6.31.

Table 6.31

Results of Kruskal Wallis Tests for Marital Status in terms of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness, Resilience and Career Adaptability

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Organisational commitment (OCS)						
Affective	Single	143	226.95	42.295	3	.000
	Married	279	289.30			
	Divorced	110	319.45			
	Widowed	42	398.04			
Continuance	Single	143	231.97	36.678.	3	.000
	Married	279	287.80			
	Divorced	110	319.61			
	Widowed	42	390.49			
Normative	Single	143	216.07	47.205	3	.000
	Married	279	298.26			
	Divorced	110	313.33			
	Widowed	42	391.57			
Job embeddedness variables (JES)						
Fit	Single	143	216.34	42.485	3	.000
	Married	279	305.03			

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
	Divorced	110	304.81			
	Widowed	42	368.02			
Sacrifice/Links	Single	143	213.83	48.411	3	.000
	Married	279	322.15			
	Divorced	110	270.39			
	Widowed	42	352.96			
Hardiness variables (PVS-R-III)						
Commitment	Single	143	287.02	17.426	3	.000
	Married	279	264.39			
	Divorced	110	327.32			
	Widowed	42	338.33			
Challenge	Single	143	309.08	28.983	3	.000
	Married	279	251.03			
	Divorced	110	340.14			
	Widowed	42	318.43			
Resilience variables (EmpRes)						

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Resilience	Single	143	240.82	21.447	3	.000
	Married	279	315.24			
	Divorced	110	272.73			
	Widowed	42	300.86			
Career adaptability variables (CAS)						
Control	Single	143	232.21	24.282	3	.000
	Married	279	315.81			
	Divorced	110	288.06			
	Widowed	42	286.24			
Curiosity	Single	143	321.05	34.634	3	.000
	Married	279	304.28			
	Divorced	110	242.08			
	Widowed	42	180.77			
Cooperation	Single	143	232.34	25.378	3	.000
	Married	279	297.79			
	Divorced	110	308.37			
	Widowed	42	352.40			

Note: N = 574; 95% Confidence limit; **p ≤ .01; *p ≤ .05; CL: confidence limit

According to Table 6.31, significant mean differences were found in terms of marital status as a socio-demographic variable.

The Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether organisational commitment-related variables: affective, continuance and normative commitment of respondents showed significant differences according to marital status at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 42.295; $df = 3$; $p = .000$ between affective and marital status group; Chi-square = 36.678; $df = 3$; $p = .000$ between continuance and marital status group; and Chi-Square = 47.205; $df = 3$; $p = .000$ between normative and marital status group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those who were widowed had greater affective, continuance and normative commitment (mean rank affective = 398.04; mean rank continuance = 390.49; mean rank normative = 391.57), whereas those who were single reported the lowest affective, continuance and normative commitment (mean rank affective = 226.95; mean rank continuance = 231.97; mean rank normative = 216.07). The high levels of commitment among the widowed participants might be attributed to responsibilities that they have to carry alone since they have been widowed, because profound commitment to one's job is deepened by the multiple responsibilities one might have; on the other hand, the low levels of commitment might be because they are single and have no multiple responsibilities.

In the case of job embeddedness-related variables: fit and sacrifice or links, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether fit and sacrifice or links of respondents showed significant differences according to age at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 42.485; $df = 3$; $p = .000$ between fit and marital status group; and Chi-square = 48.411; $df = 3$; $p = .000$ between sacrifice or links and marital status group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those who were widowed have greater job, organisation and community fit and sacrifice or links (mean rank fit 368.02; mean rank sacrifice/links = 352.96), whereas those who were single reported the lowest fit and sacrifice or links (mean rank fit = 216.34; mean rank sacrifice or links = 213.83). The high levels of embeddedness among widowed participants might be attributed to high levels of responsibility or having enough time to dedicate themselves to their jobs; on the other hand, the low levels of embeddedness among single participants might be because they are single and have fewer responsibilities to worry about.

In terms of hardiness-related variables: commitment, control and challenge, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether the levels of commitment, control and challenge of respondents showed significant differences according to marital status at the significance level of .05. Significance differences were only observed in terms of commitment

and challenge. The results showed a Chi-square = 17.426; $df = 3$; $p = .001$ between commitment and marital status group; and Chi-square = 28.983; $df = 3$; $p = .000$ between challenge and marital status group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those who were widowed have greater commitment, (mean rank commitment 338.33), furthermore, it was also found that those who were divorced have high levels of challenge, (mean rank challenge 340.14, whereas the married participants reported the lowest commitment and challenge (mean rank commitment = 264.39; mean rank challenge = 251.03). The high levels of hardiness among widowed and divorced participants might be attributed to being able to live life to the full after being widowed and divorced, because growing in high levels of hardiness is believed to come with persevering amid difficulties; on the other hand, the low levels of hardiness among married participants might be because they lack tenacity and resilience in their jobs.

The Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether the resilience of respondents showed significant differences according to marital status at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 21.447; $df = 3$; $p = .000$ between resilience and marital status group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those who were married have greater resilience (mean rank resilience = 315.24), whereas those who were single reported the lowest resilience (mean rank resilience = 240.82). The high levels of resilience among married participants might be attributed to married life experience that might deepen their tenacity and resilience, because being resilient in our jobs is believed to come with life experience; on the other hand, the low levels of resilience among the single participants might be because they are single and have very little life experience.

In the case of career adaptability-related variables: concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether career concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation of respondents showed significant differences according to age at the significance level of .05. Significant mean differences were only observed in terms of control, curiosity and cooperation. The results showed a Chi-square = 24.282; $df = 3$; $p = .000$ between control and marital status group; Chi-square = 34.634; $df = 3$; $p = .000$ between curiosity and marital status group; and Chi-square = 25.378; $df = 3$; $p = .000$ between cooperation and marital status group. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those who were married showed greater career control, those who were single showed greater career curiosity, those who were widowed showed greater cooperation (mean rank career control 315.81; mean rank career curiosity = 321.05; mean rank career cooperation = 352.40), whereas the single participants reported the lowest career control and career cooperation (mean rank control = 232.21; mean rank cooperation = 232.34). Furthermore,

those who were widowed showed the lowest career curiosity (mean rank career curiosity = 180.77). The high levels of control among married participants might be attributed to their quest to control and balance both their career and their marriage responsibilities. Furthermore, the high levels of career curiosity among single participants might be attributed to their kind of work-life and the high levels of career cooperation among the widowed participants might be attributed to their faithfulness to their career which motivates them to be cooperative; on the other hand, the low levels of control and cooperation among the single participants might be because they lack motivation to control their careers and to cooperate in order to grow in their careers.

6.9.5 Job level

Table 6.32 provides a summary of the Independent-Samples Kruskal Wallis tests investigating the relationship dynamics between the organisational commitment-related variables (OCS), job embeddedness-related variables (JES), hardiness-related variables (PVS-R-III), resilience-related variables (EmpRes), career adaptability-related variables and the socio-demographic variable of job level. Significant mean differences were only observed in terms of normative (OCS), and control, concern, confidence and cooperation (CAS) and are outlined in Table 6.32.

Table 6.32

Results of Kruskal-Wallis Test for Job Level in terms of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness, Resilience and Career Adaptability

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Organisational commitment						
Affective	Staff	293	230.14	87.715	4	.000
	Supervisory	91	315.80			
	Middle Management	74	322.80			
	Senior Management	59	365.03			
	Executive	57	406.32			
Continuance	Staff	293	240.67	58.543	4	.000
	Supervisory	91	302.23			
	Middle Management	74	331.50			
	Senior Management	59	341.64			
	Executive	57	391.58			
Normative	Staff	293	227.61	91.068	4	.000
	Supervisory	91	302.17			
	Middle Management	74	356.56			
	Senior Management	59	378.12			
	Executive	57	388.40			

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
Job embeddedness variables (JES)						
Fit	Staff	293	220.28	121.087	4	.000
	Supervisory	91	314.02			
	Middle Management	74	342.74			
	Senior Management	59	378.31			
	Executive	57	425.00			
Sacrifice/Links	Staff	293	205.03	175.207	4	.000
	Supervisory	91	302.75			
	Middle Management	74	399.91			
	Senior Management	59	394.28			
	Executive	57	430.61			
Hardiness variables (PVS-R-III)						
Commitment	Staff	293	304.94	21.044	4	.000
	Supervisory	91	275.35			
	Middle Management	74	244.77			
	Senior Management	59	232.14			
	Executive	57	339.05			
Challenge	Staff	293	322.65	62.905	4	.000

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
	Supervisory	91	276.65			
	Middle Management	74	167.83			
	Senior Management	59	236.67			
	Executive	57	332.14			
Resilience variables (EmpRes)						
Resilience	Staff	293	245.12	47.277	4	.000
	Supervisory	91	316.43			
	Middle Management	74	369.84			
	Senior Management	59	311.25			
	Executive	57	327.68			
Career adaptability variables (CAS)						
Concern	Staff	293	310.41	47.134	4	.000
	Supervisory	91	305.52			
	Middle Management	74	320.09			
	Senior Management	59	195.39			
	Executive	57	197.50			
Control	Staff	293	247.87	47.497	4	.000

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	df	p
	Supervisory	91	316.31			
	Middle Management	74	363.51			
	Senior Management	59	272.58			
	Executive	57	361.97			
Curiosity	Staff	293	304.60	31.892	4	.000
	Supervisory	91	280.73			
	Middle Management	74	337.97			
	Senior Management	59	230.93			
	Executive	57	203.43			
Cooperation	Staff	293	239.21	59.062	4	.000
	Supervisory	91	328.46			
	Middle Management	74	348.98			
	Senior Management	59	298.19			
	Executive	57	379.46			

Note: N = Note: N = 574; 95% Confidence limit; **p ≤ .01; *p ≤ .05; CL: confidence limit

As shown in Table 6.32, significant mean differences were found in terms of the socio-demographic variable of job level.

The Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether organisational commitment-related variables: affective, continuance and normative commitment of respondents showed significant differences according to job level at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 87.715; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between affective and job level; Chi-square = 58.543; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between continuance and job level; and Chi-Square = 91.068; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between normative and job level. Considering the mean rank, it was found that participants at executive level have greater affective, continuance and normative commitment (mean rank affective = 406.32; mean rank continuance = 391.58; mean rank normative = 388.40), whereas those at staff level reported the lowest affective, continuance and normative commitment (mean rank affective = 230.14; mean rank continuance = 240.67; mean rank normative = 227.61). The high levels of commitment among the executive participants might be attributed to responsibilities that they have towards the organisation, especially that they need to work tirelessly for the growth, success and prosperity of the organisation; on the other hand, the low levels of commitment among staff might be because they are not interested in the success and prosperity of the organisation, because they are not part of the senior decision-making team.

In the case of job embeddedness-related variables: fit and sacrifice or links, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether fit and sacrifice or links of respondents showed significant differences according to job level at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 121.087; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between fit and job level; and Chi-square = 175.207; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between sacrifice or links and job level. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those at executive level have greater job, organisation and community fit and sacrifice or links (mean rank fit 425.00; mean rank sacrifice/links = 430.61), whereas those at staff level reported the lowest fit and sacrifice or links (mean rank fit = 220.28; mean rank sacrifice or links = 205.03). The high levels of embeddedness among executive participants might be attributed to high levels of responsibility as top management in the company or having enough time to dedicate themselves to their jobs; on the other hand, the low levels of embeddedness among staff participants might be because they have the attitude that most of the decisions are made by top management, therefore they should commit themselves fully to the success of the organisation.

In terms of hardiness-related variables: commitment, control and challenge, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether the levels of commitment, control and

challenge of respondents showed significant differences according to job level at the significance level of .05. Significant differences were only observed in terms of commitment and challenge. The results showed a Chi-square = 21.044; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between commitment and job level; and Chi-square = 62.905; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between challenge and job level. Considering the mean rank, it was found that employees at executive level have greater commitment, (mean rank commitment 339.05), whereas those at senior management level reported the lowest commitment (mean rank commitment = 232.14). Furthermore, it was found that employees at middle management level reported the lowest challenge (mean rank challenge = 167.83). The high levels of hardiness among employees at executive level might be attributed to being top management of the organisation, as some of these executives might own shares within the organisation which might encourage them to work harder; on the other hand, the low levels of hardiness among senior management and middle management level participants might be because they lack full commitment in their jobs.

The Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether the resilience of respondents showed significant differences according to job levels at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 47.277; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between resilience and job level. Considering the mean rank, it was found that employees in middle management level have greater resilience (mean rank resilience = 369.84), whereas those at staff level reported the lowest resilience (mean rank resilience = 245.12). The high levels of resilience among middle management participants could be attributed to life experience that might deepen their tenacity and resilience, because being resilient in our jobs is believed to come with life experience; on the other hand, the low levels of resilience among the staff participants might be because their experience is not diverse enough to motivate them.

In the case of career adaptability-related variables: concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed in order to establish whether career concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation of respondents showed significant differences according to job level at the significance level of .05. Significant mean differences were only observed in terms of concern, control, curiosity and cooperation. The results showed a Chi-square = 47.134; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between concern and job level; Chi-square = 47.497; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between control and job level; Chi-square = 31.892; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between curiosity and job level; and Chi-square = 59.062; $df = 4$; $p = .000$ between cooperation and job level. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those at middle management level showed greater career concern, career control and career curiosity, those at executive level showed greater career cooperation, (mean rank career concern 320.09; mean rank career control = 363.51; mean rank career curiosity = 337.97; mean rank career cooperation = 379.46),

whereas the staff level participants reported the lowest career control and career cooperation (mean rank control = 247.87; mean rank cooperation = 239.21). Furthermore, employees at senior management level showed the lowest career concern (mean rank career concern = 195.39), while those at executive level showed the lowest career curiosity. The high levels of concern, control and curiosity among middle management level participants might be attributed to their profound career concern, quest to control their careers and career curiosity to balance both their career and their management responsibilities. The high levels of career cooperation among executive participants might be attributed to their kind of work-life style and their faithfulness to their careers that motivates them to be cooperative; on the other hand, the low levels of control and cooperation among the staff participants might be because they lack motivation to control their careers and cooperation. Furthermore, the lower levels of career concern among the senior management level participants might be because they have reached a high level in their career and therefore they are less concerned about their careers; and the lower levels of career curiosity among the executive level participants might be attributed to them having reached the highest level in their careers and therefore no longer being curious about anything that is happening on their career journey.

6.9.6 Employment status

Table 6.33 provides a summary of Independent-Samples Mann-Whitney U tests exploring the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment-related variables (OCS), job embeddedness-related variables (JES), hardiness-related variables (PVS-R-III), resilience-related variables, career adaptability-related variables (CAS) and the socio-demographic variable of employment status.

Table 6.33

Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Employment Status in terms of Organisational Commitment, Job Embeddedness, Hardiness, Resilience and Career Adaptability

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	STS	p
Organisational commitment variables (OCS)						
Affective	Full time	471	293.84	12 794.50	-5.330	.000
	Part time	85	193.53			
Normative	Full time	471	293.74	12 831.00	-5 290	.000
	Part time	85	193.95			
Continuance	Full time	471	287.40	15 827.50	-3.088	.002
	Part time	85	229.21			
Job embeddedness variables (JES)						
Fit	Full time	471	293.34	13 030.00	-5.254	.000
	Part time	85	196.29			
Sacrifice/Links	Full time	471	295.74	11 895.00	-5.978	.000
	Part time	85	182.92			
Hardiness variables (PVS-R-III)						
Commitment	Full time	471	277.86	20 317.00	.232	.817
	Part time	85				

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	STS	p
Control	Full time	471	280.91	18 881.00	-.993	.321
	Part time	85	265.13			
Challenge	Full time	471	270.99	23 556. 50	2.620	.009
	Part time	85	320.14			
Resilience variables (EmpRes)						
Resilience	Full time	471	290.86	14 194.00	-4.388	.000
	Part time	85	209.99			
Career adaptability variables (CAS)						
Concern	Full time	471	272.12	23 022.50	2.230	.026
	Part time	85	313.85			
Control	Full time	471	283.95	17.443.50	-1.898	.058
	Part time	85	248.22			
Curiosity	Full time	471	278.25	20 135.50	.087	.931
	Part time	85	279.89			
	School/graduate	18				
Confidence	Full time	471	281.04	18 822.50	-.942	.346
	Part time	85	264.44			

Variable	Source of difference	N	Mean ranks	Chi-square	STS	p
Cooperation	Full time	471	287.05	15 989.00	-2.974	.003
	Part time	85	231.11			

Note: N = 574; 95% Confidence limit; **p ≤ .01; *p ≤ .05; STS: standardised test statistics

As shown in Table 6.33, significant mean differences were found in terms of the socio-demographic variable of employment status. The following section clearly specify which were significant and which were not.

The Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether organisational commitment-related variables: affective, continuance and normative commitment of respondents showed significant differences according to employment status at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 12 794.00; STS = -5.330; $p = .000$ between affective and employment status; Chi-square = 15 827.50; STS = -3.088; $p = .002$ between continuance and employment status; and Chi-Square = 12 831.00; STS = .290; $p = .000$ between normative and employment status. Considering the mean rank, it was found that participants employed full time have greater affective, continuance and normative commitment (mean rank affective = 293.84; mean rank continuance = 287.40; mean rank normative = 293.76), whereas those employed part time reported the lowest affective, continuance and normative commitment (mean rank affective = 193.52; mean rank continuance = 229.21; mean rank normative = 193.95). The high levels of commitment among the participants employed full time might be attributed to responsibilities that they have towards the organisation, especially that they need to work tirelessly for the growth, success and prosperity of the organisation, because they feel deeply about belonging to the organisation; on the other hand the low levels of commitment among those employed part time might be because they are not interested in the success and prosperity of the organisation, because they do not feel a sense of belonging to the organisation since they are with the organisation on a part-time basis.

In the case of job embeddedness-related variables: fit and sacrifice or links, the Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether fit and sacrifice or links of respondents showed significant differences according to employment status at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 13 030.00; STS = -5.254; $p = .000$ between fit and employment status; and Chi-square = 11 895.50; STS = -5.978; $p = .000$ between sacrifice or links and employment status. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those employed full time have greater employment, organisation and community fit and sacrifice or links (mean rank fit 293.34; mean rank sacrifice/links = 295.74), whereas those employed part time reported the lowest fit and sacrifice or links (mean rank fit = 196.29; mean rank sacrifice or links = 182.92). The high levels of embeddedness among participants employed full time might be attributed to high levels of responsibility as permanent employees in the organisation, or they allocate enough time to dedicate themselves to their jobs because they feel they fully belong to the organisation; on the other hand the low levels of embeddedness among

participants employed part time might be because they have the attitude that most of the decisions are made by permanent employees, therefore they should commit themselves fully to the success of the organisation.

In terms of hardiness-related variables: commitment, control and challenge, the Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether the levels of commitment, control and challenge of respondents showed significant differences according to employment status at the significance level of .05. Significant differences were observed in terms of commitment, control and challenge. The results showed a Chi-square = 20 317.00; STS = .232; $p = .817$ between commitment and employment status; Chi-square = 18 881.00; STS = -.993; $p = .321$ between control and employment status; and Chi-square = 23 556.50; STS = 2.620; $p = .009$ between challenge and employment status. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those employed part time have greater challenge, (mean rank challenge 320.14), while those employed full time have greater control, (mean rank control 280.91) and reported the lowest commitment and challenge, (mean rank commitment = 277.86; mean rank challenge = 270.99). Furthermore, it was found that those employed part time reported the lowest control (mean rank control = 265.13). The high levels of commitment and challenge among those employed part time might be attributed to their deep desire to remain in the organisation and be made permanent; on the other hand, the low levels of commitment and challenge among participants employed full time might be because they lack dedication to their jobs.

The Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether the resilience of respondents showed significant differences according to employment status at the significance level of .05. The results showed a Chi-square = 14 194.00; STS = -4.388; $p = .000$ between resilience and employment status. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those employed full time have greater resilience (mean rank resilience = 290.86), whereas those employed part time reported the lowest resilience (mean rank resilience = 209.99). The high levels of resilience among participants employed full time might be attributed to their motivation of wanting to remain in their jobs and grow into belonging fully to the organisation; on the other hand, the low levels of resilience among participants employed part time might be because they are not motivated to continue with the organisation because they are part time employees and they feel that they don't belong to the organisation permanently.

In the case of career adaptability-related variables: concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation, the Mann-Whitney U Test was performed in order to establish whether career concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation of respondents showed significant differences according to employment status at the significance level of .05. Significant mean

differences were observed in terms of concern and employment status, but not control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation. The results showed a Chi-square = 23 022.50; STS = 2.230; $p = .026$ between concern and employment status; Chi-square = 17 443.50; STS = -1.898; $p = .058$ between control and employment status; Chi-square = 20 135.50; STS = .087; $p = .931$ between curiosity and employment status; Chi-square = 18 822.50; STS = -.942; $p = .346$ between confidence and employment status; and Chi-square = 15 989; STS = -2.974; $p = .003$ between cooperation and employment status. Considering the mean rank, it was found that those employed full time showed greater career control, career curiosity, career confidence and career cooperation, (mean rank career control = 283.95; mean rank career curiosity = 278.25; mean rank career confidence = 281.04; mean rank career cooperation = 287.05), furthermore, those employed part time reported high levels of career concern (mean rank career concern = 313.85), whereas those participants employed part time reported the lowest career control, career curiosity, career confidence and career cooperation (mean rank control = 248.22; mean rank curiosity = 279.89; mean rank confidence = 281.04; mean rank cooperation = 231.11). Furthermore, those employed full time showed the lowest career concern (mean rank career concern = 272.12). The high levels of control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation among participants employed full time might be attributed to their quest to control their careers, deep curiosity to find out how their career will progress, and career confidence and cooperation to balance both their career and their life responsibilities. Furthermore, the high levels of career concern among participants employed part time might be attributed to their concern as to how their career is going to develop since they are employed part time. The lower levels of career control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation among participants employed part time might be because they do not belong to the organisation permanently and are not certain how long they will be in the organisation.

In summary, the empirical results obtained from the tests for significant mean differences found that individuals from various age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status groups differ significantly in terms of their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Thus, the results of the tests for significant mean differences provided strong supportive evidence for accepting Research Hypothesis Ha3 in terms of age, gender, marital status, job level and employment status:

Ha3: There are significant mean differences between the biographical variables and the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

Table 6.34 indicates the socio-demographic variables that differed significantly in terms of the psychological retention framework variables.

Table 6.34

Summary of Socio-demographic Differences of Psychological Retention Framework Variables

Variable	Source of differences	Highest ranking	Lowest ranking
Organisational commitment-related variables			
Affective	Age	56-65 years	18-25 years
	Job level	Executive	Staff
Continuance	Age	56-65 years	18-25 years
	Job level	Executive	Staff
Normative	Marital status	Widowed	Single
	Job level	Executive	Staff
Job embeddedness-related variables			
Fit	Job level	Executive	Staff
Sacrifice/Links	Job level	Executive	Staff
Hardiness-related variables			
Commitment	Marital status	Widowed	Married
	Job level	Executive	Senior Management
Control	Gender	Female	Male
Challenge	Marital status	Divorced	Married
	Age	56-65 years	46-55 years
	Race	Indian/Asian	Coloured
Resilience-related variables			
Resilience	Job level	Middle management	Staff

Variable	Source of differences	Highest ranking	Lowest ranking
Career adaptability-related variables			
Concern	Age	18-25 years	56-65 years
Control	Job level	Middle management	Staff
Curiosity	Age	18-25 years	56-65 years
Confidence	Gender	Female	Male
	Race	Indian/Asian	Black African
Cooperation	Job level	Executive	Staff
	Age	56-65 years	18-25 years

Preliminary analysis 3: Towards designing a unique and robust psychological retention framework for highly talented employees for South African private sector organisations

Core conclusions drawn in testing Research Hypothesis Ha3:

The results of the tests for significant mean differences added new ideas and insights for the psychological framework for highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations. The results stipulated that actions are needed for deepening and increasing organisation commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability of employees, in order to deepen their satisfaction with talent retention practices. And for this to be achieved organisations should look into the needs of respondents from different ages, gender, race, marital status, job levels and employment status groups. More specifically the results indicated that individuals from different ages, gender, race, marital status, job levels and employment status groups differ significantly with regard to their levels of affective, continuance and normative commitment. Furthermore, the results showed that participants from different ages, gender, race, marital status, job levels and employment status groups differ meaningfully regarding their organisational, job and community fit and sacrifice/links. Additionally, participants from different ages, gender, race, marital status, job levels and employment status groups indicated significant differences in terms of commitment, control and challenge. Also, respondents from different ages, gender, race, marital status, job levels and employment status showed significant differences in terms of their levels of resilience. Lastly, participants from different ages, gender, race, marital status, job levels and employment status groups showed significant differences in terms of their levels of career concern, control, curiosity, confidence and cooperation.

6.10. DECISIONS REGARDING RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Table 6.35 summarises the main conclusions regarding the current research hypotheses. It also outlines the hypotheses that were accepted fully, those that were partially accepted and those that were rejected.

Tables 6.35

Summarises the Major Conclusions regarding the Current Research Hypotheses.

Empirical research aims	Research hypothesis	Supportive evidence provided	Supportive evidence provided
<p>Research aim 1: To explore the empirical inter-relationship between the socio-demographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level), retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) as manifested in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha1.</p>	<p>Ha1: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations.</p> <p>H01: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations.</p>	<p>Descriptive statistical analysis, Bivariate correlations and canonical correlations</p>	<p>Partially Accepted</p>
<p>Research aim 2: To investigate if socio-demographic variables, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness significantly predict resilience and</p>	<p>Ha2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status, and job levels) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job</p>	<p>Stepwise hierarchical regression analysis Hierarchical moderated regressions analysis</p>	<p>Partially Accepted</p>

<p>career adaptability. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha2.</p>	<p>embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.</p> <p>H02: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status, and job levels) do not significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.</p>		
<p>Research aim 3: To investigate whether individuals from different ages, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha3.</p>	<p>Ha3: There are significant mean differences between the biographical variables and the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).</p> <p>H03: There are no significant mean differences between the biographical variables and the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural</p>	<p>Test for mean differences (nonparametric based on tests for normality), Mann-Whitney U (Two groups), Kruskal-Wallis (Multiple groups)</p>	<p>Partially Accepted.</p>

	capacities (resilience and career adaptability).		
Research aim 4: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), to assess whether a good fit exists between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha4.	<p>Ha4: The theoretically hypothesised model has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.</p> <p>H04: The theoretically hypothesised model does not have a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.</p>	Structural equation modelling (SEM)/CFA	Accepted

Source: Author's own compilation

6.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter explored the findings of the preliminary statistical analysis, descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and inferential statistics in order to establish the direction and nature of the empirical relationship dynamics between the organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience, career adaptability and the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status). Furthermore, the findings of the empirical research were interpreted, and decisions made in terms of the extent to which the results provided support for the research hypotheses.

The following empirical research aims 1 to 4 were achieved in this chapter:

Research aim 1: To explore the empirical inter-relationship between the socio-demographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level), retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) as manifested in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations. *This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha1.*

Research aim 2: To investigate if socio-demographic variables, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness significantly predict resilience and career adaptability. *This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha2.*

Research aim 3: To investigate whether individuals from different ages, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. *This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha3.*

Research aim 4: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), to assess whether a good fit exists between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model. *This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha4.*

Chapter 7 focuses on research aim 5, namely to formulate recommendations for further research in the field of Human Resource Management and suggest further research strategies based on the findings of this study research.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter expounded in detail the empirical research aim 5: to formulate recommendations for further research in the field of human resource management and suggest further research strategies based on the findings of this study research. Additionally, the chapter discussed the integration of the research results, and the findings in terms of the socio-demographic profile of the respondents, the descriptive statistics, correlations statistical analysis and the empirical research aims. The unique and essential parts of the suggested psychological framework for the retention of highly talented employees employed in the South African private sector organisations are outlined and the postulated psychological framework presented, the conclusions drawn from the literature review and the empirical study were also expounded. Furthermore, the limitations of the study were discussed and recommendations provided for the field of human resource management. Ultimately, suggestions for future and further research studies were made.

7.1 DISCUSSIONS AND INTEGRATION OF RESULTS

This section explored the discussions and integration of the empirical results of the study. Additionally, it also expounds the conclusions that are founded on both the literature review and the empirical study, in accordance with the research aims as outlined in Chapter 1.

7.1.1 Conclusions relating to the empirical study

The empirical aim of this study was to address the following five vital aims:

Research aim 1: To explore the empirical inter-relationship between the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level), retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) as manifested in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha1.

Research aim 2: To investigate if socio-demographic variables, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness significantly predict resilience and career adaptability. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha2.

Research aim 3: To investigate whether individuals from different ages, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels differ significantly regarding their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha3.

Research aim 4: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), to assess whether a good fit exists between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model. This research aim relates to the testing of Research Hypothesis Ha4.

Research aim 5: To formulate recommendations for further research in the field of Human Resource Management and suggest further research strategies based on the findings of this study research.

7.1.1.1 Research aim 1:

H1: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations.

The first aim, namely, to explore the empirical inter-relationship between the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level), retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) as manifested in a sample of employees employed in South African private sector organisations, was achieved in Chapter 6. Supportive evidence was provided for Research Hypothesis H1. *Conclusion:* Individuals' retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), their biographical characteristics (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level) and their resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) are significantly related. This finding link to previous research in the sence that it clearly shows and emphasises the relationship dynamics between the five research concepts (Dewi, 2022; Heredia et al., 2023; Monyaki et al., 2022).

Based on the significant relationships that were revealed between respondents' organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability, and their biographical characteristics, the following unique and specific conclusions were drawn:

In terms of the independent variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and the dependent variables (resilience and career adaptability), the results showed significant positive correlations between the overall retention-related dispositions and the overall resilience-related behavioural capabilities. These results suggested that positive perceptions of the retention-related dispositions are likely to be associated with high levels of resilience and career adaptability. It was also found that the retention-related dispositions were significantly and positively related to the resilience-related behavioural capacities. These positive relationship dynamics between the constructs have an impact on the retention of highly talented employees.

7.1.1.2 Research aim 2

H2: The biographical variables (age, gender, race, marital status, employment status, and job levels) significantly and positively moderate the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability.

This second aim was achieved in Chapter 6. Supportive evidence was provided for Research Hypothesis H2. On the basis of the empirical results, the following conclusions can be drawn:

Conclusion: Individuals' retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) positively and significantly predict their resilience and career adaptability. There is a profound link between organisational commitment and job embeddedness, and employees' decision to remain with or leave an organisation (Akar, 2018; DeMatthews et al., 2022; Orie, 2018; Rebeiro et al., 2020; Safavi, 2021). There is a significant relationship between organisational commitment and hardiness and there are valuable predictors of employee retention practices or decisions to leave the job (Ahakwa et al., 2021; Dursan et al., 2022; Fatima et al., 2015). Employees with high levels of affective, normative and continuance commitment have high levels of Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge, and organisations would want to retain such employees (Hashemi et al., 2021; Hossen et al., 2022; Kalio, 2020; Noermijati et al., 2021). This may enhance the employees' perception of resilience and career adaptability levels. More specifically, positive perceptions of organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness are the strongest variables in predicting the resilience-related behavioural capacities of resilience and career adaptability. The individuals' organisational commitment positively and significantly predicts their attitudes, job satisfaction, flexibility, employee behaviours (such as employee performance, effectiveness, psychological features) or experiences (such as self-awareness, self-esteem, work happiness and well-being) (Dewi & Piartrini, 2021; Heredia et al., 2022;

Kusyadi, 2020). This is because employees' levels of resilience are strongly linked to their happiness, commitment and satisfaction. The more resilient the employees are, the higher their continuance commitment and the easier they are to retain (Ahakwa et al., 2021; Kinay et al., 2021; Miller-Graff, 2022).

Furthermore, the individuals' affective, continuance and normative commitment positively and significantly predicted their resilience to continue within the organisation and grow in career adaptability. Resilient employees are able to experience meaningful life in whatever they do, and this sense of purpose in their job has been established to be the main source of organisational commitment. Resilience predicts organisational commitment, it is only through highly committed employees who are highly talented that organisations can become competitive (Alsughayir, 2021; Francisco & Castano, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022). Employees with high levels of organisational commitment might have high levels of career adaptability, because organisational commitment predicts employees' career adaptability. Career adaptability will increase the organisational commitment of individuals to their jobs, decrease job losses and increase retention (Gong et al., 2020; Ivanov & Das, 2020; Nam & Lan, 2022; Yahan & Wenjie, 2021). Individuals with high levels of career adaptability are affectively, normatively and continually committed to the organisation and easy to retain (Chhonker & Narang, 2020; Moreira et al., 2022; Zivkovic et al., 2021). Employees' embeddedness and devotedness positively and significantly predicted employees' resilience, career adaptability and retention. Employees who are highly immersed in their jobs have high levels of resilience, because job embeddedness enhances their resilience within their jobs and organisations. Highly adaptive employees are immersed in their work and will stay in the employing organisation. These individuals enjoy their fit in the job, organisation and community, have relationships within the organisation and community, and eventually they will remain with the organisation because it will be very difficult to sacrifice all these profound relationships (Ismael et al., 2021; Karatepe et al., 2021; Rasheed et al., 2022). Hardiness is positively and significantly associated with resilience, good health, and good performance under challenging and traumatic events (Ahmed & Singh, 2017; Genry & Kobasa, 1984; Monyaki et al., 2022; Yu & Liang, 2021). When a person's level of hardiness increases, so does their level of resilience, because hardiness strengthens and motivates employees to remain resilient in their jobs and organisations. Socio-demographic variables positively and significantly predicted both resilience and career adaptability because all socio-demographical variables were found to be strong determinants of resilience and career adaptability. Ultimately, socio-demographic variables, organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness significantly predicted resilience and career adaptability.

7.1.1.3 Research aim 3

H3: There are significant mean differences between the biographical variables and the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability).

This research aim was addressed and achieved in Chapter 6. Partial supportive evidence was provided for Research Hypothesis H3.

Conclusion: Based on the empirical results, the following conclusions were drawn:

- Individuals from different age groups, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels were more likely to experience and be impacted by the crucial dimensions of organisational commitment, binding forces of job embeddedness, three Hardi-attitudes of hardiness, five characteristics of resilience and the 4Cs of career adaptability differently at different levels.

Based on the empirical results, the following conclusions could be drawn as indicated below:

(a) Conclusions based on empirical results of individual differences age

- Older respondents were more likely to stay in their jobs than younger respondents, because they have internalised the social norms, values and a sense of gratitude to the organisation and the fear of looking for another job (Goliroshan et al., 2020; Nor & Abdullah, 2020).
- Older respondents were more likely to be committed to the organisation because they have devoted their time and energy to the organisation and their turnover and absenteeism intention decreases with tenure, than the middle-age and younger respondents (Arif, 2018; Safavi, 2021; Waston, 2018).
- Older respondents were more likely to be embedded in their jobs because they had fewer employment opportunities and were no longer interested in career development, than younger respondents (Goliroshan et al., 2020; Nor & Abdullah, 2020).
- Mature respondents were more likely to grow into deep hardiness as they aged, which would assist them to have positive health, zest, positive ageing, and positive coping strategies, because hardiness comes with age (Bartone & Homish, 2020; Compton & Hoffman, 2020).

- Older respondents were more likely to be more resilient, tenacious and loyal to their organisations than the younger respondents and new-comers, because resilience comes with age (Chansky, 2020; Chmitorz et al., 2020; Mckinley & Laukaitis, 2020).
- Older respondents were more likely to be resilient than younger employees because of their vast experience, expertise, lived and developed wisdom (Biri, 2020; Kalaitzaki et al., 2020; Mckinley & Laukaitis, 2020; Tengblad & Oudhuis, 2018).
- Older respondents were likely to have higher levels of career adaptability than their younger counterparts who might be struggling to settle into their jobs. Additionally, motivational structures of older and younger employees were likely to differ because of the changes across the lifespan and life-space in terms of their career development opportunities, career resilience, career success, career support, career interventions and career adapt abilities (Cathcart, 2018; Luke & Neault, 2020; Peila-Shuster, 2017; Putri & Dewi, 2022). Furthermore, younger respondents were more likely to focus on growth in their career and goal orientations while older respondents were likely to focus on maintaining their jobs. Older respondents were likely to persist in minimising career development and mostly focus on those activities that prepare for their retirement while younger respondents were more likely to persist in optimising performance (Cathcart 2018; Francisco & Castano, 2020; Muleya et al., 2022; Pre Karlerove & Kariery, 2020; Spurk et al., 2018).

(b) Conclusions based on empirical results of individual differences gender

- Female respondents were likely to be just as committed as male respondents, this implies that both genders were equally and seriously committed to their organisations and jobs (Alenazi et al., 2019; Haque & Aston, 2016; Kokubun, 2017; Zivkovic et al., 2021).
- Female respondents were more likely to quit their jobs, because of family responsibilities, than males (Faisal et al., 2020; Mitchell et al., 2001a; 2001b).
- Male respondents were more likely to respond by engaging in control, whilst females were likely to respond by engaging in commitment (Compton & Hoffman, 2020; Sethi & Singh, 2018).
- Female respondents were more likely to have higher levels of resilience than males. This indicates that male respondents have a greater need for improved training resilience programmes that will enhance their resilience and tenacity (Biri, 2020; Kalaitzaki et al., 2020; Mckinley & Laukaitis, 2020; Tengblad & Oudhuis, 2018).
- Female respondents were more likely to have significantly higher levels of career adaptability than males. This implies that male respondents are more strongly in need of

advanced career opportunities (Edokpolor & Muritala, 2018; Nikander et al., 2022; Obschonka & Hahn, 2018; Purwoko et al., 2020).

(c) Conclusions based on empirical results of individual differences race

- Black participants in the service industry were more likely to be committed to an organisation that provides them with the opportunity to express their sense of service or dedication to the people component of the business. White participants reported higher levels of commitment than their black counterparts, because they experienced more organisational commitment than black participants (De Beer et al., 2016; Noermijati et al., 2021; Putra et al., 2020; Rebeiro et al., 2020).
- White respondents might record higher levels of organisational and job embeddedness than their black African counterparts who indicated robust sacrifice or links with the community (Holtom & Darabi, 2018; Sieraadj, 2018; Sullivan, 2017).
- Black employees were more likely to be higher in Hardi-coping, Hardi-commitment, hard-control and Hardi-challenge, than their white counterparts, this implies that white employees are more strongly in need of growing in high levels of hardiness (Compton & Hoffman, 2020 Kilchrist, 2020).
- Black participants in all industries were more likely to be stronger in the individual resilience components than their white counterparts, this implies that white participants have a greater need for persistence and tenacity (Chansky, 2020; De Miliano & Jurriens, 2017).
- White people were more likely to have higher levels of generic resilience dimensions, especially robustness and resourcefulness than their black counterparts, this indicates that black participants have a greater need to develop higher levels of robustness and resourcefulness (Bhamra, 2016; Djalante et al., 2020; Stuntzner & Dalton, 2018; Wiig & Fahlbruch, 2019).
- Individuals of Indian descent were more likely to have stronger individual resilience dimensions especially emotional and cognitive resilience than their coloureds counterparts, this indicates that coloureds participants are more strongly in need of emotional and cognitive resilience (Chansky, 2020).
- Black participants may be more adaptive than white participants, whilst on the other hand white employees presented higher levels of career adaptability than black employees, this implies that black participants showed a greater need for career adaptability (Pre Karlerove & Kariery, 2020; Solberg & Ali, (2017)

(d) Conclusions based on empirical results of individual differences marital status

- Married individuals with children requiring care are more likely to remain in their jobs, because of the responsibility they are shouldering, thus they cannot just leave their jobs (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Dung et al., 2019; Robbins & Judge, 2017; 2018).
- Married employees may be more committed than single employees mainly because of their perceived family responsibilities and childcare (Ahakwa et al., 2021; Chang et al., 2016; Dessler, 2017; Tekingunduz et al., 2016).
- Being married might motivate individuals to be immersed in their jobs and be prepared to go the extra mile because of family responsibilities that come with being married and having school going children (Nor & Abdullah, 2020; Shah et al., 2020).
- Levels of hardiness in married women and men might be affected by marital compatibility (psychologically and socially), this implies that both women and men in a married relationship have a greater need for marital compatibility (Al-Rahim, 2016; Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020; Johnson & Christensen, 2019; Kilchrist, 2020).
- Most, if not all, married individuals with children were more likely to work for an organisation that offers child-care facilities (Compton & Hoffman, 2020; Kilchrist, 2020).
- Married mothers with higher levels of resilience were more likely to face life problems better and show flexibility when confronting them, by utilising their tenacity and perseverance (Harooni et al., 2020; Heydarpour et al, 2018; Johnson & Christensen, 2019; Paton & Johnston, 2017).
- Resilient married individuals were more likely to stay in their jobs compared to their less resilient counterparts as their resilience enables, strengthens and motivates them to broaden their cognitive appraisals of stress (Chadwick & Raver, 2018; Mary et al., 2020).
- Marital status might be associated with family resilience, since married individuals might have to balance work and family issues (Mary et al., 2020).
- Married people seem to struggle with their career adaptation, because marriage comes with diverse life roles. This implies that married people might encounter problems with balancing their marriage responsibilities and career demands (Berg et al., 2018; Mansfield, 2020; Muleya et al., 2022).
- Divorced and single people indicate stronger career adaptability than married people, because they are not particularly impacted by several life roles in their employment careers (Gregor et al., 2020; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016; Putri & Dewi, 2022).

(e) Conclusions based on empirical results of individual differences employment status

- Permanent employees may be more committed to the organisation than temporary, part-time and flexible-contract employees. This implies that the permanent employees considered their job not only as a job but as a daily lifestyle, unlike temporary employees who might be aware that at the end of the contract they will leave the organisation, so there is no sense of belonging and very little commitment and loyalty (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Callea et al., 2016; Cooper et al., 2016; Dewi & Piartrini, 2021).
- Permanent employees were more likely to have a strong fit and sacrifice or links and would most likely find it more difficult to leave the employing organisation. This implies that the huge sacrifices that the permanent employees were going to make, such as leaving their familiar environment, friends, colleagues and organisations, assisted them to fit well in their jobs and organisations (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Holtom & Darabi, 2018).
- Permanent employees were more likely to consider their jobs not only as a job but as a lifestyle, unlike temporary employees who might be aware that at the end of the contract they will leave the organisation, so there is no sense of belonging and they might not even have fit with the job, organisation and community or have links with other employees and the team, so that eventually they will not have any sacrifices to make when they leave their temporary jobs (Sieraadj, 2018; Sun & Huang, 2020).
- Permanent employees were more likely to be Hardi-persons with a profound sense of work commitment and control, and be flexible, adaptable and open to change and challenges in their working life and life in general, because of their deep sense of belonging and loyalty to the organisation (Khosravi & Kasaeiyan, 2019; Kilchrist, 2020; Ogunsanwo, 2019; Shukshina et al., 2019).
- Permanent employees were more likely to be resilient, self-reliant and persevering in their jobs than temporary, part-time and flexible-contract employees. This implies that permanent employees were more likely to be resiliently and tenaciously dedicated to their employing organisations (Becking et al., 2017; Brownhill et al., 2016; Kavcic et al., 2020; Tengblad & Oudhuis, 2018).
- Permanent employees were more adaptive than the temporary, part-time and flexible-contract employees. This implies that the permanent employees considered their profession not only as a job but as a way of life, unlike temporary employees who might be aware that at the end of the contract they will leave the organisation, so there is no feeling of belonging and very little hope, optimism and adaptability in their career path (Ozdemir & Koc, 2022; Yildiz-Akyol & Boyaci, 2020).

(f) Conclusions based on empirical results of individual differences job level

- Individuals in middle and senior management level positions were more likely to be empowered and challenged to grow into great leaders who are fully embedded and dedicated to the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Ariyanto et al., 2018; Cohen & Abd El Majid, 2020; Lee et al., 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 1989).
- Non-managerial employees were more likely to have high levels of fit with the job, organisation and community in comparison to managerial employees. This implies that employees at managerial level have a stronger need for improved job, organisation and community fit (Ariyanto et al., 2018; Dirican & Erdil, 2020)
- Non-supervisory employees were more likely to be Hardi-individuals who are highly committed, and more in charge of their work life and life in general than their managerial counterparts. This implies that employees at managerial level require enhanced levels of hardiness (Chughtai & Rizvi, 2020; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2016).
- Non-managerial employees were more likely to have high levels of individual resilience dimensions (persistence, tenacity, self-efficacy, emotional and cognitive control) in comparison to managerial employees who were likely to have high levels of personal resilience dimensions (sense of mastery, sense of relatedness and emotional reactivity). This implies that employees at managerial level require enhanced personal resilience dimensions (Pillay, 2020; Tengblad & Oudhuis, 2018; Wiig & Fahlbruch, 2019).
- Managerial employees were more likely to have a higher level of meaningfulness of life and existential aloneness than their female counterparts in management positions with high levels of perseverance and self-reliance (Camp et al., 2020; Corlett & McConnachie, 2021; Vostanis et al., 2020).

7.1.1.4 Research aim 4:

H4: The theoretically hypothesised model has a good fit with the empirically manifested structural model.

Research aim 4: Based on the overall statistical relationship between the retention-related dispositions construct variables (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), to assess whether a good fit exists between the (1) elements of the empirically manifested structural model and (2) the theoretically hypothesised model. This research aim 4 was

achieved in Chapter 6. Strong supportive evidence was provided for Research Hypothesis H4.

Conclusion: Based on the empirical results, the following conclusions were drawn:

- This means that the individuals' socio-demographic variables, (their age, gender, race, marital status, job levels and employment status) impacted the direction or strength of the relationship dynamics between the individuals' organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness, in predicting their personal resilience within their jobs and their career adaptability. This indicates that socio-demographic variables played a significant role in directing the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness, in predicting resilience and career adaptability in individual employees. It is clearly indicated below that not all relationships were significant.
- The findings showed that only age, gender, marital status, employment status and job level showed a significant and positive moderated relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness in predicting resilience and career adaptability. This implies that race and employment status did not play a significant role between the organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness in predicting resilience and career adaptability.
- Race do not have a moderating effect on the link between organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness in predicting resilience and career adaptability. This implies that race and employment status did not play a significant role in the relationship between organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness in predicting resilience and career adaptability.
- Ultimately, the moderated mediation analysis showed that most of the socio-demographic variables indicated a moderate relationship between individuals' organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness in predicting their resilience and career adaptability. This indicates the essential and unique contribution of this research study, by highlighting the critical role that organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness play in the relationship between resilience and career adaptability.

7.1.1.5 Research aim 5:

To formulate recommendations for further research in the field of Human Resource Management and suggest further research strategies based on the findings of this study research.

Conclusion: Based on the empirical results, the following conclusions were drawn:

- It is essential for South African private sector organisations to design, implement and evaluate diverse and strong retention strategies in order to be able to retain highly talented employees to remain competitive.
- Organisational commitment and job embeddedness are regarded as significant factors increasing the eagerness of employees to stay in the organisation, because there are strong talent retention strategies and procedures.
- Human resource retention practices for staff with scarce and critical skills should emphasise competitive remuneration, monetary and non-monetary benefits and rewards, performance management and initiatives that enhance person-job-fit and person-organisation fit, morale, motivation and interpersonal relationship building initiatives to be able to attract, develop and retain highly talented employees.
- The psychological retention framework should combine all the dimensions of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability to design robust and holistic strategies for talent retention practices, because these five concepts are strong retention strategies.
- The psychological retention framework needs to utilise continuous learning and development programmes, focusing on the individual's learning and development needs at all times. An empirically tested framework was developed from the exploration of the relationship dynamics between the five constructs, to assist human resource managers and human resource practitioners.

Further research is critical for resilience because it is currently underdeveloped and has the raw potential to develop widely through research. A more multi-disciplinary and lifespan-oriented approach to the study of resilience is required, as this will assist in covering all the areas of resilience.

7.2 Conclusions relating to the literature study

This section discusses in detail the conclusions relating to the literature study.

7.2.1 Socio-demographic profile of the sample

As expounded in Section 5.4.1, the socio-demographic profile of the sample was predominantly represented by participants between the ages of 36 and 45 years, females, Black African, married, employment status and job level. The most predominant job levels in the sample were staff participants. Furthermore, the sample profile indicated that the majority

of the participants had been employed by the organisation for 6 to 10 years. The socio-demographic profile of the sample provided a fairly equal representation of both staff and full-time participants, longer tenured employees as well as employees from different age groups. Male participants as well as participants from Coloured and Indian/Asian ethnic origin groups were underrepresented, while most participants were permanently employed. Generally, the sample profile reflects the diverse South African private sector organisation population. In addition, the underrepresentation of certain groups was taken as a potential limitation of the current study. It should be emphasised that the results of the empirical study were understood as being relevant to the specific sample of participants and not the wider South African private sector organisations population. All the above-mentioned aspects concerning to the socio-demographic profile of the sample were accounted for in the explanation of the results and in the designing of the psychological retention framework for highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations.

7.2.2 Discussion of the descriptive statistics

This section discusses an interpretation and discussion of the mean scores reported for each of the five measurement instruments, OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS which were utilised in this current study, as reported in Chapter 6 (Section 6.4), Tables 6.13 to 6.17.

7.2.2.1 Sample profile of participants: Organisational commitment

Table 6.13 (Chapter 6) is appropriate to this section. In the mean scores of the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) (Meyer & Allen, 1991), the sample profile revealed that respondents felt that they had dedicated themselves fully to their jobs and organisations. Furthermore, as reflected in the standard deviation (SD) scores in terms of affective and continuance, the sample profile indicated that participants performed their jobs to the highest degree because they felt belonging towards their organisations. Therefore, participants felt they were part of the organisation and this motivated them to work even harder and dedicate themselves fully to their jobs.

The sample profile showed that respondents felt strong emotional attachment to the organisation, as well as moral and ethical obligations to remain with the organisation and the effects relating to leaving the organisation (Meyer et al., 1998). Conversely, the sample profile portrayed that participants who do not feel part of the organisation will find it difficult to internalise the values and goals of the organisation, which might lead the individual to feel out of place and eventually leave the organisation (Musriha, 2019).

In summary, when employees internalise the organisation's culture, values and goals, accept the mission, make efforts as part of the organisation and feel like a strong family member this results in making them feel that leaving their job is less attractive (Koc, 2018). On the other hand, when employees feel that their organisation has not strengthened the bond between the employee and the organisation, this might increase the absenteeism and result in higher staff turnover (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

7.2.2.2 Sample profile of participants: Job embeddedness

Table 6.14 is relevant to this section. The mean scores of Job Embeddedness Scale (JES) (Mitchell & Lee, 2001), indicated that respondents held positive perceptions about their work and community fit. This showed that respondents experienced highest levels of fit within their job, organisation and community. Previous researchers found that positive and strong fits between employees and their job, organisation and community, may have a positive impact on their job performance, engagement, locus of control and the intent to stay in the organisation (DeMatthews et al., 2022; Naidoo, 2018).

In terms of sacrifices or links, the sample profile indicated that respondents who have few or no links at all will be loosely connected to the organisation and will eventually leave the employing organisation. Respondents also noted that because of the privileges that they do not want to lose, the individual becomes immersed in the job and finds it difficult to leave the job (Pieters et al., 2022; You & Zhou, 2018). In addition, the sample profile showed that in terms of misfit with the organisational values, this will lead employees to terminate their employment faster than misfits with the community at large (Liu, 2018).

In conclusion, even though the respondents felt fairly positive about the job, organisation and community fit, they were concerned about misfits. Respondents were also not positive about the realisation that they might remain immersed in the organisation and job because of the fear of facing the challenges of looking for and finding a new job, moving into a new community and a new workplace.

7.2.2.3 Sample profile of participants: Hardiness

Table 6.15 (Chapter 6) is essential to this section. In terms of commitment, control and challenge, the mean scores of the Personal View Survey (PVS-III-R) (Maddi, 2006), and the sample profile indicated that respondents felt that there were moderate levels of commitment, control and challenge that assisted in building and shaping the individual's view of events in their lives and helped in alleviating the negative effects of stressful situations (Kobasa, 1985). Also, respondents showed that they often perceived that they could dedicate themselves fully

to whatever they are involved in, and truthfully and honestly work as if they can impact the actions developing their likes. In addition, the respondents showed that existential courage and motivation were critical in coping effectively, so as to avoid depression and anger. The respondents also showed that it was vital to remain confident and hopeful in order to develop hardy or resilient attitudes. Furthermore, respondents believed that life's interpersonal problems, challenges and issues can be controlled and that they must be utilised as opportunities to grow and advance in life (Kobasa, 1985). On the other hand, the mean score of the profile indicated that those respondents who are not fully committed or who are mediocre, might find it very difficult to find purpose and meaning in life and will not be fully engrossed in the activities of their daily lives.

In conclusion, the sample profile in terms of commitment, control and challenge showed that respondents were influential, confident, courageous and in charge amid difficult situations of life and they felt that they could tackle the situation sufficiently and effectively on their own (Chui et al., 2022; Falah et. el., 2020). The sample profile in terms of Hardi-resilient style and high challenge individuals showed high mean scores, and yet on the other hand, low committed, control and challenge individuals indicated low mean scores (Bartone et al., 2018; Hossenli et al., 2022).

7.2.2.4 Sample profile of participants: Resilience

Table 6.16 (Chapter 6) is relevant to this section. The findings from the mean score of the Employee Resilience Scale (EmpRes) (Naswall, et al., 2013), concluded that respondents gave high scores on most of the values for each sub-scale. Respondents rated the statements based on their self-perceived employee resilience. Additionally, most of the values of each sub-scale were towards the value 9 indicating full engagement in resilient behaviours and strongly indicating how respondents managed challenges that arise as part of their role. Thus, the sample profile in terms of employees with greater levels of resilient believed that they can easily transform risky conditions into an opportunity for growth. Furthermore, the respondents with high scores of resilience indicated that they are healthier, more positive and optimistic and have more mature, good and genuine relationships, than the non-resilient individuals (Kinay et al., 2021). Low scores of resilience in the profile indicated that the individuals with low levels of resilience might not be able to recover in the midst of difficult situations and might not be able to transform risky situations into growth opportunities. The sample profile also showed that the resilient values which respondents found the most appealing, were perseverance and self-reliance. More specifically, respondents showed that perseverance and persistence empowered them with a strong and clear direction and purpose in life, and the tenacity to become highly productive (Biri, 2022; Hezel et al., 2022)

In conclusion, pertaining to respondents' meaningfulness of life, the sample profile indicated that employees showed high levels of meaningfulness of life. Furthermore, the sample profile respondents believed that employee resilience explores a dynamic and diverse way of functioning, characterised by a profound sense of meaningfulness, perseverance, self-reliance, equanimity and existential "aleness", that helps employees to live, succeed in life and to develop, despite challenging and unpleasant situations (Heredia et al., 2022; Lissoni et al., 2020).

7.2.2.5 Sample profile of participants: Career adaptability

Table 6.17 (Chapter 6) is relevant to this segment. The results from the mean score of the Career Adaptability Scale (CAS) (Savickas, 1997), showed that respondents gave high scores on most of the subscales. Thus, the sample profile regarding career concern respondents indicated that they were satisfied with life-long learning because it shapes their career development, career direction, career education and also enhances a sense of personal development, talent and potential. Furthermore, the sample profile showed that C of the 4Cs with which respondents felt the most satisfied, was confidence.

The sample profile revealed that respondents gave moderate scores on career control specifically focusing on career choices and optimism. This was also the time that the respondents realised that they can easily be caught in career indecision, confusion and instability (Nikander et al., 2022; Obe, 2021). In relation to career curiosity, the sample profile showed that the respondents gave the lowest scores on curiosity. This indicates that the respondents did not rate career curiosity as important when compared to the other 4Cs of career adaptability, which may have a serious effect on career adaptability. Regarding the mean scores for confidence, the sample profile indicated that respondents felt satisfied, especially in the area of achieving their goals. In relation to career cooperation, the sample outline showed that the respondents gave a moderate score on cooperation, indicating that they believed in their control, self-reliance, self-confidence and resilience over events regardless of unfavourable situations (Parola & Marcionetti, 2021; Rasheed et al., 2022)

In conclusion, regarding respondents' satisfaction with the 4Cs of career adaptability, the sample profile indicated that employees with high levels of career adaptability would be able to face career demands head-on with vigour and relevant responses. On the other hand, the sample profile also indicated that individuals with low levels of the 4Cs of career adaptability would not be able to face career challenges.

7.2.2.6 Overall findings of the profile

In summary, the sample outline on the different scales showed that respondents felt that they had fully dedicated themselves to their jobs and they also felt that they had performed at their best level, because they felt deep belonging towards their organisations. Respondents also experienced highest levels of fit within their job, organisation and community. In addition, respondents showed that they often perceived that they could dedicate themselves fully in whatever they were involved in, and work truthfully and honestly, as if they could impact the actions developing their links. The respondents also showed that it was vital to remain confident and hopeful so as to develop Hardi-attitudes. Furthermore, the sample profile showed that the resilient values which respondents felt were the most appealing were perseverance and self-reliance. More specifically respondents showed that persevering and persistence empowered them with a strong and clear direction and purpose in life, increased their tenacity and therefore they became highly productive. Regarding respondents' satisfaction with the 4Cs of career adaptability, the sample profile indicated the employees with high levels of career adaptability would be able to face career demands head-on with vigour and relevant responses. Ultimately, respondents indicated that they were dissatisfied with their career curiosity and career cooperation, yet on the other hand they experienced their career concern, career control and career confidence positively. These issues indicated in terms of the sample outline were seriously considered and implemented when designing the psychological retention framework for the retention of highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations.

In terms of the literature review the major aim of this research study was to deeply explore whether a relationship exists between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) (independent variables), in relation to resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) (dependent variable). Another aim was to establish whether a psychological retention framework can be developed to inform talent retention practices for South African private sector organisations. The study further aimed to determine whether individuals from different ages, gender, race, marital status, job levels and employment status groups differ with regard to these variables and the effect thereof on talent retention in the South African private sector organisations in the modern world of work. With regard to each of the unique literature research aims, the following conclusions were drawn in terms of the relationship dynamics between the current research concepts:

7.2.3 Research aim 1: To conceptualise talent retention practices and strategies in the South African private sector organisations context.

This first literature aim was achieved in Chapter 2.

Currently South African private sector organisations are challenged with rapid developments, such as demographic changes, workforce diversity, ageing workforce and generational diversity, the fourth industrial revolution (4IR) and globalisation (Chakraborty et al., 2022; Cui et al., 2018; Dubey et al., 2021; Gani, 2017). These developments have serious consequences for the supervision of talent retention practices in South African private sector organisations (Cui et al., 2018; Hoque et al., 2022; Muthusamy, 2018; Safari et al., 2021). Furthermore, South Africa's private sector organisations are also encountering essential universal shortage of expertise and skills, specifically in the retention of the country's highly competent and talented workforce (Davis & Frolova, 2019; Saurombe & Barkhuizen, 2022). The following discussions, based on the literature review, can be made about workforce diversity and retention in the diverse and multi-cultural South African private sector organisations:

(a) Retention in the diverse and multi-cultural South African private sector organisations:

- The retention of highly talented and gifted employees continues to be a vexing and formidable problem and is the greatest challenge faced by many South African private sector organisations in the modern world of work, because of high levels of turnover (Dhanalak & Gurunathan, 2018; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Uzochukwu et al., 2018).
- Employee retention is therefore very essential to meet organisational goals and production needs and to try curbing employee turnover that can impact negatively on the organisation's productivity and profitability (Maisiri & Van Dyk, 2021; Makhubela, 2017). It is imperative for South African private sector organisations to attract, acquire, develop and keep their talented, top performers and skilled in order to be competitive (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Makhubela, 2017; Muthusamy, 2018).
- Robust and holistic retention strategies should be crafted and implemented to stop highly talented and competent employees from leaving the organisation, based on the factors that motivate employees to either leave or stay (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Muthusamy, 2018).

- Comprehensive and competitive compensation packages, training and development opportunities, recognition on individual level, managerial and supervisor support, health and well-being, organisational culture and a strong employer branding were shown as essential and critical factors that would attract and keep productive and highly competent individuals to an organisation (Al-Lozi et al., 2018; Martinez-Moran et al., 2021; Mihalcea, 2017; Mone & London, 2018; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021).
- It is imperative to prioritise, formalise and establish a learning and development retention framework in order to enhance the retention of employees.
- Age, gender, race, marital status, employment level and job level have been recognised as biographical variables that have an influence on the retention of highly talented employees (Holt & Davis, 2022; Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020; Jigjiddorj et al., 2021; Kilchrist, 2020; Kinay et al., 2021; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Tabu & Nura, 2020).
- Internships were concluded as the most powerful strategies used to attract, acquire, develop, nurture and retain new and young talented employees, who will be ready to remain relevant in the midst of the challenges of the fourth industrial revolution (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Konstanek & Khoreva, 2018; Mwila & Turay 2018).

(b) Multigenerational workforce in South African private sector organisations

- When workforce diversity is effectively and efficiently managed, it may have positive and significant outcomes for an organisation, such as improved organisational performance and competitiveness (Bussin et al., 2019; Cascio, 2018; Ncube, 2016; Sessoms-Penny, 2022). If workforce diversity is not managed effectively and efficiently, it may result in demotivation, demoralisation, absenteeism, intergroup conflict and employee turnover which will have an influence on the competitiveness of the organisation (Hosen et al., 2018; Kajwang, 2022; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021).
- Workforce diversity is a daunting retention challenge faced by organisations globally and South African private sector organisations are not an exception with regard to crafting work environments that will be able to attract and retain both younger and older generations. South African private sector organisations are currently operating in an uncertain and unpredictable business environment characterised by an aging workforce, generational differences, gender, ethnicity and life pursuits (Bussin et al., 2019; Cascio, 2018; Hayat et al., 2022; Hosen et al. 2018; Ncube, 2016; Tarique et al., 2022).
- Myriads of generations (aging workforce, generational differences, gender, ethnicity and life pursuits) with different values, desires and expectations are currently working together in the workplace more than ever before, from generations X and Y, to “Veterans” and Baby

Boomers. South African private sector organisations must be able to craft and implement holistic and robust retention policies and strategies in order to be able to accommodate, be sensitive to and careful about the dissimilarities and diverse needs of this multigenerational workforce and to be able to attract, acquire and keep them (Cascio, 2018; Felix, 2016; Hosen et al., 2018; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021; Sessoms-Penny, 2022).

- A multigenerational workforce has different needs, wants and values as their conduct, attitudes towards work and expectations are influenced by their specific and unique culture, traditions and life events and strong feelings of dissatisfaction and disappointment will arise if these expectations are not met (Cascio, 2018; Felix, 2016; Hayat et al., 2022; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021).

It is clear that the identification of multigenerational characteristics and their effects on work-related variables might give a strong talent retention framework to help in the efficient and effective recruitment, selection and retention of highly talented employees from a multigenerational workforce in South African private sector organisations (Felix, 2016; Hayat et al., 2022; Hosen et al. 2018). If the needs, values and preferences of multigenerational cohorts in the multigenerational workplace were fully understood, human resource managers, human resource practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists would be better prepared to establish holistic retention policies and strategies to meet the diverse needs of the current South African private sector organisations' diverse workforce (Bussin et al., 2019; Cascio, 2018; Khan et al., 2022).

In conclusion, the literature study indicated that the retention of highly talented and gifted employees continues to be a vexing and formidable problem and is the greatest challenge faced by many South African private sector organisations, because of high levels of turnover. Furthermore, the literature review stipulated that these retention challenges might be as a result of diverse reasons and factors, such as an unfriendly work environment, unsupportive managers or supervisors, unrealistic expectations of the organisation, uncompetitive remuneration and benefits packages, limited recognition, rewards and promotion opportunities, job insecurity, limited training, growth and development opportunities, limited career development opportunities, unreliable performance management systems, unstable work/life balance and flexible scheduling, lack of resources and an overload of demands placed on employees.

In addition, the literature study also revealed that the content of the organisational commitment is made up of employee affective commitment, employee normative commitment and employee continuance commitment. The organisational commitment, designed by employees'

attitudes and perceptions within the particular workplace setting, especially the relationship between the organisation and employee, has a significant effect on the retention of highly talented and gifted employees. The literature study also indicated that job embeddedness comprises two unique forces, namely, fit and sacrifice or links, and is strongly related to organisational commitment. The literature study further revealed that the unique dimensions of organisational commitment and job embeddedness are vital elements which might influence and impact HR retention practices, procedures and policies. The literature study identified the following as the most important, robust and holistic talent retention strategies to retain high-calibre employees: employer branding, competitive compensation and benefits, friendly work environment, supportive managers and supervisors, continuous learning and development, challenging work, career development, recognition and rewards, training and development, stable work-life balance and flexible scheduling.

Ultimately, the literature review indicated that it is essential to consider individuals' socio-demographics when designing and implementing talent retention strategies to address the high turnover levels in South African private sector organisations. Furthermore, the literature review stipulated that individuals from various ages, gender, racial, marital status, job levels and employment status groups differ in terms of their perceptions of the organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness in predicting their levels of resilience and career adaptability within their specific organisation.

7.2.4 Research aim 2: To conceptualise retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) in the context of talent management and talent retention.

The second literature aim was achieved in Chapter 3 and part of Chapter 4.

- The critical role of organisational commitment is to bind the employees with organisations affectively, normatively and in continuance, and also motivate, encourage and empower employees to stay with the employing organisation (Bihani et al., 2019; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mustafa et al., 2022). The individuals then become fully loyal, dedicated and committed (spiritually, emotionally and psychologically) to the organisation and become like family. Organisational commitment is critical because it deeply binds the employee and the organisation and as a result this decreases employee turnover and absenteeism, whereas lack of organisational commitment will result in high levels of employee turnover

and absenteeism. Organisational commitment profoundly supports goals, values, ambitions, needs and the accountability to stay. Organisational commitment further inspires, challenges and empowers employees to be faithful, trustworthy and loyal, and to internalise the organisational culture, values, norms, objectives, vision, mission and goals thereby becoming a strong family member (Alsughayir, 2021; Nam & Lan, 2022; Paul et al., 2016). Demographic variables such as age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level were found to have a profound influence on the development of organisational commitment.

- Job embeddedness was conceptualised as incorporating closely-knit binding forces namely: work fit, work links, work sacrifices, community fit, community links and community sacrifices (Holtom & Darabi, 2018; Khan et al., 2022; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Safavi, 2021; Sieraadj, 2018). It is concluded that these forces bind and keep individuals in their organisations and jobs. It is thus posited that it is due to these privileges that an employee becomes enmeshed in his/her job and organisation and thus it will become very difficult to leave the job (Felps et al., 2009; Ismail et al., 2021; Pieters et al., 2022; You & Zhou, 2018). It is therefore concluded that most of the individuals might remain in their organisations and jobs for the wrong reasons due to fear of the unknown and ambiguity. It is pointed out that even though job embeddedness is a casual, staying and retention concept, it also has the potential to affect employees negatively (Lee et al., 2014; Ng & Feldman, 2013; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). It is further acknowledged that embedded employees might end up being stagnant and lack personal growth and career progression. It is noted that age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level positively affect the development of job embeddedness.
- Hardiness was conceptualised as comprising closely-knit Hardi-attitudes of commitment, control and challenge that serve to lessen the negative impacts of challenging and stressful life situations (Maddi et al., 1999; Maddi, 2006; Sheard & Golby, 2006). Maddi (2002) reported that these Hardi-attitudes (the courage to grow from stress) lead to enhanced leadership, performance, morale, stamina and good health even under immense stress (Maddi, 2002). Theoretical models that have proved that hardiness is one of the strongest and most important stress and burnout resilience concepts that will inspire, invigorate, empower and challenge individuals to change disruptive and stressful events into opportunities to grow, were discussed. This will enhance employees' physical and mental health and make them strong to face difficult situations within their South African private sector organisations and also globally, especially during this time of lockdown and battling with Covid-19, where people are losing their lives in huge numbers and losing jobs and the economy is ailing. Variables influencing the development of hardiness were deeply

explored. It was found that age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job level positively affect the development of hardiness:

- Resilience deepens the individual's ability to use their cultural resources, social and psychological, in recovering back from adversity, uncertainty, conflict and failure encountered during daunting circumstances (Camp et al., 2020; Cunningham, 2018; D'onofrio & Emery, 2019; Heredia et al., 2022; King et al., 2021). Individuals with high psychological resilience can easily transform risky conditions into an opportunity for growth (Abe et al., 2019; Linnenluecke, 2017; Miller-Graff, 2022; Pessoa et al., 2018; Sagone et al., 2020). Resilient individuals are healthier, usually positive and optimistic, and have more mature, good and genuine relationships than the non-resilient individuals (Caniels & Baaten, 2019; de la Pena, 2016; Hartmann et al., 2022; Kinay et al., 2021; Kuntz et al., 2017; Polizzi et al., 2020). Thus, resilience entails individual variations in response to risk and as such, it is necessary to recognise that people can experience the same stressors differently and therefore may require differing resources (Braun et al., 2017; Frei-Landau, 2020; Kuntz et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2022). Several researchers went on to emphasise that low resilience to adversity puts individuals at higher risk of developing psychiatric problems; with depression, anxiety, fear, grief and conduct disorder being the most common (Barnard & Furtak, 2020; Eken, 2019; Ford et al., 2020; Hezel et al., 2022; Kravchuk, 2021; Moore et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2018). Research studies conclude that resilience is the strength to cope with, overcome and adapt to traumatic experiences, rebuild oneself, grow and move on with life (Bene et al., 2017; Cao et al., 2018; Eisenberg et al., 2016; Heredia et al., 2022; Nhemachena et al., 2020; Parker, 2018). Empirical evidence added that resilience is composed of trust, control, acceptance of change and optimism and it is a social factor that exists in teams and groups (Aldrich, 2017; Mary et al., 2020; Miller-Graff, 2022; Sakar and Fletcher, 2016; Seery & Quinton, 2016; Stuntzner, 2016; Yahan & Wenjie, 2021). Resilience also includes ethical, spiritual and religious resources which enlighten and encourage people to proactively face unpleasant situations and remain robust and persevering in difficult circumstances through fostering their spiritual assets and skills (Alola & Alola, 2018; Bill, 2020; Collins, 2015; Harry, 2015; Marshall & Pichette, 2017; Rosa, 2020; Zhang et al., 2022). Employee resilience will assist individuals and South African private sector organisations to turn traumatic and stressful events from potential disasters into opportunities for growth through conquering challenges (Barnard & Furtak, 2020; Theron, 2020). Biri (2020) goes on to reiterate that employee resilience is paramount in bringing healing and strength to those burdened by the effects of challenging events, to persevere and find meaning or purpose to continue living in the midst of traumatic and stressful events, and this will result in employees staying in their jobs. Secondly, it emphasises that employee resilience improves people's attitudes

and outlooks, self-awareness, and coping skills, promotes meaning and purpose, develops inner strength, and increases tenacity and perseverance (Liu et al., 2017; Nadrowska et al., 2020; Stuntzner et al., 2020; Wagnild & Younger, 1990; Zhang et al., 2022).

- Career adaptability entails clear competencies, beliefs, skills, experiences, expertise, and attitudes that improve and deepen the specific adapting behaviours used to control traumas, occupational changes and developmental tasks (Fox 2018; Parola & Marcionetti, 2021; Purwoko et al., 2020; Savickas & Porfeli, 2011; 2012). Savickas (1997; 2005) identified these four close-knit dimensions as concern, control, curiosity and confidence. In summary, the old and traditional models assisted deeply in comprehending the origin of career adaptability. These old models also assisted in finding, developing, shaping, polishing, describing and analysing career maturity into career adaptability. Savickas' (1997) career adaptability model is made up of four adaptability resources or adaptive strategies (concern, control, curiosity and confidence or cooperation) that will assist individuals to remain optimistic and be able to turn pain into hope in the midst of challenging circumstances. It is imperative for individuals to deploy these four adaptive dimensions to be successful in their careers. These four adaptive dimensions encompass each other with a unique set of specific attitudes, beliefs and competencies, that will allow individuals to cope with daunting work demands. Conversely, individuals with low levels of these career adaptability dimensions might not be able to cope in the midst of difficult situations. The fundamental model of career adaptability is calling, empowering and challenging South African private sector organisations to realise that career adaptability is vital because it offers unwavering support, nurturing sustainable optimism and it prepares individuals for successful and prosperous lives as they navigate this unpredictable, uncertain and volatile business world. It is paramount for organisations to extensively develop career adaptability in order to profoundly support goals, values, ambitions, needs and the accountability to stay. Career adaptability, work preparedness, hope, optimism, resilience and time perspective all play a key role in work life and have an impact on individual well-being. Savickas et al. (2009) pointed out that career counselling, guidance and coaching as part of career intervention is important at this stage in order to assist in designing lives that are conducive to helping individuals to manage repeated career transitions when they are faced with challenges, in order to meet the needs of the globalised and high-tech unpredictable landscape. Career concern: it is vital to realise that life-long learning is paramount because it shapes one's career development, career direction and career education, and enhances a sense of personal development, talent and potential (Karatepe et al., 2021; Maggiori et al., 2017; Rasheed et al., 2022; Rudolph et al., 2017a; Savickas & Porfeli, 2011; 2012). Career control: This is a critical time for career choices, bigger and unique opportunities, assertiveness, discipline, wilfulness and

optimism (Eva et al., 2020; Muleya et al., 2022; Rasheed, 2020). Furthermore, career control is about having diverse and robust knowledge, commitment, dedication and information to decision-making strategies about one's career (Berg et al., 2018; Francisco & Castano, 2020; Henderson & Thompson, 2016; Porfeli & Savickas, 2012; Putri & Dewi, 2022; Seymour et al., 2018). Career curiosity: is when individuals inquire and comprehend about their life career roles, the use of their resources, awareness and institutional affiliations (Bingol & Cakir, 2021; Chen et al., 2022; Henderson & Thompson, 2016; Tinajero-Pacheco, 2018). Ultimately, career curiosity calls for self-exploration, occupational exploration, risk taking, inquiring, experimenting, proactivity, resilience, self-determination, self-efficacy and self-motivation in order to succeed in one's career (Berg et al., 2018; Guan et al., 2018; Kirchknopf, 2020; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022; Reardon et al., 2017; Savickas, 2016). Career confidence/cooperation: several researchers went on to emphasise that career resilience expedites a high level of resilience, belief in one's control, self-reliance, networks, openness to new opportunities, change, self-confidence, and adaptability over events regardless of unfavourable situations (Eryilmaz et al., 2020; Chui et al., 2022; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Sullivan & Ariss, 2021; Wang et al., 2018). Furthermore, career cooperation or confidence stresses the employee's profound emotions of self-efficacy to plan, organise and perform the jobs required to succeed in one's career goals to achieve his/her career goals (Savickas et al., 2018; Tokar et al., 2020).

In conclusion, the literature review expounded organisational commitment as emotional attachment towards the organisational, moral and ethical obligation to remain in the organisation and the acknowledgement of the effects relating to leaving the organisation. In addition, the literature review indicated that South African private sector organisations need to train, develop and manage their employees in such a manner as to ensure that they have a strong affective, continuance and normative commitment towards the organisation, in order to retain their highly talented employees.

Furthermore, the literature review revealed that job embeddedness is theoretically comprised of organisation and community dimensions, that mostly motivate, challenge and encourage individuals to remain with the employing organisation. The literature review reiterated that job embeddedness was found to be a strong predictor of talent retention globally. The literature review went on to indicate that it is the profound sense of commitment, control and challenge that assists in building and shaping people's views of events in their lives and this helps in alleviating the negative effects of stressful situations. Yet on the other hand, the literature review concluded that individuals with underdeveloped 3 Cs of hardiness will not be able to

go through tough life situations calmly, and they will live an unbalanced life; and these are the individuals who might be difficult to retain. It is essential for organisations to implement training and development that will help these individuals to develop the 3 Cs of hardiness.

Moreover, the literature review indicated that employee resilience focuses on constructive change, mastery, restorative powers and the potential for development that remains within the individual within daunting situations. In addition, the literature review revealed that resilience will inspire individuals to be positive, optimistic, have more mature, good and genuine relationships unlike the non-resilient individuals. It is essential for South African private sector organisations to develop learning-oriented, collaborative and supportive work environments to promote employees' resilience in order to be able to retain highly talented and resilient employees.

Lastly, the literature review revealed that the 4Cs of career adaptability offer unwavering support, optimism, turning pain into faith, hope, nurturing, sustaining and preparing individuals for prosperous and successful lives, thereby challenging and changing the private sector business landscape. Career adaptability assists individuals to stay in their jobs and organisations.

Ultimately, South African private sector organisations should take into consideration that different individuals will have different levels of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability, and these differences must be considered when developing, implementing and evaluating the talent retention strategies and policies.

7.2.5 Research aim 3: To conceptualise the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability), as well as strategies influencing retention and the elements of the theoretical psychological retention framework that emerged from the relationship dynamics.

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and job embeddedness***

Organisational commitment increases the embeddedness of individuals to remain in an organisation. There is a deep relationship between organisational commitment and job embeddedness, and individuals' choices to stay with or quit an organisation (Alsughayir, 2021; Khan et al., 2022; Nam & Lan, 2022). Organisational commitment and job embeddedness often change into holistic and robust retention policies and strategies, that strongly impact the retention of superior and highly talented employees that South African private sector organisations are being challenged to use in order to keep qualified and highly talented individuals (Bihani et al., 2019; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mustafa et al., 2022). Employees high in continuance, normative and affective commitment may be deeply immersed in their jobs and will stay in the organisation.

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and hardiness***

There may be a profound relationship between organisational commitment and hardiness and there are valuable predictors of employee retention practices or decisions to leave the job. Employees with high levels of affective, normative and continuance commitment have high levels of Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge, and organisations would want to retain such employees (Maddi et al., 1999; Maddi, 2006; Sheard & Golby, 2006; Paul et al., 2016).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and resilience***

Organisational commitment and resilience may be deeply related and can strongly help in the retention of highly talented individuals. Organisational commitment may be a vital feature of the resilience of individuals, consequently, individuals with high levels of organisational commitment are resilient and easy to keep. Employees who are affectively committed trigger their underdeveloped adaptive competencies to face head-on challenging and stressful circumstances (Abe et al., 2019; Alsughayir, 2021; Linnenluecke, 2017; Miller-Graff, 2022; Nam & Lan, 2022).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between organisational commitment and career adaptability.***

There may be a positive and strong connection between affective commitment and career adaptability, because career adaptability assists in the advancement of affective commitment, and employees who are satisfied with their careers are shown to have higher levels of affective commitment. Organisational commitment may influence career adaptability's effect on occupational change, however, high levels of organisational commitment mean that employees stay in their organisations, resulting in high levels of retention (Alsughayir, 2021; Purwoko et al., 2020; Savickas & Porfeli, 2011; 2012) Organisational commitment and career adaptability may be the most unique and strongest talent retention strategies that organisations need to utilise extensively in attracting and retaining their most talented and skilled employees. Employees with greater levels of organisational commitment may also have greater levels of career adaptability (Fox 2018; Nam & Lan, 2022; Parola & Marcionetti, 2021).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between job embeddedness and organisational commitment***

Job embeddedness may be strongly linked to organisational commitment and the intention to remain. Employees stay in their organisations because they might be so immersed in their jobs that they don't see any reason to leave their organisations. Job embeddedness may increase the affective, normative and continuance commitment of employees to stay in an organisation (Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Mustafa et al., 2022; Safavi, 2021;). Highly embedded employees might be affectively attached to the organisation. Job embeddedness may be strongly related to organisational commitment, because employees immersed in their jobs may be deeply embedded in their organisations; their jobs are nested in their organisations (Holtom & Darabi, 2018; Khan et al., 2022). Individuals with high levels of job embeddedness may be contented with their work, and have greater levels of organisational commitment. The greater the relationship between job embeddedness and the organisational commitment, the more likely it is that employees will be committed to the organisation, immersed in their jobs and easy to retain. Job embeddedness may be strongly related to organisational commitment and they both often translate into higher retention strategies (Bihani et al., 2019; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Sieraadj, 2018).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between job embeddedness and hardiness***

Individuals immersed in their jobs might have greater levels of Hardi-challenge, Hardi-control and Hardi-commitment, therefore would be easy to retain. Employees with high levels of job embeddedness might be motivated, Hardi-headed, and highly talented to complete their jobs correctly and perfectly and remain with the organisations (Maddi et al., 1999; Maddi, 2006; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). Job embeddedness combined with hardiness may develop into holistic and robust talent retention policies and strategies that will encourage, empower and inspire individuals to remain immersed in their work and will be easier to keep them (Lee et al., 2014; Ng & Feldman, 2013; Sheard & Golby, 2006).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between job embeddedness and resilience***

Job embeddedness and resilience may be deeply connected; highly embedded individuals might be both tenacious and resilient, and remain immersed in their organisations and jobs and may be easier to keep (Heredia et al., 2022; King et al., 2021; Ismail et al., 2021; Pieters et al., 2022).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between job embeddedness and career adaptability***

Employees who are immersed in their work might be profoundly grounded in career adaptability, may be more involved in adaptive behaviours and might be easier to keep. Individuals with greater levels of sacrifice or links and fit may be solid in career adaptability and easier to keep (Eva et al., 2020; Muleya et al., 2022; Safavi, 2021; Sieraadj, 2018). This means that job embeddedness may impact career adaptability's influence on occupational change. However, deep levels of job embeddedness may challenge individuals to remain in their organisation, this may result in greater levels of retention. Ultimately, job embeddedness and career adaptability may change into holistic and robust retention strategies and policies (Holtom & Darabi, 2018; Khan et al., 2022; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Rasheed, 2020).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between hardiness and organisational commitment***

Individuals with Hardi-personality might have greater levels of organisational commitment and will remain in their organisations. Organisational commitment and hardiness may have a strong and positive influence on the retention of competent and talented individuals (D'onofrio & Emery, 2019; Heredia et al., 2022). Hardiness may be closely related to organisational commitment and might unite into strong retention policies and strategies. Hardi-headed individuals might have greater levels of affective, normative and continuance commitment, might be highly dedicated to their work and will stay in the organisation (King et al., 2021; Nam & Lan, 2022; Paul et al., 2016).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between hardiness and job embeddedness***

Individuals with greater levels of Hardi-attitudes might be deeply embedded in their work and will stay in the organisation and it may be easier to keep them (Miller-Graff, 2022; Pessoa et al., 2018). Additionally, Hardi-headed employees have greater levels of job embeddedness and are highly retainable. Hardiness and job embeddedness may be closely related and may be changed into strong and holistic retention practices (Abe et al., 2019; Linnenluecke, 2017; Sagone et al., 2020).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between hardiness and resilience***

Hardiness and resilience may be closely related to each other as both concepts affect an individual's mental health and well-being. Hardiness is a psychological characteristic connected to good performance, good health and resilience in the midst of difficult situations and daunting or stressful events (Aldrich, 2017; Mary et al., 2020; Sheard & Golby, 2006). There may be a strong and positive relationship between hardiness and resilience because hardiness is a pathway to becoming resilient under stressful and traumatic circumstances. Hardiness and resilience may be deeply connected as both constructs have been found to mitigate and buffer the effects of traumatic life situations and assist employees to remain in the organisation (Maddi, 2006; Miller-Graff, 2022; Sakar and Fletcher, 2016). Hardi-individuals might be resilient and persistent and will probably not leave the organisation easily. A Hardi-resilient style person might have high levels of resilience and may stay in the

organisation. Hardiness and resilience may be one of the strongest retention policies and strategies that might assist in retaining highly talented individuals.

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between hardiness and career adaptability***

There may be a profound link between hardiness and career adaptability and are holistic and robust retention strategies that may assist organisations to keep talented individuals. Individuals with greater levels of Hardi-attitudes may have grounded levels of career adaptability and may remain in the organisation (Camp et al., 2020; Fox 2018; Parola & Marcionetti, 2021). Furthermore, Hardi-personality individuals might be highly career oriented and career adaptive. Hardi-attitudes and career adaptability joined may be a robust and holistic retention strategy (Miller-Graff, 2022; Purwoko et al., 2020). Ultimately, Hardi-individuals might be adaptive in their jobs and organisations, will definitely remain with the organisation.

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between resilience and organisational commitment***

Resilience and organisational commitment may be deeply connected. The positive connection between resilience and organisational commitment play a critical part in the retention of highly talented and competent employees. Additionally, resilience may be profoundly related to affective and normative commitment (Frei-Landau, 2020; Meyer & Allen, 1997;). Employees with higher levels of resilient might have greater levels of continuance commitment and may be easier to keep. Resilient individuals might be able to experience meaningful life in whatever they do, and this deep sense of purpose in their job has been determined to be the major source of organisational commitment (Kuntz et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2022). Resilience may predict organisational commitment, and it is only through highly dedicated individuals who may be competent and talented that organisations can become competitive (Braun et al., 2017; Mustafa et al., 2022). Ultimately, tenacious and resilient individuals may be deeply dedicated to their work, and may be easier to keep.

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between resilience and job embeddedness***

Highly resilient individuals might be deeply embedded in their work and they may find it challenging to quit their work. Furthermore, the confidence of resilient individuals in their job and in themselves may empower them with the strong embeddedness to remain with the organisation (Heredia et al., 2022; Khan et al., 2022; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Nhemachena et al., 2020).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between resilience and hardiness***

Resilient individuals may be seen as having robust Hardi-attitudes. Highly resilient individuals may be equal to Hardi-resilient style persons who might stay in the organisation and may be easier to keep (Heredia et al., 2022; Sheard & Golby, 2006).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between resilience and career adaptability***

Resilience may be closely related with career adaptability. Highly tenacious and resilient individuals may have greater levels of career adaptability, and they may do whatever it takes to remain in the organisation and develop their careers steadily (Hartmann et al., 2022; Kinay et al., 2021; Savickas & Porfeli, 2011; 2012; Rasheed et al., 2022). Additionally, resilience may inspire and motivate individuals to change quickly and use adaptive responses amid challenging and stressful events and stay with the organisation. Resilient individuals persevere and persist through daunting and challenging situations, and may also show organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, and career adaptability in their abilities which might lead to increased levels of retention policies and practices (Barnard & Furtak, 2020; Muleya et al., 2022; Theron, 2020). Ultimately, when employee resilience is combined with career adaptability may become an essential retention strategy.

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between career adaptability and organisational commitment***

There may be a profound positive relationship between career adaptability and organisational commitment. Career adaptability may increase the organisational commitment of individuals

towards their jobs, decrease job losses and increase retention (Eva et al., 2020; Muleya et al., 2022; Nam & Lan, 2022; Rasheed, 2020). Individuals with high levels of career adaptability might be affectively, normatively and continually committed to the organisation and easy to retain. Ultimately, individuals with high levels of career adaptability may be fully committed to their jobs, and are easier to retain because they may want to remain with the organisation (Alsughayir, 2021; Bingol & Cakir, 2021; Chen et al., 2022).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between career adaptability and job embeddedness***

The 4Cs of career adaptability combined with job embeddedness may help in retaining highly talented individuals. Highly adaptive employees might be immersed in their work and may stay in the organisation (Eryilmaz et al., 2020; Chui et al., 2022; Philip & Medina-Craven, 2022). These individuals may enjoy their fit in the organisation, community and job, may have connections within the community and organisation, and they may stay with the organisation because it will be tough to give-up all these relationships. Highly career adaptive individuals might be highly dedicated and embedded in their work; they may be Hardi-headed individuals and resilient (Lee et al., 2014; Ng & Feldman, 2013; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between career adaptability and hardiness***

Career adaptability and its 4Cs may be strongly related to the 3Cs of hardiness, in that employees with high levels of career adaptability may have high levels of Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge in handling their jobs and careers, and may remain in the organisation (Chen et al., 2022; Maddi, 2006). These 7Cs might be critical in retaining talented and competent individuals. Highly adaptive employees may have high levels of Hardi-commitment, Hardi-control and Hardi-challenge. Career adaptability and hardiness may inspire and motivate individuals to stay in the organisation (Sheard & Golby, 2006; Bingol & Cakir, 2021).

- ***Discussions relating to the theoretical relationship between career adaptability and resilience***

Career adaptability may be positively interconnected to resilience, especially in that high career adaptability individuals may be resilient and may persevere in their jobs and remain

with the organisation. Career adaptability may be a profound adaptive and resilient resource that encourages employees to adjust, persevere and deal with traumas and career transitions in daunting circumstances and to stay with the organisation (Henderson & Thompson, 2016; Tinajero-Pacheco, 2018; Zhang et al., 2022). Adaptability is resilience; it may create and promote adaptive responses to stressful situations and may strengthen employees to remain with the organisation. Career adaptability encompasses individuals' resilience and tenacity, thereby assisting employees to manage their careers in order to remain in the organisation (Hezel et al., 2022; Kirchknopf, 2020; Ozdemir & Koc, 2022). The 4Cs of career adaptability may be positively related to resilience, especially in that career adaptability may assist, prepare, nurture, sustain, motivate and support individuals' hope for a prosperous life as they plan their career and remain in the organisation. High levels of adaptability may facilitate career resilience and may strengthen individuals to remain with the organisation. Career adaptability may be deeply shown in the rapid-changing demands of organisations who may continuously look for an adaptive, committed, flexible, proactive, embedded, Hardi-personality, resilient and retainable workforce (Chui et al., 2022; Eryilmaz et al., 2020; Heredia et al., 2022).

Ultimately, career adaptability may be strongly linked to organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness and resilience, and each disposition may play a critical role in retaining highly talented individuals. These positive relationship dynamics between the constructs may have an influence on the retention of highly talented individuals. Organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability may be strong and holistic retention strategies, that may motivate, empower and strengthen employees to remain in their jobs and organisations (Chui et al., 2022; Eryilmaz et al., 2020).

In conclusion, based on the literature review, an integrated theoretical psychological retention framework for South African private sector organisations (Figure 4.6 in Chapter 4) was constructed. The literature informed the theoretical psychological retention framework in terms of expounding the relationship dynamics between the research constructs. The theoretical psychological retention framework showed that both on an individual and an organisational level, the retention of highly talented employees might be influenced by organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Retention practices should consider the binding forces, attitudes and factors of the research concepts, in order to design robust and holistic retention strategies that might assist in the retention of highly talented employees (Dhanalak & Gurunathan, 2018; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Uzochukwu et al., 2018).

Additionally, the literature review, indicated that it is vital to strengthen the individuals' awareness of job embeddedness by strengthening the factors that keep them strongly joined to their jobs and organisations, which might lead to deeper dedication and an incentive to remain with the organisation. On the other hand, the literature emphasised that it is vital to design and implement retention strategies and programmes that will be able to retain hardy-personality style, resilient and adaptive employees, for the South African private sector organisations to remain competitive (Al-Lozi et al., 2018; Martinez-Moran et al., 2021; Mihalcea, 2017; Mone & London, 2018; Owolabi & Adeosun, 2021).

The literature review further revealed that the perceptions, expectations, and needs of employees from different socio-demographic variables are completely different, as well as their levels of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. The literature review also indicated that the five research constructs are robust retention strategies (Holt & Davis, 2022; Jarwan & Al-frehat, 2020; Jigjiddorj et al., 2021).

Lastly, the literature review indicated that individuals from diverse age groups, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels are likely to experience and be impacted by the research concepts differently and on different levels. Retention policies and strategies should be developed in such a way that the diverse needs of individuals from various socio-demographic variables are taken into consideration, so that their unique and diverse needs are met. It is essential for South African private sector organisations, when designing the retention strategies, to implement the five research constructs in such a way that employees will stay with the employing organisation (Kilchrist, 2020; Kinay et al., 2021; Mitchell et al., 2001a; Tabu & Nura, 2020).

Ultimately, organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability might motivate and strengthen employees to remain with the employing organisation.

7.2.6 Research aim 4: To formulate recommendations for the discipline of Human Resource Management and specifically talent retention practices and make recommendations on possible future research based on the findings of this research study.

The fourth research aim was achieved in Chapter 4. Based on information from the literature review, the psychological retention framework was developed outlining the retention related-dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience related-behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) at an individual and organisational level in order to inform talent retention practices. On both an individual and an organisational level, the retention of highly talented employees might be influenced by the unique, powerful and dynamic forces of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Retention practices should consider the binding forces, attitudes and factors of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. This would help in designing robust and holistic retention strategies that might assist in the retention of highly talented employees. Retention practices should be developed with these concepts in mind (Cui et al., 2018), because these concepts are the most unique and strongest retention strategies that assist employees to remain within the organisations. Retention practices should determine the level of an individual employee's organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. This could help in the designing of unique and holistic talent retention strategies that would enhance highly talented employees' commitment and ultimately lead to lower turnover. Individuals from different age groups, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels are likely to experience and be impacted by the crucial dimensions of organisational commitment, binding forces of job embeddedness, three Hardi-attitudes of hardiness, five characteristics of resilience and 4Cs of career adaptability differently at different levels. Retention practices should take into account each individual employee's diverse age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status group (Ishmael et al., 2021; Jigjiddorj et al., 2021; Nikander et al., 2022; Orié, 2018). It is essential for South African private sector organisations, when designing retention practices and strategies, to implement the five concepts of the research in such a way that employees will stay with the employing organisation (Alsughayir, 2021; Budd & Bhave, 2019; Khan et al., 2022). Because these five research concepts contribute positively and significantly in retaining highly talented employees with critical skills, expertise, experience and competences, this might motivate and strengthen other employees to remain within the organisations (Haenggli & Hirschi, 2020; Marie et al., 2018; Wang & Miao, 2022). It is vital to strengthen the individuals' awareness of organisational

commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability by deepening the factors that keep them strongly joined to their jobs and the organisation, which might lead to deeper dedication and an incentive to remain with the organisation. For example, hardiness comes with age and life experience, therefore the three attitudes of hardiness could influence whether or not individuals will remain with the organisation (Haroon et al., 2020; Hashemi et al., 2021; Rodriguez et al., 2022). This could inform retention practices and encourage the designing of retention strategies that would retain diverse talented employees from different demographical backgrounds because this might have a profound influence on retaining them (Hashemi et al., 2021; Magaisa & Musundire, 2022). It is essential that retention practices should therefore establish the unique and specific needs of each socio-demographic group in order to inspire and enhance retention practices and design robust and holistic retention strategies that are unique and specific to the needs of employees from different socio-demographic groups. Because the perceptions, expectations and needs of employees from different socio-demographic variables are completely different, this will be the same for their levels of concepts (Haroon et al., 2020). Ultimately, for these reasons, as outlined above, retention policies and strategies should be developed in such a way that the diverse needs and expectations of individuals from various socio-demographic backgrounds are taken into consideration, so that their unique and diverse needs and expectations are met. The forces motivating long-term retention of highly talented employees are relevant and adequate and include learning, training and development opportunities, comprehensive and competitive compensation packages, interesting and challenging work, learning, values and brand, open organisational culture, supportive leadership, development, career opportunities, recognition and healthy working environments, both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards (Bakker, 2020; Hoque et al., 2022; Kerga & Asefa, 2018; Konstanek & Khoreva, 2018; Wiblen, 2021). These retention forces and challenges are critical to the retention of competent and highly talented employees who are the lifeboats of any organisation and who are the most unique, critical and dynamic resources needed to enhance and support competitiveness and productivity (Bazana & Reddy, 2021; Kravariti et al., 2022; Ncube, 2016; Ployhart et. al., 2018). HR professionals in charge of retention practices should therefore take these factors into consideration when designing retention procedures, policies and strategies, to make sure that the needs and expectations of highly talented individuals from diverse socio-demographics are met (Chansky, 2020; Orié, 2018). Ultimately, managing and understanding employees from different socio-demographic variables in an improved way could contribute to the development of advanced talent retention practices and strategies that are more dynamic and holistic in retaining highly talented individuals.

In conclusion, the literature review revealed that in an effort to assist South African private sector organisations in the issue of the shortage of the skilled workforce, human resource practitioners and several researchers have identified eleven retention challenges that are faced by these private sector organisations, and which must be considered to enhance the retention of highly talented employees. Moreover, the literature review concluded that the retention challenges faced by South African private sector organisations are critical global skills shortage, competition among organisations in attracting, acquiring and retaining highly talented employees, workforce diversity, globalisation, creativity and innovation, comprehensive and competitive compensation packages, training and development opportunities, recognition on individual levels, managerial and supervisor support, health and well-being and organisational culture (Hoque et al., 2022; Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021; Shingenge & Saurombe, 2022).

Furthermore, the literature review indicated that there is a break in research studies that have been done and very few supplied better techniques to encourage organisations in their understanding of managing employees from diverse and different socio-demographic variables. The literature review went on to indicate that managing and understanding employees from different socio-demographic variables in an improved way could contribute to the development of advanced talent retention policies and strategies that are more dynamic and holistic in retaining individuals. The concerns connected to employees from diverse socio-demographic variables might result in their different and diverse needs, perceptions and expectations being left unsatisfied. In order to make sure that the needs of individuals from diverse socio-demographics are met, the current study will try to develop an inclusive psychological retention framework, that will try to accommodate all the needs and expectations of these diverse employees. South African private sector organisations must manage and strengthen their employees in such a way that they have strong organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. The literature review stipulated that these five research constructs may have a strong influence on the retention of highly skilled and gifted employees, because they could influence whether or not individuals would remain in the organisation. These concepts are valid and reliable measures of retention and must be used in the selection and training programmes (Dursun et al., 2022; Faisal et al., 2020; Hartmann et al., 2022; Pieters et al., 2022).

The literature review has made it clear that the constructs of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability contribute positively and significantly in retaining highly talented employees with critical skills, expertise, experience and competencies. Furthermore, the literature review revealed that the analysis and

combination of forces, attitudes, and factors of the research concepts would help in the designing of robust, holistic and specific retention strategies that might help the organisation to retain dedicated, immersed, Hardi-challenged, resilient and adaptive employees (Haenggli & Hirschi, 2020, Hezel et al., 2022; Marie et al., 2018). Ultimately, the current research will combine and analyse all the dimensions, forces, characteristics and attitudes of the five constructs of the research to design robust and holistic retention strategies for South African private sector organisations.

7.3 INTEGRATION: DEVELOPING A PSYCHOLOGICAL RETENTION FRAMEWORK FOR SOUTH AFRICAN PRIVATE SECTOR ORGANISATIONS

The central hypothesis of this research study was that the unique relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) constitute a psychological retention framework for employees employed in private organisations in South Africa. Additionally, the research study, hypothesised that individuals from different socio-demographic backgrounds had a significantly moderating effect on the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability (Alsughayir, 2021; Bihani et al., 2019; Miller-Graff, 2022; Putri & Dewi, 2022). Furthermore, the hypothesis accepted that, founded on the empirically derived relationship dynamics between the variables, it would be possible to design a holistic psychological retention framework to enlighten talent retention practices for employees in South African private sector organisations.

The findings of the study provided strong evidence in support of the central hypothesis. The reason how these variables were chosen is explained in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4. The psychological framework for talent retention was designed founded on central new ideas that were drawn from the core significant findings in the discussion and integration section. These unique insights are utilised as basic underpinning premises for the psychological retention framework (see Figure 7.1) designed for the purposes of achieving the general aim of the research. It is accepted that the empirically manifested psychological retention framework could only be developed for its relevance to the sample of participants and not the broader South African private sector organisations context. The empirical results provided valuable new insights for future new and unique studies.

7.3.1 Main insights relevant to the South African private sector organisations context

The significant relationship dynamics between the variables emphasised the following unique features that should be considered and implemented when thinking about designing the psychological retention frame of highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations:

- The fundamental model of organisational commitment is challenging organisations to realise that commitment is vital because it binds the employee and organisation and as a result this decreases employee turnover and absenteeism (Home et al., 2017).
- On individual level, job embeddedness could block growth or career development of the individual and limit their exposure to the industry (Sun & Huang, 2020). The research results showed that most employees might have to tolerate, accommodate and persevere in their jobs and organisations, not because they want to but because they are not prepared to face the daunting challenges of finding another job (Faisal et al., 2020).
- The hardiness theory reflects individuals' personality characteristics that uniquely shield individuals from difficult, unpredictable and challenging situations. The empirical research proved that employees with high levels of hardiness are capable of facing and defeating any daunting situation (Rodriguez et al., 2022).
- Resilient individuals who experience high levels of positive affectivity may experience protection from negative events as found in pain sufferers and the bereaved (Zhang et al., 2022).
- Career adaptability assists individuals to stay in their jobs and organisations, because the construct is attached to diverse constructs and concepts that are categorised as adaptability resources, adaptive work readiness, adaptability responses and adaptation outcomes (Savickas, 2016). The research results indicated that employees with high levels of career adaptability stayed in their jobs and organisations (Hezel et al., 2022).
- Older individuals are more dedicated and embedded to the organisation because they have devoted their time and life to the organisation and their turnover intention decreases with tenure. The dynamic and profound relationship found here is that as individuals advance in years within the organisation, they become more contented and their sense of duty increases, thereby decreasing the chances of absenteeism (Alenazi et al., 2019; Haque & Aston, 2016; Kokubun, 2017; Zivkovic et al., 2021).
- The current research results showed that women employees are just as committed and embedded as male employees. Gender is an essential variable in stating and describing

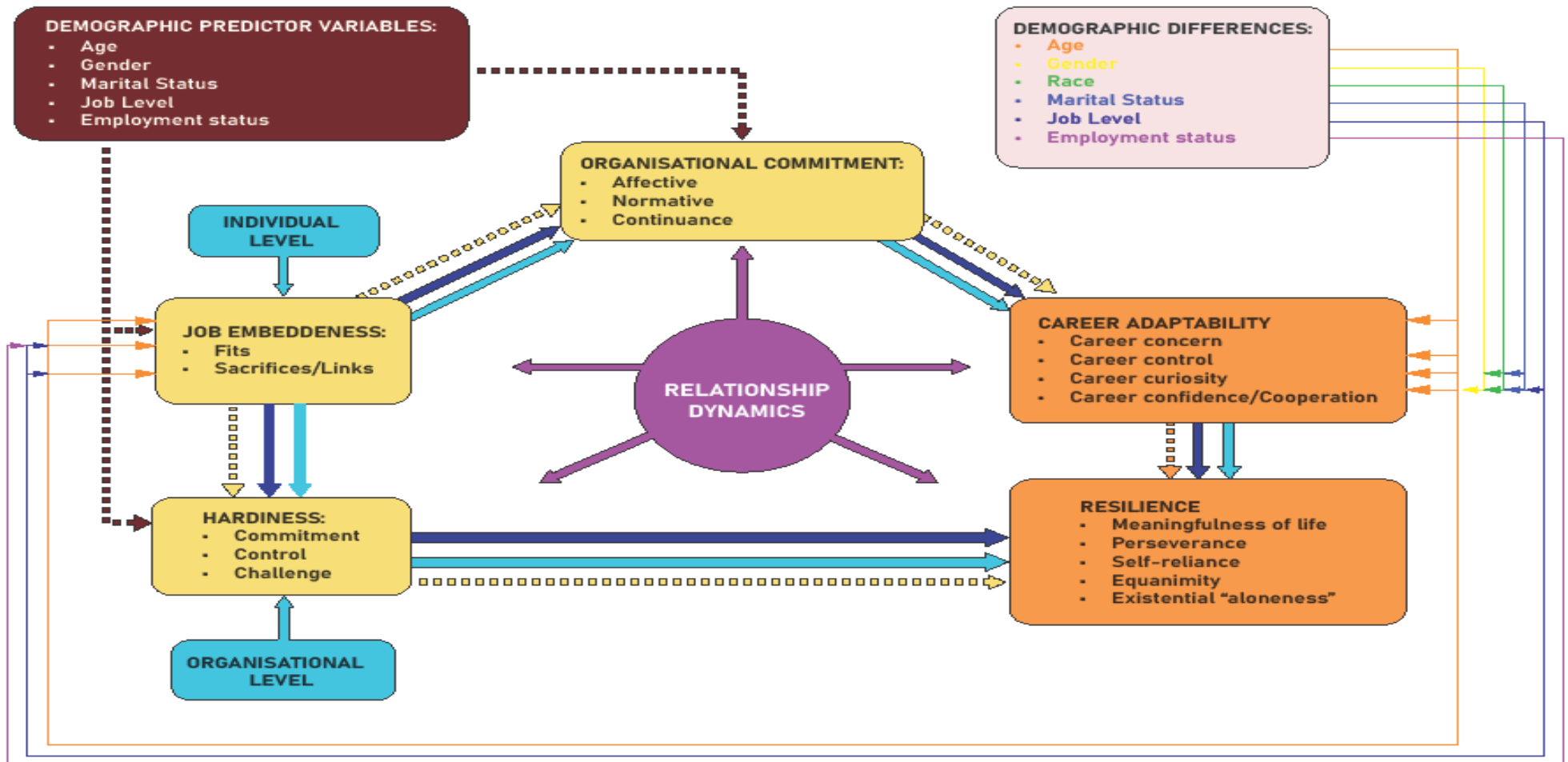
organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Women and men experience diverse socio-psychological realities in the workplace, and their levels of commitment, embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability differ significantly (Anggraeni et al., 2017; Grogan, 2017; Hansen & Kjeldsen, 2017; Sivaji & Mala, 2020).

- The research findings indicated that there are important and diverse differences regarding organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience, career adaptability and race groups (Holt & Davis, 2022; Murnieks et al., 2020).
- Married employees are more committed and embedded than single or divorced employees mainly because of their perceived diverse and unique family responsibilities (Dung et al., 2019; Shah et al., 2020).
- Permanent employees are more dedicated, embedded, hardy, resilient and adaptive to the organisation, than temporary, part-time and flexible-contract employees, because permanent employees consider their job to be a profession and part of their daily life, unlike temporary employees (Chui et al., 2022; Pillay, 2020; Sun & Huang, 2020).
- Employees occupying middle and senior management level positions are challenged, empowered and inspired to develop into unique and great managers who are fully committed, embedded, in control, resilient and adaptive to their organisation and job (Camp et al., 2020; Dirican & Erdil, 2020; Pajic, 2020; Rasheed et al., 2022).
- Ultimately, the psychological retention framework is comprised of all the unique and diverse dimensions of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability and the socio-demographics.

An outline of the empirically manifested psychological retention framework is outlined in Figure 7.1 below. This unique psychological retention framework can be implemented when developing talent retention management strategies and practices for South African private sector organisations.

Figure 7.1

Empirically Manifested Psychological Retention Framework for South African Private Sector Organisations



Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 7.1 depicts the relationship dynamics between the retention-related dispositions and resilience-related behavioural capacities. The interconnectedness between the demographic variables and the constructs of the research were discussed in the section above.

7.4 Conclusions relating to the central hypothesis

The central hypothesis, discussed in detail in Chapter 1, stated that the unique relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) constitutes a psychological retention framework for employees employed in private organisations in South Africa. Additionally, this hypothesis stipulated that individuals from different age groups, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels will differ significantly with regard to organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Furthermore, this hypothesis assumed that, based on the empirically derived relationship dynamics among these variables, a robust and comprehensive psychological retention framework for highly talented individuals in the South African private sector organisations could be designed. Both the literature review and the empirical study provided strong evidence in support of the central hypothesis.

7.5 Conclusions relating to the field of human resource management

The conclusions made from the literature review, combined with the findings of the empirical study, should make a strong and unique contribution to the field of human resource management and to talent retention practices in a special way. The literature review gave unique and new insights into how an individual's organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness, and socio-demographics are related to his or her resilience and career adaptability, especially the development of the holistic and robust retention strategies. More specifically, the literature review provided a new understanding of diverse concepts and theoretical models that foster organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. The literature review provided bases for the designing of a psychological retention framework, indicating the individual and organisational elements that have to be considered during the development of employee retention strategies. From the findings it is evident that organisational and industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners should focus on the concepts and theoretical models that influence the variables of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. The empirical study has provided new and unique insights on the relationship

dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and socio-demographics (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status) (Kalio, 2020; Maddi et al., 2017; Pieters et al., 2022; Putri & Dewi, 2022).

The new insights gained from the empirical study assisted in creating a wider perspective of how individuals' organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness can explain resilience and career adaptability. These findings could also assist respondents to address their concerns about their careers, which may, in turn, have a positive effect on their perceptions of their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Furthermore, in considering these findings, South African private sector organisations should develop, implement and evaluate robust and holistic talent retention policies and strategies in order to keep talented individuals. The empirical study contributed by identifying the variables that contributed most in explaining those retention-related disposition attributes that partially act as predictors of resilience and career adaptability. Organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness seem to be the most significant contributing factors in expounding employees' resilience and career adaptability. The results revealed that continuous learning and development is an essential element for talent retention and management in South African private sector organisations. Furthermore, the results indicated that human resource managers, industrial and organisational psychologists should continue to pay special attention to the psychometric properties of particular assessment instruments (OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS) before using them in organisational procedures in order to avoid bias. South African private sector organisations should obtain the help of experts to make sure that the administration and interpretation of the results of these measuring instruments are both performed in an equitable and fair manner. It is critical to provide employees with feedback that is clear and detailed, in an encouraging, supportive and non-threatening environment. Individuals' socio-demographics such as age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status should be considered when designing talent retention strategies as stipulated in the results (Dursun et al., 2022; Mickinley et al., 2020; Nikander et al., 2022; Tarique et al., 2022).

7.6 LIMITATIONS

The limitations of the empirical study are discussed below.

7.6.1 Limitations of the empirical study

The generalisability of the results on the size and features of the research sample and the psychometric properties of the OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS could be limited for the following reasons:

- In spite of the fact that the sample comprised of 574 respondents, a much larger sample was needed to determine a clearly stated relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), the resilience-related behavioural capacities and the socio-demographic variables, and the retention factors (compensation, job characteristics, training and development, supervisor support, career opportunities, work/life balance and commitment) in this study. (The sample, the organisation, how big is the organisation and what the organisation does is explained in detail in 7.2.2.1 page 372).
- The sample comprised mainly married, black, African and female participants, which also limited the generalisability of the findings to the broader South African population.
- The measuring instruments (OCS, JES, PVS-III-R, EmpRes and CAS) were based on the personal opinions of the respondents, perceptions and experiences, which may have impacted the validity of the study findings.
- Several retention-related dispositions and resilience-related behavioural capacities (such as work engagement, organisational support, organisational trust, absorptive and transformative) were excluded from this research study; if these could have been included, they may have impacted the results in a different way.
- The socio-demographic variables were limited to age, gender, race, marital status, job level, and employment status. If other socio-demographic variables such as tenure, generational cohorts, level of education and population group had been included it might have brought a unique influence on the research results.
- Because of the unique cross-sectional nature of the research design, the researcher could not direct the research constructs; she was thus unable to establish causality in the significant relationship dynamics. Another limitation is convenience sampling because results cannot be generalised to other populations.
- The research study was performed at only one South African private sector organisation. The researcher based the current research on one organisation because the organisation is huge and has branches nationally throughout the country and this means that it covered partially almost every participant in the country. If the research had been performed at several private sector organisations, the researcher could have added more value. Despite

the limitation stipulated above, research indicated the potential of investigating the variables that influenced organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. The findings of this research study can be considered as a first step in progressing and encouraging further research into talent retention and management practices in the South African context.

7.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

As a result of these research findings, conclusions and limitations, the following recommendations for human resource management and further research in this field are discussed below.

7.7.1 Recommendations for the field of human resource management

The research findings and significant relationships that emerged from the study could contribute to the development of the following individual and organisational interventions in terms of retention strategies:

Employee advancement and employee focused interventions:

- Individual employees should take initiative to make sure that are involved in decision making and developing their trust within the ranks of management.
- Employees should find ways to increase commitment, embeddedness, Hardi-control, resilience and adaptability, in order to reduce labour mobility and voluntary turnover.
- Employees should enhance their job-fit and organisational-fit, morale, motivation and interpersonal relationship building initiatives within their departments in the organisation.
- Employees should find ways to enhance their commitment, control and challenge through getting involved in effective special hardiness training and interventions programmes to increase their hardiness.
- Employees should create collegiality and collaborative work environments to enhance their resilience.
- Organisations should show their employees that they trust them, through giving them more responsibilities, challenging work and promoting them because organisation trust increases productivity, worker morale and team performance.
- Organisations should implement effective onboarding practices beyond an employee manual and technical aspects of the occupation, by fostering a community of practice, engagement and support within a cohesive team-driven environment. This can be

executed by adopting mentorship or employee cohort programmes, creating diversified workgroups and hosting collegial events to build camaraderie and morale.

- Organisations should keep an eye on the highly talented performers and should reward their outstanding performance. Such employees should be paid a comprehensive and competitive compensation package. There should be individualised rewards and recognition programmes and appraisal systems that fit and fulfil each employee's unique and diverse needs.
- Organisations should ensure that continuous learning opportunities, training and development, talent development, career advancement opportunities and career development policies and strategies of employees take individual socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status) into consideration, in order to meet and fulfil the unique and diverse needs of each individual employee.

Talent management and retention interventions:

- Organisations should make sure that human resource practices for highly talented employees with scarce and critical skills emphasise competitive and comprehensive remunerations. Organisations must offer unique benefits that are hard for other companies to replicate such as training on company-specific skills for future advancement. It is essential for organisations to revise their current compensation structures regularly to check whether they are still market related.
- Organisations should reflect on the learning, training and development opportunities that are offered to employees. Organisations should ensure that these opportunities are aligned to the unique careers and needs of individual employees.
- Organisations should ensure that hiring top talent is a systematic business process that comprises development and implementing of performance-based hire and full commitment from the executive management team. Organisations should build a hiring culture that is talent-centric and establish a talent driven mind-set. Organisations should create a proactive talent driven culture, a culture that is fun, trusting and open, and that is supportive to attracting, acquire, developing, deploy and keeping superior and highly talented individuals. Organisations should ensure that this process is market and talent driven, that every system and procedure is designed to address the needs of highly talented individuals. Organisations should appoint experts within the organisation to manage workforce planning to prepare for the future.

- Organisations should become an employer of choice, through the implementation of strong and holistic retention practices and strategies and by providing dynamic growth, developmental opportunities and promotional opportunities.
- Organisation leaders should be interested in understanding why people choose to leave jobs and should gain insights that might help with employee retention.
- In the midst of generational diversity (veterans, baby boomers, generations X and Y) organisations should develop a concrete talent strategy that must serve as a constant guide, providing direction for how the organisation will acquire, develop, and retain employees, while always reflecting the key business goals of the organisation. Organisations attempting to win the war for talent must invest in robust and holistic strategies and practices that attract, motivate and retain highly talented individuals.
- Organisations should make sure that suitable assessments are in place to discourage their employees from quitting their work in an effort to look for better career openings. This can be achieved through comprehensive and competitive compensation, opportunities to learn what employees are good at. The management team should dedicate themselves to ensure that talent management and talent retention is their top priority and assess the effectiveness of the current recruitment sources.
- Organisations should be able to attract, acquire, recruit, develop, motivate and retain top talented and skilled employees to survive in this fast-growing competitive global business world. Organisations should adopt an integrated talent management and talent retention approach to be able to recruit highly talented employees to drive their organisation's competitive advantage. Organisations should realise that the hunting for top talent has been going on forever. In addition, this war for talent will get worse, unless something dramatic is done, due to demographic changes, workforce diversity, ageing workforce, multigenerational diversity, the impact of China and India where most of the talent is being created, and advanced technology, therefore organisations need to make hiring an integrated system. Organisations attempting to win this war for talent must invest in unique and robust talent retention strategies and practices that attract, motivate and retain talent. Organisations should realise that talent management is the most powerful strategic instrument and essential ingredient of any organisation's corporate strategy. Continuous learning and development are an important elements of talent management in South African private sector organisations. South African private sector organisations should develop, implement and evaluate a holistic talent management strategy, to retain highly talented employees. Organisations should make sure that highly talented and skilled employees are deployed in the right positions where their skills and expertise will be unleashed and utilised extensively, in order that the organisation remains competitive.

- South African private sector organisations should utilise talent management practices and processes effectively, in order to improve productively, especially through creating collegiality workplace environments that will help keep their highly productive employees.
- South African private sector organisations should develop strong holistic retention strategies that encompass the following: fair, equitable, competitive and comprehensive monetary and non-monetary incentives; collegial, dynamic and interactive conducive work environment; supportive management; recruitment and internal promotions; flexible work arrangements; a culture that is talent centred; cross cultural training; job rotation and right job for the right person and frequent, open and honest communication. South African private sector organisations should utilise improved talent retention and management which provide benefits such as cutting recruitment, transfer, robust organisation strategy, delivering unique services and products.
- South African organisations should train their managers and supervisors to be able to select, identify, guide, coach, mentor, reward and retain highly talented employees. They should appoint supervisors who are competent in this role, or provide training to current supervisors in order to provide employees with the necessary supervisor support. Organisations should make sure that management (top management, middle management and supervisors) become talent agents and talent custodians. This can be done through improving the relationships between individuals and their supervisors or managers.
- South African organisations should invest in building their own diverse talent pipeline, through continuous learning and developing, upskilling their expertise in their specific areas of work, developing leaders and encouraging greater mobility among employees.

7.7.2 Recommendations for future research

The sample was made up predominantly of females, black Africans and married participants. Future research studies should utilise independent, larger, samples that are more representative of diverse socio-demographical groups, and which would increase the generalisability of the findings. Additionally, it is also recommended that future research should focus more on the exploration of the relationship between retention-related dispositions (organisation commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness) and resilience-related behavioural capacities and socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status). The results of this research study allowed only a limited understanding of retention-related dispositions, resilience-related behavioural capacities and socio-demographic variables. Furthermore, such a research study would be vital for human resource

practitioners and for industrial and organisational psychologists in enhancing talent retention strategies and procedures at an individual and organisational level. Future research should focus on generational differences, especially the new Generation Z that is joining the challenging and unpredictable world of work. Future research should focus on analysing and assessing cause and effect of the relationships between the research concepts and this will assist especially with the role of generational differences in the workplace. This would assist human resource management to explain the results and design a psychological retention framework that would help organisations in the retention of highly talented and gifted employees.

7.8 EVALUATION OF THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This research study investigated whether a relationship exists between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness) (independent variables), in relation to resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) (dependent variable). Furthermore, this study attempted to establish whether a psychological retention framework can be developed to inform talent retention practices for South African private sector organisations. The study further determined and established that individuals from diverse ages, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels differ with regard to these variables and the effect thereof on talent retention in the South African private sector organisations in the modern work environment. The findings showed that a psychological retention framework was developed theoretically and empirically. The research findings showed that a profound connection existed between the research constructs and variables and that they could provide a profound and better understanding of talent retention practices and procedures.

7.8.1 Value added at a theoretical level

On a theoretical level, the study contributed to crafting a theoretical psychological retention framework that could be used to inform talent retention practices in South African private sector organisations. The literature review indicated that a dynamic relationship existed between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), and resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and the way these connect to talent retention practices in the modern workplace. Globalisation, workforce diversity, aging workforce, generational difference, gender, ethnicity and life pursuit have challenged organisations to enhance their talent retention procedures

and strategies. Organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability are critical holistic talent retention strategies. It is vital that the similarities and differences among different socio-demographic groups in terms of their organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability should be considered.

The literature review was important and valuable on a theoretical level, because it contributed to the existing literature through the establishment of the dynamics relationship that exists between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status). Additionally, the literature review helped the researcher in designing a unique theoretical psychological retention framework in order to keep highly talented individuals. Furthermore, the literature review showed that organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness and socio-demographic differences such as age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status acted as predictors of resilience and career adaptability.

Ultimately, the new insights created from the literature review, specifically on the psychological retention framework and its behavioural elements, could be utilised in South African private sector organisational talent retention practices and procedures. The exploration of the socio-demographics of individuals and how these characteristics impact the designing and establishment of these variables has been seen as essential in comprehending talent retention in the context of South African private sector organisations.

7.8.2 Value added at an empirical level

On an empirical level, the study contributed to designing an empirically tested, psychological retention framework that could be utilised to inform talent retention practices in South African private sector organisations. This study is composed of diverse constructs and has used diverse statistical procedures that showed essential variables in expounding the psychological retention framework for South African private sector organisations. Additionally, there is no past research study focusing on talent retention in South Africa private sector organisations focusing specifically on the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status).

Furthermore, this research study showed how the complex relationship between individuals' organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability, is influenced by differences in age, gender, race, marital status, employment status and job levels. The results could be important in the designing of an empirically examined psychological retention framework by showing the differences connecting to the biographical data that deals with the needs of such a diverse, complex and unique group. Supported by the results of the empirical study, it can be argued that this research study is unique and original, especially pertaining to the relationship dynamics between the constructs and the profound contribution these relationship dynamics made in the designing of the psychological retention framework. This study also contributed to the current literature on generational cohorts through finding that generational cohorts had no effect on either the psychological contract or the satisfaction on retention factors. The empirically tested psychological retention framework could be vital in transforming the retention of highly talented employees in the context of South African private sector organisations.

7.8.3 Value added at a practical level

On a practical level, this study contributed by finding that significant and dynamic relationships did exist between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status). In addition, it contributed by providing recommendations for retaining highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations. It is clear that it is very difficult to retain talented employees, due to the acute shortage of talented and skilled individuals. The psychological retention framework will challenge and assist organisations to design, implement and evaluate diverse, holistic and robust talent retention practices and strategies to be able to retain talented and high calibre employees to remain successful and competitive in this unpredictable and challenging economy. Additionally, the framework will assist organisations to realise that talented human capital is necessary to curb the problem of competition for talent. Furthermore, the psychological framework will map out ways to assist organisations to design and implement diverse and unique retention programmes and strategies to lower employees' turnover rates. It is called a psychological retention framework because it is comprised of the aspects that affects retention. Furthermore, it is clear that in these difficult economic times, South African private sector organisations can only survive if they retain their top performers and highly productive employees. Ultimately, the framework will assist South African private sector organisations to

retain highly talented employees, curb ferocious competition for talented employees, restrict employee turnover and win the fight for talent, to remain competitive and successful, and to survive in these difficult economic times. The talent retention framework includes robust and holistic strategies that will assist organisations in retaining highly talented employees. Furthermore, the talent retention framework challenges, encourages, transforms and enlightens organisations to use strong, holistic, unique and diverse strategies to retain highly talented individuals. The designed psychological retention framework will intervene in trying to assist South African private sector organisations to retain their highly talented employees, decrease turnover and increase the retention rates of talented employees.

The results contributed by finding out that socio-demographic variables had an effect on the research constructs. Each socio-demographic variable impacted on the research constructs differently and on different levels. Because of these reasons, human resource practitioners and industrial and organisational psychologists could obtain a deeper understanding of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability, that would improve the talent retention of highly talented employees. Results from future research would deepen and widen the understanding that individual employees have diverse retention-related dispositions and unique resilience-related behavioural capacities. Comprehending these diverse differences would assist in the retention of highly talented employees.

The focus of this study was to establish how retention-related disposition forces predict resilience and career adaptability of individual employees. The results have granted unique direction to future research into organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness of highly talented employees in relation to their resilience and career adaptability. These results have contributed significantly to the existing body of knowledge on the retention-related dispositions and resilience-related behavioural capacities that influence the retention of highly talented employees in the South African private sector organisations.

7.9 CONCLUSION AND REFLECTION ON THE RESEARCHER'S GRADUATENESS AND DOCTORATENESS

Graduateness or intellectual cultivation integrates theories of reflective thinking, scholarship, moral reasoning and lifelong learning. Graduateness emphasises the efforts to equip students with the criteria that prepare them to contribute to others which include, but not limited to, the expectations of employers (Yazdani & Shokooh, 2018). Doctorateness is a reflection of the mix of qualities required of a person who has or is acquiring doctorateness, such as intellectual

quality and confidence, independence of thinking, enthusiasm and commitment, and ability to adapt to changing circumstances and opportunities. Doctorateness is comprised of myriads of attributes, but the defining attributes of doctorateness can be reduced to: independent scholar, developmental and transformative apprenticeship process, original conceptual contribution scholarship, stewardship of the discipline and highest academic degree (Yazdani & Shokooh, 2018). In conclusion, the researcher is inspired by the findings of this study and the researcher is convinced that it will give a better and comprehensive understanding of the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness), resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status) to the researcher as part of management in the organisation the researcher is employed with. . In addition, the psychological retention framework adds a deeper and wider perspective on how the researcher's organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness affect her resilience and career adaptability. In addition, the researcher developed a better understanding of the organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Furthermore, the researcher will be able to apply this unique and new knowledge to enhance talent retention practices and strategies in the researcher's organisation.

The psychological retention framework coming from the research results provide a unique and better understanding to the researcher of the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability. Additionally, the study enhanced the researcher's employability, moral reasoning and lifelong learning. Furthermore, the researcher has gained unique and new insights from the positive findings of this research study and is empowered on how to retain highly talented employees in the organisation the researcher belongs to. The researcher gained hard, soft and professional skills such as independence of thinking, doctoral competence, research skills, employability or transferable skills and reflective thinking. The psychological retention framework for the retention of highly talented employees in the South African private sector organisations broadened the perspective of the researcher on how her organisational commitment, job embeddedness and hardiness predict her resilience and career adaptability at a professional and personal level.

Throughout this research study, the researcher obtained profound insights into the concepts of organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability and socio-demographic variables. Furthermore, the researcher gained a profound amount of knowledge in terms of data analyses, interpretation and statistical reporting.

Additionally, from the data analyses, interpretation and statistical reporting the researcher was deeply inspired to focus on the broader perspectives in terms of talent retention practices and procedures and to never take the research findings at face value. The researcher learnt to be creative and adopt a totally different mind-set in order to understand the statistics.

The study contributed to the doctorateness and graduateness of the researcher as an HR Generalist and academic. As an HR Chartered Professional, the researcher's insights, wisdom and knowledge was deepened to such an extent that the researcher has started looking into implementing all the new and unique insights in her current organisation and the researcher is challenged to take a step further and become an academic. Additionally, the study empowered the Unisa research niche area of unique and special information and knowledge generation in talent retention practices and procedures and human resource development in response to the critical needs of South Africa, Africa and the global village. As an HR Chartered Professional, the researcher gained a profound understanding of how the retention of highly talented individuals might be increased by making sure that all the commitments and dedications made within the relationship dynamics are observed. Furthermore, the empirical recommendations from the research results should enlighten and direct the researcher in her position as an HR Chartered Professional, in her efforts to assist organisations to tackle the retention of highly talented individuals.

In summary, the researcher's personal comprehending of the relationship dynamics between organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness, resilience and career adaptability was expanded. The researcher's understanding and knowledge of talent retention strategies and practices and socio-demographic variables was widened profoundly through the completion of the study. The researcher's depth and breadth of the subject was widened extensively. In addition, the completion of this study inspired and empowered the researcher with essential and treasured lessons such as taking responsibility for her own work, multi-tasking, perseverance, resilient, tenacity, time management, consistence and patience. It also honed the researcher's computer skills, both verbal and written communication skills.

7.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter expounded the discussions and conclusions of the research study in terms of both the literature review and empirical study. The literature and empirical study limitations were discussed in detail. In addition, recommendations for future research were also expounded. Furthermore, an integration of the research study was provided, outlining the

extent to which the results of the study provided unwavering support for the relationship dynamics between retention-related dispositions (organisational commitment, job embeddedness, hardiness), resilience-related behavioural capacities (resilience and career adaptability) and the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, marital status, job level and employment status), and how this assisted in the designing of a psychological retention framework for highly talented employees in South African private sector organisations.

This chapter achieved the following research aim:

Research aim 5: To formulate recommendations for further research in the field of Human Resource Management and suggest further research strategies based on the findings of this study research.

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