A STAFF RETENTION MODEL FOR STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN SOUTH AFRICA

by

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DECLARATION

I, Christinah Maphanga, student number 3093-542-3, hereby declare that **A STAFF RETENTION MODEL FOR STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN SOUTH AFRICA** study is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by way of complete references.

__Ms CH Maphanga_ ___14 June 2023_____

Signature Date

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I dedicate this in memory of my beloved father, K. J. Mahlahlane. Dad, you are so special to me, and you will always have a special place in my heart. You taught me to love and to be humble. You are the best friend and mentor I ever had. Thank you for all the advice you always gave. I am grateful for all the sacrifices you made for us. Heaven has gained a peaceful and humble angel. To my late sister, Sarah Dumela Mahlahlane, you are loved and remembered daily. May your souls rest in peace. Dad, today I am Dr because of your teachings. My grandmother, Cathrine Shalati Mahlahlane, you have been such an inspiration in my life; you left us shortly before my submission of this thesis. You will always be remembered.

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SUMMARY

A STAFF RETENTION MODEL FOR STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN SOUTH AFRICA

DEGREE	**:**	**PhD (INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY)**
DEPARTMENT	**:**	**INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**
SUPERVISOR	**:**	**DR B H OLIVIER**

The aim of this quantitative study was to develop a model of staff retention for state-owned enterprises (SOEs) in South Africa. The literature review phase explored the concept of staff retention, the measurement of staff retention, and the evaluation of existing models and frameworks of staff retention to determine their applicability to SOEs in South Africa.

The literature review indicated that staff retention can be defined as the organisation's effort to retain required, high-performing, momentously skilled, and talented employees with the purpose of achieving organisational strategic objectives and goals. It also indicated that staff retention can be accurately measured by the use of existing reliable and valid instruments, although it is difficult to find one comprehensive instrument that measures all possible factors associated with staff retention. Thus, the common practice is to use various existing instruments in combination to measure the factors separately that contribute to staff retention. The literature review also revealed that various staff retention models and frameworks exist that can be used to better understand staff retention. The literature also emphasised that any model of staff retention that is utilised or developed should be organisation context-specific, as there is no one-size-fits-all approach.

Based on the literature review, a new theoretical model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa was proposed. The proposed theoretical model included five biographical factors, namely (1) gender, (2) age, (3) educational qualifications, (4) tenure, and (5) job grade, as well as 12 organisational factors, namely, (1) compensation and benefits, (2) job characteristics, (3) training and development, (4) supervisory support, (5) career growth and development, (6) work-life balance, (7) employee engagement, (8) organisational support, (9) ethical leadership, (10) job satisfaction, (11) meaningful work, and (12) organisational culture. These five biographical factors and 12 organisational factors were the most globally researched and indicated an empirical relationship with staff retention, which was operationalised as intention to leave and which was used to measure staff retention. During the empirical phase of the study a survey was conducted within a South African SOE (n = 685) and the results of the survey were subjected to Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) with the aim of determining whether the hypothesized theoretical model fitted the collected data.

The SEM process subsequently identified three statistically significant staff retention factors that could be used to ensure the retention of staff in South African SOEs, namely, (1) organisational culture, (2) compensation and benefits, and (3) training and development. A hierarchical moderator regression analysis (HMRA) was then conducted to determine whether the biographical variables of gender, age, educational qualifications, tenure, and job grade statistically significantly moderated the relationship between the staff retention factors (independent variables) and intention to leave (the dependent variable). The analysis indicated that the five biographical variables had no statistically significant effect on the relationship between the staff retention factors and intent to leave in a South African SOE. It was consequently recommended that SOEs in South Africa could use the above-mentioned three-factor validated model of staff retention to manage staff retention and that the model does not have to be adapted to account for the impact of gender, age, educational qualifications, tenure, and job grade on intent to leave the organisation.

KEY TERMS

Staff retention, intention to leave, retention factors, model of staff retention, model validation, factor analysis, structural equation modelling, hierarchical moderator regression analysis, state-owned enterprises

OPSOMMING

’N WERKNEMERBEHOUDSMODEL VIR ONDERNEMINGS IN STAATSBESIT IN SUID-AFRIKA

GRAAD	**:**	**PhD (BEDRYF- EN ORGANISASIESIELKUNDE)**
DEPARTEMENT	**:**	**BEDRYF- EN ORGANISASIESIELKUNDE**
STUDIELEIER	**:**	**DR BH OLIVIER**

Die doel van hierdie kwantitatiewe studie was om ’n model vir werknemerbehoud vir ondernemings in staatsbesit (OSB) in Suid-Afrika te ontwikkel. Die literatuuroorsigfase het die begrip werknemerbehoud, die meting van werknemerbehoud en die evaluering van bestaande modelle en raamwerke van werknemerbehoud ondersoek ten einde hulle toepaslikheid vir ondernemings in staatsbesit in Suid-Afrika te bepaal.

Volgens die literatuuroorsig kan werknemerbehoud omskryf word as die organisasie se poging om benodigde, hoë presterende, betekenis-volgeskoolde en talentvolle werknemers te behou, ten einde organisatories-strategiese oogmerke en doelwitte te behaal. Dit het ook aangetoon dat werknemerbehoud akkuraat gemeet kan word deur van bestaande, betroubare en geldige instrumente gebruik te maak, hoewel dit moeilik is om een omvattende instrument te kry wat al die moontlike faktore wat met werknemerbehoud geassosieer word, te kan meet. Die algemene praktyk is derhalwe om verskillende bestaande instrumente in kombinasie te gebruik om die faktore wat tot werknemerbehoud bydra, individueel te meet. Die literatuuroorsig het ook bevind dat verskeie werknemerbehoudsmodelle en -raamwerke bestaan wat gebruik kan word om werknemerbehoud beter te verstaan. Die literatuur het ook uitgewys dat enige model van werknemerbehoud wat gebruik of ontwikkel word, organisasie-inhoudspesifiek moet wees omdat daar geen een-grootte-pas-almal-benadering is nie.

’n Nuwe teoretiese model van werknemerbehoud vir ondernemings in staatsbesit in Suid-Afrika, wat op die literatuuroorsig gegrond is, word voorgestel. Die voorgestelde

teoretiese model sluit vyf biografies faktore in, naamlik: (1) geslag, (2) ouderdom, (3) onderwyskwalifikasies, (4) dienstyd, en (5) posgradering; asook 12 organisatoriese faktore, naamlik: (1) vergoeding en voordele, (2) werkseienskappe, (3) opleiding en ontwikkeling, (4) toesighoudende ondersteuning, (5) loopbaanopgang en -ontwikkeling, (6) werk-lewe-balans, (6) werknemerbetrokkenheid, (8) organisatoriese ondersteuning, (9) etiese leierskap, (10) werkbevrediging, (11) betekenisvolle werk, en (12) organisasiekultuur. Hierdie vyf biografiese en 12 organisatoriese faktore is die faktore wat wêreldwyd die meeste nagevors is en ’n empiriese verwantskap met werknemerbehoud toon, wat geoperasionaliseer is as die voorneme om die werkplek te verlaat en wat gebruik is om werknemerbehoud te meet. Gedurende die empiriese fase van die studie is ’n ondersoek in ’n Suid-Afrikaanse onderneming in staatsbesit (n = 685) van stapel gestuur en die resultate van die ondersoek is aan strukturele gelykstellingsmodellering onderwerp met die doel om vas te stel of die veronderstelde teoretiese model by die ingesamelde data pas.

Die strukturele gelykstellingsmodelleringsproses het daarna drie statisties betekenisvolle werknemerbehoudsfaktore geïdentifiseer wat gebruik kan word om die behoud van personeel in Suid-Afrikaanse ondernemings in staatsbesit te verseker, naamlik: (1) organisasiekultuur, (2) vergoeding en voordele, en (3) opleiding en ontwikkeling. ’n Hiërargiese moderatorregressie-analise (HMRA) is hierna gedoen om vas te stel of die biografiese veranderlikes van geslag, ouderdom, onderwyskwalifikasies, dienstyd, en posgradering statisties betekenisvol die verwantskap tussen werknemerbehoudsfaktore (onafhanklike veranderlikes) en die voorneme om weg te gaan (die afhanklike veranderlike) modereer. Die ontleding het aangetoon dat die vyf biografiese veranderlikes geen statisties betekenisvolle uitwerking op die verwantskap tussen die werknemerbehoudsfaktore en die voorneme om weg te gaan in ’n Suid-Afrikaanse onderneming in staatsbesit gehad het nie. Daar word derhalwe aanbeveel dat ondernemings in staatsbesit in Suid-Afrika die bogenoemde driefaktor- geldigverklaardemodel van werknemerbehoud gebruik om werknemerbehoud te bestuur en dat die model nie aangepas hoef te word om die invloed van geslag, ouderdom, onderwyskwalifikasies, dienstyd en posgradering op die voorneme om die organisasie te verlaat, te verantwoord nie.

SLEUTELTERME

Werknemerbehoud, voorneme om weg te gaan, behoudsfaktore, model vir werknemerbehoud, modelgeldigverklaring, faktoranalise, strukturele gelykstellingsmodellering, hiërargiese moderatorregressie-analise, ondernemings in staatsbesit

KAKARETŠO

MMOTLOLO WA TSHWARELELO YA BAŠOMI WA DIKGWEBO TŠA MMUŠO KA AFRIKA BORWA

LENGWALO LA THUTO: PhD (SAEKHOLOTŠI YA MOKGATLO LE INTASTERI)

LEFAPHA: SAEKHOLOTŠI YA MOKGATLO LE INTASTERI

MOOKAMEDI: DR B H OLIVIER

Maikemišetšo a nyakišišo ye ya khwalithethifi e be e le go tšweletša mmotlolo wa tshwarelelo ya bašomi wa dikgwebo tša mmušo (di-SOE) ka Afrika Borwa. Kgato ya tshekatsheko ya dingwalo e lekotše kgopolo ya tshwarelelo ya bašomi, kelo ya tshwarelelo ya bašomi, le tekolo ya dika tše di lego gona le diforeimiweke tša tshwarelelo ya bašomi go laetša go šoma ga tšona go di-SOE ka Afrika Borwa.

Tshekatsheko ya dingwalo e laeditše gore tshwarelelo ya bašomi e ka hlalošwa bjalo ka maitapišo a mokgatlo a go swarelela bašomi bao ba nyakegago, bao ba šomago gabotse, bao ba nago le bokgoni bjo bo bohlokwa, le bao ba nago le bokgoni bja go nepiša go phihlelelo ya maikemišetšo le dinepo tša maano a mokgatlo. E laeditše gape gore tshwarelelo ya bašomi e ka elwa gabotse ka tšhomišo ya didirišwa tše di lego gona le tša mmakgonthe, le ge e le gore go thata go hwetša sedirišwa se tee sa kakaretšo seo se elago mabaka ka moka ao a kgonegago ao a amanago le tshwarelelo ya bašomi. Ka go realo, mokgwa wa tlwaelo ke wa go šomiša didirišwa tša go fapana tše di lego gona ka go di kopanya go ela ka thoko mabaka ao a tsenyago letsogo tshwarelelong ya bašomi. Tshekatsheko ya dingwalo e utollotše gape gore dika tša go fapafapana tša tshwarelelo ya bašomi le diforeimiweke di gona tšeo di ka šomišwago go kwešiša bokaone tshwarelelo ya bašomi. Dingwalo gape di gateletše gore mmotlolo ofe goba ofe wa tshwarelelo ya bašomi wo o šomišwago goba o tšweletšwago o swanetše go ba wo o lebanego le seemo sa mokgatlo, ka ge go se na mokgwa wa kakaretšo ya tšohle.

Go ya ka tshekatsheko ya dingwalo, go šišintšwe mmotlolo wo moswa wa teori ya tshwarelelo ya bašomi wa di-SOE ka Afrika Borwa. Mmotlolo wa teori wo o šišintšwego

o be o akaretša dintlha tše tlhano tša taodišophelo, e lego (1) bong, (2) mengwaga, (3) mangwalo a thuto, (4) lebaka la mošomo le (5) maemo a mošomo, gammogo le dintlha tše 12 tša mokgatlo, (1) phumulameokgo le dikholego, (2) dimelo tša mošomo, (3) tlhahlo le tlhabollo, (4) thekgo ya bohlokomedi, (5) kgolo ya mošomo le tlhabollo, (6) tekatekano ya mošomo le bophelo, (7) thwalo ya bašomi, (8) thekgo ya mokgatlo, (9) boetapele bja maitshwaro, (10) kgotsofalo ya mošomo, (11) mošomo wo bohlokwa le (12) setšo sa mokgatlo. Dintlha tše tše tlhano tša taodišophelo le dintlha tše 12 tša mokgatlo e bile tšeo di nyakišišitšwego kudu lefaseng ka bophara le go laetša kamano ya diphihlelelo le tshwarelelo ya bašomi, yeo e šomišitšwego bjalo ka maikemišetšo a go tloga le yeo e šomišitšwego go ela tshwarelelo ya bašomi. Nakong ya kgato ya iphirikhale ya nyakišišo, nyakišišo e dirilwe ka gare ga SOE ya Afrika Borwa (n = 685) gomme dipoelo tša nyakišišo di ile tša dirwa ka fase ga Tshekatsheko ya Kamano ya Dibopego *(Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)),* ka maikemišetšo a go bona ge eba mmotlolo wa teori wo o akantšwego o swanetše datha ye e kgobokeditšwego.

Ka morago ga moo tshepetšo ya SEM e laeditše mabaka a mararo a bohlokwa a dipalopalo a tshwarelelo ya bašomi ao a ka šomišwago go kgonthiša tshwarelelo ya bašomi ka di-SOE tša Afrika Borwa, e lego, (1) setšo sa mokgatlo, (2) phumulameokgo le dikholego, le (3) tlhahlo le tlhabollo. Tshekatsheko le kamano ya khuetšo ya tatelano *(hierarchical moderator regression and analysis (HMRA))* e dirilwe morago go bona ge eba diphetogo tša taodišophelo ya bong, mengwaga, mangwalo a thuto, nako ya mošomo, le maemo a mošomo ka dipalopalo di lekanyeditše kudu kamano gare ga mabaka a tshwarelelo ya bašomi (diphetogo tše di ikemetšego) le maikemišetšo a go tloga (phetogo ye e sego ya ikemela). Tshekatsheko e laeditše gore diphetogo tše tlhano tša taodišophelo ga se tša ba le khuetšo ye bohlokwa ya dipalopalo go kamano gare ga mabaka a tshwarelelo ya bašomi le maikemišetšo a go tloga mo go SOE ya Afrika Borwa. Mafelelong go šišintšwe gore di-SOE ka Afrika Borwa di ka šomiša mmotlolo wo o boletšwego ka mo godimo wo o kgonthišitšwego ka mabaka a mararo a tshwarelelo ya bašomi go laola go swarelela bašomi le gore mmotlolo ga o hloke go fetošwa go ikarabela ka khuetšo ya bong, mengwaga, mangwalo a thuto, lebaka la mošomo, le maemo a mošomo ka maikemišetšo a go tlogela mokgatlo.

MELAWANA YE BOHLOKWA

Tshwarelelo ya bašomi, maikemišetšo a go tloga, mabaka a tshwarelelo, mmotlolo wa tshwarelelo ya bašomi, tiišetšo ya mmotlolo, tshekatsheko ya mabaka, tshekatsheko ya kamano ya dibopego, tshekatsheko le kamano ya khuetšo ya tatelano, dikgwebo tša go laolwa ke mmušo

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CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the background and motivation for this study. It also provides the problem statement and research questions, the aims of the study, the potential contribution of the study, and the paradigm perspectives that guide the study. The chapter will also discuss the research design. Finally, the chapter outline of the study will also be presented.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The context and focus of this research study is staff retention in State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs) in South Africa. Accordingly, the study investigates the factors that could be included in a staff retention model for South African SOEs.

According to BusinessTech (2022), talent retention remains a daunting issue even during the highest unemployment rate every experienced in South Africa. Coupled with this, organisations find it extremely difficult to find skilled employees and executive talent for appointments, which is further exacerbated by the increased emigration of employees out of South Africa. Organisations need to develop retention strategies that are not only cash-based but include extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. In the BusinessTech report (2022), PriceWaterhouseCoopers (PWC) affirmed that South Africa could continue to battle with the highest resignation of skilled employees compared to other countries that have lost low-wage employees. Due to emigration, South Africa lost nearly one million employees from 2015 to 2020 (Engineering News, 2022) and is experiencing a critical skills shortage across almost all sectors (BusinessTech, 2023). The war on talent and retention remains critical for South African SOEs, with employment opportunities increasing dramatically in other countries around the globe for skilled employees (Engineering News, 2022). Included among the challenges of retaining skilled employees are the disruptions brought by the loss of skills which affects business continuity and organisational productivity. As retaining skilled employees is a massive challenge facing contemporary organisations (Levy, 2011), understanding what can retain the best talent is particularly important across contexts in today's competitive business environment (Adriano & Callaghan, 2022). Various authors have pointed out how staff turnover leads to considerable costs of replacing employees who leave an organisation (Indeed Editorial Team, 2021; Gorde, 2019; Singh, 2019), while the retention of quality employees is necessary for the growth and stability of an organisation (Kumar & Mathimaran, 2017; Singh, 2019). The importance of staff retention strategies to counter staff turnover has also been emphasised by numerous authors (Al Kurdi et al., 2020; Allen et al., 2010; Coetzee et al., 2018; Gorde, 2019; Kukreja, 2020; Kumari & Chauhan, 2013; Letchmiah & Thomas, 2017; Singh, 2019).

The current study only identified the factors that should be included in a new, theoretical model of staff retention for South African SOEs after a comprehensive literature review, since these factors could not be predetermined until an in-depth understanding of the role that they play in retaining employees was achieved. The study also aims to determine the moderating effect of individual demographic characteristics on staff retention factors, which could assist in understanding whether these characteristics should be included in a new, theoretical model of staff retention. If the new, theoretical model could be empirically validated for South African SOEs, it could greatly assist management and human resource professionals in SOEs in customising their staff retention strategies for successful employee staff retention.

Staff retention is a critical element for business survival and competition for skilled talent remains fierce. Accordingly, talent retention and turnover issues remain the most significant current challenge for an organisation’s survival, growth and long-term sustainability (BusinessTech, 2022). It augments all areas of an organisation’s talent solution, talent management and therefore, the business objectives and organisational vision (BussinessTech 2022; Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011).

Currently in South Africa, both private and public sector companies are losing employees due to an ageing workforce, the war for talent caused by the demand for skilled employees, emigration (the brain drain) and better salaries offered by other companies (BusinessTech, 2022). Letchmiah and Thomas (2017) and Gorde (2019) maintained that retention factors are specific to a particular organisation, making it crucial that each organisation should determine the factors that help retain employees, and then incorporate these specific factors into its own specific retention strategy. This view is supported by Al-sharafi et al. (2018) and Bharath (2021), who contended that 'retention' is a multifaceted concept and that different factors drive an employee's decision to stay and will differ from organisation to organisation.

Although the competition for talent is a world-wide organisational challenge (Mckinsey & Company, 2022), South African SOEs in particular are being crippled by private-sector talent poaching and the emigration of skilled employees. Research by Old Mutual, a large South African investment and insurance company, reported that staff turnover has increased by 16% across all sectors in South Africa while companies struggle to retain their current talent. (Engineering News, 2022). Skilled employees are a critical source that is needed by organisations to conduct its operations and provide services. In particular, the many existing South African SOE's are a vital part of the South African economy, hence, retaining their skilled employees is critical for the provision of services (Ginnigle & Moore, 2006).

In addition to the competition for talent in both public and private sector organisations, a very negative image of the public sector in South Africa has contributed towards the public sectors' human capital challenges (Jacobson, 2011). This is coupled to the current issue of a lack of ethical leadership, which has an impact on public sector ethical business operations, especially SOEs (Zondo Commission Report Part 1, 2022). These challenges have led to employees not wanting to choose public entities as their preferred employers. As a result, voluntary quitting in public sector entities is currently higher than in the pre-pandemic era, having increased by 25%, making it difficult for these entities to fill vacant positions. This makes it even more imperative that South African SOEs retain the talent that it currently has (McKinsey & Company, 2022).

Compensation and benefits have been shown to increase the retention of skilled employees (Tariq & Schuler, 2010), and this is supported by Mabindisa (2013) who postulated that public-sector employees quit for better salaries in the private sector. However, compensation and benefits are unable to address retention on its own

(McKinsey & Company, 2022). Furthermore, improving compensation and benefits remain a challenge for SOEs, as salaries in the public entities are determined by the government and public sector policies. It is thus imperative to develop a model for staff retention in South African SOEs that include more factors than just compensation and benefits (McKinsey & Company, 2022). It is against this background that this study attempts to develop a staff retention model for South African SOEs.

1.2.1 The importance of staff retention

A major implication of staff turnover is the considerable cost of replacing an employee in terms of money, time, and resources (Indeed Editorial Team, 2021). According to Gorde (2019), replacing a manager or skilled employee is on average equal to 18 months' salary, while replacing an hourly employee is six months' pay. For this reason, Singh (2019) argues that it is always better to keep existing employees in an organisation.

The cost of turnover includes intangible costs in addition to monetary expenses. Examples of how the cost of turnover can affect a company's profitability are the following (Indeed Editorial Team, 2021):

1. Hiring expenses: Advertising the position, interviewing candidates, performing background checks for screening, and hiring a candidate all require time and money.
2. Productivity: While the company looks for a new person to fill a vacant position, other employees may need to perform the tasks of that position in addition to their own job duties, leading to lost productivity.
3. Employee morale: If a business has a high turnover rate, other employees may also be influenced to leave the company. Likewise, if job candidates know people leave the company often, attracting new talent may be more challenging.
4. Training discrepancies: If a company needs to replace team members often, more employees may still have much to learn about the company. This can impact projects, client relations, and productivity.

The second major implication of employee turnover is that the retention of quality employees is necessary for the growth and stability of an organisation (Singh, 2019). Acquiring and retaining skilled employees has a significant impact on any organisation, as employees' knowledge and skills are essential to the businesses' ability to be economically competitive in the marketplace (Kumar & Mathimaran, 2017). If an employee chooses to leave the company, this can affect the business' profitability, productivity, and employee morale (Indeed Editorial Team, 2021). Companies with lower employee turnover rates are more profitable, effective, and successful (Singh, 2019).

Unfortunately, as was realised and propagated by Walter Winston, a banker and former chairman of Citicorp in the USA during the 1980s, employees will go where they are needed and will stay when they are well treated, as they cannot be driven but can only be attracted (Wriston, n.d.). It is no secret that employees play an extremely crucial role in the sustainability and development of an organisation. In organisations, a competitive advantage is determined and driven by human resources, as it is the employees who innovate, while innovation ultimately leads to the survival and profitability of a company. When employees leave an organisation, they take the knowledge, experience, culture, and value system with them, which could be tapped into and used against the organisation. A high attrition rate is also not good for the company's image, as it could send the wrong signal to prospective employees and customers (Singh, 2019).

The concept of 'employee retention' is closely linked to the concepts of 'turnover intention' or 'intention to leave', which emanated from the work of Porter and Steers (1973, p. 153), which they defined as "the next logical step after experiencing dissatisfaction in the withdrawal process." Aburumman et al. (2020) affirmed that the concept of 'employees' turnover intention' has not expanded much in the last 10 years and that many researchers still relied on the models developed by Porter and Steers (1973) and Mobley (1977). The conscious decision that an individual makes to leave the job is called the intention to leave, which may be caused by several factors about which that employee is dissatisfied. Thirapatsakun et al. (2014) postulate that the employee turnover intention or intention to leave is characterised by three main components: (1) thinking of leaving the job, (2) intention to look for a new job, and (3) actual leaving.

When an employee leaves an organisation, the reasons are influenced by a variety of factors, so basically, there are two types of turnover: one is decided by the employee – called voluntary turnover – while the other type of turnover is decided by the company, called involuntary turnover. Involuntary turnover generally happens when either there is restructuring within the company or the employee's performance is not up to expectations (Allen et al., 2010; Crisp, 2021).

Because of high costs involved which relate to employee turnover, the retention of staff has become a prevalent issue within organisational psychology and human resources (Coetzee et al., 2018). On the other hand, the competitive plight of organisations brought about the need to secure intellectual capabilities (Aman-Ullah et al., 2020; Hughes & Rog, 2008). A company's failures or successes are often linked to its ability to attract, retain, and compensate talented and capable employees aptly, making the retention of skilled employees a major requirement in the industry (Al Kurdi et al., 2020). The most prized assets available to companies are their employees; thus, retaining employees in their jobs remains essential for organisational survival (Gorde, 2019; Singh, 2019). When employees leave their jobs, this signal positive or negative survival (Castellano, 2013; Letchmiah & Thomas, 2017; Ortlieb & Sieben, 2012; Wakabi, 2016).

Coetzee et al. (2018) introduced an additional concern and ascertained that retaining highly talented employees is an important component of the business due to the uncertainty in the changing labour market brought about by the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR). Adding to this, Kukreja (2020) argued that evolving technology, climate change, and the impact of COVID-19 have broadened the skills gap, resulting in employers struggling to keep employees with the requisite skill set. Furthermore, Elsafty and Ragheb (2020) asserted that the COVID-19 global pandemic eroded businesses' strategic skills resources, necessitating that experienced and skilled employees be preserved and retained. In essence, each organisation needs to retain its skilled employees to ensure continued customer service and organisational survival (Kukreja, 2020).

Kumari and Chauhan (2013) explained that staff retention is defined as the organisation's effort to retain high-performing, skilled, and talented employees in order to achieve its strategic objectives and goals. According to Maxwell (2004), staff retention entails preventing people from leaving an organisation or department to work elsewhere. In turn, Cascio (2003) defines staff retention as an initiative by management to keep employees from leaving the organisation by rewarding them for performing their jobs effectively, thus ensuring harmonious working relations between employees and managers and maintaining a safe and healthy work environment. Staff retention can simply be defined as an organisation's strategies to retain its employees and reduce employee turnover. Though the term "employee retention" is defined in numerous ways, it denotes various measures taken by organisations to encourage their employees to remain with them longer. The primary reason for the retention of employees is to prevent talented employees from leaving (James & Mathew, 2012).

A report by the Hay Group (2013) indicated that a global employee turnover rate of 23% was predicted by 2018, with voluntary resignations projected to be around 192 million by 2018. Consequently, understanding the reasons why people stay in their jobs is a crucial issue. It has also become imperative to address blanket retention policies, which may tend to be disadvantageous. However, adopting the appropriate strategies that contribute to the retention of valued employees can be appealing (Sinha & Sinha, 2012). Employee retention issues are the most critical human capital management challenge for the immediate future. Researchers have shown that in the future successful organisations will need to recognise the realities of their prevailing work environments and adapt their organisational behaviours, as their longevity and success will depend on innovation, creativity, and flexibility (Davidescu et al., 2020; Sinha & Sinha, 2012).

A study entitled *Fit for the future – Capitalising on global trends*, involving 1344 CEO interviews in 68 countries and 1322 CEO interviews in 77 countries, was conducted by PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) in 2014. The PwC study reported that 73% of the CEOs were concerned about the obtainability of skilled employees, including the requisite talent mix for maintaining business success (PwC, 2015). On the other hand, 64% of the CEOs stated that skill sets formed the priority agenda focus for the following three years (PwC, 2015). These PwC surveys also stated that the skills in question went beyond technical skills, as broader skills were needed than in the past, including the need for diversity and inclusiveness in the workforce (PwC, 2015).

1.2.2 Staff retention strategies

The importance of staff retention strategies to counter staff turnover has been emphasised by numerous authors (Al Kurdi et al., 2020; Allen et al., 2010; Coetzee et al., 2018; Gorde, 2019; Kukreja, 2020; Kumari & Chauhan, 2013; Letchmiah & Thomas, 2017; Singh, 2019). However, these authors also emphasised that staff retention strategies should only be drawn up once the reasons employees leave their jobs have been identified. Once these reasons for quitting or staying have been identified, the organisation can develop strategies to retain crucial employees for longer. Letchmiah and Thomas (2017) and Gorde (2019) further argued that retention factors are specific to a particular organisation, making it critical that each organisation ascertains its own factors that help to retain employees and then incorporate these factors into its own specific retention strategy. This view is supported by Al-sharafi et al. (2018) and Bharath (2021), who contend that 'retention' is a multifaceted concept and that an employee's decision to stay is driven by dissimilar factors and will differ for every organisation.

Numerous authors have identified and justified different retention factors for inclusion in a retention strategy. Döckel (2003), a South African scholar, identified a set of six specific but comprehensive factors that may influence staff retention: (1) compensation (financial and non-financial rewards), (2) job characteristics (skills variety and job autonomy), (3) training and development opportunities (including formal training provided by the organisation), (4) supervisor support (recognition and receiving feedback from supervisors), (5) career opportunities (internal and external career options offered by the employer), and (6) work-life balance (assisting employees to strike a balance between their work demands and their family commitments). Numerous researchers provided evidence that the above-mentioned six sets of factors contributed to a lower intention to leave the organisation, improved productivity, commitment, and employee satisfaction (Al-Emadi et al., 2015; Coetzee

& Oosthuizen, 2015; Coetzee & Stolz, 2015; Das & Baruah, 2013; Lee et al., 2018; Netswera et al., 2005).

Meyer (2011) argued that a lack of skills could also encourage employees to leave an organisation but through employee engagement, this problem can be resolved, and turnover can be curbed. According to George (2014) and Selesho and Naile (2014), organisations are likely to retain employees if they focus on an appropriate management style that is conducive to a pleasant working experience as well as on adequate resources. In addition, George (2014) and Selesho and Naile (2014) contended that organisations needed to focus on a degree of flexibility, where people form part of a team and where colleagues are supportive and where they have opportunities to learn new skills and grow. Work flexibility, pay decisions, and other human resource practices (HR) are just and fair in such an environment.

Dery and Jaco (2015) argued that a work-life balance where employees felt supported with adequate time off and flexible work-life practices were critical for retaining employees. In turn, Gorde (2019) identified four factors that are considered basic to retention, namely, (1) satisfaction, (2) growth, (3) compensation, and (4) support in terms of a work-life balance. In addition, the following nine factors that affect employee retention and turnover intention were identified by Singh (2019): (1) employee voice (opportunity to voice dissatisfaction related to workplace conditions), (2) communication, (3) compensation, (4) leadership (ethical behaviour, fair and inclusive HR practices, and full support for employee development), (5) career development, (6) training and development (job-related training), (7) work/job flexibility, (8) job satisfaction, and (9) performance appraisal. Furthermore, Mitonga-Monga (2020) expanded on the concept of 'ethical leadership,' explaining that it plays a significant role in job satisfaction, which in turn, affects staff retention. Conversely, when employees perceive lack of trust, unfair treatment, and lack of communication, they will leave an organisation (Hashish, 2017). Warnich et al. (2018) also emphasise that job satisfaction and compensation are factors that reduce staff turnover.

Numerous researchers have also emphasised the importance of organisational culture in retaining employees. Anitha and Begum (2016), Igbal (2017), Kontoghiorghes (2016), and Zhang and Wang (2021) showed that organisational culture has had an important impact on staff retention, as a strong, positive culture could create conditions which have encouraged employees to remain in an organisation and lead to improved staff retention. Conversely, Farooqui and Nagendra (2014) warned that employees' individual preferences could clash with the organisational culture and that this mismatch could lead to dissatisfaction and, ultimately, employee turnover.

In support of the above-mentioned retention factors, Holston-Okae and Mushi (2018) stated that the perceived organisational climate and support could shape decisions to leave or stay. On the other hand, Friedman and Kass-Shraibman (2018) emphasised that meaningful work provides employees with a sense of belonging and has ignited a sense of pride, encouraging them to remain with the organisation.

In terms of individual factors, gender, age, educational level, and tenure have been shown to influence staff retention (Bharatah, 2021; Bursch & Kelly, 2014; Dowd-Higgins, 2013; Eratas, 2015; Festing & Schafer, 2014; Hausknecht et al., 2008; Khan et al., 2011; Kraemer & Gouthier, 2014; Li et al., 2008; Lyria et al., 2017; Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). For example, Masibigiri and Nienaber (2011) determined that age was a factor in retention, as Generation X employees (those born from 1965 to 1980) demanded more flexible work practices and tended to leave an organisation if they were not accommodated. This was supported in a study by Bharath (2021), who showed that age was significantly associated with employee retention. Harpreet (2018) in turn showed that employee tenure impacted retention, as employees with more years of service with an organisation tended to have a lower intention to leave the organisation.

Besides the aforementioned traditional employee retention strategies that were discussed, the following recent trends in employee retention strategies are mentioned by Singh (2019):

1. Companies are starting to appoint a full-time employee retention specialist who will guide them to make progress and reduce turnover.
2. Companies are paying more attention to corporate social initiatives as a tool for employee retention, as the new generation of employees is finding these social initiatives attractive.

3. Companies are making a greater effort to understand generational preferences and use them to attract and retain talent.
4. Many companies are experimenting with their employees by treating them like their customers and are building a strong relationship with them to retain them.
5. Companies are trying to understand the life cycle that employees undergo and how their aspirations differ at different stages so that they can fulfil employee expectations to retain them.
6. Companies are paying attention to the new ‘gig economy’ concept by focusing on short contracts and independent work.

1.2.3 State-owned enterprises

A state-owned enterprise (SOE) is an organisation owned by the government and was established to carry out economic activities according to the mandate set out by the government for the benefit of the state. It can be either wholly or partially owned by the government, is typically earmarked to participate in specific commercial activities, and is also called a parastatal (National Treasury, 2019; Public Enterprise Annual Report, 2017/2018).

In South Africa, SOEs include the Electricity Supply Commission (Eskom), Democrats Encourage National Electorate Lifestyle (Denel – an aerospace and defence technology conglomerate), the South African Post Office (SAPO), the South African Airways (SAA), the South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC), and Transnet (the official rail and transport service), to mention only a few (Ovens & Associates, 2013).

South African SOEs are governed by several laws regulating their operations and reporting. The *Public Finance Management Act 1999 [PFMA 1999]* is the primary law that governs the relationship between the government and SOEs. SOEs must report on their annual budgets and corporate plans, and the corporate plan must include human capital, which must cover the issues of talent management and skills development. Other important legislation regarding SOEs is the ‘founding Acts’ governing individual SOEs, such as the Rail Regulator Act, which is the founding legislation for Transnet (National Treasury, 2019; Public Enterprise Annual Report, 2017/2018).

The *PFMA 1999* indicates that it would be a mistake to directly interpret current performance as the only or primarily criterion reflecting the organisational effectiveness and efficiency of an SOE. Historical undercapitalisation, underfunding, and unclear mandates appear to be additional considerations when interpreting the performance of SOEs. Furthermore, while uniformity across sectors would be ideal, SOEs, in reality, face completely different operational environments, making it necessary to adapt any framework accordingly (Public Enterprise Annual Report, 2017/2018).

People management practices in an SOE, which include talent management practices and staff retention strategies, are also influenced by legislation that needs to be adhered to. Legislation applicable to SOEs also plays a significant role in how employees are to be appointed, trained, promoted, and remunerated to carry out work activities in a functional way. The introduction of the *White Paper on Human Resources 1997 [WPHR 1997]* has indicated a new shift from traditional human resources to contemporary human resource management by emphasising organisational effectiveness. The *WPHR 1997* focused on the development of the employee as a tool for the benefit of both employees and the organisation. In South Africa, the *Skills Development Act 1998* and the *Skills Development Levies Act 1998* are regarded as vital pieces of legislation that compel organisations to embrace employee training and development as a core part of the organisational plan, as SOEs are obliged to conform to these two Acts. The South African National Qualifications Framework (NQF) is a framework of registered and quality-assured national qualifications, part qualifications and learner achievements. It provides a framework within which the South African Qualifications System is constructed, representing a national effort to integrate education and training (South African Qualifications Authority, 2014). The NQF is a single cohesive framework that consists of three synchronised qualifications, which are sub-frameworks for (1) general further education and training, (2) higher education, and (3) trades and occupations (South African Qualifications Authority, 2014). Warnich et al. (2018) allude to the fact that legislation plays an important role in how human resources practices are implemented in South African entities, and that legislation assisted in the implementation of the National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) compiled to address skills challenges in South Africa. In addition, the South African Public Sector is required to develop Work Skills Plans (WSPs) in terms of the *Skills Development Act 1998* and the *Skills Development Levies Act 1998*, and this plays a major role in skills development and training. In addition, pay and compensation issues in South African are regulated by the *Basic Conditions of Employment Act 1997* as amended, which regulates hours of work, holidays, and discriminatory pay practices.

1.2.4 Employee turnover in state-owned enterprises in South Africa

As pointed out by Chipunza and Samuel (2009), it is not only the private sector that struggles to retain employees, as governments also have trouble with retaining skilled employees. For example, one South African SOE specialising in transport and logistics had an employee attrition rate of close to 18% over the last three years, while about 10% of employees are aged 55 years and older and will retire in the next five years (Logistics SOE Entity People Management Sustainability Index, 2022). Various reasons have been offered by researchers as to why South African SOEs struggle to retain talented staff. According to Munduga (2014), one reason is the same for all SOEs in Africa, namely, that good performance is poorly incentivised, either through monetary or non-monetary reward systems. This resulted in a disillusioned workforce, leading to employee turnover. Another reason postulated is that SOEs in South Africa compete with better-paying companies in the private sector that remunerate their employees beyond what SOEs can afford (Khuluvhe et al., 2022), leading to loss of skilled employees for these companies. Budiman et al. (2009) also argued that as current skills in SOEs become obsolete due to technological advances, many employees feel that they are not receiving the required training and development to assist them with remaining relevant and end up leaving for organisations that place priority on this aspect. Othman and Lembang (2018) and Khuluvhe et al. (2022) argued that many SOE employees feel they have extremely limited career advancement and promotion opportunities due to the current struggling South African economy. This lack of funds placed a restriction on what SOEs can currently offer their employees in terms of career advancement and promotion, which has a cost implication that SOEs cannot afford. Corruption in South African SOEs (Zondo Commission Report Part 1, 2022) has also resulted in many employees leaving SOEs for more ethically run organisations, fearing that should they remain, they will be identified with the tainted SOE, which would impact their future careers negatively (Ibrahim & Mayende, 2018; Mitonga-Monga, 2020). This lack of ethical leadership in South African SOEs has also been shown to reduce job satisfaction and trust, leading to unfair treatment and poor communication, resulting in employees leaving SOEs for more ethical organisations (Hashish, 2017; Mitonga-Monga, 2020). Kim and Ali (2017) also contended that many talented individuals left SOEs because management could not provide a competitive work culture and competitive compensation packages.

1.2.5 Staff retention in state-owned enterprises in South Africa

The retention of employees in South African SOEs is a subject of serious concern, as SOEs are experiencing a high turnover rate of critical core skills (Coetzee et al., 2018; Khuluvhe et al., 2022; Selesho & Naile, 2014). Employee turnover has momentous implications for the quality, consistency, and stability of SOEs. The retention of employees, especially professional workers, is vital, as their loss poses a risk to the business, threatens intellectual capital, and leads to the targeting of skills by other SOEs and the private sector (Anastasiu et al., 2020; Coetzee et al., 2018; Gergel, 2014; Khuluvhe et al., 2022; Ortlieb & Sieben, 2012). SOEs in South Africa consist of a diverse workforce with wide-ranging expertise, and the retention of employees in especially technical areas remains a concern. Furthermore, SOEs in South Africa compete with companies that are considered employers of choice who have created lucrative employee value propositions for retention purposes (Khuluvhe et al., 2022; Transnet Integrated Report, 2017). In the unpredictable circumstances of the current labour market in South Africa, SOEs require a stable and committed workforce to ensure sustainable productivity (Kelly, 2016; Khuluvhe et al., 2022; Schlechter et al., 2016).

Prior to 1994, employment in SOEs was relatively secure compared to the fluidity of the private sector (Ovens & Associates, 2013). According to Bhorat et al. (2016), the South African labour market has undergone considerable changes since the end of apartheid that came with the elimination of various statutory restrictions and the labour market became more open, which allowed employees easier movement between organisations. Opening up the economic, political, and cultural systems created opportunities for growth and new challenges in which individuals were given opportunities to expand their capabilities in different sectors (Department of Trade and Industry, Industrial Policy Action Plan, 2007). Previously, the employment history indicated that some employees remained with the same employer for a long time up to retirement because of their loyalty and job security. A change in this regard and 'the war of talent' brought a new perspective on employment and loyalty. The current reality has necessitated a change with respect to employment and the contractual obligation between the employee and the employer: employees feel comfortable about remaining in positions longer where they are informed about the relevant business decisions and where their well-being is taken care of (Seleshe, 2014).

SOEs were also affected by the prevailing labour market conditions with respect to retaining a highly skilled and competent workforce. According to Kelly (2016), millennials formed the largest part of the workforce and had different expectations. It was found that they were not as loyal as some of the other groups and were not averse to 'job-hopping'. Millennials do not stay long with one employer or in one position; they lack loyalty towards their employers, tend to take risks, and job-hop frequently. The results of a Kelly survey conducted among social media followers on job-hopping in South Africa showed an extremely high level of job-hopping among 18 to 35-year-olds (Kelly, 2016).

Conversely, Kuptsch and Eng Fong (2006) stated that with globalisation, the issue of the brain drain has become a reality across different countries for labour migrants. Opportunities for highly skilled employees have expanded with globalisation, and barriers to cross-border movement by labour migrants have diminished as countries actively promote inflows to redress domestic skill shortages and to accelerate economic growth. Restrictions on mobility are more relaxed, and highly skilled employees are favoured by these opportunities (Kuptsch & Eng Fong, 2006). In South Africa, it is reported that people aged between 25 and 29, mostly those from the Gauteng Province, formed the largest proportion of emigrants from 2011 to 2015 (Statistics South Africa, 2016). SOEs need to gain meaningful insight into the prevailing labour market conditions in order to attract and retain a highly competent workforce.

Across industries, the challenge of acquiring top talent has intensified in many ways due to demographic shifts and the need for more educated, experienced, and skilled employees (Society for Human Resource Management [SHRM], 2015). Staff turnover is normal for businesses of all sizes and in all industries. However, excessive turnover can cripple companies.

Unemployment remains high in South Africa, reaching 34.5% in the first quarter of 2022 (Statistics South Africa, 2022). While South Africa's high level of unemployment is not unique, it is compounded by skills shortages that result in a structural mismatch between labour demand and supply. This structural mismatch ensued because numerous skills shortages are in the high-end skills market, whereas the majority of the employed and the unemployed have low-level skills (Khuluvhe et al., 2022; Mani, 2016; Reddy et al., 2016). It is thus not surprising, in the light of this structural mismatch, that employers are challenged when it comes to filling skilled positions. Various researchers have emphasised the fact that highly skilled employees will remain scarce in South Africa for the foreseeable future (Kerr-Phillips, 2009; Muteswa & Ortlepp, 2011; Rasool & Botha, 2011; Schlechter et al., 2016). A lack of the needed work experience among those who do apply, competition from other employers, and a lack of technical skills among job applicants are some of the challenges noted by employers (SHRM, 2016). This is confirmed by Lyndy van den Barselaar, the managing director of Manpower South Africa, who stated that "South Africa's continued skills deficit is being compounded by a lack of technical skills, which is having a negative impact on employment across many sectors of the country's economy" (Staff Reporter, 2015, p. 22).

What will have to be prioritised in SOEs in South Africa regarding the retention of employees will be HR practices that are compatible with the humanistic goals of state-owned enterprises, aimed at reinforcing employees' skills and opportunities to participate in decision-making, whereas financial incentives may be used to a lesser extent, compared to private sector companies (Alnaqbi, 2011). Therefore, it is conceivable that retention strategies in SOEs will be broadly dissimilar to retention strategies in private institutions, and that studies of retention strategies in private companies may produce different results (Halim, 2018). Although studies have given a great deal of attention to Human Resource Management (HRM) practices in private-sector organisations, few studies have been conducted to assess their effects on staff retention in public-sector organisations (Alnaqbi, 2011; Fahim, 2018). For this reason, SOEs cannot rely fully on the same retention strategies used by the private sector, and research will have to be conducted on which staff retention factors are the strongest indicators of staff retention in an SOE (Alnaqbi, 2011; Fahim, 2018).

Because of the legislative and regulatory environment in which SOEs in South Africa are compelled to operate as explained above (National Treasury, 2019; Public Enterprise Annual Report, 2017/2018), creative ways will have to be found to incentivise employees of SOEs without impacting the basic or fundamental rights of the minimum conditions of employment of their employees. The minimum rights of employees include issues such as the maximum working hours, limits on overtime, overtime pay, annual leave, sick leave, maternity leave, and responsibility leave, which are stipulated in the *BCEA* 1997. To assist SOEs with expanding their options for exploring compelling value propositions for retention, this researcher opines that laws such as the *BCEA 1997* should serve as the basis for expanding what can be offered as incentives to attract and retain highly skilled employees. However, SOEs should strive to enhance their value propositions beyond the *BCEA 1997*. The changing world of work offers attractive opportunities to people with diverse experiences and from diverse backgrounds, and it requires that organisations create rewarding work experiences to retain the necessary talent.

The success of an SOE depends to a large extent on the staff that can be attracted and retained, as the best and most skilled talent is required to ensure that they are able to carry out their mandate effectively and efficiently (Coetzee et al., 2018; Khuluvhe et al., 2022; Selesho & Naile, 2014). As current skills become obsolete due to technological changes and 4IR, new skills and the updating of current skills will be demanded, making training and development an imperative part of an SOE's retention strategy (Budiman et al., 2009). Training and development also often lead to work that is more intrinsically rewarding (Nkomo et al., 2018), and training and development are strongly related to retention (Al-sharafi et al., 2018). Furthermore, SOEs will have to increase the job satisfaction of employees to retain them (Al-sharafi et al., 2018; Nkomo et al., 2018), while employees who feel that they have a greater opportunity to be promoted in SOEs are more likely to stay with them rather than think of leaving them (Khuluvhe et al., 2022; Othman & Lembang, 2018).

As corruption has had an impact on the employer brand of most SOEs in South Africa (Ibrahim & Mayende, 2018; Zondo Commission Report Part 1, 2022), ethical leadership will play an increasingly important role in the attraction and retention of employees in corruption-impacted SOEs (Mitonga-Monga, 2020). Ethical leadership has also been shown to assist in retaining employees due to its role in increasing job satisfaction and trust, ensuring fair treatment and improving communication (Hashish, 2017; Mitonga-Monga, 2020). Kim and Ali (2017) also showed that talented individuals could be retained in SOEs if management could provide a competitive work culture and competitive compensation packages.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Employees are the most important assets in organisations, without which the goals and objectives of the organisation may not be attained. Skilled employees are rare to find and attracting and retaining these skills in public institutions, including SOEs, has proven to be a serious challenge (Thusi & Chauke, 2023). Retaining these employees has become a critical issue, as failure to do so threatens the performance of the business (Sultana, 2017) and threatens their survival (Syarafina & Sushandoyo, 2022). However, the current retention strategies and models utilised by South African SOEs have been unable to prevent the large-scale resignation of skilled employees (Thusi & Chauke, 2023).

Mohajane (2017) postulated that staff retention is not well-researched in South Africa, as shown by the lack of studies on staff retention in SOE’s in particular. Besides their contribution to the overall economy of South Africa, SOEs have received little further academic attention, as no empirical research has been conducted which focuses on the development and validity of the staff retention models that they utilise (Thusi & Chauke, 2023). The study by Thusi and Chauke (2023) also found a gap in studies investigating the issues surrounding the retention and attraction of scarce skilled employees and how this impacts the service delivery of South African SOEs. Although numerous studies have investigated staff retention strategies in private sector organisations, studies have yet to be conducted to assess their effects on staff retention in SOEs (Alnaqbi, 2011; Fahim, 2018). However, knowledge on retention strategies in the private sector will not necessarily assist SOEs, as the context of the two sectors differ greatly. Furthermore, Halim et al. (2020) noted that employee retention factors differ among various countries and economies and can vary according to the industry sector. In addition, various authors have argued that staff retention is a complex multifaceted issue, which cannot be studied as a single concept, and the factors that should be considered for inclusion in a staff retention model are not a one-size-fits-all (Bharath, 2021; Coetzee et al., 2018; Mzini, 2019). Therefore, this study will focus on developing a staff retention model specifically suited for South African SOEs.

Despite the introduction of various retention factors such as compensation and benefits, job characteristics, training and development, career growth, culture and ethical leadership, to name only a few, into retention strategies in various organisations in the private sector (Al-Emadi et al., 2015; Coetzee & Oosthuizen, 2015; Coetzee & Stolz, 2015; Döckel, 2003; Das & Baruah, 2013; Dery & Jaco, 2015; George, 2014; Hashish, 2017; Lee et al., 2018; Meyer, 2011; Mitonga-Monga, 2020; Netswera et al., 2005; Selesho & Naile, 2014; Singh, 2019), there is still a lack of empirical studies conducted within South African SOEs on how these retention factors relate to staff retention and whether they can be used to develop a retention model for South African SOEs. This is supported by Festing et al. (2013) who argued that staff retention factors would differ according to the organisation being studied. As such this study is unique in that it focuses on determining which staff retention factors should be included in a staff retention model specifically developed for South African SOEs to prevent skilled staff from leaving and to curb the current high turnover rate of skilled staff.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions to be addressed in this study are discussed in this section.

1.4.1 General research question

Based on the above background and problem statement, the general research question was formulated as follows:

Statistically, which staff retention factors are the strongest indicators of staff retention in a South African SOE?

1.4.2 Research questions with regard to the literature review

Research question 1: How are the concepts of ‘staff retention’ and its key constructs conceptualised in the literature?

Research question 2: Based on the literature, which existing instruments are used to measure staff retention and its key constructs?

Research question 3: Which current models of staff retention exist, which constructs of staff retention do they include, and how applicable are these existing models of staff retention to South African SOEs?

Research question 4: Based on the literature, what role do the biographical variables play regarding staff retention?

Research question 5: Based on the literature review, which constructs of staff retention should be included in a theoretical model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa?

1.4.3 Research questions with regard to the empirical study

Research question 1: How can staff retention and its key constructs be measured in a South African SOE?

Research question 2: What is the statistical relationship between the concept of 'staff retention' and its key constructs?

Research question 3: Do employees belonging to different biographical groups, such as gender, age, tenure, educational qualifications, and job grade, differ significantly regarding staff retention in a South African SOE?

Research question 4: Based on the empirical results, which staff retention constructs are statistically the most significant indicators of staff retention and should be included in a model of staff retention for South African SOEs?

Research question 5: Which recommendations can be made for the Industrial and Organisational Psychology field regarding staff retention practices and future research?

1.5 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aims of this study are discussed in this section.

1.5.1 General aim of the study

The general aim of this study is to develop a model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa.

1.5.2 Specific aims of the study

The specific aims of the study are described in this sub-section.

1.5.2.1 Specific literature aims

The specific literature aims of the study are the following:

- Aim 1: To conceptualise the concept of ‘staff retention’ and determine its key constructs from a theoretical perspective

- Aim 2: To investigate the existing instruments used to measure staff retention and its key components

- Aim 3: To evaluate the existing models of staff retention to determine which constructs of staff retention they include and their applicability to South African SOEs from a theoretical perspective

- Aim 4: To investigate the role of biographical variables regarding staff retention from a theoretical perspective

- Aim 5: To determine which constructs of staff retention should be included in a theoretical model of staff retention for South African SOEs from a theoretical perspective

1.5.2.2 Specific empirical aims

The specific empirical aims of the study are as follows:

- Aim 1: To select and/or adapt existing questionnaires measuring the constructs of staff retention as the independent variables in a South African SOE

- Aim 2: To select and/or adapt an existing questionnaire measuring the concept of staff retention as the dependent variable in a South African SOE

- Aim 3: To determine the statistical relationship between the concept of 'staff retention' and the key constructs of staff retention as independent variables

- Aim 4: To determine whether the biographical variables of gender, age, educational qualification, tenure and job grade statistically significantly moderate the relationship between the staff retention factors (independent variables) and Intention to leave (the dependent variable) in a South African SOE
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- Aim 5: To develop an empirical staff retention model for South African SOEs

- Aim 6: To make recommendations for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology regarding staff retention practices and future research

1.6 POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

This study will add value to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology (IOP) in three ways: theoretically, methodologically, and practically.

1.6.1 Potential contribution on a theoretical level

This study can prove to be theoretically useful because it identifies and discusses factors that contribute to staff retention. It can also develop a better understanding of the concept of 'employee retention' in SOEs. The study can also contribute to a theoretical understanding of the role retention plays in South African SOEs with regard to individual biographical characteristics.

1.6.2 Potential contribution on an empirical level

Empirically, this study should contribute to identifying the key constructs that are the strongest indicators of staff retention specific to South African SOEs, as few studies have been conducted in the public sector environment on this topic. As staff retention models and their factors do employ a one-size-fits-all approach, this study could enable South African SOEs to compile and implement retention strategies that will work in their unique environments.

The study should also indicate whether employees belonging to different biological groups (gender, age, tenure, educational qualifications, and job grade) differ significantly regarding staff retention in a South African SOE. This information could prove valuable for the retention of talented staff, as different biological groups could be approached differently when attempting to convince them to remain at the particular SOE.

This study should also be useful for future researchers regarding developing and validating an empirical model of staff retention in South African SOEs.

1.6.3 Potential practical contribution

This study can assist practitioners, academics, and policymakers in different organisations to understand the construct of staff retention better. The main focus of this study is to provide a validated model of staff retention in a South African SOE that could be used by industrial and organisational psychologists (IOPs), human resource practitioners, and managers to help address the dilemma of retaining the core critical skills and deal with the unwanted turnover on a practical level. The theoretical framework should also be applicable to other public and private entities in South Africa and other African countries.

1.7 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVES

According to Mackenzie and Knipe (2006, p. 1), “A paradigm influences the way knowledge is studied and interpreted, and it is the choice of paradigm that sets down the intent, motivation and expectation for the research.” The research paradigm is the vital core of the research process, and it is deemed critical to gaining insight and providing answers to the research subject (Ngulube, 2015). It provides insight into the research design and methods that could be used to explore and gain knowledge about the issue (Ngulube, 2015). It serves as a guide or part of the blueprint that stipulates how the research is planned and executed. In addition, it explores the assumptions, the problem statement, the research techniques to be used, and examples of what good scientific research is like (Neuman, 2011).

1.7.1 Intellectual climate

The literature review on the construct to be deliberated on will be presented from the perspective of both the humanistic paradigm (Corey, 2017) and the open-system theory (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2016). On the other hand, the empirical study will be deliberated on from the perspective of the positivist research paradigm (Hayes, 2000), with an emphasis on observable facts.

1.7.1.1 Literature review: The humanistic paradigm

Maslow (1943) and Rogers (1951) are the original theorists of the humanistic paradigm, which is based on the belief that people are unique beings with differing capacities and the natural desire to achieve self-actualisation. In an organisation, humanism is based on the belief that it should create value for its employees, including treating them with dignity and respect to enhance self-actualisation. According to Maslow (1943), a sense of acceptance, affiliation, and belonging are imperative for humans. Employees who are dissatisfied with their work environments can affect their motivation to meet work goals negatively. The humanistic paradigm emphasises the important role that subjectivity plays in people's living experiences (Corey, 2001; Geldenhuys, 2015). According to Maslow (1973), as well as Rusu (2019), humanist thinking suggests that people constantly strive towards becoming self-actualised or fully functioning individuals. People's interaction with the world can affect how they thrive, be it through learning or the working environment (Society for Human Resource (SHRM) Management, 2016b). Conversely, applying the humanistic paradigm to the working environment has to do with self-actualisation in terms of growth and development

According to Bland and DeRoberti (2019), people are determined and intentional beings who make sense of their experiences to understand their challenges and overcome life’s difficulties. They further argue that the perception of reality is developed around a person’s interaction with the world. Wakai (2001) posited that behaviour differs from person to person as a result of the environment to which the individual is exposed. Rogers (1951) claimed that individuals develop their concepts of reality through interaction in the phenomenological sphere.

The aforementioned theoretical principles are embedded in the central premise that people function as holistic beings with social interests. This functioning allows individuals to experience what they encounter in the personal and social context. Individuals generate meaning from their experiences and use that meaning in an attempt to overcome life’s difficulties. In a nutshell, the behaviouristic and humanism paradigm of Maslow (1943) and Rogers (1951) cast light on the retention challenges experienced by organisations because human beings have different needs and the desire to achieve self-actualisation. The humanist paradigm revolves around the theory of retention, looking at the issues that are valued intrinsically by individuals in the workplace to thrive and be retained in the organisation. The humanist paradigm notion emphasises the care and human dignity that converge for the benefit of the common good. In this study, the humanist paradigm is blended with the theory of staff retention to understand the expectations of employees and explore the opportunities for employee retention.

1.7.1.2 Literature review: Open-systems paradigm

To understand an organisation, it needs to be viewed as an open system (Chikere & Nwoka, 2015). According to Alvesson and Sveningson (2016), open-system thinking views organisations as being composed of various interconnected subsystems that make up the whole organisation. A comprehensive approach promotes the exploration of the interdependence and connectedness of different subsystems and their interface with the elements of an organisational culture. Hodge et al. (1996) as well as Chikere and Nwoka (2015) further postulated that the open-systems paradigm studies the individual as part of an organisation that interacts with the external environment.

Alvesson and Sveningsson (2016) asserted that culture is still seen as a key aspect of organisational competitiveness, infusing efficiency with flexibility and engagement. It appears that commitment and retention will only flourish under the right circumstances in an organisation (Goldberg, 2014; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Saif et al., 2012). The idea is to align subsystems rather than keep them distinct. Values, norms, and beliefs that play a role as retention determinants in the culture of the organisation can either support or inhibit commitment and retention, depending on how they influence the behaviour of individuals and groups (Donoghue, 2010; Schein, 2010; Silverthorne, 2004). The idea is that an organisation's retention framework needs to accommodate a variety of aspects in order to succeed. Patterns of interaction between people, roles, and climate represent an extremely complex environment. Under these circumstances, retention can be influenced by several variables. The open-systems approach views retention as part of the interdependent culture of an organisation. Accordingly, studying staff retention requires the researcher to look at the interdependent systems in the organisation that affect retention, culture, ways of working, and training and development issues, for example. Hence, the theory studied on retention was derived from the system paradigm.

1.7.1.3 Empirical study: Positivist research paradigm

The positivist approach relies on statistical evidence to prove real situations in the world. According to Neuman (2014), the positivist approach uses formal logic and the hypothetic-deductive method to ensure that theoretical propositions satisfy the requirements of falsifiability. Positivism tends to be linked with the hypothetic-deductive approach of the social sciences. It entails working with social reality to produce the law of generalisation in quantitative research (Saunders et al., 2016). Furthermore, the hypothetic-deductive approach holds that the scientific method alone can establish truth and objective reality in the study of human behaviour. Positivism favours quantitative methods, in which the role of theory is to formulate hypotheses that can be tested deductively. Importantly, positivism strives to generalise the scientific findings to broader populations (Mouton, 2019).

Researchers who work from the positivist perspective explain how variables interact, shape events in quantitative terms, and lead to outcomes by applying rigorous designs and sampling criteria to enable the generalisation of the outcomes to broader populations. Antwi and Hamza (2015) developed and tested the above-mentioned explanations in experimental studies: this type of research encompasses the testing of hypothetical predictions to establish the outcome of the correctness of a particular theory as asserted by multivariate analyses and techniques for statistical projections. However, multivariate analyses and techniques for statistical prediction are among the classic contributions of this type of research, which involves testing hypothetical predictions about what will or will not happen if a particular theory is true as well as making deductions from the results of those tests (Hayes, 2000).

Neuman (2011) explains that "Positivist social research is an organised method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observation of individual behaviour to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can predict general patterns of human activity." (p. 95)

Positivism entails working with social reality to produce the law of generalisation in quantitative research (Saunders et al., 2016). The hypothetic-deductive approach holds that only a scientific method can establish truth and objective reality in the study of human behaviour.

Researchers who work from the positivist perspective explain how variables interact, shape events, and cause outcomes in quantitative terms by applying rigorous designs and sampling criteria to enable generalisation to the broader populations (Mouton, 2019). Positivism assumes that patterns (trends), generalisations, methods, procedures, and cause-and-effect issues are also applicable to the social sciences. Accordingly, the researcher intended to investigate the staff retention factors and their relationship to their intention to leave, using several hypothetical statements that needed to be tested.

1.8 MARKET OF INTELLECTUAL RESOURCES

According to Mouton and Marais (1996, p. 23), “The market intellectual resources refers to the collection of beliefs which has a direct bearing upon the epistemic status of scientific statement.” For the purpose of this study, the theoretical models, meta-theoretical statements, conceptual descriptions about the staff retention factors, general research questions, aims, and objectives are presented.

1.8.1 Meta-theoretical statement

Meta-theoretical statements represent an important set of assumptions underlying theories, models, and research paradigms. Meta-theory addresses questions of ontology (it refers to people as “being” in the world), epistemology (related to ways of knowing), and axiology (that concerns the nature of values) (Nicora, 2020). Tennis (2008) identified epistemology as research on what forms knowledge, what constitutes adequate sources of evidence (by presenting that knowledge), and acceptable results in the form of findings. In this way, it deals with first-order philosophical premises about the existence and nature of society (Burrell & Morgan, 2005). In the disciplinary context, this study focuses on IOP as a field of application (Mouton, 1996). The meta-theoretical statements are presented below.

1.8.1.1 Industrial and organisational psychology

The outline of this study is based on the framework of IOP, which is conceptualised as an application of psychological principles and research in the workplace environment. According to Landy and Conte (2010), IOPs study the factors that impact work behaviour, such as socio-cultural factors, employment-related legislation, personality, gender, race, and lifespan development. An IOP introduces interventions that address challenges experienced by employees in the workplace in the various sectors of the economy. In this context, an IOP acts as an advisor (Van Vuuren, 2010).

1.8.1.2 Personnel psychology

Personnel psychology is viewed as one of the first and more traditional fields of IOP (Muchinsky et al., 2005). It looks at the study of individual differences in the organisation, including job analysis, psychological assessment, selection, placement, employee reward and remuneration, employee training and development, career development and support, performance and evaluation, attracting and retaining scarce skills, and adhering to employment-related legislation (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). This subfield of IOP is significant for this study: it outlines factors that are studied in this research, which include retention aspects, training and development, reward and remuneration, career development, and adherence to employment legislation that promotes retention. Concisely, personnel psychology highlights the unique differences that employees might like to experience in their organisations. As a sub-discipline of IOP, personnel psychology represents the overlap between psychology and human resource management (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010).

1.9 RESEARCH DESIGNS

The two types of research that were employed in this study were descriptive and explanatory, which will be explained in more detail below.

1.9.1 Descriptive research

According to Neuman (2014) and Salkind (2012), descriptive research refers to an in-depth description of the individual situation, group, organisation, culture, subculture, interactions, and social objects. Its purpose is to clarify the relationships between variables in the research domain systematically, and the main objective is to describe issues as accurately as possible.

Christensen et al. (2015) stated that descriptive research is concerned with describing phenomena, events, or situations. Kumar (2014) posited that a description of a problematic phenomenon details the effects of steps and processes. In the literature review of this study, descriptive research will be used to conceptualise staff retention and develop a theoretical model of staff retention. The empirical study is applied to the theoretical model of retention to validate it. Saunders et al. (2016, p. 175) stated that descriptive research may be a forerunner to explanatory research. Furthermore, Neuman (2014) indicated that descriptive and explanatory research normally merge in practice. Saunders et al. (2016) further argued that if the research utilised a description, it is likely to be a precursor to an explanation, and such studies are known as descripto-explanatory.

1.9.2 Explanatory research

Explanatory research focuses on defining the research question and hypotheses about new and relatively unexplored research areas (Salkind, 2012). In this regard, Neuman (2014, p. 31) stated, “Explanatory research identifies the source of social behaviours, beliefs, conditions and events; it documents causes, tests, theories and provides reasons.” Explanatory research is concerned with why the phenomena mentioned previously occur in a specific manner. According to Salkind (2012) and Kumar (2014), explanatory research goes further than merely indicating that a relationship exists between the variables. Conversely, Salkind (2012) postulated that this type of research indicates the direction of the relationship in a causal relationship model and seeks to uncover the possible relationship between variables. This study is partly explanatory because it aims to understand the relationship between retention factors and intention to quit.

1.10 RESEARCH APPROACH

According to Creswell (2014), the choice of a research approach regulates the research design. In choosing a research method, the researcher can decide to use either numeric data or words, that is, a quantitative or qualitative approach. The quantitative approach uses numeric data sets or statistics to quantify observed things, generalise, and predict causal explanations (MacDonald & Headlam, 2011). Mouton (2019) highlighted that quantitative studies aimed to provide a broader overview of the sample and to generalise the findings. Creswell and Creswell (2018) alluded to quantitative research as an approach to testing theories, which included examining the relationship between variables, which are measured by means of instruments. Quantitative research first identifies the problem statement and forms a hypothesis, a literature review, and a quantitative data analysis (Williams, 2007).

For this study, a quantitative research approach was considered to be the most appropriate. The reason for this is that the rudimentary aim of quantitative research is to define and explain an object, phenomenon or situation, and to generalise findings from a sample to the rest of the populace (Terre Blanche et al., 2008). This is what this study intended to do regarding staff retention, which is studied as a single case.

This research aimed to develop a retention model based on the objective measurement of both reality and data accuracy. Creswell (2014) stated that in quantitative research, the problem is understood in terms of which variables or factors influenced the outcome. In this case, the factors or variables involved the determinants of retention factors, and the outcomes reflected the retention/or intention to leave. This research adopted a quantitative approach, as it employed research questions which needed to be addressed. It included dependent and independent variables that needed to be measured, and it required hypothesised outcomes. The ordered model of quantitative research recommended by Creswell (2014) was adopted. This involved beginning with descriptive questions, followed by inferential variables and comparisons between groups. Creswell and Creswell (2018) explained that growth and more elaborative quantitative methods have been established. These include structural equation modelling (SEM), which is employed in this study, linear regression modelling and logistic regression. Complex measures are also included, which involve factorial designs and repeated measure designs.

1.11 RESEARCH METHODS

According to Creswell (2014), research methods refer to specific methods of data collection and analysis. This is explained below.

1.11.1 Population and sampling

The population for this study consisted of 5395 employees of a South African SOE and comprised both male and female employees of various generational cohorts and grade levels. Only skilled employees were selected for the sample, since they comprised the population that South Africa has – a small skilled population – and because many organisations grapple to retain employees from this group of employees.

As it was not possible to survey the entire population, a sample of the population was selected from which the actual data was collected. Furthermore, stratified sampling was used to divide the population into homogeneous groups, and then random samples were selected from each group (Neuman, 2014; Saunders et al., 2016). The existing six job grades of the SOE in the study were used as the stratum. According to Hair et al. (2019), a sample of at least 500 respondents is required to conduct SEM. In the current study, a sample comprising 1000 employees was identified to complete the survey questionnaire. A total of 685 employees finally responded and returned the completed questionnaire, which was regarded as an adequate representation of the population for survey purposes (Hair et al., 2019). The sample was selected to fit the skilled employees.

1.11.2 Selection/adaptation of measuring instruments

This process involved reviewing and adapting existing measuring instruments that measure the constructs of staff retention as the independent variable and the concept of ‘staff retention’ as the dependent variable.

1.11.3 Research procedure

The research utilised self-report measurement in the form of a survey. In self-report measurements, the respondents provided the value of the measured variable directly. An online questionnaire was used to collect the primary data from the respondents, and the survey was conducted at a single point in time. In this cross-sectional survey study, data is collected from respondents during a single relatively brief period (Christensen, 2015).

Leedy and Ormrod (2015) stated that survey research is popular for most descriptive, quantitative research, as it uses questionnaires that are relatively easy to distribute and by means of which data can be collected from a large number of respondents. In this study, respondents were requested to respond to the questionnaire at a particular time and state their level of agreement with regard to staff retention factors.

All the employees in the identified sample of 1000 were invited to participate in the survey in order to obtain self-generated data to test the validity of the new proposed theoretical model of staff retention (Chandon et al., 2005). A total of 685 respondents completed the survey as follows:

- The cross-sectional survey method of data collection was used.
- The total identified sample had access to the Internet.
- The questionnaire was distributed to the respondents online by providing them with a link to the questionnaire.
- The respondents were requested to consent to the study before completing the questionnaire.
- All 685 responses were imported into an electronic spreadsheet format for further statistical analysis.

1.11.4 Statistical analysis

Quantitative analysis is a process that uses numerical representation and the manipulation of observations with the main aim of describing and explaining any phenomena reflected by those observations (Babbie, 2016a). The quantitative data was gathered using an online survey. The data was exported from the online survey into Microsoft Excel 2016 and then analysed using the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), which included the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) module, version 26 (IBM, 2015). The following statistical procedures were conducted:

1. For this study, descriptive statistics in the form of frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations were calculated to explain the study sample (Field, 2018).

2. An internal consistency analysis was done using Cronbach's alpha to determine the reliability of the SRQ used. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of reliability in the social sciences (Diedenhofen & Musch, 2016). The closer the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale (Namdeo & Rout, 2016).

3. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed to determine the factor structure of the SRQ, as it related to the sample under investigation (Field, 2018). According to Hair et al. (2019), an EFA is an independence technique whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables. EFA seeks to describe and summarise data by grouping variables that are highly correlated and those that have relatively small correlations with variables in a different group, where each group of variables represents an underlying construct (Hair et al., 2019; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). EFA was used to determine which items were measuring the same construct by being highly correlated. The appropriateness of the EFA was assessed using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The KMO is an index that is reached when all variables are totally predicted by other variables, and a value of at least five indicates that the data is adequate for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2019; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

4. SEM was used to evaluate the validity of the theoretical model with empirical data, with the goal of determining whether this hypothesised model is consistent with or fits the collected data. SEM is a collection of statistical techniques that allows the examination of a set of relationships between one or more independent variables, either continuous or discrete, and one or more dependent variables, either continuous or discrete (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). SEM consists of two parts, the measurement theory and the structural model, where the first part makes use of confirmatory factor

analysis to provide a confirmatory test for the measurement theory and the second, structural part, forms the SEM.

5. A hierarchical multiple moderated regression analysis (HMRA) was performed to examine whether the biographical variables of age, gender, educational qualification, tenure, and job grade statistically significantly moderate the relationship between the staff retention factors (independent variables) and Intention to leave (the dependent variable). In general terms, a moderator is a qualitative or quantitative variable that affects the strength and/or direction of the relationship between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable (Chooi, 2020). Specifically, within a correlational analysis framework, a moderator is a third variable that affects the zero-order correlation between two other variables (Hair et al., 2019). Hierarchical moderated regression analysis (HMRA) is used to empirically test how a variable moderates or influences the nature of a relationship between other variables (Hair et al., 2019). An HMRA enables the relationships between independent and dependent variables to be linked to other independent variables (i.e. moderator). In this study, the moderating effect occurs when the level of the third variable (age, gender, educational level, tenure, and job grade) influences or affects the relationship between the staff retention constructs (independent variables) and Intention to leave (dependent variable).

1.11.5 Refinement of the new proposed theoretical model of staff retention

Finally, the new proposed theoretical model of staff retention was refined and adapted by incorporating the SEM results regarding which factors should be included in a model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa.

1.12 METHODS TO ENSURE RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

According to Neuman (2014), reliability and validity are central to measurements of research. Saunders et al. (2016) also asserted that reliability and validity are crucial to the decision about the quality of research in natural sciences. They both address how the researcher connects concrete measures to abstract constructs.

1.12.1 Reliability

Reliability is defined as consistency within the employed systematic procedures: the consistency of the analytical procedures included accounting for personal and research-method bias that may have influenced the findings (Noble & Smith, 2015). Furthermore, reliability refers to whether the instrument can be interpreted reliably across different situations (Field, 2018). LoBiondo-Wood and Haber (2014) also confirmed that the reliability of the research instrument is defined as the extent to which the instrument yields the same results over repeated measures. It is known that reliability is concerned with consistency, correctness, precision, stability, equivalence, and homogeneity (LoBiondo-Wood & Haber, 2014).

In this study, the questionnaire was subjected to a reliability analysis to determine its internal consistency. Accordingly, an inter-item correlation was applied to control the reliability of the items contained in the questionnaire. In addition, the questionnaire was subjected to a reliability analysis. Internal consistency in the South African context means using Cronbach's alpha or the composite reliability coefficient to improve reliability. According to Heale and Twycross (2015, p. 66), "Cronbach's alpha is the most commonly used test to determine the internal consistency of an instrument."

1.12.2 Validity

Validity and reliability are commonly used in quantitative research (Golafshani, 2003). Furthermore, Golafshani (2003) stated that reliability and validity are embedded in the positivist approach and should be redefined in terms of their use pertaining to a naturalistic approach. Validity refers to the integrity and application of the procedures undertaken and the meticulousness with which the findings reflect the data accurately (Noble & Smith, 2015). According to Heale and Twycross (2015, p. 3), "Validity is defined as the extent to which a concept is accurately measured in a quantitative study."

It is important to note that validity is the extent to which a good fit is provided between the conceptual and operational descriptions of the construct, its use for a particular purpose, and what it aims to measure. This study looked at the validity of the literature review by ensuring that the relevant literature in the research focus area was used, while also taking the problem statement, aims, and objectives into consideration. The study used previous literature studies from other empirical studies for relevance and validity purposes. Validity was ensured by using the current literature that supports the problem statement and objectives of the study. Both classical and contemporary mainstream research studies were referenced to support this study based on their relevance to the study and the constructs being investigated.

Empirically, the construct validity of the SRQ was determined by means of factor analysis, which was used to identify the factors that showed the strongest association with the phenomenon measured (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

1.12.3 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis refers to objects such as elements, phenomena, and behaviour that are of interest to the researcher and allow the description, explanation, and summaries of these objects (Babbie, 2016). According to Maree (2007), the part that is measured is called the unit of analysis. In this study, individual employees in a South African SOE were the unit of analysis, as they were requested to complete a survey questionnaire to gather data concerning staff turnover. Their responses were used to develop a staff turnover model in SOEs.

1.12.4 Delimitations

This study focused on only one South African SOE, and the private sector was excluded. The biographical variables were limited to age, gender, educational qualifications, grade level, and job tenure.

1.12.5 Ethical considerations

According to Newman (2014), ethical considerations are an important part of the research methodology. Rosenthal and Rosnow (2009) defined research ethics as the minimum standards of moral principles that guide the researcher's behaviour. Conversely, Neuman (2014) stated that doing scientific research requires more than understanding the research procedures or methods: as a researcher, one is expected to behave in an ethical way. This includes avoiding scientific misconduct, such as plagiarism. According to Walliman (2011), working with human beings has ethical implications, which requires that respondents are treated with dignity and respect during and after the research projects. These principles include compliance with the social sciences as well as professional obligations towards research participants and participating organisations. As part of the effort to honour these requirements, the following ethical considerations were applied to this study:

1. Approval from the executive leadership facilitated by the general manager of talent and transformation of the targeted SOE was officially sought and obtained.

2. Ethical clearance to conduct the study was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the Department of IOP at the University of South Africa.

3. The written informed consent of the research participants was obtained.

4. Confidentiality was maintained with the results. Confidentiality meant that the data gathered were not reported publicly in a way that identified the organisation in the study or the respondents.

5. The anonymity of the respondents was ensured by not disclosing respondents' names on the questionnaires and research reports.

6. The researcher used recent academic sources of information applicable to this study.

7. The research was conducted within the recognised parameters.

8. All the sources of information and data was acknowledged.

9. Experts in data analysis and the field of research were consulted to ensure a scientifically accurate research process.

10. The organisation was informed of the research results.

11. The study findings were compiled and reported according to the prescribed guidelines.

12. As the study entailed direct human participant involvement, the only foreseeable risk of harm is the potential for minor discomfort or inconvenience due to the time spend completing the data-gathering questionnaire. Thus, this research would not pose a risk above the everyday norm. This potential risk of minor discomfort or inconvenience will be mitigated by making participation completely voluntary. Employees will thus be given a choice to participate or not, with no negative consequences for non-participation.

1.13 CHAPTER DIVISION

This study is divided into eight chapters as follows:

Chapter 1: Scientific orientation to the research – This chapter contains the background to and motivation for the study, the problem statement, the research questions and aims, the paradigm perspective, the research variables, the unit of analysis, and the research design.

Chapter 2: Conceptualisation of staff retention – This chapter provides a critical review of staff retention, including various definitions, appropriate theories, and models. The influence of demographic variables on staff retention and the importance of staff retention for organisations are also discussed.

Chapter 3: The measurement of staff retention – This chapter discusses the different tools that are used by scholars from various research institutes in measuring retention.

Chapter 4: The evaluation of existing general organisational models of staff retention and state-owned enterprise retention frameworks to determine their applicability to all state-owned enterprises in South Africa – This chapter discusses and evaluates existing models of staff retention and their applicability to SOEs.

Chapter 5: A proposed new theoretical model of staff retention – This chapter discusses a proposed new theoretical model of staff retention based on the literature.

Chapter 6: Empirical study – This chapter presents the empirical analyses of this study.

Chapter 7: Research results – The results and analysis of the study are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 8: Conclusions, limitations, and recommendations – This chapter provides the conclusions, limitations, and recommendations of the study.

1.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 1 provided the background and motivation for this study. It also provided the problem statement and research questions, the aims of the study, the potential contribution of the study, and the paradigm perspectives that guided the study. The chapter also discussed the research design. Finally, the chapter outline of the study was presented.

CHAPTER 2: STAFF RETENTION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 will conceptualise staff retention and investigate its underlying constructs. The chapter will start by discussing the importance of staff retention, after which the concept of staff retention will be defined. After this turnover, turnover intention, and talent management and staff retention will be defined. This will be followed by a discussion of four motivational theories to understand how motivation plays a role in an employee's turnover intention, which ultimately influences staff retention. After these five theories of staff, retention will be discussed and compared, while in the last part of the chapter, biographical factors and the 12 most researched underlying constructs that have been shown to significantly influence staff retention will be discussed.

2.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF STAFF RETENTION

Talented people have never been so sought after as in recent years. The challenge does not only lie in how to attract the most talented people to organisations but also in how to keep them (Ibidunni et al., 2016). How do organisations become a safe and comforting haven that not only keeps the talented staff content but also inspires them to perform at their highest potential level? Employee retention has become a critical issue in efforts to keep businesses functioning (Ibidunni et al., 2016). Avoiding staff turnover and coming up with effective staff retention strategies is vital for South African state-owned enterprises (SOEs). Employees leave an organisation for various reasons, which makes it vital to comprehend, track, and analyse those particular reasons (Dhanpat et al., 2018). To retain desirable employees, the organisation should make an effort to understand why its employees tend to leave it.

For the organisation to perform at its best, it needs motivated and high-performing staff members who are prepared to stay with the organisation (Ibidunni, 2016). In today's volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) world (Raghuramapatruni & Kosuri, 2017), the business ecosystem is going through significant turmoil, and organisations are facing extreme change (Sarkar, 2016). The changes brought by the VUCA world also demand that the organisation review its retention strategies and define factors that make them significantly different from other organisations. Despite the factors that distinguish a company from others, the company's understanding of the dynamics that keep employees at the organisation or push them away is crucial for the success of the business (Raghuramapatruni & Kosuri, 2017). In addition, constrained economic conditions further highlight the need for organisations to keep their best people as companies strive to control costs and increase productivity, hence the need for the retention of staff (Anitha & Farida, 2016). Many approaches have been explored to ensure staff retention, including compensation packages and rewards, benefits, telecommuting options, and work-life balance (WLB) initiatives. Furthermore, each may have a place in a company's portfolio of retention strategies (Mabaso et al., 2021; Oracle White Paper, 2012).

Barrow (2017) argued that employees have to be attracted to the organisation in which they want to work and where they aspire to work for a long time. Accordingly, as an employer, the company should stand out; otherwise, it will find itself in the same situation as everyone else. Barrow (2017) stated that organisations use talent retention strategies to gain a competitive advantage over competing organisations by ensuring that employees are attracted to and remain with an organisation. These strategies included reducing the costs that employers incur for recruitment as turnover rates are consequently reduced.

It is important to take care of and nurture talented employees' preferences, needs, and expectations to encourage their retention in the company. Tansley (2011) and Thunnissen et al. (2013) believed that the needs of talented employees have historically been under-researched. The increasing global shortage of talent has led to the ongoing struggle of organisations pursuing comprehensive strategies to attract and retain potential and current employees (Guthridge et al., 2008; ManpowerGroup, 2014). Ngure and Waiganjo (2017) argued that the public sector is perceived to be the employer of choice for employees at the top and the bottom of the remuneration and benefits structures. However, there is a challenge with attracting and retaining adequate numbers of experienced technical and skilled employees in some sectors of the Public Service.

It is evident that South Africa is challenged in terms of skills and is experiencing phenomena such as the brain drain (Erasmus & Breier, 2009). There is an imbalance with regard to demand versus supply, especially the oversupply of more semi-skilled personnel, hence, the demand for professional technical skills (Asmall et al., 2020). However, South Africa is shedding skills at a worrying rate to the benefit of its global competitors (Rasool & Botha,2011). This is caused by the migration of skilled labour from South Africa to other countries, which offer better opportunities and rewards (Singh, 2019). In contrast to the above-mentioned majority of South African workers, skills must be expanded, as the current skill set does not meet the demand. Loewald et al. (2021) further argued that in South Africa, unemployment for skilled employees is low compared to that of unskilled employees. The shortage of a skilled segmentation workforce is exacerbated due to the impact of COVID-19 and other factors, including a high demand for these skills globally.

The statement above is affirmed by the National Skills Development Strategy Annual Report of 2017/2018, which affirmed that South Africa is faced with problems such as a shortage of skills, as well as mismatched skills that could be addressed by means of training and development (National Skills Development Strategy Annual Report, 2017/2018). This included new technology, retention strategies in terms of the rewards system, and the recruitment and selection of personnel, posing a significant challenge in terms of the flexibility of companies to give their employees a competitive edge to stay at or get attracted to the company.

Organisations make enormous efforts to attract appropriately qualified and experienced employees and sustain them in the organisation (Bhati & Borde, 2021). In today’s business scenario, a high salary and designation are not sufficient to retain employees in the organisation, but other factors also play an important role in their retention (Akhtar, 2015). Hence, creating an effective retention model is imperative.

SOEs conceded that they must acquire and retain the best talent to be effective and efficient with respect to their obligation to assist with lowering the cost of doing business in South Africa while ensuring the certainty of the supply by providing appropriate port, rail, and pipeline infrastructure (Transnet Integrated Report, 2018).

As a leading provider of supply chain solutions, along with the need to hire, develop, and retain talented people, South African SOEs need to employ mechanisms to manage talent as a crucial resource to achieve the best possible results (Hakweenda, 2019). The demand for talent is high, and the supply is inadequate across specialised sectors (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2019). There is a shortage of skills across most areas of the freight system, particularly with regard to the new digital platforms (Transnet Integrated Report, 2018). Gaps exist at the organisation's top, middle, and frontline ranks, especially in specialised engineering and project management services. Accomplished talent in a specialised field is an increasingly scarce resource, so it must be managed properly and retained. Businesses like to uphold the idea that employees are their major source of competitive advantage, yet the astounding reality is that most companies are as unprepared for the challenge of finding, motivating, and retaining a capable workforce as they were a decade ago (Schmidt & Meyer, 2009). Automatic Data Processing, Inc (ADP) (2010) stated that the organisation has to align with the business strategy to be able to fulfil the business mandate of retaining critical talent.

2.3 STAFF RETENTION DEFINED

Businesses have to employ expertise and define strategies to attract and retain talent and expertise for organisational sustainability, to find ways to differentiate themselves from their competitors (Iqbal et al., 2013; Oracle, 2014), and to achieve a competitive advantage (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017). Most organisations face the challenge of finding good-quality personnel with the skills, knowledge, experience, competencies, and values that will suit the organisation's roles (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017; Mani, 2016). In addition, Madueke and Emerole (2017) were of the opinion that the business' success depended on selecting and retaining talented staff.

To retain good employees, managers should begin the hiring process by means of a search for the right-fit employee for business success (Graham-Leviss, 2011; Rhoades et al., 2015). It is obvious that not all employees are looking for a job for life. However, employers should go the extra mile to retain the right-fit employees with their valuable skills. The 'one-size-fits-all' approach could be a limiting factor, since different personalities are motivated by different aspirations, and person-job-fit and person-to-organisation-fit are important retention factors (Cloutier et al., 2015). According to Ibidunni et al. (2016), retention, employee satisfaction and employee commitment issues are ever-changing, as the workforce is exposed to the management challenges of the immediate future. This is motivated by employee loyalty, corporate re-engineering efforts and constant competitive pressure for key talent. The challenges that are faced have to do with what is called the 'gig economy', which focuses on short-term contractual work and freelancing rather than full-time jobs (Singh, 2019). The concept places SOEs in a predicament in terms of competing for talent. SOEs are highly regulated, and their operations and functions are defined and approved under National Treasury Regulations; thus, their mandate and types of employment that they can offer may differ from that of the private sector.

The 'gig economy' gained momentum in the digital era, presenting itself as an option for certain work and working remotely (Singh, 2019). SOEs could see themselves falling behind the private sector, as the options offered by the gig economy are viewed as part of the new retention trends. SOEs are still struggling with the basics of retention; hence, having to introduce an advanced approach such as required by the gig economy, which involves freelancing with a worker having full freedom in executing the job, can be a gigantic leap for SOEs. It is also a requirement that any new public sector initiative regarding people management be supported by an appropriately approved legislative framework (Cheteni & Shindika, 2017).

Lyria et al. (2017) defined retention as a struggle that emanates from the war on talent, with the intent of ensuring that measures are put in place to encourage employees to remain in the organisation for the maximum period. On the other hand, Zareen et al. (2013) defined retention as the capability of an organisation to keep its employees for a maximum period of time. Singh (2019) explained the concept by indicating that it essentially signifies several measures taken by organisations to encourage their employees so that they continue to stay with them for a longer period of time.

From the above-mentioned definitions, it can be deduced that staff retention is a practice in which employers engage to convince employees to stay with the organisation. Employers have a responsibility to retain their best performers, and if the employers fail in this regard, star performers will be lost to other organisations

(Gurumani, 2010). It is imperative that the organisation is able to attract, recruit, and retain talent. This is the case because the growing challenge and shortage of skills within labour markets make the process difficult (Al Aina & Atan, 2020; Chhabra & Sharma, 2014; Lievans & Highhouse, 2003). Talent retention is also affected by specific demographic factors such as age, gender, and the profile of talented employees. For example, there is a tendency among younger workers to change jobs regularly, whereas older workers require security and job stability (Milgo et al., 2014).

Tomcikova and Coculova (2020) explained that retention management has become a major source of competitive advantage in the modern world. A business that knows what globalisation brings strives to attract the best talent. It is further argued that employee turnover affects the family, organisation, and society (Healthy Organisations, 2017; Randenbush & Bryk, 2002). It created stress in the family, as the relocation of the employee and his family will become necessary and is financially related to issues in connection with the relocation that may arise. To understand the implications of staff retention, it is also important to understand the 'turnover intention'.

2.4 TURNOVER DEFINED

According to Ajit et al. (2016), turnover is the process through which staff leave an organisation and an organisation replaces staff. Consequently, employee turnover could refer to circumstances where employees exit the organisation voluntarily for several reasons, which could thus affect the organisation negatively in terms of costs, work-team dynamics, and the ability to deliver the minimum required services or performance standards (Iqbal, 2010; Omar, 2019; Yankeelov et al., 2009). The researcher defined turnover as the movement of staff in and out of the organisation within a defined period. Typically, it is the permanent withdrawal of employees from an organisation by means of various exit methods (resignations, early retirement, and voluntary retrenchment). The turnover percentage can be measured by using the following formula: the number of leavers divided by the number of total staff complement times 100 (Gandy et al., 2018; Loquercio et al., 2006).

Sukriket (2014) highlighted that a high turnover as a result of voluntary resignations involved three factors: (1) job dissatisfaction, which caused individuals to decide to leave the job; (2) searching for alternative jobs before leaving the job; and (3) comparing the existing job to the new job and deciding to select a better job. Accordingly, employee turnover is the consequence of a number of factors that arose during the course of the employment relationship (Nyamubarwa, 2013).

The dilemma of high turnover has to be overcome because it cripples the organisation financially and impacts other employees as well (Ajit et al., 2016; Mitchell et al., 2008). Furthermore, employee turnover has been classified into two categories: (1) voluntary and (2) involuntary turnover.

Voluntary turnover occurs when competent and capable employees leave an organisation to work elsewhere. This turnover is costly to the organisation because losing a valued employee reduces organisational productivity and increases expenses associated with the recruitment, hiring, and training of a replacement (Hancock et al., 2013; Mitchell et al., 2008; Wright & Bonett, 2007). It provided an opportunity for competitors to utilise the skills, abilities, and critical knowledge of an experienced and competent employee who has deserted the previous employer (Lin et al., 2016; Yamanto, 2011). Furthermore, Haider et al. (2015) and Pietersen and Oni (2014) agreed that the costs incurred by employers when employees leave the organisation (voluntary or involuntary) are not only monetary but include costs in terms of skills and knowledge (Alshanbri et al., 2015) as well as the risk of the exiting employees selling the company's special trade secrets, and/or details about clients and projects.

On the other hand, involuntary turnover has to do with layoffs or retrenchments in the company (Pietresen & Oni, 2014). In this instance, this is not based on the individual willingness of employees to leave the organisation. Furthermore, Pietersen and Oni (2014) revealed that involuntary turnover could be related to unforeseen circumstances or uncontrollable factors such as death, retirement or ill health. However, involuntary turnover can also cripple the organisation's knowledge and sustainability, which needs to be managed accordingly (Pietresen & Oni, 2014). This study is not concerned with involuntary turnover but voluntary turnover.

Voluntary turnover is also linked to dysfunctional and functional turnover (Farid & El-Sawalhy, 2018; Wallace & Gaylor, 2012). Dysfunctional turnover takes place when the employee wants to leave the organisation but the employer is concerned about retaining such an employee, while functional turnover happens when the employee wants to leave and the employer is not concerned about such a resignation. Commenting on these two types of turnover, Das et al. (2017) stated the following:

> If employees who do not perform to their best choose to leave the organisation, known as functional turnover, this could benefit the organisation. However, dysfunctional turnover (the cost of the reduced productivity of the new worker during the period required for the level of performance of the former employee to be reached) can engender a loss of productivity. (p. 149)

The researcher's argument is also that non-performing employees benefit employers when they leave, while well-performing employees create a loss by leaving. Katsikea et al. (2015) affirmed that unwanted or dysfunctional turnover disadvantages the organisation when experienced employees quit their jobs. As such, it affected intellectual property, had cost implications, and also affected customer-client relationships and profitability. Many experts support the view that actual turnover has more practical implications than 'turnover intention' because as soon as the reasons for increasing intentions to leave the organisation are known, some corrective measures could be implemented. Conversely, employee turnover is the outcome of a number of factors that come into play during the course of an employment relationship.

2.5 TURNOVER INTENTION DEFINED

The term "turnover intention" is considered interchangeable with the term "intention to leave," which is often used as a substitute measurement for staff retention (Cho et al., 2008). Specifically, intention to leave refers to the subjective estimation of an individual regarding the probability of leaving an organisation in the near future (Cho et al., 2008; Dhanpat, 2018). This is in line with the suggestion by Nasir et al. (2019, p. 157) that "retention processes (staff retention) should be studied along with the quitting processes (intention to leave)." Staff retention can be better understood by studying factors leading to increased dissatisfaction among employees and, thus, their intention to leave the organisation. Thus, measuring the factors contributing to an employee's intention to leave an organisation is the most valid measurement of the concept of 'staff retention' (Yousuf & Siddqui, 2019).

Basariya and Ahmed (2019, p. 2598) noted that "turnover intention is a measurement of whether an organisation's employees plan to leave their positions or whether that organisation plans to remove employees from positions." According to Jaharuddin and Zainol (2019), turnover intention measures the likelihood of an employee leaving an organisation. Some employees' general attitudes resulted from their idea of leaving and looking for other jobs (Joseph et al., 2007). It is considered a key determinant of the individual's intention to leave the current employer (Li et al., 2019). Turnover intention is also linked to voluntary and involuntary turnover, as already alluded to above. Employers are responsible for assessing these types of turnover to ensure that they retain employees who will assist them in reaching their organisational goals and objectives.

2.6 TALENT MANAGEMENT AND STAFF RETENTION

Organisations need the right capabilities to sustain themselves, and the talent management (TM) process is an approach that enables organisations to fulfil their mandate of acquiring and retaining capable staff (Al Aina & Atan, 2020). In recent studies, TM has been flagged as a concern and a global challenge confronting organisations (Al Aina & Atan, 2020; Kaleem, 2019). TM places emphasis on ensuring that the organisation has the right skills at a particular time, how those skills are utilised and rewarded, and how those skills are enhanced and developed to ensure continuity in the organisation. Several studies have discovered that TM is an enabling tool for employee retention, motivation, and development (Al Aina & Atan, 2020; Pandita & Ray, 2018). Anlesinya (2019) argued that TM and retention are significantly important for the advancement of African countries. In this study, therefore, TM is viewed from the perspective of skills development, whereby employees are capacitated with the necessary information communications and technology (ICT) skills to face the challenges of the 4IR, thus contributing to the retention of talented staff.

To remain economically viable and relevant, organisations need to be able to operate efficiently through their people, because without people, the organisation's strategic objectives cannot be met (Baharin & Hanafi, 2018). This can only be done if TM measures and retention strategies are implemented according to the demand and supply of the organisation's needs (Kaleem, 2019). Effective TM practices that are managed through several factors linked to staff retention, such as training and motivational strategies, can also improve and enhance employee morale, thus minimising the turnover rate (Kaleem, 2019). Furthermore, as part of effective TM, employee engagement also plays a significant role in ensuring alignment. TM practices in South Africa are used as a strategy to close the skills deficit gap and include all levels of employees. Hence legislation and regulations in the public sector are driven towards promoting the growth of all employees (Theys & Schultz, 2020; Van Dijk, 2008). This approach to developing and retaining talent in the public sector requires that an enabling legal framework be established as a support mechanism (Shava & Doorgapersad, 2021*).*

2.7 MOTIVATION AND TURNOVER INTENTION

Motivation and turnover intention will be discussed in this section.

2.7.1 The relationship between motivation and turnover intention

Closely related to the concept of 'employee turnover intention' is the concept of 'motivation.' Motivational theories emphasise how people behave and what motivates them. Thus, the current study used motivational theories to understand employees' turnover intention better and what motivates them to remain in or leave an organisation. To understand the relationship between motivation and turnover intention, three early and two contemporary theories of motivation will be discussed.

2.7.2 An early theory of motivation: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow's needs theory exemplified that when the needs of employees' physical, biological, social, self-esteem and self-actualisation are met, it encourages the retaining of employees with exceptional worth. Maslow also suggested that needs drive behaviours associated with work attitudes, for example, satisfaction, and that they can be assigned to various levels (Maslow, 1973). Above all, Maslow (1973) believed that humans aspire to self-actualised states. Furthermore, Maslow (1973) identified five basic needs that motivate individuals: (1) physiological needs, (2) security and safety needs, (3) social needs, (4) self-esteem needs, and (5) self-actualisation needs. Maslow (1943) stated that human needs can be arranged in terms of hierarchies of power and influence. This implies that the first higher-level need should therefore be satisfied before another need appears. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is highly related to job satisfaction at the workplace. If employees are satisfied that they have achieved each step of this pyramid, they will be at the highest order of their needs. This will increase employer loyalty and improve retention (Iqbal et al., 2017). Baison (2014) is of the opinion that if employees are happy and satisfied with what they are doing with regard to their functions, they will commit to staying with the organisation. The five levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs can be explained briefly as follows (Maslow, 1973):

- *Physiological needs:* When organisations can meet their employees' basic needs, employees become satisfied and enthusiastic (Sirota et al., 2005). Although pay, benefits, and security are crucial to human survival in the workplace, as employees' needs and demands keep evolving, the employer has to offer more than these in order to retain employees. However, if the basic physiological needs of employees are not met, it could increase their turnover intention.

- *Security and safety needs:* Organisations should be aware of the need for a job and the organisational safety required to retain their best staff. People have a basic need to feel that they are being treated fairly and that they have job security. When people feel that they are not getting equal treatment in this respect, it is something that could have a severely negative impact on the organisation because it could increase employees' turnover intention (Sirota et al., 2005).

- *Social needs:* These have to do with social acceptance among group members; if social needs are fulfilled, the group member feels accepted by the group. There is a need to associate with others that relates to social relationships in the workplace, and unfulfilled social needs could increase employees' turnover intention (Fuller et al., 2008).

- *Self-esteem needs:* These are higher-order needs that focus on the intense desire that employees have for recognition and self-respect (Schwalbe, 2010). At this stage, employees balance the probability of work and rewards, which means that the organisation should be rewarding and the work should be meaningful on its own. This may include promotion as and when due, giving awards that promote and enhance the staff's self-confidence in SOEs. This will further improve the interest of such a staff member to see beyond the work with a sense of self-trust and confidence (Schwalbe, 2010).

- *Self-actualisation needs:* With self-actualisation, one gets to find meaning in life that is vital for the person, and the motivation for self-actualisation leads people in different directions (Kendrick et al., 2010). It is, therefore, crucial to comprehend what motivates and encourages employees to remain in an organisation by examining what they value within the organisation. If one applies Maslow's theory to staff retention, then the drive by employees to attain self-actualisation is related to a meaningful job and challenging tasks that serve as motivators that facilitate the level of achieving the self-actualised stage. In this regard, employees may feel that their full capabilities are utilised, and they may be encouraged to stay with the organisation (Kendrick et al., 2010).

Generally, the levels set out in Maslow's theory are directly related to the full realisation of the needs and wants of employees, and if those are fully satisfied, such a realisation activates happiness; therefore, staying with the organisation is expected as well (Bharath, 2020; Iqbal et al., 2018).

2.7.3 An early theory of motivation: Herzberg's two-factor theory

Herzberg's (1971) two-factor theory of motivation presents work as either satisfying or dissatisfying; hence, the application of this theory to enhance retention holds value. Herzberg's theory maintains that the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of employees influence the intention to stay, and this theory includes the following motivator factors:

achievement, career growth and development, recognition, and treatment. Hygiene factors are also included and comprise relationships with superiors and co-workers and salary benefits – which are associated significantly with retention (Bharath, 2020). Even though Herzberg's motivation-hygiene factor theory was regarded as non-traditional when it was introduced in 1959, it has become one of the most used, best-known, and widely respected theories on motivation and job satisfaction. However, Abba (2018) argued that the theory is one-sided, as it believes that people are motivated by the same factors, which could be regarded as limiting, as the factors selected may not be motivating for all employees. Table 2.1 summarises Herzberg's hygiene and motivation factors.

Table 2.1

Herzberg's Hygiene and Motivation Factors

Hygiene factors (dissatisfaction)	Motivational factors (satisfaction)
Salary	Achievement
Company policy and administration	The work itself
Interpersonal relations	Recognition
Supervision	Career growth and development
Security	Responsibility
Working conditions	

Note. Adapted from "Does Herzberg's Motivation Theory Have Staying Power?" by N. Bassett-Jones and G.C. Lloyd, 2005, *Journal of Management Development*, *24*(10), p. 932.

Herzberg (1971) maintained that employees are motivated by internal rather than external work-related values (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005). Motivation is, therefore, internally generated and facilitated by variables intrinsic to the work (Herzberg called them 'motivators'). According to Ozsoy (2019, p. 11), "these intrinsic variables include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth." On the other hand, certain factors, largely resulting from non-job-related variables (extrinsic), lead to the dissatisfaction of employees. Herzberg referred to these variables as ‘hygiene’ factors (also called *job dissatisfiers*) and argued that appropriate management of these factors could prevent employee dissatisfaction, but that these factors could not serve as a source of satisfaction or motivation. Extrinsic motivation incentives provided in the workplace include salary, work status and security, leave allowances, and professional development (Campbell et al., 2012).

The management should, therefore, not only rely on intrinsic variables to influence employee retention but should consider a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic variables as an effective retention strategy (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). The motivators are known as satisfiers that increase job satisfaction, such as competitive salary packages and an attractive and appealing reward system. These are the key motivators at any company, which motivate employees to do their work more enthusiastically and lead to employee retention.

In support of Herzberg’s two-factor theory, research by Samuel and Chipunza (2009) has shown that employees in both public- and private-sector organisations were largely influenced to stay in their respective organisations by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors. Samuel and Chipunza (2009) found that the following motivational factors influenced employee retention in both the public- and private-sector organisations: (1) training and development, (2) challenging/interesting work, (3) freedom in respect of innovative thinking, and (4) job security.

2.7.4 An early theory of motivation: Equity theory

Adam’s equity theory of 1963 is concerned with the input and output of measures regarding what the input is regarding the work of employees and its outcome. The inputs are specified in terms of effort, loyalty, the hard work every individual puts together, sacrifices made to meet the outcomes, and ability and determination to work (Mulder, 2018). In terms of the inputs that employees achieve, they expect the outcome in the form of salaries, benefits, recognition, advancement and growth opportunities, and job security (De Gieter et al., 2012). Reward and recognition are known to keep employees in their jobs for a while, but cannot create commitment. In a nutshell, the equity theory is based on the expected reward for the effort exerted and thus supports the flexible reward scheme, as it addresses the issue of equitable measure between the inputs and outputs at the workplace. The equity theory also deals with inequity; that is, if there is inequity in rewards and a feeling of being undervalued by employees, this will create dissatisfaction and affect staff retention negatively (Mulder, 2018). In terms of staff retention, employees who are well paid may increase their effort and want to do more, while those who are underpaid may reduce their effort and even want to leave the organisation. This is supported by Shikalepo (2020), who asserted that underpayment and negative inequity resulted in absenteeism and higher turnover.

2.7.5 A contemporary theory of motivation: Expectancy theory

According to Armstrong and Taylor (2014), Vroom (1964) was the first theorist to develop an expectancy theory with a direct application to the work setting. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of motivation states that employee's join organisations with the expectation that their needs and motivations will be fulfilled by those organisations and that these expectations influence how those individuals react towards the organisation. Vroom's (1964) theory endeavoured to clarify why people performed or did not perform, and it posited that what individuals expect from the organisation differs from person to person. The theory further claims that employees expect rewards from their employer, and if those are met, there is likely a chance that the number of those who wish to stay will increase. The lack of expected rewards evokes challenges such as absenteeism and turnover intention (Jiang & Klein, 2009).

Furthermore, Ngure and Waiganjo (2017) supported the view that the concepts of 'turnover' and 'retention' that are derived from the expectancy theory influence the decision to stay or leave an organisation. Expectations play a major role; hence, it is stated that if certain variables of structural expectations (that is, equitable rewards, collegial communication, work autonomy, and job security) are met, employees feel that they have achieved the expected outcome. Therefore, the expectancy theory is based on effort, performance, and reward (George & Jones, 2013). Neumann and Ritz (2015) explained that Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation depended on three components: (1) valence, (2) instrumentality, and (3) expectancy (VIE approach). These three components – taken together – prompt inspiration that is related to other desired business-related ideas, for example, work fulfilment and tenure

Currently, extrinsic rewards, such as pay, are the subject of substantial dispute, and the mode of reward used by an organisation is an important factor in employee motivation (Hsieh & Chen, 2011). The factors mentioned in the expectancy theory, in terms of the VIE approach, are the drivers for employee engagement that result in retention. Shikalepo (2020) argued that the application of this theory can be complex in the work environment due to the unique preference of needs. What matters for one employee, such as job security, might not matter for another employee, who might prefer a salary increment. The diverse needs of the diverse workforce might be complex to meet. In summary, expectancy is a tool used in the evaluation of motivational factors in respect of employees and is influenced by rewards and incentives.

2.7.6 A contemporary theory of motivation: Social exchange theory

The social exchange theory (SET) is based on an exchange process, which means if employees perform their duties, they need to be rewarded for that. SET presents itself in the form of a relationship between two parties. If a quality relationship is perceived by the employees with regard to employers, they then tend to become motivated (Kamau et al., 2020). This means that if the employer does not reciprocate, employees may decide to leave (Baharin & Hanaf, 2018). The theory advocates that when an organisation has identified talented employees and invests in them, the organisation is likely to achieve improved returns on these investments. Regarding staff retention, the theory envisages that when staff members are fulfilled with regard to their work environment, the likelihood that they will stay longer with one organisation will increase (Baharin & Hanaf, 2018). This theory also exhibits how social ties, in terms of the relationship between employers and employees, can influence employees to stay in the organisation and create satisfaction. Exploring the prospects of knowing what employees expect in exchange for their hard work has a great effect on ensuring the retention of staff in organisations.

2.7.7 The implications of motivational theories for turnover intention

Motivational theories have significant implications for turnover intention, as they provide insights into the factors that drive employees' decision to leave an organisation. Organisations should take these implications into account when managing turnover intentions. By addressing employees' needs, providing motivating factors, ensuring fairness, offering growth opportunities, and promoting autonomy, organisations can enhance job satisfaction, motivation, and commitment, thereby reducing turnover intention. In the current study, the discussed theories of motivation were used to augment the theoretical basis as to which factors should be included in a new, theoretical model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa.

2.8 THEORIES OF STAFF RETENTION

According to Anil (2021), organisations employ different kinds of employee retention theories to understand why employees leave, to prevent turnovers. Business scholars are constantly searching for employee retention theories that will help keep both the employer and the employee satisfied, thus reducing staff turnover.

These theories have propounded in line with the fact that the causes of employee turnover are numerous and subjective, with most of these causes stemming from issues such as job dissatisfaction, a lack of prospective future job growth, and misplaced hiring (Anil, 2021). Moreover, it is imperative to understand that the causes of staff turnover have internal factors (for example, team dynamics) and external ones (for example, job market). To harvest employee retention, it is good to understand what works best for them. A combination of such theories, if applied correctly, will increase job satisfaction and organisational productivity (Anil, 2021).

The following five major staff retention theories will be discussed, after which the new world of work and 4IR and how it may influence staff retention will also receive attention:

1. Theory of Organisational Equilibrium (TOE)
2. Job Embeddedness Theory (JET)

3. Resource-Based Theory (RBT)
4. Human Capital Theory (HCT)
5. Career Stage Theory (CST)

2.8.1 Theory of organisational equilibrium and staff retention

The Barnard-Simon Theory of Organisational Equilibrium (TOE) is regarded as the first formal theory on turnover retention and gives a wide understanding of the importance of employee retention (Anil, 2021). This theory postulates that an individual will continue in an organisation as long as their perceived contribution in an organisation and the organisation's perceived contribution to their life is on par. Kamau et al. (2021) also postulated that the theory emphasised the need to balance employees' and organisations' contributions and inducements. The organisational equilibrium theory hypothesised that when an organisation compensates an employee with an income equal to or above the employee's contribution to the organisation, the individual will not think about leaving. According to the TOE, job satisfaction depends on the following factors:

- compatibility with one's various roles at the company;
- predictability of one's relationships in the office; and
- conformity of one's self-image with their job.

Thus, employee retention rates will be satisfactory as long as an individual's work-related and personal goals are non-competing (Anil, 2021). Furthermore, Chinju and Unny (2018) argued that the TOE hypothesised that job satisfaction lowers the intention to quit, thus reducing employee turnover. The TOE postulates that desirability of movement and easiness of movement are the two key drivers of employee turnover. The intention to quit is commonly influenced by the individual's satisfaction with the job, whereas ease of movement commonly reflects on the alternatives presented on jobs in the external market (Chinju & Unny, 2018). Analysed in view of retention, the model suggests that employees are likely to stay when they are satisfied with their jobs, value rewards offered, and believe that few alternatives are available for them in the external market. Henceforth, job satisfaction, pay, and the absence of alternatives are regarded as the three key factors influencing employees' decisions to stay (Kamau et al., 2021).

2.8.2 Job embeddedness theory and staff retention

The Job Embeddedness Theory (JET) was developed over more than a decade of research conducted by academics at Georgetown University in the USA, and their research was published in 2006 (Holtom et al., 2006). The JET explored various elements explaining why employees tended to stay in an organisation (Mitchell et al., 2001). According to Burns and O'Sullivan (2019), the JET is a relatively recent theory that fits within the psychological theories of job retention; however, clustering it within this concept can be misleading, as it also fits within an ecological framework to explain retention. Three dimensions define the JET, namely, (1) links, (2) fit, and (3) sacrifice (Hussainy, 2020).

- Links include the formal and informal connections that employees have with their colleagues' organisations and with their family and friends in the communities where they live. The theory suggests that the more links to which an employee feels connected, the more this creates the likelihood of the employee wanting to stay connected with the organisation. A study conducted by Abelson (1987, cited in Hussainy, 2020) studied variables that are associated with the links. The study discovered that high tenure, marital status, being older, and having children that require more care and associating that with employment can result in employees staying with their organisations longer. When the links are strong and intense, a bond is created among those links – a rearrangement to start afresh with other organisations or in certain new contexts can require an effort from employees (Hussainy, 2020).

- Fit has to do with the perception that the employee has with regard to compatibility or a clique within themselves and the organisation, which also includes the communities in which they reside (Potgieter et al., 2018). A poor fit creates dissatisfaction and can result in employees wanting to leave the organisation (Mitchell et al., 2001). A strong attachment to the organisation explains the fit and predicts turnover intention.

- Sacrifice includes employees' perceived psychological, social, or material costs of leaving their employers or communities. Leaving the organisation may be associated with the material benefits that employees could lose when leaving the organisation (Hussainy, 2020).

Concisely, job embeddedness focuses on the non-affective reasons why employees would not leave their organisation (Potgieter et al., 2018). The focus of the theory is on the embeddedness of what keeps the employee with their organisation rather than the negative aspects that make the employee want to leave the organisation. From this perspective, job embeddedness is regarded as a high-order aggregate force of retention (Mitchell et al., 2001). In the current study, job embeddedness will be coupled with the satisfaction that employees can derive from their organisation, which could make them not want to leave the organisation. Van Dyk (2012) asserted that job embeddedness would affect employee satisfaction positively with organisational retention practices.

2.8.3 The resource-based theory and staff retention

The Resource-Based Theory (RBT) propagates that an organisation has the edge over its competitors when it has resources that are rare, valuable, and costly to imitate (Jurevicius, 2013). These resources can be tangible or intangible (Lu et al., 2021). The aim would be to keep these resources for a prolonged period (Butt et al., 2020). Being part of such an organisation means that employees can satisfy customers better while the organisation can outperform its competitors, and employees are able to be more useful to their clients, making them feel good about their position and their company (Anil, 2021). Studies have shown that as long as employees' contributions are regarded as special and valuable, they are unlikely to leave. As such, retention issues can be solved by ensuring that employees feel their skills are valuable and add value to the organisation (Anil, 2021).

A meaningful job has been shown to be an important construct of staff retention (Friedman & Kass-Shraibman, 2018; Steger, 2018). SOEs can thus utilise the RBT principles in their retention strategies by ensuring that employees see the true meaning and value of their jobs while ensuring that they experience as much autonomy as possible. This is supported by Ngo-Henha (2017), who argued that employees remain in their jobs only if they feel they are still valued. However, the RBT has received criticism for not clarifying what qualifies as a resource-based view and what does not (Gaya & Struwig, 2016). In contrast, the application of the RBT is supported by the view of Luna-Arocas et al. (2020), who stated that staff members that are dedicated and talented provide the organisation with a sustainable competitive advantage, and these skilled staff members are regarded as resources that are rare, inimitable, value-adding, and difficult to substitute. In conclusion, the principles propagated by the RBT can be considered when compiling an organisation's retention strategy (Bromiley & Rau, 2016).

2.8.4 Human capital theory and staff retention

According to Becker's Human Capital Theory (HCT), which he developed in 1962, skills can be considered drivers of organisational performance (Dietza & Zwicka, 2022). Ngo-Henha (2017) asserted that the HCT views education as vital in increasing the production capacity of employees. The HCT also states that when the effect of training is assessed on retention, required specific skills of the organisation should also be considered; for example, an engineering company will need to prioritise engineering skills. The HCT propagates that organisations should invest in their own people for training and education, and studies linked to the HCT suggested that a specific type of human capital investment – education – affords an organisation economic and individual benefits. Furthermore, the HCT has shown that individuals and society derive economic benefits from investing in their own people (Dietza & Zwicka, 2022).

HCT deals with how to capacitate employees to ensure that they can fulfil what is required of them and states that each additional learning experience presents an added opportunity for an individual to advance and develop innovative ideas, which in turn could be beneficial for technological, industrial, economic, or social advancements (Phillips, 2021). HCT emphasises the impact of training on staff retention, stating that human capital training should be able to lower turnover. This was shown to be correct in a study by Dietz and Zwick (2022), who found that training increased retention by up to 14%, while organisations that provided training enjoyed increased productivity and improved retention. Ensuring that employees receive the necessary training is thus part of investing for the organisation, and the HCT emphasises that the employer's investment in skills enhancement has a mutual benefit for both employers and employees. The human capital investment which an employer makes is thus a form of training, and training is an important construct of staff retention (Dikshit & Jain, 2017; Samgnanakkan, 2010). Training in turn is considered important to organisations when faced with a shortage of skills and the imbalances of the required skills and the demand for skills (Dietz & Zwick, 2022).

2.8.5 Career stage theory and staff retention

The Career Stage Theory (CST) emphasises that individual needs are bound to change at a particular stage of the career stage. While the research supports that workplace factors are predictors and correlate with staff turnover and intent, it is not clear whether workplace factors vary in their influence across different career stages (Griffin et al., 2014).

The CST has different stages, which include (1) the organisational entry or initiation stage when an individual is still entering the job market. The next stage is (2) the transitional and early career stage (one to four years of employment), which is the period when an individual needs to acquire better work experience. The third career stage, labelled as (3) the mid-career building (five to nine years with the organisation), is where an employee is accepted as a competent contributor. The last stage is (4) the later career stage (10 or more years with the organisation), during which time employees settle into the organisation.

The CST also links to what kind of employment an individual will accept at a particular stage of their career (Griffin et al., 2014). Depending on the stages that the employees find themselves in, they can appreciate different issues. For example, at an early stage of their career, individuals may prefer mentors, while in their mid-career stage, they handle jobs independently and require space to do their work. During the maintenance stage of their careers, employees remain committed and engaged in the workforce. During the disengagement stage, employees will leave their organisations soon, so they spend time and effort preparing for their lives after leaving their present workplaces. This indicates that employees experience retention differently during different career phases (Griffin et al., 2014; Low et al., 2016).

2.8.6 The new world of work, the Fourth Industrial Revolution, and staff retention

The Fourth Industrial Revolution is marked by a continuing shift away from energy and other physical resources towards a new future where human capabilities are fully integrated with the functionality of emerging technology such as artificial intelligence, augmented and virtual reality, robotics and nanotechnology, and the new connectivity of the Internet of Things (Revunit, 2022). As a result, the global business environment is changing and evolving at an exponential pace, and business models are transitioning from selling goods to sharing the economy (Revunit, 2022).

The Worldwide Economic Forum predicts that by the end of 2022, the global economy will have experienced a net loss of more than five million jobs (Harve, 2019). While it is true that technology has the potential to eliminate many jobs, it also creates them, but rapid job creation requires workers with new skills, as many of today's jobs did not exist 10 years ago. Without options for retraining and reskilling employees, organisations will not be able to meet labour needs (Harve, 2019).

The World Economic Forum further predicts that future jobs will require more focus on human skills that enable value-creating activities for the organisation. Table 2.2 provides a comparative snapshot of the skills demanded and order of priority in 2018 versus the skills that will be necessary in order of priority at the end of 2022 (Harve, 2019). In response to this comparison, Harve (2019) argued that there are two areas where organisations will need reskilling: technical skills and human skills.

Table 2.2

Snapshot of Skills Demanded in 2018 Versus 2022 in Order of Priority

Skills demanded in 2018	Skills demanded at the end of 2022
Analytical thinking & innovation	Analytical thinking & innovation
Complex problem-solving	Active learning & learning strategies
Critical thinking & analysis	Creativity, originality & initiative
Active learning & learning strategies	Technology design & programming
Creativity, originality & initiative	Critical thinking & analysis
Attention to detail, trustworthiness	Complex problem-solving
Emotional intelligence	Leadership & social influence
Reasoning & problem-solving	Emotional intelligence
Leadership & social influence	Reasoning & problem-solving
Coordination & time management	Systems analysis & innovation

Note. Adapted from "Reskilling the Workforce for the Fourth Industrial Revolution," by A. Harve, 2019, p. 2. https://trainingindustry.com/articles/workforce-development/reskilling-the-workforce-for-the-fourth-industrial-revolution/

Explaining the new world of work, Bhatia (2020) stated that the foundations of work – that component of people's daily lives that provides them with their livelihoods and gives them purpose – will require a paradigm shift over the next decade. Bhatia (2020) argued that there are three main revolutionary macroeconomic trends that will have major impacts on organisations:

1. The mainstreaming of the flexible (contingent) workforce. A major change in the world of work is that contingent workers have begun to dominate the hiring field in certain industries. Organisations can capitalise on this trend by using their full-time resources, while gaps can easily be identified and filled with contingent

workers who have the special skills needed. This provides a flexible way for organisations to solve workforce needs.

2. Use of technology. Technology has also enabled flexibility via remote work, as an increasing number of workers are leaving the traditional workplace to freelance so that they can have the flexibility they desire. The contingent workforce, while not as flexible as the gig workforce, has long been an option for workers who wish to have a variety of job opportunities, work as consultants, and choose when they work and when they do not. That is the optimal way for organisations to attract and retain their top talent. One of the best practices to achieve this is by having the tools and technology to access information on platforms such as mobile applications and cloud computing.

3. Skills shortage (war for talent). Nearly 50% of organisations worldwide face difficulty filling open positions due to a talent shortage, resulting in a major war for talent. In addition, new technologies have sprung up around artificial intelligence, machine learning, and robotics industries; still, the majority of the workforce has not been trained to interface with these technologies. Over the next several years, organisations will need to increase opportunities for learning and enable upskilling for their workforce, as roles will become obsolete due to automation. Organisations often need to fill positions quickly to stay ahead of their competitors, which is the reason that many have turned to highly skilled contingent workers to fill this talent gap.

According to Balalle and Balalle (2019), talent is not always where it is needed and can often not be found. Accordingly, the acquisition and retention of talented employees is a major challenge for all organisations. Because of new technologies, organisations will have to place a new focus on the skills for the expected transformation process. To ensure that organisations have the required talent to adapt to the new world of work, Balalle and Balalle (2019) suggested that they adopt a continuous learning process and instil a culture of lifelong learning. In such a scenario, Balalle and Balalle (2019) argued that the retention of current employees will not be a risk, as they will have the required skills when needed.

In conclusion, despite the fact that the new world of work and the Fourth Industrial Revolution will require the replacement of certain jobs, appropriate retention strategies will still be required to retain existing skilled employees so that they can be reskilled appropriately (Balalle & Balelle, 2019; Bhatia, 2020; Harve, 2019). In the case of South African SOEs, unless current employees can be retained and reskilled, the required skills for the new world of work and 4IR will have to be sourced from the private sector or from other countries. It would thus make sense rather to retain talented employees and reskill them and establish a culture of lifelong learning rather than face the costs involved in recruiting the required skills external to SOEs (Hewapathirana & Almasri, 2019).

2.9 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THEORIES OF STAFF RETENTION

The discussion of the five major staff retention theories discussed above, the implications of the new world of work, and 4IR assist in understanding the factors that influence turnover intention and how organisations can reduce employees' intention to leave an organisation. From this discussion, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. An individual will continue in an organisation as long as their contributions are regarded as special and valuable. This confirms that job satisfaction and meaningful work are important to retain employees.

2. When employees feel that there is compatibility within themselves, the organisation, and their family and friends in their communities, they are less likely to leave their own organisations. This emphasises that employees consider a work-life balance important as a retaining factor.

3. Although appropriate retention strategies will ensure that skilled employees are retained in an organisation, there will always be gaps around special skills that are needed. These gaps can be overcome by using the required special skills of contingent workers.

4. Over the next years, organisations will need to increase opportunities for learning and enable the upskilling of their workforce to counter roles that will become obsolete due to artificial intelligence, machine learning, and robotics. Thus, training and development will be important to prevent obsolete employees from leaving an organisation.

5. Although the new world of work and the Fourth Industrial Revolution will require the replacement of certain jobs, appropriate retention strategies will still be required to retain the existing skilled employees so that they can be reskilled appropriately to face the new challenges. Once again, training and development training will be an important component of any retention strategy.

6. In the case of South African SOEs, the required skills for the new world of work and 4IR will have to be sourced from the private sector or from other countries unless current employees are reskilled to perform these tasks. It would thus make sense instead to retain talented employees and reskill them and establish a culture of lifelong learning rather than face the costs involved in recruiting the required skills external to SOEs. Thus, training and development as part of a retention strategy will be very important for SOEs, now and in the future.

2.10 UNDERLYING CONSTRUCTS OF STAFF RETENTION

A retention strategy is viewed as a crucial tool for the attraction and retention of employees to ensure business success (Dhanpat et al., 2018). In developing a retention strategy, an organisation should start by understanding the business strategy, as this will provide the guideline as to what human resources will be required to carry out the business strategy (Iqbal, 2018; Nocker & Sena, 2019; Sheehan et al., 2018). Fulfilled employees enjoy doing what they do best at work, and retaining these employees will facilitate a more productive culture (Venkatesh & Geetha, 2015). Moreover, Venkatesh and Geetha (2015) affirmed that only attractive company brands could attract and retain talent for lengthier periods. On the other hand, it is believed that 71% of the reasons that make employees want to leave their organisation are in the employer’s hands (Work Institute, 2019).

A comprehensive review of the literature on staff retention and a consideration of the new world of work has produced a list of five biographical factors and 12 underlying staff retention constructs that have been the most researched and shown to influence staff retention significantly. These biographical factors and staff retention constructs are listed in Table 2.3 and will then be discussed in more detail.

Table 2.3

Biographical Factors and Retention Constructs Influencing Staff Retention

No.	Staff retention construct	Authors who support the fact that the construct is linked to staff retention
1	Biographical factors: Gender, age, education, tenure, and job grade	Hausknecht et al. (2008); Li et al. (2008); Masibigiri and Nienaber (2011); Khan, Aslam, and Lodhi (2011); Dowd-Higgins (2013); Kraemer and Gouthier (2014); Bursch and Kelly (2014); Lyria et al. (2014); Festing and Schafer (2014); Eratas (2015); Lyria et al (2017)
2	Compensation and benefits	Yamamoto (2013); Tourangeau et al. (2010); Irshad and Afridi (2011); Ghapanchi and Aurum (2011); Robyn and Du Preez (2013); Hosie et al. (2013); Nyamubarwa (2013); Terera and Ngirande (2014); Crawford (2015); Mohsin et al. (2015); Choudhary (2016); Das et al. (2017)
3	Job characteristics	Döckel (2003); Tomlinson (2002); Ramalall (2003); Aguenza and Som (2012)
4	Training and development	Armstrong (2009); Samgnanakkan (2010); Elnaga and Imran (2013); Nda and Fard (2013); Wahyuningtyas (2015); Al Mamun and Hasan (2017); Ibidunni et al. (2016); Noe et al. (2017);

No.	Staff retention construct	Authors who support the fact that the construct is linked to staff retention
		Dikshit and Jain (2017); Vija et al. (2018); Chabane et al.(2018); Blume et al. (2019)
5	Supervisory support	Raihan (2012); Powell (2012); Tunzu and Kalemei (2012); Raihan (2012); Chen et al. (2014); Karatepe and Kilic (2015); Mani (2015); Alzayed and Murshid (2017); Dhanpat et al. (2018)
6	Career growth and development	Herman (2005); Hay Group (2011); An Oracle White Paper (2012); Weng and McElroy (2012); Elnaga and Imran (2013); Nyamubarwa (2013); Gamage and Herath's (2013); Gaurav and Bagga (2013); Kroon and Freese (2013); Yang et al. (2015); Othman and Lembang (2017)
7	Work-life balance	Hammer et al. (2003); Barrow and Mosley (2005); Dixon et al. (2007); Shoaib et al. (2009); Omar (2010); Jang et al. (2011); Aguenza and Som (2012); Yamamoto (2011); Mazerolle et al. (2013); Osman (2013); Karatepe (2013); Mita et al. (2014); Deery and Jago (2015); Mani (2015); Kossivi et al. (2016); Shockley et al. (2017)
8	Employee engagement	Kahn (1990); Tarique and Schuler (2010); Doh et al. (2011); Shuck et al. (2011); Rayton et al. (2012); Karatepe et al. (2013); Schaufeli (2013); Soni (2013); Bedarkar and Pandita (2014); Mani (2015); Das et al. (2017); Mone and London (2018); Osborne and Hammoud (2017); Kim and Fernandez (2017); Lyria et al. (2017); Osborne and

No.	Staff retention construct	Authors who support the fact that the construct is linked to staff retention
		Hammoud (2017); Smythe (2017); Jindal et al. (2017)
9	Organisational support	Eisenberger et al. (1986); Kumaresh and Krishnan (2014); Holston-Okae and Mushi (2018)
10	Ethical leadership	Brown (2005); Loi et al. (2006); Hedberg and Helenius (2007); Kerr-Phillips and Thomas (2009); Yukl (2010); Tansley (2011); Avey et al. (2012); Ng'ethe et al. (2012); Tews et al. (2014); Belsare (2015); Kangas et al. (2016); Hashish (2017); Karatepe and Kilic (2015); Ibrahim and Mayende (2018)
11	Job satisfaction	Spector (1987, 1997); Terera and Ngirinda (2014); Mathimaran and Kumar (2017); Baison (2017)
12	Meaningful work	Fouché et al. (2017); Ghadi (2017)
13	Organisational culture	Kerr-Phillips and Thomas (2009); Tansley (2011); Ghosh et al. (2013); Soni (2013); Bussin (2014); Khalili (2014); Kessler-Ladelsky and Catana (2013); Michani et al. (2015); Purohit (2016); Al Mamun and Hasan (2017); Zimmerman et al. (2019)

Note. Compiled by researcher

2.11 A DISCUSSION OF THE UNDERLYING CONSTRUCTS OF STAFF RETENTION

This section discusses the underlying constructs of staff retention.

2.11.1 Biographical factors and staff retention

Chowdhury (2015), Emiroğlu et al. (2015), and Victoria and Olalekan (2016) all discovered that biographical factors, such as age, marital status, tenure, wage, position, and working department, are elements that could have an influence on turnover intention. Importantly, tenure on its own was discovered to have an important impact on retention and commitment. Furthermore, Choong et al. (2013) acknowledged that substantial differences were found between gender, age group, and marital status with regard to turnover intention, as females had a higher intention to leave compared to their male counterparts. In comparison to this, Kraemer and Gouthier (2014) had a different finding and argued that females had a greater commitment to their organisation than males. In support of the findings by Choong et al. (2013), Royi (2021), in their study of HRM practices and staff retention, found that biographical factors such as age, gender, level of education, level of income, marital status, residential status, type of family, and designation had an influence on staff retention.

Regarding Generation X employees (currently in their 30s and early 40s), a study by Masibigiri and Nienaber (2011) revealed that they exhibit lower levels of organisational commitment with regard to their organisation. On the other hand, Kraemer and Gouthier (2014) revealed that employees who worked for their organisation for a longer period had higher levels of organisational commitment than those who worked for the organisation for a shorter period. Lyria et al. (2017) also found that there is a tendency among younger workers to change jobs regularly, whereas older workers require security and job stability. Furthermore, perceptions of organisational support often have a major impact on turnover intention, and the concept of ‘tenure’ is its best predictor (Victoria & Olalekan, 2016).

A study of Chinese employees by Li et al. (2008) reported a significant impact of age, education, position, and gender on work values. At the same time, Victoria and Olalekan (2016) had a different view and concluded that gender had no significant influence on the intention of employees to leave. In the Chinese SOEs’ context, older employees preferred to rate work values high, especially in terms of their work-life balance and self-development, while departmental managers favoured work values such as contributing and engaging in self-development (Li et al., 2008). Millennial employees (between 22 and 37 years old) have a considerable impact on the way they want to work (Bursch & Kelly, 2014); they want the freedom to contribute in their own unique way and require work-life balance (Dowd-Higgins, 2013).

Of the biographical factors, age and generational differences have been found to impact turnover decisions (Vui-Ye & Paggy, 2018). Monetary compensation is a valuable incentive to the younger workforce and could probably convince them to leave their organisations even when the job fulfils their needs and desires (Butler et al., 2014). Millennials are unwilling to make personal sacrifices, especially for a career, and are not as loyal to their organisations as their counterparts (Festing & Schafer, 2014). According to Hausknecht et al. (2008), it is believed that employees on different job levels may have different views of psychological contracts in relation to retention. Hausknecht et al. (2008) further stated that it is expected that employees at each end of the job-level spectrum would accentuate different aspects of the psychological contract when explaining why they stay. Seniority and job level cannot be ignored, as remuneration is based on those aspects, and it affects retention (Khan et al., 2011). Therefore, organisations should consider these demographic variables when designing staff retention strategies.

2.11.2 Compensation and benefits and staff retention

Compensation can be defined as the amount that employees are expected to receive for their work and is established to motivate, attract, remunerate, and retain human capital (Mahalawat & Sharma, 2019). Remuneration and rewards have been shown to strongly influence staff retention (Halim et al., 2020). Vuong et al. (2021) stated that employees begin to be satisfied when they feel their rewards are comparable to the contributions they make to the organisation, while Ghapanchi and Aurum (2011) further indicated that fairness of the rewards and advancement could also reduce the intention to leave. The study by Choudhary (2016) found that the most noteworthy reasons employees resigned were lower salaries and lack of career advancement. If an employee perceived pay equity, they showed more satisfaction with their jobs; however, if employees suspected their pay to be less than that of another person, it increased the dissatisfaction and resulted in several adverse employee behaviours such as absenteeism, grievances, strikes, and high turnover (Das et al., 2017). On the other hand, it has been argued that although salaries and benefits present only a small percentage of an organisation's overall turnover rate, as a global trend, it is increasing in importance as a reason for quitting (Work Institute, 2019).

Reward and remuneration are powerful hygiene factors, meaning that the perceived inequity, non-competitiveness, or disparity between perceived self-worth and actual pay often becomes a key factor in employees leaving a company (Kossivi et al., 2016; Terera & Ngirande, 2014). Belete (2018) argued that pay is one of the determinant factors in today's work environment, as employees often leave their current jobs for jobs that offer higher pay opportunities. Though a lower amount or apposite compensation and benefits may not be the biggest motivator of turnover, it certainly gives an already dissatisfied employee another reason to leave. It is also one of the main motivating and stimulating factors because if the wages system is managed well at the company, it can raise employee motivation, productivity, and satisfaction.

Pay and benefits are difficult to manage because they represent a personal and perceptional retention factor, often based on subjective self-evaluation and not objective market data (Shanks, 2007). The findings of Dhanpat et al. (2018) revealed that there is a significant relationship between the retention factors of compensation, career advancement, work-life balance, supervisor support, and intention to leave.

In a study by Bharath (2021) regarding hospital employees in South India, monetary and non-monetary rewards were identified as significantly increasing employee retention. Accordingly, Irshad and Afridi (2011) and Terera and Ngirande (2014) stated that previous studies had considered compensation as one of the main factors that significantly increased employee retention. Irshad and Afridi (2011) further indicated that compensation played an important role in attracting and retaining highly valued employees, especially employees who deliver good performance and have unique skills that are vital to the organisation, since the organisation invested high amounts in their training and orientation. Another intervention by employers in dealing with the issues of skills scarcity and recruitment difficulties may be to go a step further and increase salaries in an effort to attract candidates or to retain the existing staff.

The survey carried out by Ghapanchi, and Aurum (2011) established that a salary is the most important organisational factor affecting personnel's decision to leave. Moreover, Robyn and Du Preez (2013) stated that there are studies that recognise that remuneration alone is not enough to retain employees and that, among other factors, employees eventually stay because they care for their colleagues and are engaged in challenging work that improves their skills and abilities. Research has shown that deplorable working conditions, inadequate training, and unsatisfactory salaries might, on the other hand, lead to high employee turnover (Choudhary, 2016; Chowdhury & Hasan, 2017; Mathimaran & Kumar, 2017; Singh, 2019).

Nyamubarwa (2013) commented that scholars have also identified internal reward equity as a factor contributing to employee turnover intention. Lee and Chao (2013) and Mohsin et al. (2015) maintained that there is a correlation between job security, salaries, and organisational loyalty on turnover. In contrast, Bharatah (2021) stated that paying employees high salaries does not guarantee they will stay. If they are poorly treated and not recognised, they will quit their job. By providing improved rewards, organisations can at least stand a chance of surviving the turmoil of talent retention. Thus, Prasetio et al. (2019) believed that an effective, impartial compensation policy still helps organisations to be sustainable and have a competitive advantage in the market. In this instance, when an organisation takes care of its remuneration policies, employees who receive rewards and recognition feel obligated to respond with higher echelons of commitment (Prasetio et al., 2019). The researcher is also of the opinion that salary is not the only factor that would keep an employee within the organisation; there are other factors as well that could attract retention or increase the number of resignations.

Although compensation and benefits have been found to influence organisational commitment and employee retention, these factors alone cannot sustain the retention of employees, and multiple strategies are required to win the battle of retaining talented employees (Chew & Chan, 2008). In contrast, the findings of Gomathi and Mathew (2020) revealed that employers adopt non-monetary programmes that ensure the creation of a retention tendency to a large extent among employees than the monetary benefits did historically. In addition, Crawford (2015) supported the concept of a 'value proposition' and contended that rewards and benefits strategies must exist from the start of the employment cycle to encourage and inspire employees and to improve retention.

It is suggested that instituting a competitive reward and benefits programme could enhance organisational success, and that has been found to have a positive influence on the well-being of employees, thus making it more likely that employees will become loyal to the brand (Kucherov & Zavyalova, 2012; WorldatWork, 2012). Furthermore, Graham-Leviss (2011) argued that people are more likely to thrive in a role that rewards those things about which they are most passionate. When individuals are aware of what motivates them, they will have a better insight into their career paths.

In a study by Guha and Chakrabarti (2014), the attraction of a 'higher salary' was the top-ranked reason why an employee decided to leave the employ of a company for almost all the IT employees in the sample, regardless of gender and age. Employees revealed that financial compensation, referring to competitive salaries and financial incentives, has a significant impact on whether they intend to continue working in an organisation (Hausknecht et al., 2009; Hosie et al., 2013; Tourangeau et al., 2010; Yamamoto, 2013). In the study by Watson (2012), all the participants indicated that for most of them, remuneration is the positive outcome of working. However, they also indicated that feelings of stability and insurance are more important than pay (Watson, 2012). Watson's study related to that of Kelly (2013), whose findings in surveying 100 businesses included the engineering, finance, government, IT, manufacturing, and telecommunication sectors revealed that the major components of talent attraction comprised salary packages, benefits, company culture, recruitment styles, staff turnover, work-life balance, and social networking.

An organisation that wants to retain talent must improve the compensation and benefits of its employees and must review factors such as pleasant working conditions, flexible work times, cooperative teams, good bosses, as well as the culture and values of the organisation (Devi, 2009). According to Deery (2008), other ways to improve employee retention and commitment include providing flexible working hours, on-the-job training opportunities, adequate resources for staff, health and insurance benefits, advantages, such as gyms and/or health centres, and rewarding the best employees for not only getting the task done on time but also doing it efficiently.

Highhouse et al. (1999) and Judge et al. (2010) argued that low pay packages were likely to drive employees out of the organisation. However, it is not necessarily true that high pay packages will bring and keep employees in an organisation. In contrast, Karatepe (2013) and Karatepe and Vatankhah (2014) claimed that employees are less often persuaded to leave an organisation that provides adequately for their financial and recognition needs, especially if they would only be moving to another organisation with the same job and similar task roles. Mani's (2015) argument is that present-day knowledge workers prefer to stay in the organisation due to factors such as co-workers' cooperation and support, work environment, and employee-friendly policies and practices.

While monetary gain is often a valid reason to change jobs, individuals must realise that the work environment, long-term career prospects, colleagues, and the organisational culture are equally important factors in determining an ideal job (Das et al., 2015). The researcher agrees with these authors that salary is a motivator and does bring a form of satisfaction; however, salary alone would not keep an employee in the workplace. A combination of factors that enable an employee to attain self-fulfilment could enhance retention to a certain extent. In a nutshell, compensation and benefits are a part of every employer's retention; it does, in fact, affect retention (Ali & Anwar, 2021).

Currently, SOEs in South Africa are attracted to utilising compensation and benefits in their retention strategies, although these are governed by legislation in terms of the levels of remuneration and types of benefits that may be offered. In light of this, the researcher believes that management must think carefully about how to use the existing and regulated compensations and benefits to keep their employees motivated and prevent them from leaving the organisation.

2.11.3 Job characteristics and staff retention

According to Hackman and Oldham (1975, as cited in Indeed Editorial Team, 2022), motivating individuals is impossible if the job is monotonous and boring. One needs to examine a job in accordance with its core characteristics to determine whether it is fulfilling and meaningful, and these core job characteristics comprise five aspects (Indeed Editorial Team, 2022):

(1) Skills variety refers to the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities and involves the use of several different skills and talents by employees.

(2) Task identity refers to the importance of empowering an employee to see a task throughout the entire work process. When employees feel that they are well informed and involved in their job, that results in fulfilment. Employees reach a higher level of satisfaction when their tasks are clearly defined from the beginning to the end.

(3) Task significance has to do with the meaning attached to the job and the impact the job has on others, and that drives motivation.

(4) Autonomy has to do with the flexibility an individual has in doing the job. Generally, independence leads to motivation, while red tape and bureaucracy delimit and demotivate.

(5) Feedback is when employees get regular feedback which gives them the opportunity to understand what areas of their job they are succeeding in and what areas they can improve, and that brings encouragement as well.

Döckel (2003) stated that job characteristics represented some of the most important factors of retention, as they are concerned with skills and the freedom to apply their own judgement with regard to the job. Tomlinson (2002) defined job characteristics as the flexibility that is offered with respect to how an individual is allowed to structure their work, being innovative about it, and defining how that work will be executed. The flexibility gives employees an opportunity to have control or be allowed to take decisions in terms of planning and executing their jobs. As already mentioned, job characteristics include a multilevel combination of factors. Parker et al. (2017) discovered that low-quality work designs increased the workload and physical strain, which affected retention. Additionally, when work lacks intellectual challenge and discretion, it deteriorates and often impacts employment structures and affects staff retention.

Furthermore, in a study on retention for high technology professionals, Döckel (2003) stated that high-challenge tasks with opportunities for growth induced the individual to stay. Aguenza and Som (2012) asserted that underutilised skills leave a void, which results in thoughts about quitting, whereas if employees are given a chance to expand their skills and abilities, the work is viewed as meaningful, and the chances are that the person will stay with the organisation. Moreover, Ramlall (2003) asserted that a challenging job affects retention and is listed as the highest potential reason for not leaving the organisation.

When the five core job characteristics are present, employees are likely to experience meaningfulness in their job and have insight in terms of what is expected of them from their job, which in turn could result in positive work outcomes and decrease turnover intention (Al shaher & Zreik, 2022).

2.11.4 Training and development and staff retention

Using Herzberg's (1971) two-factor theory of motivation, Abba (2018) argued that motivators such as training and development could lead to employee satisfaction, which could improve staff retention. This viewpoint is supported by Gan and Yosuf (2019), who stated that when training is enhanced and increased to a satisfactory level, the rate of staff retention will improve as well, as training has a positive effect on the self-efficacy of employees and increases confidence levels in managing tasks. Training is also regarded as a crucial part of an organisation's human resources strategy, as it enhances the success of the organisation and individuals with various skill sets, enabling the organisation to fulfil its mandate (Samgnanakkan, 2010). Nguyen and Duong (2020) also emphasised the role of training, stating that in the current era of continuous global changes where technology is busy developing rapidly, training must be a prerequisite if organisations want to be sustainable.

Training courses are designed by various companies to support individual learning that increases the employee's competency by amplifying skills and inspiring their career development in a way that changes their minds and dissuades them from leaving (Samgnanakkan, 2010). Chew (2004) rightly defined training as a process that provides employees with a specific skill that helps to correct deficiencies in their performance, while development equipped employees with abilities that will be required by the organisation in the future (Dikshit & Jain, 2017; Elnaga & Imran, 2013). Consequently, training and development should be regarded not only as an opportunity for growth but also as an investment that yields overall returns and benefits to organisations and employees. Furthermore, Nguyen and Duong (2020) asserted that training not only adds value to additional skills, knowledge, and abilities but also touches on the emotional levels of people, such as high self-esteem, enhanced morale, and satisfaction with that development.

Elnaga and Imran (2013) are of the opinion that employees who receive relevant training are inclined to keep their jobs longer than those who do not receive such training. Furthermore, Al Mamun and Hasan (2017) asserted that training and learning opportunities have substantial effects on employees staying in the organisation. Moreover, Gharib et al. (2017) discovered that training and development played a crucial role in ensuring staff retention. In the study carried out by Roy (2021), training was determined as a factor that influences retention in public-sector banks. If the opportunity to learn is not provided, skills and abilities will not be improved; hence, quitting could be an option. Thus, workplace training is necessary (Elnaga & Imran, 2013).

An organisation that does not offer training is at a disadvantage and is not able to retain talent. Ibidunn et al. (2015) asserted that a lack of training, development, and career opportunities are some of the key reasons for employees' decisions to leave an organisation for another. Moreover, when an organisation exhibited care and concern for employees and offered avenues for development as part of a compelling value proposition, it satisfied the employees' higher-order needs for self-esteem and self-actualisation, and generated a reciprocal behavioural outcome of affective commitment (Ibidunn et al., 2016).

The issue of training is also supported in the Occupations High Demand in South Africa Report (Reddy et al., 2018), which reported that in a study conducted annually by the ManpowerGroup for the 2017 report, the findings indicated that a total of 42000 employers from 43 countries were surveyed to determine the annual talent shortage. From the study conducted, it transpired that approximately 40% of employers reported having challenges in filling positions, and when asked about the strategies they were employing to deal with shortages, more than half indicated that they had plans to upskill their existing staff (Reddy et al., 2018).

Studies across the age range showed a positive link between training and retention in the overall workforce (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2010; Heavey et al., 2013). Colman's (2003) study proved that employee retention was a major challenge to all those enterprises that want to compete for talent with the same knowledge, skills, and expertise. In organisations where proper training is given to employees, retention rates are high (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

Samuel and Chipunza (2009) contended that training and development helped to increase employees' levels of commitment and loyalty while enhancing the possibility of enticing employees to stay with the organisation for longer. Consequently, it decreased turnover while increasing retention. Saleem et al. (2011) also found that opportunities relating to continuous growth, career development, and skills enhancement for the future are seen as key factors in employee motivation and retention.

Training usually equips the employee with the requisite skills to perform their job, which results in the employee feeling fulfilled by their work (Nkomo et al., 2018). Training also constitutes a tangible investment that the business makes in the worker by providing new skills, increased competency and more confidence. Thus, in conclusion, numerous studies as discussed above, have found a significant relationship between training and development and a reduction in staff turnover. The researcher also asserts that enhancing an employee's skills to align with the industry demands making training an essential strategy for retention.

2.11.5 Supervisory support and staff retention

Supportive managers play a major role in making employees feel at home and wanting to stay with their organisations longer, as they contribute towards a supportive work environment, which could lead to reduced turnover intention. Regarding a retention strategy, managers are part of the tools that enable the process, and supervisory support has to do with a relationship between employees and managers; it is an aspect that has a considerable impact on staff retention (Halim et al., 2020).

Alzayed and Murshid (2017) explained that employees regard supervisory support as the confidence placed by employees in the supervisor and the assistance given to carry out the different tasks in the job to meet the desired requirements of the job. The attitudes and support of supervisors motivate or demotivate employees and likely influence the employee to stay in the organisation, while mediocracy and bad boss habits create dissatisfaction and hamper working relationships. Saks (2006) stated that when employees lack the support they crave from their supervisors, they are likely to experience a high level of frustration and job dissatisfaction, which drives their intentions to resign. Hence, Gentry et al. (2007) stated that perceived supervisor support (PSS) is critical in retaining employees in the organisation. Studies provide further support for this position by Alias et al. (2018; 2019), which indicated that supervisor support, organisational support, and job satisfaction had a positive effect on employee retention. Mani (2015) reported that a Gallup poll of more than one million employed US workers concluded that a bad boss or immediate supervisor is the main reason and the number one issue why people quit their jobs. This is supported by Rossi (2018), who stated that employees do not quit their jobs: they quit their managers. Therefore, it is evident that leading with empathy and providing support has become more crucial in today's world of work. This was confirmed in a study carried out in the public sector in Sweden by Bharathårda and Corinb (2019), who found that one of the reasons the managers surveyed cited as a reason for quitting their jobs was their relationship with their immediate manager.

Managers, supervisors, and team leaders who interact with employees unswervingly and honestly have the most influence on employees' satisfaction levels with their jobs; hence, 'problems with the boss' is the main reason why employees leave the organisation (Mehta et al., 2014). Mani (2015) asserted that one of the main reasons employees quit is supervisors' behaviours, such as a lack of trust or communication, a lack of relevant and timely feedback, and a lack of appreciation. Fair treatment is often not observed on the part of the supervisor.

Karatepe and Kilic (2015) found that poor business leadership contributed to poor relationships between employees and managers, and resulted in a high turnover. Furthermore, Karatepe and Kilic (2015) commented that improved managerial support may be one of the major and most essential strategies to decrease the risks of employee turnover. The management style used by the supervisor could also be one of the factors affecting an employee's decision to stay or leave the organisation (Kara et al., 2013).

Chen et al. (2014) postulated that middle managers' satisfaction with senior managers' supervision is likely to affect employees' turnover intentions directly. Therefore, the support that employees receive from their supervisors lowers work-related stress levels and may create a sense of belonging, which provides employees with adequate reasons to stay in the organisation (Dhanpat et al., 2018). The research of Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2002) emphasised that managers should have the qualities of 'a good boss' to influence retention positively. Paille et al. (2013) argued that the support provided by the manager is crucial; hence, a poor relationship with a line manager could be the push factor behind an individual's decision to quit the job and leave the organisation.

2.11.6 Career growth and development and staff retention

Employees stay in employment where they know their supervisors are looking out for them – this includes looking out for whatever job comes next (Laubentha, n.d.). Career development continues to be the leading reason for employees quitting their jobs and has increased by 32% since 2013 (Work Institute, 2019). According to Nyamubarwa (2013), a lack of career progress is another factor that has an impact on staff retention. If organisations have clear career 'ladders', a number of opportunities could be determined in terms of career growth, and employees are likely to stay. However, a static environment with no growth could encourage an employee to leave the organisation (Nyamubarwa, 2013). According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory of motivation, career development is located in the self-actualisation category, and it is the uppermost level of human need (Yang et al., 2015). Yang et al. (2015) further stated that employees pay more attention to career development and self-actualisation than salary and remuneration. Singh (2019) argued that employees who notice a lack of growth in the organisation may feel their intent to stay is in vain and to their future detriment, leading to voluntary turnover. In addition, ZanelliaI (2021) also contended that skilled employees swiftly decide to leave if they are not given opportunities for development. Stagnation derails growth and development and minimises opportunities for future careers. Managers should know employees' most pressing needs and how to meet these needs. Certainly, career development affects talent retention. Herman (2005) found a direct relationship between development opportunities and staff retention.

Organisations are facing excessive competition for talent around the world, as well as difficulties in appealing to, preserving, and establishing the high-quality staff complement they need. Despite the current global economic downturn, there are critical basic situations to ensure that talent's global competitiveness will remain a major challenge.

Moreover, employees who feel they have a greater chance of being promoted are more likely to stay with the organisation rather than think of leaving (Othman & Lembang, 2017). Promotion opportunities also serve as a form of appreciation and gratitude, thus influencing the decision to stay or leave the organisation. The findings from the study by Gamage and Herath (2013) indicated that there is a positive relationship between career development and the intention to remain in the organisation. Employee development is also necessary to improve quality by retaining key employees (Elnaga & Imran, 2013).

The current trend in South Africa of high employee turnover can be ascribed to various reasons, such as employees not being happy with the kind of work they do, the organisation's lack of investment in training and development, a lack of career growth and development opportunities, unfair and misleading performance appraisals, for example (Hay Group, 2011). Strategic methods used to retain top talent in the organisation include helping high-potential employees attain cross-functional jobs and work-related satisfaction, involving them in decision-making, encouraging their ideas and helping them implement those ideas, offering to help them in career development moves, and building their skills through effective and relevant training (Hay Group, 2011).

The reasons for the low turnover in some South African organisations mentioned by employees are work experience, career development, and independence, for example (Hay Group, 2011). All these motives of employees help organisations to align their HR practices accordingly and retain their employees (Krishnan, 2017; Kroon et al., 2013). Consequently, Bagga (2013) stated that employees must be able to envisage a clear career path in the organisation; only then will they stay longer. Moreover, studies respecting the drivers of employee engagement and staff retention consider the importance of challenging, meaningful work with emergent, visible career opportunities (Oracle White Paper, 2012). Furthermore, a study by Weng and McElroy (2012) revealed that career growth was negatively associated with turnover intention and found that occupational commitment was a partial mediator in the relationship.

2.11.7 Work-life balance and staff retention

There is no easy resolution to attraction and retention challenges. In fact, organisations that are not flexible in offering remote work and WLB lag behind in competing in the global market for better talent (Magaisa & Musundire, 2022). A number of actions taken to address these challenges (e.g. increasing compensation is one of them) are not sustainable in the long term, so different approaches will need to be found in the current era to address them. In a world that is characterised by the digital era, the impact of COVID worldwide, the ever-changing dynamics of work, and life demands call for employers to introduce WLB to enhance their retention strategy (Shahzad et al., 2022), as both the employer and employee will benefit (Magaisa & Musundire, 2022). This opportunity to question work practices has gone unquestioned for many years within SOEs in South Africa, and this is the time to rethink working patterns and practices. A flexible approach is one tool to help retain talent (Learning and Development Trends, 2022). In addition, Rodríguez-Sánchez et al. (2020) postulated that WLB could afford employees opportunities for flexible practices that reduce stress, fatigue, and work-life conflict. In addition, it is stated that as the need for higher performance and workload rise for employees, employers must listen to employees and understand how the organisation can revisit work scheduling practices and policies (Work Institute, (2019).

Employees have realised that they want their personal sense of purpose to align with that of their organisation, and they also want an appropriate physical and digital environment that gives them the flexibility to achieve that elusive WLB (Alagaraja & Shuck, 2015). Jaharuddin and Zainol (2019) asserted that if employees feel they have control over their lives and have a sense of freedom to balance life and work, this will increase their chances of staying in the organisation. Work flexibility offers employees a balance between their professional and personal lives, leading to job satisfaction, high performance, and overall improvement of the organisation. Work flexibility is very important, and with digital advancements and improved technology, employees are able to continue their work anywhere they wish, provided they have an internet connection (Davidescu et al., 2020). In contrast, Magaisa and Musundire (2022) argued that WLB does not increase loyalty nor assist employees in balancing their personal life and work life as asserted by employees of the Zimbabwe manufacturing sector. Nonetheless, the researcher is also of the opinion that WLB strategies could assist employees in balancing their careers, having time for their personal life, and increasing retention. However, the diverse workforces do not make it easier to have a standard for WLB measures through engagement consensus.

Viswanathan and Jeyakumaran (2013) explained that WLB pertains to people’s ability to exercise control and have a tight grip on what happens at work as well as in the family, without compromising on the deliverables in both roles at all times. This explanation is supported by Banu and Duraipandian (2014), who noted that WLB is a tool to assist employees in pursuing their work and non-work lives successfully, without undue pressure from one domain undermining the satisfactory experience of the other. Organisations now recognise the importance of being interested in employees’ work-life difficulties and concerns (Shockley et al., 2017), and this interest has gained momentum in the workplace (Viswanathan & Jeyakumaran, 2013). It has become a dominant issue in the workplace, especially in modern society, that is filled with conflicting responsibilities and commitments (Aguenza & Som, 2012).

Chalofsky (2003) argued that equilibrium between work and life is achieved by balancing work and free-time aspects by means of a supportive environment that provides employees with flexible working conditions. Recent HRM practices make it possible to have an increase in WLB; for example, childcare or family care leave periods at various applicable times, flexible time systems, and in-company nursery facilities (Yamamoto, 2011). It has been observed that employees who do not have a satisfactory WLB are more inclined to look for a job in another company – a company that institutes and maintains policies conducive to WLB practices.

Chung and Van der Lippe (2018) and Kim (2020) are of the view that organisations that have ‘friendly’ policies, such as flexible time and on-the-spot childcare, provide better domestic support, including the personal needs of employees, and thereby reduce family/work conflict. Furthermore, Mazerolle and Goodman (2013) maintained that better organisational policies for promoting WLB create a supportive work environment, while Mazerolle et al. (2015) were of the opinion that supervisors played a significant role with regard to the effective functioning of WLB policies. The researcher also maintains that WLB would be a reality with manager maturity and the willingness to create flexible work environment support policies. There are still workplaces that deem WLB to be a factor that affects productivity and performance. Since the belief is that productivity is driven by being behind the desk from 9:00 to 17:00, some South African SOEs are still adhering to this philosophy.

If an employer understands employees' work-life challenges, it can improve employees' well-being and correlate positively with attracting and retaining top talent (Shockley et al., 2017). Shoaib et al. (2009) also purported that WLB has an effect on the decision to stay in the organisation. Helping employees attain WLB is beneficial to employers because it could decrease turnover and increase the mental health and job satisfaction of employees (Jang et al., 2011). Furthermore, Rodríguez-Sánchez et al. (2020) asserted that if employers implement work-life policies that support a potential retention strategy, it brings value to people management and talent.

According to Aguenza and Som (2012), enabling good WLB is one of the reasons why employees tend to stay in an organisation, while Deery and Jago (2015) found that promoting WLB remained one of the greatest, most effective approaches to improving staff retention. The study by Ahmad and Omar (2010) found that a supportive work environment and work culture in the form of WLB practices could predict turnover intention. Osman (2013) learnt that offering emotional support to employees through maintaining WLB reduced their intention to quit their jobs. Mita et al. (2014) found a direct relationship between employees' decision to stay and a WLB.

The above-mentioned studies are supported by Deery and Jago (2015), who contended that WLB is a key variable in addressing employee engagement and retention issues. However, a lack of time to complete tasks, leading to a work-life imbalance, impacts retention (Brown et al., 2013). Consequently, to retain employees, both employees and employers should endeavour to minimise conflict (Hammer et al., 2003). Barrow and Mosley (2005) suggested that it would be difficult to create an employer brand that does not promote WLB. Providing emotional support to and promoting WLB with regard to employees helps organisations to maintain a low turnover, as WLB has a direct relationship with an employee's decision to stay or leave the organisation (Karatepe, 2013). Against this backdrop, the researcher believes that organisations that lack the flexibility to support WLB practices reduce their chances of being able to compete for talent in the global market. Therefore, their sustainability and intellectual knowledge will be compromised in comparison with their competitors.

2.11.8 Employee engagement and staff retention

The significance of employee engagement (EE) cannot be exaggerated, as EE strategies have been demonstrated to reduce staff turnover (Shirina & Sharma, 2020). Engagement is a state that must be reached through certain fulfilments that the employer is prepared to offer their employees, including continuous communication and allowing employees to have a voice.

Kahn (1990) proposed the employee engagement theory (EE) in his ethnographic work on summer camp employees and employees at an architecture firm. The author defined EE as the “harnessing of organisation members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances” (Kahn, 1990, p. 694). EE is part of the equal commitment and connection employees have with their organisations and its values (Soni, 2013). Similarly, the employer also has to have a plan in place for how to respond to these expectations. Conversely, Schaufeli (2013) stated that engagement at work is a matter of having desirable conditions for employees as well as pleasant working conditions that allow employees to express themselves.

EE involves the mental and emotional connection that employees have with the organisation. It is a deep connection that lasts longer than delight. It keeps employees thriving even in difficult times because of the connection they have with their employers and the satisfaction they derive from their jobs. Laubenthal (2022) stated that disengaged employees are 3.6 times more likely to leave their jobs than those who feel engaged.

Various studies have shown that EE is a critical aspect of performance and staff retention (Das et al., 2017; Mone & London, 2018; Shuck et al., 2011). Osborne and Hammoud (2017) argued that an ineffective EE strategy affects retention and most organisations struggle to create an effective engagement strategy. Employees are vital for an organisation's success. The right platform and space should be created to engage with them. A blend of work and an enjoyable workplace is likely to result in engagement, while a lack of this leads to disengagement (Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014). In addition, Jung et al. (2020) maintained that there is a relationship between EE and the intent to leave.

In retrospect, engagement should be regarded as a fundamental human need (Maylett et al., 2017). The researcher agrees with the above suggestion, since through engagement, much can be achieved; employers can get to know matters of concern and reach a consensus with their employees. Through the process of engagement, retention can be achieved. Smythe (2017) stated that the concept has become an issue regarding the power shared between employees and employers, subscribing to the old psychological contract in which security is exchanged for compliance and loyalty has become an issue of the past, which ascertains the issue of engagement. Smythe (2017) further argued that EE is not a free-for-all democracy or Marxism revisited, and the purpose of engagement is to create value by engaging the creativity of workers, aiming at creating a better place to work for and bringing benefits to employees.

Engagement concerns the ability to create an atmosphere where employees want to do their best (Seijts & Crim, 2006). Engaged employees are fully involved, enthusiastic about doing their best, give their all, are inspired, and want to do more for their employers. EE is the level of commitment and involvement employees have with regard to their organisation and its core values and beliefs (Jindal et al., 2017). Furthermore, Karatepe et al. (2013) stated that insufficient EE and loyalty are likely to lead to higher turnover rates. Moreover, organisations such as the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) stated that employees who are engaged are more likely to want to stay with their organisation than those who are less engaged (Rayton et al., 2012). To feel engaged, employees seek relationships with organisations they are toiling for, enabling employees to own their careers and feel inspired, hence the connection. Consequently, effective EE has been found to stimulate employee retention rates (Doh et al., 2011; Tarique & Schuler, 2010).

According to Kim and Fernandez (2017), employees with more positive attitudes towards their jobs have sturdier and more effective ties to their organisation. These employees develop a greater sense of belonging and are, therefore, less likely to seek employment elsewhere. It can be assumed that allowing employees to make their own decisions about work, control their own work, and achieve their goals may help them become more engaged in their jobs (Kreitner & Cassidy, 2012). Furthermore, studies have shown that fully engaged employees behave and execute work better than those who are disengaged; specifically, those employees demonstrate strong organisational performance, increased financial success, high levels of productivity, and are retained more than their disengaged employees (Jindal et al., 2017; Soni, 2013).

Managers who allow employees to get involved in setting goals to formulate ways of recognising employees engaged in their work help the company achieve crucial competitive advantages, including higher productivity and lower employee turnover (Choudhary, 2016). The greatest challenge is how an organisation stays relevant amid the turbulence and change faced by the economy (Kotter, 2012). Employees' view of their experience with the workplace not only impacts the loyalty, engagement, and retention of current workers but also how corporations are seen as a brand and how adept they are at attracting new talent (Browne, 2012; Dabirian et al., 2016).

Gone are the days when the employer defined the workplace as a manager instruction effort, telling and executing, with no employee input. Employees these days want an understanding of their employment options and a greater input into how work is dispensed, assessed, and rewarded rather than allowing employers' priorities and preferences to dictate what the workplace should look like (Browne, 2012). The digital era demands even more flexible work arrangements, since designing variety has become easier. Overall, a strong retention strategy drives engagement, and exceedingly engaged employees are less likely to leave their employers. In fact, it was found that 72% of highly engaged employees reported that they would like to continue working for their current employer until they retire, as opposed to only 26% of the disengaged (Willis Towers Watson, 2016).

2.11.9 Perceived organisational support and staff retention

Employees need to feel a sense of belonging and care in their workplaces, as this creates a sense of worth and value above the expected productivity outcomes. Perceived organisational support (POS) concerns employees' general opinions regarding how much their organisation values their contributions and takes their well-being seriously (Neves & Eisenberger, 2014). POS refers to employees' perceptions concerning the extent to which the organisation values their involvement and cares about their well-being (Kumaresh & Krishnan, 2014; Rhoades et al., 2001).

Tumwesigye (2010) claimed that POS has an impact on staff retention. The argument is based on the organisational support theory, namely, that when employees perceive more support from the organisation, they are more likely to develop positive attitudes towards the organisation, which leads to increased performance (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Kumaresh and Krishnan (2014) further concluded that employees who perceive a high level of organisational support are inclined to show firmer affiliation and dedication to their organisation, as they perceive the organisation's progress and failure as their own. Moreover, Kumaresh and Krishnan (2014) postulated that for employees, the organisation serves as an important source of socio-emotional resources, such as respect and caring, and tangible benefits, for example, wages and medical benefits. Being regarded highly by the organisation helps to meet employees' needs for approval, esteem, and affiliation (Kumaresh & Krishnan, 2014). Arasanmi and Krishna (2019), in their study done in the New Zealand public sector, cited that a positive relationship between POS and employee retention was observed, which the authors also stated was confirmed by previous studies cited in the literature.

Furthermore, Holston-Okae and Mushi (2018) asserted that the perceived organisational climate and support may silhouette and influence decisions to leave or stay. Conversely, Arasanmi and Krishna (2019) affirmed the above idea that POS influences retention and increases employee commitment to want to stay with the organisation. Organisational support surpasses a number of factors, as it depicts an employer that cares about strategy; its lack could diminish the chances of staying.

The organisation's positive valuation also indicated that increased effort will be noted and rewarded (Baumann & Stieglitz, 2013). The three common antecedents of POS are fairness, supervisory support, and HR practices (Kurtessis et al., 2015). According to Aselage and Eisenberger (2003), when employees perceive that they are being treated fairly in comparison with their co-workers, they perceive that they are being treated fairly. The social exchange theory states that employees feel entitled to what they are given as workers, based on their input regarding their jobs (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) and if the employer reciprocates a positive feeling towards the job and organisation (Tsarenko et al., 2018). Therefore, this is regarded as the social exchange for what they have worked on and is related to the support offered by the organisation. Thus, the theory of social exchange and reciprocity are relevant in staff retention. Reciprocal actions regarding retention approaches will occur when employees are satisfied and accept the valence of support coming from the organisations

2.11.10 Ethical leadership and staff retention

Ethical leadership cannot be discussed without considering the concept of 'ethics' first. The idea of ethical behaviour can differ depending on when, from whom, and how one asks the question; therefore, the theory requires an understanding of the definition and context of ethics (Luenendonk, 2020).

In its simplest definition, ethics relates to knowing and doing what is 'right'. According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, ethics is moral principles that control or influence a person's behaviour ("Ethics," n.d.). By being moral, one is doing what is 'right'. Defining the 'right' behaviour has always been at the centre of ethics, so ethics is therefore open to interpretation (Luenendonk, 2020). However, in terms of behaviour, Luenendonk (2020) stated that there are a few defined interpretations of how ethics can be viewed:

1. The 'right' action depends on the situation's context, which means that the right action may be wrong in another context.

2. Culture determines what is ‘right’, and it is not correct to judge other cultures based on one’s own culture, as what is accepted and ethical in one culture may not be accepted and ethical in another culture.

3. People’s personal values should guide their behaviour.

4. The rules of a specific group or organisation determine what is right, including the society’s rules, religions, and an organisation’s rules.

5. The ‘right’ actions and behaviours are determined by their fairness, so everyone should be treated fairly and equally.

Ethical leadership is essentially a leadership theory that uses the above ethical concepts to guide subordinates. Since ethics deals with the principles of the ‘right’ behaviour and leadership by influencing other people to achieve goals, ethical leadership is influencing people through ethics (Luenendonk, 2020).

Brown and Treviño (2006) compared ethical leadership with other leadership theories. While the similarities are often clear, Brown and Treviño (2006) concluded that ethical leaders explicitly focus attention on ethical standards through communication and accountability processes. This aspect of ethical leadership separates it from authentic, charismatic, and transformational leadership. While a strong ethical outlook is required for these leadership theories, ethical leadership places the biggest emphasis on implementing ethical values in every aspect of leadership (Luenendonk, 2020).

Cheteni and Shindika (2017) stated that ethical leadership develops from fundamental features and conduct, which include demonstrating integrity and high ethical standards, considerate and fair treatment of employees, and holding employees accountable for ethical conduct. This is supported by Yukl et al. (2013), who stated that the attributes of leadership are honesty, integrity, fairness, kindness, compassion, and empathy.

Karatepe and Kilic (2015) found that ethical leadership enhanced job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which in turn was shown to affect turnover intention.

Support for this finding was provided by a study by Mayende and Musenze (2018), which found that ethical leadership positively affects staff retention. A study by Ibrahim and Mayende (2018) showed that ethical leadership and job resources discreetly predicted staff retention, with the overall 66% of the variance in staff retention explained by these two concepts.

Tansley (2011) posited that when there is trust between employees and leaders, one of the attributes of ethical leadership, it promotes high retention levels and increased employee commitment. Conversely, studies have shown that poor ethical leadership and unethical actions in organisations increase employee turnover (Avey et al., 2012; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009; Mayende & Musenze, 2018). Hashish (2017) also argued that an ethical organisational culture generates a respectable foundation for attracting and keeping employees in their organisations.

The lack of ethical leadership in South African SOEs has been shown to reduce job satisfaction and trust, leading to unfair treatment and poor communication, resulting in employees leaving for a more ethical organisation (Hashish, 2017; Khuluvhe et al., 2022; Mitonga-Monga, 2020). Furthermore, the lack of ethical leadership has also been identified as a contributing factor to the high turnover rate in SOEs as reported by various authors (Budiman et al., 2009; Chipunza & Samuel, 2009; Khuluvhe et al., 2022; Munduga, 2014). Employees, fearing that should they remain, they will be identified with the tainted SOE, have rather chosen to leave for more ethically run organisations (Ibrahim & Mayende, 2018; Mitonga-Monga, 2020). Additionally, various SOEs in South Africa have been eroded by state capture and corruption, and most of this has been attributed to unethical leadership behaviour (Zondo Commission Report Part 1, 2022). As such, the role of ethical leadership in retaining talented employees in South African SOEs is an important aspect to investigate.

2.11.11 Job satisfaction and staff retention

Job satisfaction is a construct that indicates the extent to which an employee feels self-motivated, content, and satisfied with their job (Priyadharshini, 2019). According to Anwar (2017), job satisfaction is one of the most studied constructs in the field of organisational behaviour and is linked to the motivation of employees. Motivation theories have been scrutinised for decades, and their influence on what motivates employees is observed in constructs such as job satisfaction (Ali & Anwar, 2021). The theories of motivation apply to human capital strategies, so organisations should ensure that HR polices take motivational factors into consideration to get the best out of employees (Ali & Anwar, 2021).

Some employees can view their work as pleasant and satisfying, whereas others can view theirs as unpleasant and dissatisfying. Job satisfaction thus reveals the value employees attach to the work they do, and this affects organisational performance with a bearing on retaining employees who are dissatisfied. When an employee finds satisfaction in their job, they can reach a state of complete fulfilment, resulting in higher engagement, and they may want to stay in their jobs (Priyadharshini, 2019). This is supported by Paais and Pattiruhu (2020), who stated that employees become motivated and committed to the organisation if their job is highly satisfying.

Job satisfaction has two dimensions, namely, global job satisfaction that has to do with feelings with regard to the job, and secondly, job satisfaction, such as remuneration, contingent rewards, and nature of work conditions (job tasks themselves) (De Carvalho et al., 2017). Studies have indicated that there is a correlation between job satisfaction and employee retention (Mathimaran & Kumar, 2017; Terera & Ngiranda, 2014). It has also been established that job satisfaction is a key tool for employee retention (Behera et al., 2011). Further, Alkahtani (2015) established that job satisfaction has a correlation with an employee’s intention to leave their job. Ntimba (2019) also asserted that job dissatisfaction impacts retention and influences employees to leave the organisation. This relationship between job satisfaction and staff retention is illustrated in Maslow’s (1973) hierarchy of needs, which links the two concepts (Iqbal et al., 2017). Moreover, Herzberg (2017) argued that when hygiene factors such as supervision, interpersonal relations, and benefits, for example, are not met by the organisation, job dissatisfaction and turnover intention increase. Thus, implementing policies and practices that lead to job satisfaction could be used by organisations as retention strategies (Mathimaran & Kumar, 2017). This view is supported by Bussin (2017) and Al-Ghazali and Sohail (2021), who concluded that employers could influence the level of job satisfaction by implementing supportive working practices that would make employees feel valued for their contribution. As an organisation, knowing the level of employees' job satisfaction is imperative in attempting to retain them for as long as possible.

2.11.12 Meaningful work and staff retention

Meaningful work gives employees a sense of belonging and pride (Friedman & Kass-Shraibman, 2018). Job satisfaction is a work variable for meaningful work (Steger, 2018), while meaningfulness or meaninglessness signifies satisfaction with the job and is linked to whether the work is worth doing (Allan et al., 2019). Furthermore, Allan et al. (2019, p. 503) postulated that, "for example, meaningful work, work engagement, commitment, and job satisfaction may reflect the same underlying construct." This means that the characteristics of these constructs may have similar outcomes.

Meaningful work is associated with good personal well-being, gives meaning to life, satisfaction, and happiness at work, and elicits a higher work commitment and engagement. Meaningful work results in a number of potential benefits, such as effective teams, high performance, invested effort in the broader society, and a conducive ambience (Steger, 2018).

Meaningful work is generally defined as the value of work goals in relation to an individual's ideals and passions and, specifically, as work that "gives essence to what we do and brings fulfilment to our lives" (Chalofsky, 2003, p. 74). Job satisfaction and turnover intention are strongly related to meaningful work and are common outcomes of the dimension of staff retention (Ghadi, 2017). Ghadi (2017) further argued that meaningful work should be at the centre of staff retention to achieve a high level of job satisfaction and low turnover intention. According to Fouché et al. (2017), meaningful work (or lack thereof) also has specific consequences for the individual (for example, burnout and work engagement) as well as for the organisation (intention to leave and performance).

2.11.13 Organisational culture and staff retention

Cummings et al. (2020, p. 91) defined organisational culture as “the basic assumptions, values and norms shared by organisation members.” It is a combination of norms and values of members of an organisation passed on to new entrants; it is the normal way of guiding people regarding what is expected of them in the workplace (Cummings et al., 2020). Organisational culture is thus an important element that directs employees on how to conduct and regulate themselves in the organisation.

In brief, organisational culture incorporates the ‘what, why, and how’ of the way individuals ensure things are done within a particular organisation. Organisational culture is an element of the retention strategy and not an option to leave up to chance (Learning and Development Trends, 2022). It is crucial to build a strong, collaborative, and consistent culture constantly across the organisation; if not, the result may be a loss of some of an organisation’s key talent.

Dwivendi et al. (2013) and Haggalla and Jayatilake (2017) postulated that organisational culture influences turnover intention significantly. In fact, organisational culture is a crucial factor that has a strong effect on employee commitment, job satisfaction, and retention because of its influence on the work environment. Alzoubi et al. (2020) asserted that organisational culture impacts the work environment and can influence employees to stay or not to stay with the organisation. Managers must evaluate the organisational culture and its different elements, and try to find ways of improving the culture to retain more employees (Mulligan, 2001). The assets or heartbeat of any organisation are its workforce. A strong culture is what keeps an organisation alive, attracting and retaining talent within, whereas a weak culture may lead to an organisation’s destruction or downfall (Cummings et al., 2020). Many organisations have failed to invest in their assets (employees and organisational culture), which results in both critical and non-critical resources vacating their positions. Building and preserving a pleasant working environment is essential, as it not only retains staff but also yields a commendable culture (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017). The researcher concurs that a weak organisational culture exacerbates discomfort in workplaces and leads to increased turnover.

Al Mamun and Hasan (2017) argued that, generally, the corporate culture of an organisation affects employee turnover. Furthermore, researchers have linked cultures in organisations to many different organisational behaviours (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017; Cummings et al., 2020; Mulligan, 2001). If employees feel appreciated and are treated with dignity and respect, and are provided with compensation, benefits, and perquisites, which demonstrate respect and caring, they are bound to stay in the organisation (Govindaraju, 2019; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2019). Moreover, Kerr-Phillips and Thomas (2009) and Tansley (2011) asserted that upholding a strong organisational culture has value and is of importance when it comes to retaining talented employees.

An organisational culture also constitutes the behaviours and meanings attached by individuals to their actions (Van Dyk & Coetzee, 2012). Thus, the organisational culture mirrored the norms, values, beliefs, and attitudes of adherents and affected how employees interact with one another, including their clients and stakeholders (Madueke & Emerole, 2017). According to Madueke and Emerole (2017), this is because it is the focal point affecting employee commitment and engagement in an organisation. The organisation's culture builds commitment beyond personal interests and benefits, and gives a sense of identity to members of the organisation (Madueke & Emerole, 2017).

All organisations created and upheld a unique culture that influenced how employees conducted themselves, thought, and felt in the workplace (Madueke & Emerole, 2017). The business environment is competitive, and such competition applies to the mindset of individuals that work in those organisations. Whenever employees are dissatisfied with their work or organisation, they are ready to move away (Madueke & Emerole, 2017). On the other hand, it is assumed that when an organisational culture matches employees' needs and goals, it will improve employees' perceptions of their quality of work-life, which could lead to employee commitment, better organisational performance, and improved effectiveness (Khalili, 2014).

Purohit (2016) stated that considerable research had been conducted regarding organisational culture, notably about the relationship of organisational culture to reward systems, the strength of leadership, and the ability of the organisation to elicit a sense of commitment on the part of workers. The organisational culture's development of a sense of shared goals, among other factors, influenced key factors such as job satisfaction, turnover intention, and thus staff retention. Bussin (2014) asserted that organisational culture determines the employee's experience of the work environment and influences their turnover intention.

The findings originating from Bursch and Kelly's (2014) survey of 100 businesses that were in the engineering, finance, government, IT, manufacturing, and telecommunication sectors showed that the major components of talent attraction comprised salary packages, benefits, company culture, recruitment styles, staff turnover, work-life balance, and social networking. Furthermore, organisational goals, values, and culture are also known to influence employees' attitudes towards the organisation (Zimmerman et al., 2019) and should be considered in models of retention. Additionally, Ghosh et al. (2013) and Soni (2013) asserted that culture influenced employees' decisions to stay or leave an organisation. This is supported by the study by Michani et al. (2015), which found that organisational culture had an impact on staff retention.

2.12 SUMMARY

This chapter conceptualised staff retention and investigated its underlying constructs. The chapter started by discussing the importance of staff retention, after which the concept of 'staff retention' was defined. After this, the concepts of 'turnover', 'turnover intention', 'talent management', and 'staff retention' were defined. This was followed by a discussion of four motivational theories to understand how motivation plays a role in an employee's turnover intention, which ultimately influences staff retention. After this, five theories pertaining to staff retention were discussed and compared. In the last part of the chapter, biographical factors, as well as the 12 most researched underlying constructs that have been shown to influence staff retention, were discussed in terms of their significance.

In the next chapter, the measurement of staff retention and its underlying constructs will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3: THE MEASUREMENT OF STAFF RETENTION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter will be on the measurement of the underlying constructs of staff retention identified in Chapter 2. This will include a discussion and evaluation of eight existing measurement instruments that have been used in various studies to measure the 12 underlying constructs of the concept of staff retention as well as to measure the one construct of *intention to leave*, which has been used as an operational measure for staff retention. The chapter will end with conclusions regarding the use of existing instruments used to measure the underlying constructs of staff retention and intention to leave, which is used as the operational measure for staff retention.

3.2 EXISTING INSTRUMENTS USED TO MEASURE THE UNDERLYING CONSTRUCTS OF STAFF RETENTION

A specific literature aim for the current study was formulated as follows:

Specific literature aim 2: To investigate the existing instruments used to measure staff retention and its key components

To achieve this literature aim it was necessary to discuss and evaluate the existing questionnaires that have been used in various studies to measure the 12 underlying constructs of the concept of staff retention as well as to measure the one construct of intention to leave, which has been used as an operational measure for staff retention. If it was found that there were enough existing reliable and valid questionnaires to measure staff retention (operationalised as Intention to leave) and its underlying constructs, it would be unnecessary to develop a new staff retention questionnaire from scratch, as the questionnaires evaluated can just be incorporated into a consolidated Staff Retention Questionnaire (SRQ) for use in the empirical phase of this study. This approach was used and promoted by scholars such as George (2015), Choudhary (2016), and Dhanpat et al. (2018).

Eight existing measurement instruments that have been used in various studies to measure the underlying constructs of staff retention as well as to measure *intention to leave*, which has been used as an operational measure for staff retention, will be discussed and evaluated below. This will include discussing and evaluating the reliability and validity of each of the eight instruments. Regarding the validity of the instruments, the construct validity of each instrument as reported in applicable studies will be considered. The following guidelines for classification purposes provided by Jain and Angural (2017) for the use of existing instruments in research will be used:

- A Cronbach's alpha (α) $\geq$ .9 is considered to be Excellent.
- $.9 > \alpha \geq .8$ is considered to be Good.
- $.8 > \alpha \geq .7$ is considered to be Acceptable.
- $.7 > \alpha \geq .6$ is considered to be Questionable.
- $.6 > \alpha \geq .5$ is considered to be Poor.
- $\alpha < .5$ is considered to be Unacceptable.

3.2.1 Measuring instrument used by Döckel (2003) to measure staff retention factors

The first instrument to be discussed and evaluated is the Retention Factor Scale (RFS) developed in South Africa by Döckel (2003). The RFS is a self-report measure that contains 40 items measuring satisfaction with six retention factors (constructs): (1) compensation (13 items, for example, "satisfaction with my current total salary package – base pay, benefits, and incentives"); (2) job characteristics (four items, for example, "the job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills"); (3) training and development opportunities (seven items, for example, "there are enough development opportunities for me in this company"); (4) supervisor support (six items, for example, "my supervisor often lets me know how well he thinks I am performing on the job"); (5) career opportunities (six items, for example, "there are enough career opportunities for me in this organisation"); and (6) work-life balance (four items, for example, "my work schedule is often in conflict with my personal life"). Responses were captured on a 6-point Likert scale. These six constructs are discussed in more detail below.

(1) Compensation, which included monetary and non-monetary rewards (base salary, incentives and stock options for work done by employees, and non-financial rewards that are indirect financial rewards). Döckel (2003) and Döckel et al. (2006) recognised that money was the primary incentive used to attract high technology professionals.

(2) Job characteristics (skills variety and job autonomy). In the context of this study, job characteristics refer to the positive aspects of the job. Job characteristics may include varied work, opportunities to solve challenging problems, opportunities to work with the best people, freedom, flexibility, and being able to pursue interesting assignments (Döckel, 2003). Job characteristics that lead to feelings of increased competence and meaningfulness of work were found to increase the retention of employees (Döckel, 2003).

(3) Training and development opportunities (for advancement) with the potential to make employees see value in their employment. According to Döckel et al. (2003), training is vital for the existence of any knowledge worker, and that is the only approach which can be used to lure these employees into staying employable for the duration of their careers.

(4) Supervisor support, including recognition and feedback that supervisors provide to employees. Döckel et al. (2003) cited that feedback is critical, and managers or supervisors who provide employees feedback on how they perform add value to retention.

(5) Career opportunities that can be both internal and external. Internal career opportunities could exist within employees' current organisations, such as promotions or moves to different positions. External opportunities included moving out of the organisation and work-life policies. Döckel et al. (2003)

stated that perceived career opportunities considerably predict job performance and turnover.

(6) Work-life balance. Work-life policies included flexible work practices, including the fact that there is part-time work, family friendly policies that allow people to take time off for personal and family matters, and varying starting and end times for work. Döckel (2003) added that organisations that win are those who take care of the needs of their employees. The author provided a justification for the need to accommodate employees by providing remote access for telecommuting, childcare centres, referral programmes, and employee assistance programmes to enhance and improve a positive employee attitude towards their jobs.

In his study, Döckel (2003) obtained the following internal consistency coefficients for the six scales used in the RFS, which are classified according to the guidelines suggested by Jain and Angural (2017):

1. Compensation: .90 – good
2. Job characteristics: .41 – unacceptable
3. Training and development opportunities: .83 – good
4. Supervisor support: .90 – good
5. Career opportunities: .76 – acceptable
6. Work-life balance: .86 – good

Only the Job characteristics scale produces an internal consistency score of lower than .83, and the second lowest score obtained was for the Training and development opportunities scale. Regarding validity, a factor analysis on the RFS that Döckel (2003) conducted confirmed the construct validity of the questionnaires. Furthermore, the RFS has evidenced good psychometric validity and reliability in other South African multicultural samples (Döckel, 2003; Döckel et al., 2006).

In a study among medical and information technology services staff in South Africa, Van Dyk et al. (2013) reported the following medium to high Cronbach's alpha coefficients (internal consistency reliability): compensation (0.95), job characteristics

(0.67), training and development opportunities (0.88), supervisor support (0.83), career opportunities (0.73), and work-life balance (0.88).

In a study among early career medical and information technology services staff, identified as scarce skills in a South African client services company, Coetzee et al. (2016) reported acceptable internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) ranging between .60 (job characteristics) and .96 (compensation)Coetzee et al., 2016).

In conclusion, only one scale of the RFS used to measure the Job characteristics staff retention construct obtained low internal consistency scores in all the studies referred to, from .41 (Döckel, 2003) to .67 (Van Dyk et al., 2013) to .60 (Coetzee et al., 2016). According to Jain and Angural (2017), this could be due to a construct being measured by a few items (the Job characteristics scale only has four items). However, according to Hair et al. (2019), for research in the social sciences, a reliability score as low as .6 can still be acceptable. As the RFS measured six of the twelve underlying constructs of staff retention identified in Chapter 2 (Compensation and benefits, Job characteristics, Training and development, Supervisory support, Career growth and development, and Work-life balance), all six scales used in the RFS were considered for inclusion into a final staff retention questionnaire to measure the underlying constructs of staff retention in the empirical phase of this study.

3.2.2 Instrument used to measure employee engagement

The employee engagement construct is derived from the work of Kahn, who defined employee engagement as "the harnessing of organisation members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances" (Kahn, 1990, p. 694). The physical aspect of employee engagement concerns the physical energies exerted by individuals to accomplish their roles. Thus, according to Kahn (1990), engagement means to be psychologically as well as physically present when occupying and performing an organisational role.

Kahn's (1990) work expanded and evolved, and the New Zealand business consulting company IBM, which specialised in surveys, was part of developing the John Robertson & Associates (JRA) scale to measure employee engagement (Xu & Cooper-Thomas, 2011). The JRA scale consists of six items, with two items each for the cognitive, emotional, and behavioural components of engagement respectively. The purpose of the scale is to measure to what degree the employee feels emotionally attached to the organisation, and the cognitions that underpinned the sense of attachment and ultimately drove the employee to go that extra mile (Amir et al., 2014). The JRA scale has been used widely by other researchers to measure employee engagement (Cooper et al., 2018). A Cronbach's alpha of .85 was obtained by Xu and Thomas (2011) in their study in a large New Zealand insurance organisation using data from direct reports. On the other hand, Abraham (2012) in their study in a United Arab Emirates Exchange and Financial Services company obtained an internal reliability coefficient of .76, considered as Good and Acceptable respectively by Jain and Angural (2017). The Abraham (2012) study also found that the content validity of the JRA was acceptable for research purposes. As the JRA was considered to be a reliable and valid instrument and measured one of the 12 underlying constructs of staff retention identified in Chapter 2 (Employee engagement), it was considered for inclusion into a final staff retention questionnaire to measure the underlying constructs of staff retention in the empirical phase of this study.

3.2.3 Instrument used to measure organisational support

Perceived organisational support (POS) is concerned with employees' general opinions regarding how much their organisation values their contributions and takes their well-being seriously (Neves & Eisenberger, 2014). POS refers to employees' perceptions concerning the extent to which the organisation values their involvement and cares about their well-being (Kumaresh & Krishnan, 2014; Rhoades et al., 2001).

An instrument named the POS scale was developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986) to measure POS. Eisenberger et al. (1986) used a heterogeneous sample of 201 office staff recruited via email. This instrument is based on the belief that the employee has concerning the support that the organisation provided (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The

POS scale includes 12 items from the original 36 items used in the original POS scale and is rated on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A reliability and item analysis of the scores obtained in the original study by Eisenberger et al. (1986) indicated an internal consistency of .97, while more recent studies by Bibi et al. (2018) among special education teachers in Pakistan and by Addo and Dartey-Baah (2020) among engineers and technicians in the power transmission subsector in Ghana obtained Cronbach's alphas of .80 and .83 respectively for internal consistency, all considered as Good by Jain and Angural (2017). The study by Addo and Dartey-Baah (2020) also found the content validity of the POS scale to be acceptable. As the POS scale was considered to be a reliable and valid instrument and measured one of the 12 underlying constructs of staff retention identified in Chapter 2 (Perceived organisational support), it was considered for inclusion into a final staff retention questionnaire to measure the underlying constructs of staff retention in the empirical phase of this study.

3.2.4 Instrument used to measure ethical leadership

Brown et al. (2005) explained that trust is one of the attributes of ethical leadership and that it is important for employee retention. This is supported by Tansley (2011), who posited that when there is trust between employees and leaders, it promoted high retention levels and increased employees' commitment. Cheteni and Shindika (2017) argued that ethical leadership develops from fundamental features and conduct, which include demonstrating integrity and high ethical standards, considerate and fair treatment of employees, and holding employees accountable for ethical conduct. Conversely, poor ethical leadership and unethical actions in the organisation increased employee turnover (Avey et al., 2012; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009; Mayende & Musenze, 2018).

The Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ) was developed by Yukl et al. (2013) to measure ethical leadership in organisations. The sample for the study was 192 graduate students who were enrolled in an MBA programme and a Master of Public Administration programme at universities in the United States. The students had full-time jobs during the day in organisations from a large variety of industries (e.g. aerospace, technology, pharmaceutical, media, consulting, retail, software, telecommunications, banking, government, and non-profit). The students were asked to rate their immediate supervisor on the ELQ. The ELQ has 15 items, and each item has a 6-point Likert-style format. According to Yukl et al. (2013), the ELQ has distinct advantages over other ethical leadership questionnaires in that it includes the fundamental forms of ethical leadership conduct and is not confounded by other leadership behaviours. In addition, in a survey study comprising 64 South African employees in public institutions and 44 public service workers from Botswana, Chiteni and Shideka (2016) found that the ELQ was short and easy to use. Yukl et al. (2013) reported internal reliability of .74 to .96 for the ELQ (Acceptable to Excellent according to Jain and Angural, 2017) as well as acceptable discriminant, predictive, and content validity. As the ELQ was considered to be a reliable and valid instrument and measured one of the 12 underlying constructs of staff retention identified in Chapter 2 (Ethical leadership), it was considered for inclusion into a final staff retention questionnaire to measure the underlying constructs of staff retention in the empirical phase of this study.

3.2.5 Instrument used to measure job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a construct that indicates the extent to which an employee feels self-motivated, content, and satisfied with their job (Priyadharshini, 2019). According to Anwar (2017), job satisfaction is one of the most studied constructs in the field of organisational behaviour and is linked to the motivation of employees, which is again linked to employee retention (Mathimaran & Kumar, 2017; Terera & Ngiranda, 2014) as well as to an employee’s intention to leave their job (Ntimba, 2019).

To measure Job satisfaction, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was developed by Spector (1985) based on samples from community health centres, state psychiatric hospitals, state social service departments, and nursing homes (Spector, 1985). However, later, the instrument was used in various studies within different organisational sectors in different cultures (Giri & Kumar, 2010; Liu, Borg Watson, Thompson & Meade, 2007).

The JSS is a 36-item, nine-facet scale to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. Each facet is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all items. A summated rating scale format is used, with six choices per item ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The nine facets are (1) Pay, (2) Promotion, (3) Supervision, (4) Fringe Benefits, (5) Contingent Rewards (performance-based rewards), (6) Operating Procedures (required rules and procedures), (7) Co-workers, (8) Nature of Work, and (9) Communication.

The reliability and validity of the JSS was established by Spector (1997), who found Cronbach’s alphas ranging from .60 to .82 for the items measured. In contrast, Tsounis and Sarafis (2018) obtained an overall internal consistency of .91 for a study in the USA and .87 for a study in Greece. A study by Lumley et al. (2011) in the technology environment in South Africa obtained a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .92 for the JSS.

For this study, only five items of the original JSS, which measured direct aspects of Job satisfaction, were used. Although no internal consistency reliability scores nor validity research are available for these five items, these will be tested in this study. The assumption was made that as the reliability and validity of the original nine facets has been established as acceptable in numerous previous studies, the five items used can also be considered reliable and valid. As such, these five items were considered to be reliable and valid, and they were considered for inclusion in a final staff retention questionnaire to measure the underlying construct of staff retention of Job satisfaction in the empirical phase of this study.

3.2.6 Instrument used to measure meaningful work

Meaningful work provides employees with a sense of belonging and pride (Friedman & Kass-Shraibman, 2018). On the other hand, meaningfulness signified satisfaction with the job, and it is linked to whether the work is worth doing (Allan et al., 2019). Meaningful work resulted in a number of potential benefits, such as effective teams, high performance, invested effort in a broader society, and conducive ambience (Steger, 2018). Job satisfaction and turnover intention are interrelated to meaningful work and are common outcomes of the dimension of staff retention (Ghadi, 2017). Ghadi (2017) further argued that to achieve a high level of job satisfaction and low turnover intention, meaningful work should be at the centre stage of staff retention. According to Fouché et al. (2017), meaningful work (or lack thereof) also has specific consequences for the individual (for example, burnout and work engagement) as well as for the organisation (intention to leave and performance).

The Meaningful job factor of staff retention, which referred to whether the job is meaningful or trivial, was measured with the Work and Meaning Inventory (WAMI) (Steger et al., 2012). The WAMI was developed using a sample of 370 employees from a large United States research university representing diverse occupations, such as lecturers, administrative assistants, accounting professionals, research associates, information technology specialists, and management (Steger et al., 2012). The WAMI assesses three core components of meaningful work: the degree to which people find their work to have significance and purpose, the contribution work makes to finding a broader meaning in life, and the desire and means for one's work to make a positive contribution to the greater good. The inventory consists of 10 items and uses a 5-point Likert scale from 1 = Absolutely Untrue to 5 = Absolutely True.

In a study of meaningful work among South African school teachers, Fouché et al. (2017) obtained a total internal consistency of .93 for the WAMI and reported satisfactory content validity. In contrast, Finch (2014), in a study among South African working adults, obtained a total internal consistency of .77 and also reported acceptable content validity. These two internal consistency scores are classified as Excellent and Acceptable respectively by Jain and Angural (2017). As the WAMI was thus considered to be a reliable and valid instrument and measured one of the 12 underlying constructs of staff retention identified in Chapter 2 (Meaningful job), it was considered for inclusion into a final staff retention questionnaire to measure the underlying constructs of staff retention in the empirical phase of this study.

3.2.7 Instrument used to measure organisational culture

Cummings et al. (2020, p. 91) defined organisational culture as "the basic assumptions, values and norms shared by organisation members." It is a combination of norms and values of members of an organisation passed along to new entrants; it is the normal way of guiding people regarding what is expected of them in the workplace (Cummings et al., 2020). Organisational culture is thus an important element that directed employees on how to conduct and regulate themselves in the organisation. Organisational culture is an element of the retention strategy and not an option to leave up to chance (Learning and Development Trends, 2022). It is crucial to constantly build a strong, collaborative, and consistent culture across the organisation; if not, the result might be a loss of some of an organisation's key talent.

Dwivendi et al. (2013) and Haggalla and Jayatilake (2017) postulated that organisational culture significantly influences turnover intention. Organisational culture is a crucial factor which highly affects employee commitment, job satisfaction, and retention because of the influence it has on the work environment. Alzoubi et al. (2020) asserted that organisational culture has an impact on the work environment and that it can influence employees to stay or not to stay with an organisation. Managers must evaluate the organisational culture and its different elements, and try to find ways in which the culture can be improved to retain more employees (Mulligan, 2001). A strong culture is what keeps an organisation alive, attracting and retaining talent within, whereas a weak culture may lead to an organisation's destruction or downfall (Cummings et al., 2020).

Martins (1989) developed the South African Culture Instrument (SACI) to measure organisational culture in the South African context, and it measures the extent to which employees identify with the elements of their organisation's culture. The version of the instrument used in this study consisted of 67 items using a 5-point Likert scale from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. It measures the following seven dimensions of organisational culture: (1) Leadership, (2) Means to achieve objectives, (3) Management processes, (4) Employee needs and objectives, (5) Vision and mission, (6) External environment, and (7) Internal relationship.

In a study by Martins et al. (2004) in a South African university library, the researchers reported an overall internal reliability of the SACI of .93, classified as Excellent by Jain Jain and Angural (2017). In a study by Martins (2014) conducted within a sample of 3000 permanent employees from middle-management levels and below in a South African ICT company to test the factorial validity of the SACI, the author concluded that "The results confirm the validity and reliability of the SACI" (Martins, 2014, p. 251).

As the SACI was considered to be a reliable and valid instrument and measured one of the 12 underlying constructs of staff retention identified in Chapter 2 (Organisational culture), it was considered for inclusion into a final staff retention questionnaire to measure the underlying constructs of staff retention in the empirical phase of this study.

3.2.8 The measurement of intention to leave as the operationalisation of the concept of staff retention

It is important to note that in this study, *intention to leave* is used as the measurement for *staff retention* (the dependent variable). In this respect, Cho et al. (2008) stated that the construct of Intention to leave is often used as the operationalisation of the concept of staff retention, and thus as a substitute measurement for staff retention in empirical studies. This is in line with the suggestion by Nasir et al. (2019, p. 157) that "retention processes (staff retention) should be studied along with the quitting processes (intention to leave)." Staff retention can be better understood by studying factors leading towards increased dissatisfaction among employees and thus their intention to leave the organisation. Thus, the measurement of the factors contributing towards an employee's intention to leave an organisation gives the most valid measurement of the concept of staff retention (Yousuf & Siddqui, 2019).

As explained in Chapter 2, Intention to leave refers to the subjective estimation of an individual regarding the probability of leaving an organisation in the near future (Cho et al., 2008; Dhanpat, 2018). Intention to leave is defined in the form of turnover intention, which Khan et al. (2016) link to the intention to leave and which Malik and Khalid (2016) and Matz et al. (2014) define as an intent state (action) on the part of an employee who plans to leave the organisation in the near future. On the other hand, Bayarkelik and Findikli (2016) referred to the intention to leave as an action an employee takes to resign, and it can be voluntary or involuntary. In summary, intention to leave is a subjective intent in which an individual decides to quit the organisation (Cho et al., 2009).

The Intention to Quit Scale developed by Cohen (1993) measured the intention of employees to leave the organisation, which was the dependent variable in this study, and consisted of six items. Concerning its reliability, Theron et al. (2014) obtained a Cronbach's alpha of .91 in their study, which is considered to be Excellent according to the guidelines provided by Jain and Angural (2017). In her study, Theron (2015) validated the factors that were used in the Intention to Quit Scale and reported that it had acceptable construct validity. As such, the Intention to Quit Scale (Cohen, 1993) was considered for inclusion in a final staff retention questionnaire to measure the dependent variable in the empirical phase of this study.

3.2.9 Conclusions regarding existing instruments used to measure the underlying constructs of staff retention and intention to leave, which is used as the operational measure for staff retention

After discussing and evaluating eight existing measurement instruments that have been used in various studies to measure the 12 underlying constructs of the concept of staff retention as well as to measure the one construct of intention to leave, which has been used as an operational measure for staff retention, it is clear to the researcher that there are enough existing reliable and valid instruments to measure staff retention (operationalised as Intention to leave) and its underlying constructs. Thus, it is not necessary to develop a new measurement instrument from scratch, as the existing instruments can just be selected and incorporated into a consolidated Staff Retention Questionnaire (SRQ) for use in the empirical phase of this study. The available instruments and the underlying staff retention constructs that they can be used to measure are listed in Table 3.1.

According to Hyman et al. (2006) and Saunders et al. (2016), the advantages of using existing measurement instruments are the following:

- The reliability and validity of existing questionnaires have usually already been established and are thus likely to be acceptable as data-gathering instruments.

- Using existing questionnaires resulted in cost savings, as a new questionnaire does not have to be developed from scratch and piloted and validated.

Hyman et al. (2006) also acknowledged that the use of existing questionnaires is not without some pitfalls, such as the context in which these questionnaires were developed. However, this possible pitfall can be mitigated by ensuring that the adapted questionnaires used were all developed for use in circumstances similar to this study.

Table 3.1

Staff Retention Constructs and Existing Measuring Instruments Available to Measure Them

Staff retention constructs	Measurement instrument that can be used and source	Number of items used to measure the construct
Biographical information	Self-developed by researcher	5 biographical items
Compensation and benefits	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	15
Job characteristics	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	4
Training and development	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	6
Supervisory support	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	6

Staff retention constructs	Measurement instrument that can be used and source	Number of items used to measure the construct
Career growth and development	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	6
Work-life balance	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	4
Employee engagement	Employee Engagement Questionnaire (Kahn, 1990)	7
Organisational support	Perceived Organisational Support Questionnaire (Eisenberger et al., 1986)	12
Ethical leadership	Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (Yukl et al., 2013)	15
Job satisfaction	Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985)	5
Meaningful job	Work and Meaning Inventory (Steger et al., 2012)	10

Staff retention constructs	Measurement instrument that can be used and source	Number of items used to measure the construct
Organisational culture	South African Culture Instrument (Martin, 1989)	67
Staff retention (Intention to leave – dependent variable)	Intention to Quit Scale (Cohen, 1993)	6
		Total = 162

Note. Compiled by researcher.

3.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The focus of Chapter 3 was on the measurement of the underlying constructs of staff retention identified in Chapter 2. This included a discussion and evaluation of eight existing measurement instruments that have been used in various studies to measure the 12 underlying constructs of the concept of staff retention as well as to measure the one construct of intention to leave, which has been used as an operational measure for staff retention. The chapter ended with conclusions regarding the use of existing instruments used to measure the underlying constructs of staff retention and intention to leave, which is used as the operational measure for staff retention.

In the next chapter, existing models of staff retention will be evaluated to determine their applicability to SOEs in South Africa.

CHAPTER 4: THE EVALUATION OF EXISTING GENERAL ORGANISATIONAL MODELS OF STAFF RETENTION AND STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISE RETENTION FRAMEWORKS TO DETERMINE THEIR APPLICABILITY TO ALL STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN SOUTH AFRICA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, existing models and frameworks of staff retention will be discussed and evaluated to determine their applicability to South African SOEs. The chapter will commence with a discussion of six existing general organisational models of staff retention, each of which will be evaluated to determine their applicability to South African SOEs. After this, the existing staff retention frameworks of three major South African SOEs will be discussed and evaluated to determine their applicability to all South African SOEs. The chapter will then end with general conclusions regarding the applicability of existing staff retention models and frameworks to SOEs in South Africa.

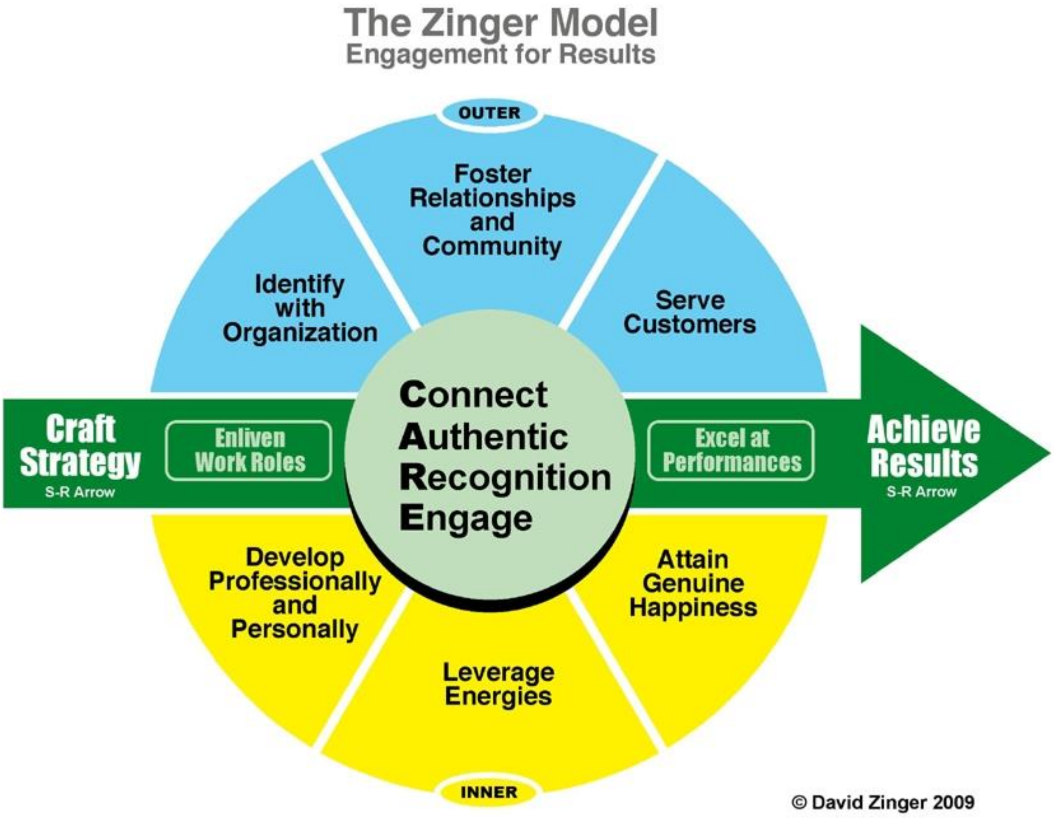
4.2 OVERVIEW OF SIX EXISTING GENERAL ORGANISATIONAL MODELS OF STAFF RETENTION

General organisational models of staff retention typically consist of factors which organisations consider important to retain their staff for as long as possible and to prevent them from leaving. For purposes of this chapter, six existing general organisational models of staff retention will be discussed. These are (1) the Zinger staff retention model, (2) the Staff retention model for professional workers, (3) the Fauzi, Ahmad and Gelaidan (2013) staff retention model, (4) Wee's (2013) tri-dimensional staff retention model, (5) the employee retention connection (ERC) staff retention model, and (6) the integrated system for retaining employees.

The Zinger staff retention model was originally developed by David Zinger in 2009 and refined in 2010 and 2013 (Vinod & Gladstone, 2018). Sultana and Bushra (2013) stated that the Zinger model has to do with the art of knowing how to engage one's workforce for the benefit of both the organisation and its employees. This model is based on authenticity, while it is connected to strategy, roles, performance, community, relationships, customers, development, energy, and well-being. Levering these above-mentioned connections sustained and transformed work connections into tangible results. Authenticity in this model is linked to retention, and a powerful element of recognition is recommended (Sultana & Bushra, 2013). The Zinger model is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1

The Zinger Staff Retention Model



Note. Adapted from "Employee Retention Practices in an Indian Corporate – A study of select MNCs," by S. Nazia and B. Begum, 2013, *International Journal of Engineering and Management Sciences, 4*(3), p. 361.

According to the Zinger model, employee retention is directed towards achieving the results of the organisation that the department, team, or individual wants to achieve. To achieve results, companies need to craft a strategy to get there, and a central key to employee retention is the connection (Hussainy, 2020). In some cases, connection is synonymous with engagement. However, engagement is not a one-time survey measure or a steady state. To engage is to fully experience and contribute to the dynamic elements of work. Employee retention must be authentic, and the retention of competent employees requires powerful recognitions (Sultana & Bushra, 2013).

This model emphasised that employee retention can contribute to effective performance management, and performance demonstrated the company's engagement, while engagement and retention helped companies excel in their performance. Good employee retention should foster star performers (Sultana & Bushra, 2013). The employee should also be aligned with the organisation to build up the esteem of the organisation, and there should be no disconnect between the employee and the organisation. According to Lewis and Sequeira (2012), companies want employees to serve their customers and can only do that if they feel engaged. Ashraf and Siddiqui (2020) stated that there is an extremely strong relationship between employee engagement and employee retention, and that effective employee retention helps employees to serve customers with pride.

According to the Zinger model, employees should experience both personal and professional development through work ranging from courses and learning to develop their own strengths, value, visibility, and engagement. Powerful retention involves mastery of physical, mental, emotional, spiritual, and organisational energy (Kaur, 2017, p. 165).

Work should contribute to employee well-being, and employees need to both engage in and experience a healthy well-being, as an organisation's results are dependent upon the health and productivity of individual employees (Ashraf & Siddiui, 2020). Based on extensive and thorough work on employee engagement, the Zinger model throws light on various aspects of employee involvement, dedication, and engagement. According to Zinger (2021), the model provided organisations with 14 key factors that a manager must apply to achieve significant results. These included the following:

- Achieve results through proper planning and execution.

- Craft strategies to engage employees.
- Enliven work roles and strive to remove boredom at work.
- Excel at performance and reward good work.
- Get connected and communicate openly with subordinates.
- Be authentic when addressing issues pertaining to employees.
- Live recognition – recognise them in front of everyone and boost their morale.
- Results can be achieved in the fastest possible way only if employees are fully engaged.
- Employees stay long only if they identify with the organisation.
- Foster the community.
- Fully engaged employees will serve customers well.
- Develop careers according to the requirements.
- Leverage energies.
- Experience well-being with satisfied and happy employees.

The Zinger model on employee engagement considered aspects that could impact the involvement, engagement, and dedication of employees. However, it does not address employee retention directly but sees it as a byproduct of employee engagement, which is seen as leading to the achievement of results (Zinger, 2021). Furthermore, the Zinger model does not assist in identifying all the factors that should be included in a model of staff retention and would thus not be completely applicable as a model of staff retention for a South African SOE. Additionally, the Zinger model stated that its elements of powerful retention involve mastery of physical, mental, emotional, spiritual, and organisational energy, yet it also engages the employee to experience total well-being. These elements, which included spirituality, are not readily prevalent in most South African SOEs. While these aspects can be developed, it will require a radical change in the culture of most SOEs for this development to take place. With the model citing the issue of spirituality as a factor as well, the research mentioned that spirituality in the context of the workplace still appears to be in the formative stages of its development (Van der Walt & De Klerk, 2014). Moreover, engagement is known to be one of the drivers of staff retention; however, engagement as a single element does not have the strength to drive retention. Hence, a holistic view that covers both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards would be in a better position to retain staff at different levels in a diverse work environment. In closing, the Zinger model’s main goal is to achieve high levels of engagement. Engagement is one of the most important drivers of retention (Muthu & Umarani, 2021). If there is no engagement in organisations, serious challenges can be encountered on the ground. However, engagement alone cannot ensure that the diverse workforce in South African SOEs can be retained.

4.2.1 Staff retention model for professional workers

George (2015) proposed a staff retention model for professional workers at all levels in an organisation as depicted in Figure 4.2. George (2015) proposed the following two main groups for the model:

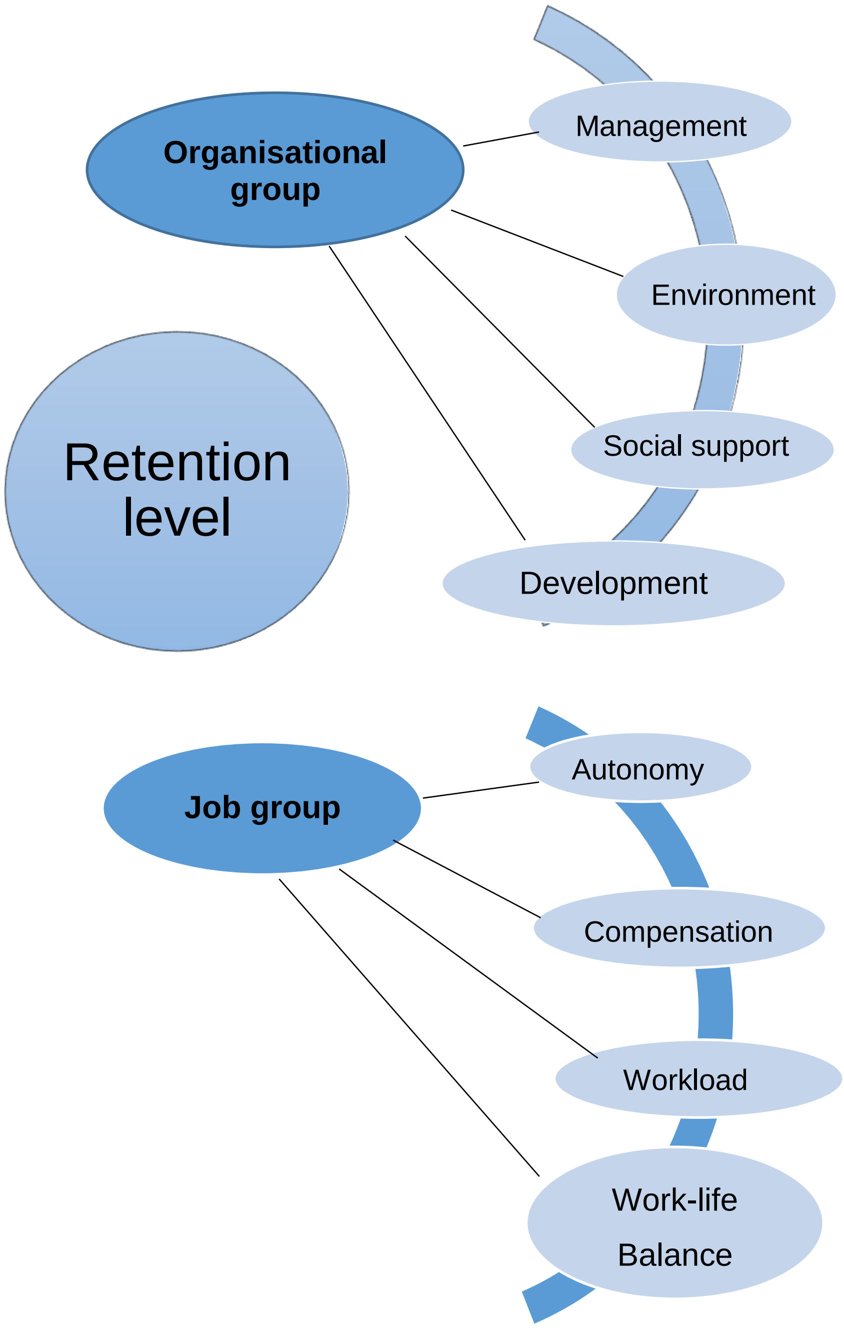
- An organisational group which consisted of management, a conducive environment, social support, and development opportunities

- A job group, which consisted of autonomy, compensation, crafted/sculpted workload, and work-life balance.

In addition, George (2015) also argued that the organisational- and job-level items predicted individual employees’ intention to remain in the organisation.

Figure 4.2

Staff Retention Model for Professional Workers



Note. Adapted from "Retaining Professional Workers: What Makes Them Stay?" by C. George, 2015, *Emerald Insight, 37*(1), p. 109.

In George's (2015) staff retention model, management is referred to as a key factor in retention at the organisational level and is divided into two sub-factors, namely, the management leadership style and the perceived manager support. It involved the role the manager played in contributing to employees leaving or staying in an organisation. The model also recognised the value of a conducive environment at the organisational level that implied a fun, pleasant workplace with adequate resources and room for flexibility (George, 2015).

The third factor at the organisational level identified is social support, which refers to the relationship that employees have with their co-workers. Moreover, social support can be characterised by feeling part of the team, as well as friendly and caring colleagues who are there for one another in both bad and good times and who can be consulted when required. The satisfaction of these relationships results in employee retention (George, 2015).

Lastly, on the organisational level are development opportunities. This means the opportunity offered to enhance the skills and competencies at work together with promotion and career advancement (George, 2015).

At the job level, the model emphasised the following four factors that influenced retention (George, 2015):

- Autonomy
- Compensation
- Crafted/sculpted workload
- Work-life balance

The first factor is autonomy, which refers to the ability to choose how one's work can be done, having influence over one's work, and flexibility in workload decisions. Therefore, autonomy entails a degree of flexibility in decisions involving workloads and how to do the work (George, 2015). Ultimately, autonomy fosters a sense of responsibility and accountability in one's job and brings satisfaction, which translates into retention.

The second factor identified on the job level is compensation, which was seen as a key factor in retention (George, 2015). “The key characteristics of compensation in relation to retention would appear to be the perception that decisions relating to pay are transparent and that salaries are fair and based on performance and effort” (George, 2015, p. 107).

The third factor on the job level is the crafted/sculpted workload. It must be noted that three important aspects that pertained to having a workload that is adapted to the resources/abilities of the individual, utilisation of the full individual skills, and creativity in structuring the work, based on the individual’s preference style and ability, are viewed as important. Opportunity offered to craft one’s job has been identified as the main factor in retention (George, 2015).

The fourth factor on the job level is work-life balance, which has been selected as an important factor in retaining professional workers (George, 2015). The opportunity offered among work and other activities other than work creates a balance and resulted in employees wanting to stay in such companies.

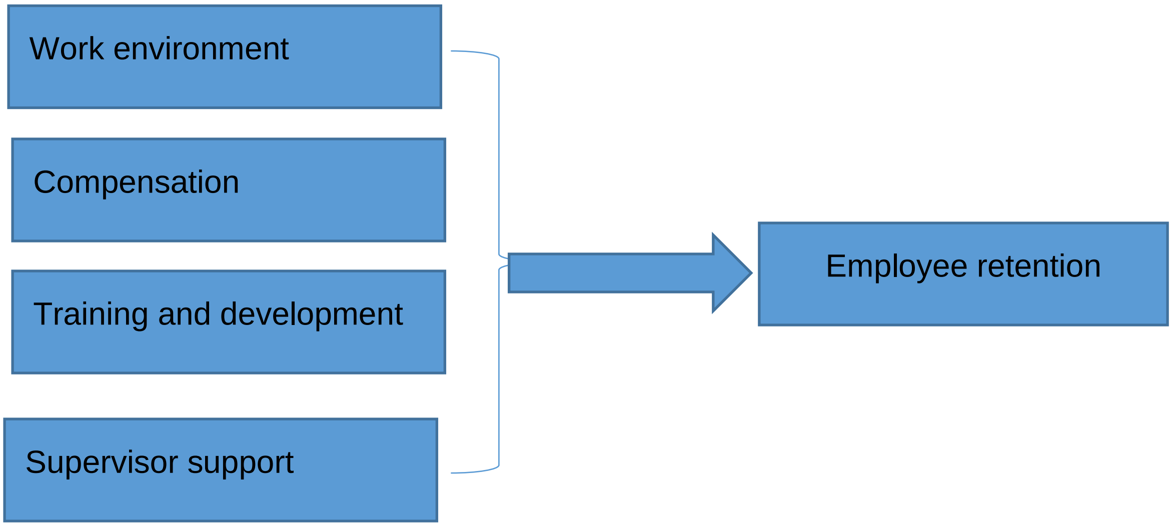
Although the George (2015) staff retention model can be adopted and applied to SOEs in South Africa, it has not been empirically validated for South African SOEs. In this respect, George (2015) stated that this retention model for professional workers was only tested in the United Kingdom. The model depicted various factors or elements that form part of retention and included some of the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards that are addressed by motivational theories that deal with employee motivation and retention. What is interesting is that some but not all of the elements appearing in the model are similar to those propounded by Döckel (2003), which is a South African study. Accordingly, the researcher cannot assert unequivocally that this model would work for South African SOEs, as these organisations differ in size, environment, business products, and mandate concerning their operations. Therefore, the researcher contended that the model as it currently stands cannot be directly applied to South African SOEs.

4.2.2 The Fauzi, Ahmad and Gelaidan (2013) staff retention model

The staff retention model propagated by Fauzi et al. (2013) and shown in Figure 4.3 contends that (1) the work environment, (2) compensation, (3) training and development, and (4) supervisor support are the basis for retaining employees in an organisation. These four aspects will be discussed in more detail.

Figure 4.3

The Fauzi, Ahmad and Gelaidan Staff Retention Model



Note. Based on “The Employee Retention Status in Paddy and Rice Industry,” by N.F.B. Fauzi, F. Ahmad and H.M. Gelaidan, 2013, *World Applied Sciences Journal, 25*(4), p. 646.

4.2.2.1 Work environment

Fauzi et al. (2013) asserted that good work environments are imperative for employees to be successful in their careers, as good environments encouraged them to stay in an organisation while bad environments will make them leave. Accordingly, conducive work environments promoted employee well-being and lead to retention (Lewis & Sequeira, 2012). Managers responsible for ensuring these conducive environments need to develop the required skills to be committed to their roles with vigour. In addition, Fauzi et al. (2013) stated that motivational tools encouraged employees, while Abah and Nwokwu (2016) and Lewis and Sequeira (2012) highlighted that a good work environment makes employees feel work is their second home, and that will translate into thriving employees and improved productivity. On the other hand, bad working environments exacerbated stress, gave employees a reason not to perform, led to dissatisfaction, and increased the intention of leaving the organisation (Richardson, 2014; Staren, 2009).

4.2.2.2 Compensation

Compensation has become regarded not only as a major retention factor (Aguenza & Som, 2012; Lewis & Sequeira, 2012; Silva et al., 2019) but also as a connecting factor, as it brings employees and organisational goals together. Moreover, compensation plays a major role in retention, as has constantly been reiterated by researchers and theorists from as early as 1892 (Sarkar, 2018). Fauzi et al. (2013) confirmed that compensation motivated employees and promoted hard work. Organisations are encouraged to have policies and procedures that promote compensation that matches the market rate, as packages below that rate will create challenges in retaining top talent.

4.2.2.3 Training and development

Training makes employees feel valued and contributed to satisfaction with existing jobs (Fauzi et al., 2013). Effective development plans should form part of employee retention activities that need to be addressed by companies' employee retention strategies. The goal of these employee retention strategies is to help organisations see the underlying contributors to the retention of employees and make the needed changes to build lasting and sustainable retention-rich cultures (Lewis & Sequeira, 2012).

4.2.2.4 Supervisor support

According to Fauzi et al. (2013), supervisor support plays an essential role in determining the intention of employees to stay or exit organisations. Lack of support from management can sometimes serve as a reason for an employee not to be retained by an organisation (Lewis & Sequeira, 2012). Accordingly, management should try to focus on its employees and support them, as a lack of support from management can sometimes serve as a reason for employee turnover (Al Mamum & Hasan, 2017). A supervisor should support their subordinates in such a way that each one of them is a success, while managers should try to focus on their employees and provide the needed support. Coetzee and Pauw (2013) postulated that acknowledgement by managers engenders commitment, and employees are more likely to stay in their organisations if they are recognised for their individual contributions.

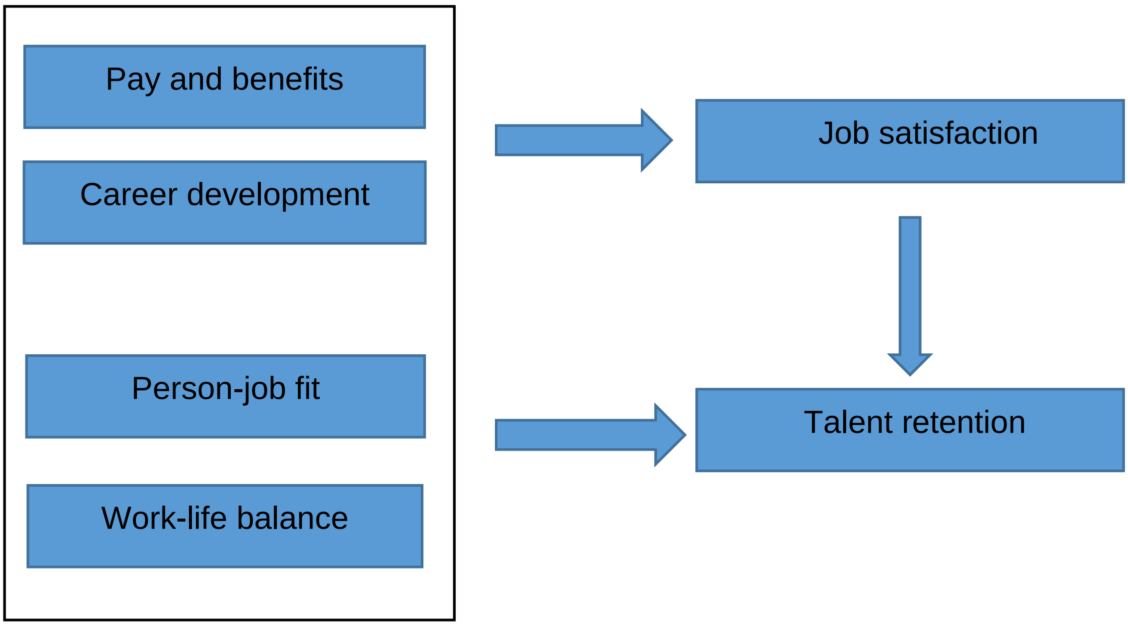
The model by Fauzi et al. (2013) and its four elements was developed for the paddy and rice industry in Malaysia. Applying this model to South African SOEs without first empirically validating it may not assist in retaining employees. Therefore, the Fauzi et al. (2013) staff retention model's applicability to South African SOEs remains in question and cannot be implemented without further empirical validation. Scholars and experts believe that the power of organisations is derived from their employees, which makes it necessary for organisations to motivate them to stay long in the company (Al Mamun& Hassan, 2017). To achieve this, organisations need to evaluate and study turnover intent with regard to their employees. In this case, the only way of understanding the turnover intention of the sampled South African SOE is through an empirical study. Al Mamun and Hassan (2017) further alluded to the fact that it is necessary for an organisation to instigate the process of establishing why employees leave and devise measures to curb unnecessary turnover.

4.2.3 Wee's (2013) tri-dimensional staff retention model

Wee's (2013) retention model signposted factors that contribute to employees leaving the organisation. The factors specified also contribute to employee job satisfaction, which leads to retention of employees. Wee's (2013) tri-dimensional theoretical staff retention model highlighted that pay and benefits, career development, person-job fit, and work-life balance are important motivating factors that influenced retention. Pay and benefits as a construct is specifically highlighted by Wee (2013) as the most influential concept that influenced employees to leave or stay in their organisations. Wee (2013) mentioned career development, person-job fit, and work-life balance as other contributory factors to employees leaving or staying in organisations. Wee (2013) also indicated that the four factors mentioned above contributed to employee job satisfaction, which in turn led to the retention of employees. Figure 4.4 depicts Wee's (2013) theoretical staff retention model, while the four factors are discussed in more detail thereafter.

Figure 4.4

Wee's Tri-dimensional Staff Retention Model



Note. Adapted from "Talent Retention: The Pressures in Malaysia SMEs," by T.C. Wee, 2013, *American Journal of Economics, 3*(C), p. 39.

4.2.3.1 Pay and benefits

Pay equals the direct payment that employees received in exchange for the work that they have performed, as it forms part of various payments that can include salaries, wages, bonuses, or allowances. Benefits are a form of indirect payment that employees receive from the organisation (Wee, 2013). Pay and benefits are considered part of a prime retention strategy and have been shown to correlated negatively with turnover intention (Wee, 2013).

4.2.3.2 Career development

Wee (2013) explained that career growth entailed the continuous processes or methods of improving and offering advancement with regard to the career goals according to which the organisation provides opportunities to enhance employees' personal capabilities, skills, knowledge, as well as their potential throughout their career lifespan. Therefore, career development coupled with training as a non-financial factor may be regarded as a key retention factor.

4.2.3.3 Person-job fit

Person-job fit is about compatibility, which is if the employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities are aligned with the job demands and benefits both the employee and the employer (Wee, 2013). A poor job fit can affect satisfaction, motivation, and performance in general.

4.2.3.4 Work-life balance

According to Wee (2013), work-life balance was established to provide equilibrium among the young generation to assist with achieving a balance between personal and work demands. The main aim of work-life balance is to have the flexibility to manoeuvre between work issues and personal life issues. It is believed that if employees are assisted to achieve a work-life balance, they are likely to stay with the organisation. Importantly, research has proved that work-life balance could assist employers in attracting and retaining talent, also serving as a competitive weapon to compete for skills in the global market and could sometimes work better than using salary (Schmidt, 2018).

4.2.3.5 Job satisfaction and talent retention

Job satisfaction is about the pleasure derived from doing a specific job or has to do with what individuals like about the job. Wee (2013) stated that job satisfaction provided a fulfilling measure and curbed turnover. When employees have high satisfaction with their jobs, they will serve customers well and have a high intent to stay, while low satisfaction is aligned with turnover intention.

Wee’s (2013) tri-dimensional staff retention model was developed based on the pressures that were experienced in small-medium enterprises (SMEs) in Malaysia. However, the elements derived from this model were tested extensively with regard to retention by other researchers. Wee (2013) indicated that this model still had to be tested empirically by collecting appropriate data to validate it. The applicability of the model to South African SOEs is debatable due to various issues, such as the culture of SOEs compared to SMEs, in which this model was evaluated. The problematic component of the model may be that the person-job fit factor in South African SOEs is affected by political influences. As such, the person-job fit of some of the positions may not have been established before the politically influenced placement took place.

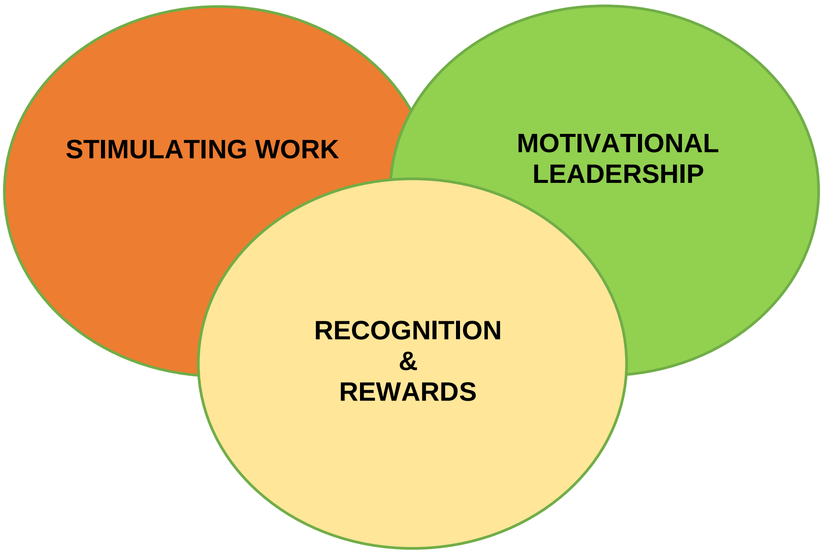
Furthermore, Rasool and Botha (2011) also postulated that affirmative action affected many skilled people, and they assumed that the government did not appreciate their talents or skills. This forced them to emigrate for better opportunities outside the country. Affirmative action also raised a challenge to the job-fit factor, as it is influenced by political factors as well. The political influence SOEs have thus makes it difficult to create progressive advancement through the various levels due to the said political interference. Qhobosheane (2018) stated that South African SOEs served the interests of political parties in power, and because the government of South Africa exercised control over these SOEs, these SOEs may find themselves pursuing goals that are contrary to their mandate. The applicability and relevance of the Wee (2013) model of retention thus require it to be empirically validated for South African SOEs before it can be adopted for this environment.

4.2.4 The employee retention connection (ERC) staff retention model

According to Hussainy (2020), the employee retention connection (ERC) model pertained to the changing organisational culture and enhanced the competitive edge within organisations. The emphasis of the ERC retention model is on its organisational culture, and it drives competition among organisations by emphasising three drivers, namely, (1) stimulating work, (2) motivational leadership, and (3) recognition and rewards (Kaur, 2017). The ERC model is illustrated in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5

The Employee Retention Connection (ERC) Staff Retention Model



Note. Adapted from "Employee Retention Practices in Indian Corporates – A Study of Select MNCs," by S. Nazia and B. Begum, 2013, *International Journal of Engineering and Management Sciences, 4*(3), p. 363.

The ERC model derives its motivation of employees from the perspective of the reward and recognition structure, which fits the organisation's culture. This means the reward and recognition strategy should support the organisational culture in order to motivate and enhance retention. Kaur (2017) emphasised that companies should recognise and reward what the employee has done. The ERC model promoted the issue of recognition and rewards in order to reinforce good behaviours, and success should be celebrated to encourage comradeship and team spirit.

Furthermore, Nazia and Begum (2013) and Hussainy (2020) highlighted the fact that the ERC model also believed that the organisation needed motivational leadership, referred to by Bussin and Diez (2017) as bosses who care and motivate rather than those who are bossy and who disenable retention. Hussainy (2020) explained that the ERC model principles included leaders as champions of change who should be open to new ideas. They should inspire a shared vision of organisational direction, develop the capabilities of others, and become a model for behaviours that reflect organisation value. Lastly, the ERC model pointed to stimulating work, in which Döckel (2003) and Döckel and Stolz (2015) identified job autonomy as a stimulator of retention. Stimulating work is achieved through a variety of assignments, giving employees the freedom to make decisions, and resources and support provided to achieve allocated tasks (Hussany, 2020). The opportunity to learn, the feedback provided with regard to the results, and understanding the importance and value added by everyone’s input also contribute to a stimulating work environment.

Briefly, the main purpose of the ERC staff retention model is to build a friendly culture within an organisation. This entails identifying activities and attitudes, and providing recognition that will contribute to a conducive work environment. It also entails offering rewards that are aligned to the culture of the organisation. The three drivers of the ERC model are discussed in more detail below.

4.2.4.1 Stimulating work

Stimulating work, the first driver of the ERC model, emphasised that to achieve stimulating work that retained employees, the following should be in place:

- Variety in assignments to keep employees motivated to stay.

- Being provided with an independent platform to make decisions.
- Having resources and support provided to do good work.
- Being given an opportunity to learn.
- Receiving feedback on results.
- Understanding the significance of one's personal contributions will create value on a personal level and serve as part of encouragement and motivation. Ultimately, this will assist employees to see their value added to the strategic value of the organisation.

4.2.4.2 Motivational leadership

Motivational leadership, the second driver, emphasised the following as contributing towards staff retention:

- The leader who motivates is expected to champion change and be open to new ideas.
- They should inspire the shared vision of the organisation's direction.
- The leader motivates and recognises the contributions of others.
- They should be willing to build and develop the capabilities of others.
- They should become a model for behaviours that reflect organisational values.

4.2.4.3 Recognition and rewards

Recognition and rewards, the third driver, emphasised the following as contributing towards staff retention:

- Organisations should reward employees who outperform others, recognise, and reward a job that is done well.
- Desired behaviours should be reinforced.
- Create an emphasis and focus on recognition.
- Celebrate successes to build employees' self-esteem.

The ERC model does have elements that can be considered by South African SOEs to retain staff. However, it is evident that the factors identified by the model tended to be common factors with regard to staff retention, as Döckel (2003; 2006) alluded to these factors as well in their studies. For example, recognition and rewards, which can be both monetary and non-monetary, have been identified by a number of studies and mentioned as the main factors regarding staff retention. Madhani (2020) asserted that rewards and recognition are essential resources for motivation and drive the accomplishment of organisational goals and play a key role in employee retention. Madhani (2020, p. 44) further alluded to the fact that "rewards and recognition are quite distinct and represent a major duality in human motivation." An organisation with a strong, balanced recognition and rewards strategy that covers both financial and non-financial rewards exhibits better productivity with good returns and a lower turnover intention (Mendis, 2017). Recognition and rewards are imperative in a retention strategy, and it is acknowledged that rewards alone are not enough unless paired with recognition to enhance retention.

Motivational leadership and stimulating work factors are included in the ERC model. As leadership is currently under scrutiny in South African SOEs, considering motivational leadership to be an aspect that drives retention in SOEs can boost employer brand and enhance staff retention. However, the ERC model only covers three factors of staff retention and was developed in an Indian private company.

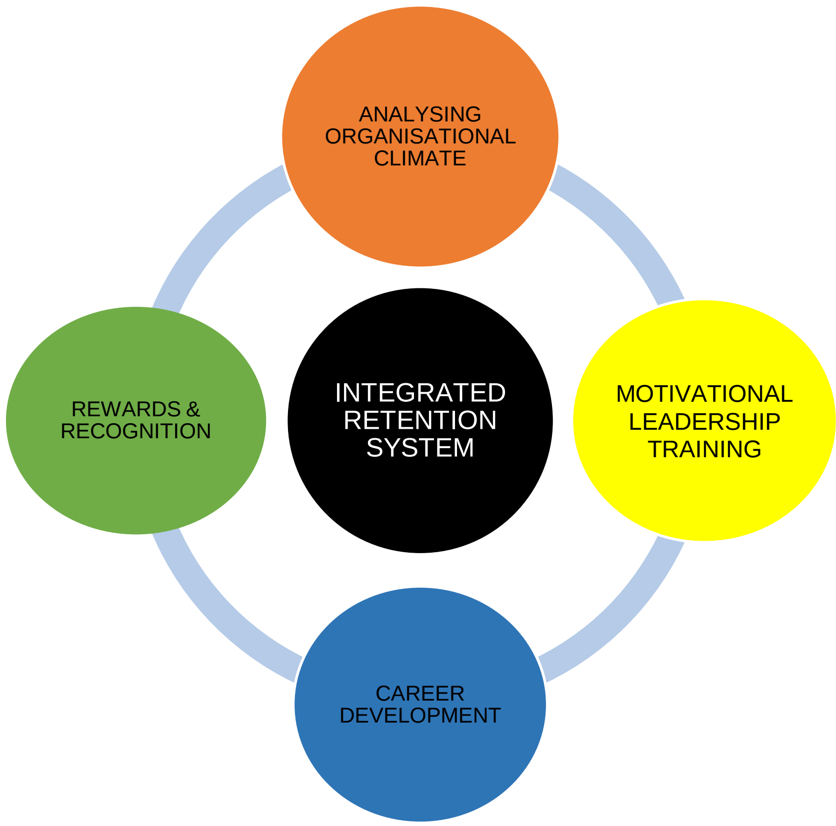
In summary, the ERC model as a staff retention model has limitations with respect to its applicability to South African SOEs to enhance their retention strategies. Although some of the elements of staff retention outlined in the ERC model above have been implemented in studies in both private- and public-sector entities, the entire model has never been validated empirically for South African SOEs and only covers selective staff retention factors.

4.2.5 The integrated system for retaining employees

The integrated retention system for retaining employees, depicted in Figure 4.6, highlights the important elements that have to be considered, namely, (1) analysing the organisational climate, (2) career development, (3) rewards and recognition, and (4) providing motivational leadership training to leaders (Kaur, 2017). The model attested to the fact that salary alone cannot facilitate retention; hence, it needed to be integrated with other aspects of retention. The factors are based on frequent testing through which the following retention factors emerged: skills recognition (involvement, input, growth, education, and teamwork), a learning work climate (an environment in which employees work and learn), job flexibility, time variations, work location, and workloads coupled with family responsibilities. Other retention factors are cost-effectiveness (cost-effective flexibility for the benefit of all), training, benefits, career development, supervisor-subordinate relationships, compensation, organisational commitment, communication, and employer and employee motivation (Kaur, 2017).

Figure 4.6

The Integrated Retention System for Retaining Employees



Note. Adapted from “Employee Retention Practices in Indian Corporate – A Study of Select MNCs,” by S. Nazia and B. Begum, 2013, *International Journal of Engineering and Management Sciences, 4*(3), p. 364.

The integrated retention system transforms the organisational culture and enhances the competitive advantage through a five-phased approach, which is explained below.

4.2.5.1 Phase 1

The model begins by analysing the organisation’s motivation and retention through climate surveys and focus groups. Questions are asked on the motivating and demotivating aspects of the organisation’s culture. In addition, their impact on retention is analysed. Accordingly, phase 1 of the integrated retention system looks at the culture within the organisation through an analysis process, while an integrative system process is also applied.

4.2.5.2 Phase 2

During this phase, high-involvement jobs and work assignments are designed that included:

- A wide variety of tasks and skills
- Opportunities to learn
- The authority to make decisions
- Feedback on results
- Resources and support needed to be successful

4.2.5.3 Phase 3

Train supervisors and managers in proven methods of motivational leadership by:

- Inspiring a shared vision and direction
- Developing the capabilities of others

- Promoting organisational change
- Recognising and appreciating employee contributions
- Serving as a role model

4.2.5.4 Phase 4

A plan is delivered for developing employee career paths and skills building by:

- Designing career paths, not necessarily up the organisational chart
- Identifying core competencies for different career paths
- Planning training and other opportunities to build competencies
- Mentoring for employee direction

4.2.5.5 Phase 5

A tailored reward and recognition system is built to fit an organisation's culture by:

- Identifying activities, attitudes, and contributions leading to being recognised and rewarded
- Matching reward and recognition options to performance contributions
- Establishing specific motivational approaches for retaining employees

In summary, the integrated retention system is a system that drives the process of retention in organisations through carefully planned and implemented phases. It is relevant to South African SOEs, but its shortcoming is that it does not explore all possible factors pertaining to retention and has not been validated in the South African SOE environment. Furthermore, IvyPanda (2019) stated that although the integrated system of employee retention is known to be an effective and significant retention tool, the reliance of this model on performance and rewards is a shortcoming and has proved to be ineffective in situations where employees take time to adjust to the work environment. Moreover, IvyPanda (2019) stated that the model mostly influenced the banking and manufacturing sectors, but those technology constraints, if not identified, may pose a challenge to the implementation of the model. There is thus no doubt that although the integrated retention system is regarded as holistic, the model still has limitations and may be more suitable for sectors that are prepared to invest highly in technology.

4.3 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE APPLICABILITY OF SIX EXISTING GENERAL ORGANISATIONAL MODELS OF STAFF RETENTION REGARDING THEIR APPLICABILITY TO SOUTH AFRICAN SOEs

Table 4.1 indicates to what extent the six existing general organisational models of staff retention evaluated above incorporate biographical factors and the 12 underlying staff retention constructs that have been the most globally researched and empirically shown to significantly influence staff retention as discussed in Chapter 2. The two models that contain the most globally researched underlying staff retention constructs are George's (2015) staff retention model for professional workers and Wee's (2013) tri-dimensional staff retention model. In addition, the six models have the following limitations:

- The four staff retention models besides George's and Wee's models only contain one, two, or three of the most globally researched staff retention constructs.

- The Zinger model considered aspects that could impact the involvement, engagement, and dedication of employees. However, it does not address employee retention directly but sees it as a byproduct of employee engagement, which is seen as leading to the achievement of results (Zinger, 2021).

- The model by Fauzi et al. (2013) and its four elements were developed for the paddy and rice industry in Malaysia. Its applicability to other industries in other countries has not been tested.

- Wee's (2013) tri-dimensional staff retention model was developed based on the pressures that were experienced in SMEs in Malaysia. Its applicability to larger enterprises and other countries has not been tested.

- None of the six models evaluated above have been validated in South African organisations in general nor in South African SOEs in particular.

- The models all emphasise the factors applicable to the environment and industry for which they were developed.

Table 4.1

Comparison Between Five Biographical Factors and 12 Underlying Staff Retention Constructs That Have Been the Most Globally Researched and Empirically Shown to Significantly Influence Staff Retention and Constructs Contained in Six Staff Retention Models

No.	Staff retention construct	Staff retention (SR) model					
		Zinger (2013)	George (2015)	Fauzi et al. (2013)	Wee (2013)	Nazia and Begum (2013) (a)	Nazia and Begum (2013) (b)
1	Biographical factors	X	X	X	X	X	X
2	Compensation/ benefits	X	√	√	√	√	√
3	Job characteristics	X	X	X	X	X	X
4	Training/ development	√	√	√	X	X	X
5	Supervisory support	X	√	√	X	X	X
6	Career growth & development	X	X	X	√	X	√
7	Work-life balance	√	√	X	√	X	X
8	Employee engagement	X	X	X	X	X	X
9	Organisational support	X	X	X	X	X	X
10	Ethical leadership	X	X	X	X	X	X

No.	Staff retention construct	Staff retention (SR) model					
		Zinger (2013)	George (2015)	Fauzi et al. (2013)	Wee (2013)	Nazia and Begum (2013) (a)	Nazia and Begum (2013) (b)
11	Job satisfaction	X	X	X	√	X	X
12	Meaningful work	X	X	X	X	X	X
13	Organisational culture	X	X	X	X	X	X

Note. Compiled by researcher

<u>Model descriptions</u>

Zinger (2013)	=	The Zinger staff retention (SR) model
George (2015)	=	SR model for professional workers
Fauzi et al. (2013)	=	The Fauzi, Ahmad and Gelaidan SR model
Wee (2013)	=	The tri-dimensional SR model
Nazia and Begum (2013) (a)	=	The employee retention connection (ERC) staff retention model
Nazia and Begum (2013) (b)	=	The integrated system for retaining employees

4.4 OVERVIEW OF STAFF RETENTION ASPECTS USED BY THREE MAJOR SOUTH AFRICAN STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES

The three major South African SOEs identified to be evaluated for this study were not prepared to provide their detailed retention strategy to the researcher, as their retention strategies were considered to be confidential and used as their competitive advantage against other SOEs. As such, in evaluating these three SOE retention models, use had to be made of aspects that appeared in the public domain, such as annual reports and financial statements.

4.4.1 The Transnet staff retention aspects

Transnet, as a South African SOE, in accordance with legislative requirements, provided transport and handling services through its five operating divisions and two special units. The company also featured as a top employer with the Top Employers Institute for the first time in 2015 (Top Employers Institute Report, 2015). Through its human capital strategy and the framework of its workforce planning, Transnet ensured the recruitment and retention of top-quality employees in all its employment groups (Transnet South Africa, 2018a). In pursuit of talent, the organisation also used the Talent Management and Development Programme as an enabler for talent retention and robust succession planning for priority and critical positions. Leadership development programmes targeted specific management levels, while coaching and mentoring programmes are also provided.

Transnet has developed the Employee Value Proposition (EVP) framework as its staff retention model, which is used to enhance retention and employee experience. The EVP offering seeks to ensconce a sense of belonging for all Transnet employees. As a long-term commitment by Transnet to its employees, it captured the ‘employment promise’ and enabled the alignment of all people practices across the organisation (Transnet South Africa, 2018b; Transnet South Africa, 2018c). Included in the employer promise, which created the Transnet brand in terms of the EVP, are the values of the company: embracing diversity, providing meaningful and stimulating work, growth and development, rewarding contributions, and offering inspirational leadership. In addition, attractive reward packages included competitive salaries, rewards and benefits, learning and development opportunities, wellness offerings, a culture of innovation, and a united family where employees can belong. As a top employer in the logistics industry, it has formalised its onboarding process with the aim of decreasing staff turnover, engaging and retaining newly hired staff, and making sure new employees start to master their roles as quick as possible. These factors form part of the strategy that has been developed to assist the human capital operation of the business. Figure 4.7 depicts the staff retention aspects used for motivation and retention by Transnet.

Transnet is a logistics company, and its operations run across South Africa. It also delivers its services to other Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries. The aspects that Transnet has identified to serve as part of its motivation of staff and its EVP are what the SOE considered to be appropriate for its own particular environment. Cascading the Transnet aspects to other SOEs without evaluating them empirically for other SOEs in other environments may create a challenge, since Transnet has not indicated whether these aspects were evaluated with regard to being applicable to all South African SOEs. The Transnet staff retention aspects do not differ significantly with respect to the main factors used in other general organisational staff retention models. However, what differs is that these specific aspects and their implementation have been customised by Transnet for the transport and handling services that it provided in a South African context.

Figure 4.7

The Transnet Staff Retention Aspects Used for Motivation and Retention

COMPENSATION
Salary
Variable (or merit) pay
Short- and long-term incentives

BENEFITS
Health cover and employee wellness services
Pension
Paid time off (sick leave)

DEVELOPMENT
Career opportunities
Learning and development
Coaching and mentoring
Stretch assignments or secondments

WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND RECOGNITION
Flexible work hours and flexible location (telecommuting or working from home) this done inconsitently in different divisions
Compressed hours in some of the operating divisions

Note. Based on the researcher's analysis of Transnet's published annual reports and financial statements.

4.4.2 The Eskom staff retention aspects

As South Africa's primary electricity supplier, Eskom generates, transmits, and distributes electricity to local industrial, mining, commercial, agricultural, and residential customers. It also distributed electricity to redistributors (metropolitan and other municipalities), utilities, and end-customers in SADC. Eskom also purchases electricity from independent power producers (IPPs) and utilities in the

SADC region, including private suppliers (Eskom Annual Financial Statement, 2018).

Eskom is the world's 11th-largest power utility in terms of generating capacity. It ranks ninth in terms of sales, and it boasts the world's largest dry-cooling power station. However, the Eskom Integrated Report (2018) stated that the company's reputation has been impacted negatively by the challenges that have been facing the organisation since 2008. To track improvements and follow through on its challenges, the company conducted a review of perceptions by the public on an annual basis, using the South African RepTrak Pulse reputation study, which measured a company's reputation and demonstrated the strength of the emotional bond between a company and the public.

Eskom's challenges do not differ from those of other SOEs in South Africa, including internal challenges of governance and negative reputation (Eskom Integrated Report, 2018). Despite the challenges, Eskom still needed to retain its talented employees to ensure sustainability, acknowledging that without its people, its strategy will not be executable. To that end, the company needed to ensure that it has the right people, in the right positions, and doing the right thing. Eskom attempted to achieve this through the learner pipeline, training, development, and ensuring that employees are rewarded adequately for their efforts. All this is needed in order to recruit and retain a skilled workforce (Eskom Integrated Report, 2018; Eskom Annual Financial Statement, 2018).

Human Resources (HR), as the custodian of people management within Eskom, is mandated to collaborate and empower the line divisions to recruit, develop, and retain skilled, committed, engaged, and accountable employees across the company. HR is committed to building skills, not only internally but also in the communities in which Eskom operates. Eskom offers different benefits and rewards, as stated in the Eskom Annual Final Report (2018), the Eskom Integrated Report (2018), and the Supplementary Divisional Report (Eskom, 2013). The different benefits are outlined for the bargaining unit employees, managers, and executives as follows:

- Bargaining unit employees receive a basic salary and benefits, which included pension, medical aid, death benefits, a housing allowance, a cellphone allowance, and a car allowance (subject to qualifying criteria). Basic salaries are reviewed annually, with increases awarded in July, to keep remuneration in line with market trends. Annual reviews are approved by the Executive Committee (Exco) and ratified by the People and Governance Committee (PGC).

- Managerial employees received a guaranteed package, which included compulsory benefits such as medical aid, pension, dread disease cover, group life, and death benefits. The guaranteed amount is reviewed annually, with increases awarded in October each year, to keep remuneration in line with market trends based on an appropriate comparison group. Annual reviews are approved by Exco and ratified by the PGC.

- The short-term incentive scheme rewarded the achievement of predetermined objectives and targets (linked to the shareholder compact), subject to the achievement of defined gatekeepers. An employee's line manager and the employee, in agreed performance contracts that covered the financial year, determined individual performance objectives and targets. Incentive bonuses are calculated by applying a performance measurement formula. The formula ensured alignment with strategic objectives and is weighted based on an employee's contribution to the individual, team, divisional, and organisational objectives.

- The 13th cheque or annual bonus equalling one month's salary for employees on the Tuned Assessment of Skills and Knowledge (TASK) grading levels 1 to 13. Employees on TASK grading levels 14 to 26 can choose to spread their bonus amount over the year or take it as a 13th cheque (Eskom Annual Report, 2012, 2014; Eskom Financial Report, 2018).

Other than financial benefits, other drivers of employee happiness are discussed next.

4.4.2.1 Engagements

Engagements are driven through the Employee Relations Department. These included forging a sound relationship with organised labour to achieve excellent organisational performance. The Eskom employee engagement programme was established in 2015 with the aim of rebuilding relationships with employees and help them to feel more connected to the business as well as to one another, thereby establishing an emotional commitment to Eskom and its goals. Moreover, several initiatives have been put in place to ensure an open dialogue and to provide employees with a platform to supply feedback to Eskom's leadership. These include face-to-face meetings, employee engagement surveys, and ongoing weekly communications with all employees, with the latter being given the opportunity to contribute.

4.4.2.2 Health and wellness

Eskom's health and wellness strategy sought to improve the health and well-being of all employees through the prevention of occupational diseases and injuries. It also does this through the early detection of occupational and lifestyle diseases (such as hypertension, diabetes, and HIV), medical surveillance, medical fitness for duty, assessments, and wellness programmes. Wellness programmes included physical wellness programmes using a sports, recreation, and cultural programme as a vehicle to promote employee well-being. In addition, the employee assistance programme (EAP) also offered counselling, financial wellness, and various other psychosocial preventative programmes.

4.4.2.3 Leave

Leave included annual, occasional, and service leave. It also included paid sick leave offered to employees.

4.4.2.4 Training and development costs as a percentage of the wage bill

The training costs as a percentage of the gross workforce costs was 3.85% (2018: 5.21%), which translated into R1.2 billion (2018: R1.4 billion) of the gross workforce expenditure during the year (Eskom Financial Report, 2019).

4.4.2.5 Post-employment medical benefits

Entitlement to post-employment medical benefits is usually conditional on the employee remaining in service up to retirement. All employees qualify for post-employment medical benefits, except for new employees appointed on or after 1 June 2003 at the managerial level. The group accounted for its post-employment medical benefits obligation as a defined benefit plan in line with IAS 19 – *Employee benefits* (Eskom Financial Report, 2019).

4.4.2.6 Pension benefits for Eskom employees

Pension benefits are provided for employees through the Eskom Pension and Provident Fund (EPPF). Contributions to the fund are based on a percentage of pensionable emoluments and are expensed in the period in which they have been incurred. All employees are members of the fund. Contributions comprised 20.8% of pensionable emoluments, of which members pay 7.3% (Eskom Annual Financial Statement, 2019).

In addition, Eskom takes cognisance that leadership and its behaviours contributed to company values, and as such, they can contribute to building a reputable brand and promote retention as well. Leaders across the organisation are required to adopt a transformational mindset, to practise accountability, and to live by Eskom's values and through the leadership brand pillars. These 'pillars' are characterised by the following: servant leadership character, leadership characterised by good governance, and leadership characterised by disciplined execution (Eskom Integrated Report, 2018).

In its daily operations and safety mindset, Eskom also prioritised the safety of its employees and the communities in which they operate. With its zero harm slogan, the company strived for an incident-free environment, the mitigation of occupational hygiene and safety risks, and the promotion of excellence in safety performance. The Eskom Integrated Report (2018) also alluded to the Eskom Women Advancement Programme. The programme forms part of a holistic plan aimed at breaking the mould of perceptions about women, which perpetuates the misrepresentation of women in leadership and the technical environment (Eskom Integrated Report, 2018).

4.4.2.7 Directors' remuneration

The remuneration and benefits section in the Eskom Integrated Report (2018) included the background to remuneration and an overview of the main provisions of the remuneration policy. The directors' remuneration has been updated in line with guidelines in the King IV report. The total remuneration earned (the single total figure of remuneration) reflected the earnings attributable to the performance delivered during the year, while the total cash value reflected the earnings received by each incumbent during the year.

4.4.2.8 Short-term bonus

The short-term incentive bonus is paid after year end. The calculation of short-term incentive (STI) payouts is based on an individual's guaranteed remuneration. However, individuals will only be able to benefit from the scheme if the set performance gatekeepers are achieved.

4.4.2.9 Long-term bonus

The long-term incentive bonus is paid after year end in cash and consisted of the vested amount in a reporting period. The long-term bonus is based on phantom shares that are awarded in terms of the long-term incentive scheme to reward performance in line with performance conditions and targets over a three-year performance period. The number of phantom shares that vest may differ from the number awarded depending on the achievement of performance conditions. The scheme required that the employee remained in Eskom's employment throughout the vesting period. The award lapses if employment ceases during the vesting period (other than for permitted reasons such as retirement or death).

4.4.2.10 Long-term incentives

Performance shares are awarded to senior executives. These awards are made on an annual cycle on 1 April of each year and have a three-year vesting period. The value of the performance shares is deemed to be R1 at the grant date and is escalated at a money-market rate to determine the value at the reporting date. The PGC retained complete discretion as to whether an award for a year will be made or not.

All the aspects identified by Eskom are imperative for retention purposes and link up with what the literature has identified; however, its applicability to other SOEs needs to be assessed by looking at various factors, such as the environment, the culture, and the specific business, among others, in which these SOEs operate. Retention is not a one-size-fits-all, and it is influenced by time, culture, environment, and other factors; hence, it will always differ and be implemented differently in different SOEs. Staff retention elements will not be the same or implemented in the same way for all SOEs; however, the elements identified in different SOE models could be used and be enhanced and customised for similar environments.

4.4.3 The South African Airways staff retention aspects

South African Airways (SAA) is one of the world’s longest-established airlines and is committed to employees’ satisfaction, development, and well-being by treating them with respect, dignity, and fairness (South African Airways Integrated Report, 2017). At SAA, managing human talent starts before an employee is appointed. It starts when SAA ensures that the company is the employer of choice, and employees are then supported through career management programmes to channel their careers and ensure that they support organisational objectives. Employees receive opportunities to develop by participating in either specialist or functional training. Mentorship and coaching are also offered to the employee as an opportunity for further learning and growth. The individual and the company both benefited from these opportunities (South African Airways Integrated Report, 2017).

The seven main components of the SAA staff retention model are discussed below and depicted in Figure 4.8.

4.4.3.1 Career management

SAA offers its managers a focused career management programme known as the Level 2 Succession Management Programme. The programme gives managers an opportunity through learning and training to prepare themselves for possible future promotion through the levels (South African Airways Integrated Report, 2017).

4.4.3.2 Talent management

As part of the comprehensive Talent Management framework for SAA, key and critical talent is considered for secondment or talent exchange programmes to enhance employees' career development progression. In addition, a retention strategy is being developed with the aim of retaining high performers who have mission-critical and scarce skills (South African Airways Integrated Report, 2017).

4.4.3.3 Training

The SOE continuously invested in training for a motivated, skilled, and safety-conscious workforce. Because of the highly regulated environment in which the airline operates, training focused on both functional and developmental training. In the year under review, SAA spent 0.57% of its labour costs on training, focusing on compliance, safety, professional skills, and technical skills (South African Airways Integrated Report, 2017).

4.4.3.4 Engagement

To bring employees closer to the values of the SAA brand, an Employee Engagement Programme was launched to enable employees to share burning issues of concern. The intention is to address issues and reconnect employees with the group's values and the brand. Furthermore, leadership addressed employee concerns during face-to-face sessions (South African Airways Integrated Report, 2017).

4.4.3.5 Employee well-being and medical services

In addition to offering their employees a robust training calendar, SAA also nurtured the physical and emotional well-being of its employees through a fully funded, comprehensive personal support programme called ‘Heartbeat’. The programme is designed to assist employees to keep up with the continually changing workplace environment. It also helps employees and their dependents to manage relationships as well as work-related stress and psychosocial challenges. The organisation’s emphasis is on a health-work culture aimed at enhancing SAA’s status as an employer of choice (South African Airways Integrated Report, 2017).

The Heartbeat programme complemented the operational services of SAA Medical Services, a fully equipped and functioning medical division staffed by doctors and professional nurses. SAA operated in a highly regulated environment with mandatory medical checks for the cabin and cockpit crew. Importantly, cabin crew older than 40 undergo compulsory medical checks (South African Airways Integrated Report, 2017).

4.4.3.6 Bursary programme

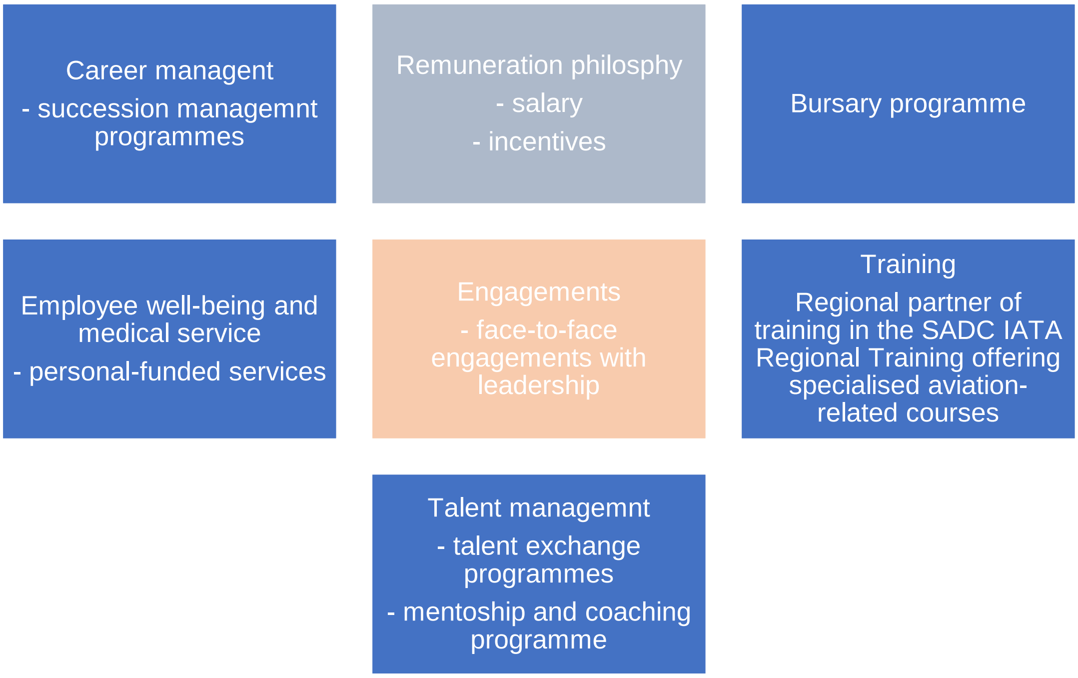
The SAA Bursary Programme helped employees without the relevant undergraduate qualifications to attain diplomas or degrees. While the programme is currently earmarked for employees only, the airline realised the need to use the bursary programme as a recruitment tool by extending it to the public, although on a small scale due to SAA’s current financial position (South African Airways Integrated Report, 2017). The Talent Acquisition Programme focused on optimising the sourcing of talent with the implementation of a new online recruitment and applicant tracking system. Internal and external candidates are helped to register on a career website.

4.4.3.7 *Remuneration philosophy*

The Group Remuneration Philosophy was approved by the Board in 2015. It provided guidance on remuneration policies and practices as well as performance. To ensure a strong link between performance and remuneration, a holistic approach to remuneration and incentives is followed. The policy makes provision for incentives, but implementation has been deferred due to SAA's financial circumstances (South African Airways Integrated Report, 2017).

Figure 4.8

SAA Staff Motivation and Aspects of Retention



Note. Based on the researcher's analysis of SAA's annual reports and financial statements.

The seven retention aspects that have been identified by SAA to increase motivation and retention could most probably be applied to all SOEs. However, there is a fundamental difference between SAA and other South African SOEs, as SAA is in the airline industry and serves different clients than other SOEs. The only real, applicable common factor that can be identified between South African SOEs is that they are regulated by government legislation regarding their mandate and how they contribute to South Africa in terms of skills that mostly fall under their shareholder compact. Furthermore, SAA retention factors have been customised for implementation in SAA and may not suit the culture and business approach of other SOEs.

On 5 December 2019, SAA was placed under business rescue as part of its restructuring process, which had a major impact on its brand as a company. The interim CEO, Thomas Kgokolo, says plans to restart the airline are already underway and that the company will soon start the process of retraining its pilots and reviewing its air safety compliance (SABC News, 2021).

4.5 CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE APPLICABILITY OF EXISTING STAFF RETENTION FRAMEWORKS USED BY THREE MAJOR SOUTH AFRICAN SOEs REGARDING THEIR APPLICABILITY TO ALL SOUTH AFRICAN SOEs IN GENERAL

Table 4.2 indicates to what extent the existing staff retention frameworks used by three major South African SOEs evaluated above incorporate biographical factors and the 12 underlying staff retention constructs that have been the most globally researched and empirically shown to significantly influence staff retention. The frameworks used by Transnet and South African Airways contain only two, while the framework used by Eskom contains only one of the most globally researched underlying staff retention constructs. In addition, the three frameworks have the following limitations:

- The aspects contained in a particular framework are what the specific SOE considered to be appropriate for its own particular environment. These aspects may not be applicable to the environments of the other SOEs.
- The three SOEs discussed above have not indicated whether the aspects included in their staff retention frameworks are applicable to all South African SOEs.

- The three SOEs already discussed have not indicated whether their staff retention frameworks have been empirically validated in their specific organisation, and no evidence of this can be found in the scientific literature.

Table 4.2

Comparison Between Five Biographical Factors and 12 Underlying Staff Retention Constructs That Have Been the Most Globally Researched and Empirically Shown to Significantly Influence Staff Retention and Constructs Contained in Three South African SOE Frameworks

No.	Staff retention construct	South African SOEs		
		The Transnet staff retention aspects	The Eskom staff retention aspects	The South African Airways staff retention aspects
1	Biographical factors	X	X	X
2	Compensation/ benefits	√	√	√
3	Job characteristics	X	X	X
4	Training/ development	√	√	√
5	Supervisory support	X	X	X
6	Career growth & development	X	X	√
7	Work-life balance	√	X	X
8	Employee engagement	X	X	X
9	Organisational support	X	X	X
10	Ethical leadership	X	X	X
11	Job satisfaction	X	X	X
12	Meaningful work	X	X	X
13	Organisational culture	X	X	X

Note. Compiled by researcher

4.6 GENERAL CONCLUSIONS ON THE SIX EXISTING ORGANISATIONAL STAFF RETENTION MODELS AND THE THREE SOUTH AFRICAN STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISE STAFF RETENTION FRAMEWORKS

The six general organisational models of staff retention and three SOE staff retention frameworks evaluated in this chapter all make a valuable contribution to an understanding of staff retention and its underlying constructs. However, each model and framework were developed for a particular industry in a particular environment. These models and frameworks did not consider nor incorporate all the staff retention constructs that were globally empirically tested as influencing staff retention, irrespective of the industry or environment. It can thus be concluded that no general organisational model of staff retention or South African SOE framework can be blindly applied to all organisations or all South African SOEs without first customising and validating the model and framework for a specific industry and environment. Furthermore, such a model and framework should at least contain all the globally tested staff retention constructs that are applicable to all industries and environments. The correct scientific approach would then be to statistically determine which of the biographical factors and 12 underlying staff retention constructs, which have been empirically shown to significantly influence staff retention, are statistically the strongest indicators of staff retention in a South African SOE. This would result in a staff retention model validated for a South African SOE and also answer the study’s research question. This will also ensure that such a staff retention model will be current in the changing nature of business, a requirement stipulated by Meyer et al. (2004). It will also comply with the recommendation by the KPMG Report (2022) that when staff retention models are considered, no one-size-fits-all approach should be used for a business.

A new theoretical staff retention model for SOEs in South Africa will be proposed in the next chapter. This new model will be based on the five biographical factors and 12 underlying staff retention constructs that have been the most globally researched and empirically shown to significantly influence staff retention. This model will then be empirically validated in a typical South African SOE.

4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, existing models and frameworks of staff retention were discussed and evaluated to determine their applicability to South African SOEs. The chapter commenced with a discussion of six existing general organisational models of staff retention, each of which was evaluated to determine their applicability to South African SOEs. After this, the existing staff retention frameworks of three major South African SOEs were discussed and evaluated to determine their applicability to all South African SOEs. The chapter ended with general conclusions regarding the applicability of existing staff retention models and frameworks to SOEs in South Africa.

In the next chapter, a new theoretical staff retention model will be proposed for use by all SOEs in South Africa.

CHAPTER 5: PROPOSED NEW THEORETICAL MODEL OF STAFF RETENTION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, a new theoretical model of staff retention will be proposed. The chapter starts with a restatement of the study's research question and then explains the theoretical basis of the new proposed staff retention model. After this, a summary is provided of the staff retention factors extracted from a literature review, staff retention measurement instruments, and the existing models and frameworks of staff retention. This is followed by a proposed new theoretical model of staff retention consisting of twelve organisational and five biographical staff retention factors. The chapter is then concluded with a discussion of each staff retention factor included in the new proposed theoretical model of staff retention.

5.2 THE THEORETICAL BASIS OF THE NEW PROPOSED STAFF RETENTION MODEL

In Chapter 1, the research question was formulated as follows:

Statistically, which staff retention factors are the strongest indicators of staff retention in a South African SOE?

In order to answer this research question, the available literature on staff retention was examined in Chapter 2 to determine which organisational and biographical factors are considered to contribute towards the retention of staff. This literature review identified twelve of the most globally researched organisational factors and four biographical factors (gender, age, tenure, educational qualifications, and job grade) that have been shown to significantly influence staff retention. In addition, the different staff retention measurement instruments were studied in Chapter 3 to determine which measurement instruments were used in practice to measure the identified 12 organisational staff retention factors that influenced staff retention. Finally, Chapter 4 evaluated the existing models and frameworks of staff retention to determine the organisational factors that were included in them which influenced staff retention. This evaluation focused on six major existing models of staff retention and three staff retention frameworks currently utilised by three South African SOEs to determine their applicability to South African SOEs in general. Consequently, the results of Chapters 2, 3, and 4 are reported in the next section.

5.3 SUMMARY OF STAFF RETENTION FACTORS EXTRACTED FROM THE LITERATURE REVIEW, STAFF RETENTION MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS, AND EXISTING MODELS AND FRAMEWORKS OF STAFF RETENTION

Various researchers have found that the decision of an employee to remain in or leave an organisation is affected by numerous organisational factors (Bryant & Allen, 2013; Bursch & Kelly, 2014; Döckel et al., 2006; George, 2015; Ghapanchi & Aurum, 2011; Kelly, 2013; Moshin et al., 2015). In addition to these organisational retention factors, various researchers have also found that biographical factors, such as gender, age, educational qualifications, tenure, and job grade also tend to affect an employee’s decision to remain in or leave an organisation (Agyeman & Ponniah, 2014; Kraemer & Gouthier, 2014; Li et al., 2008). Table 5.1 depicts all the organisational and biographical factors identified in the literature review that have been the most globally researched regarding their influence on staff retention (Chapter 2), that have been measured by staff retention measurement instruments (Chapter 3), and that have been included in existing models and frameworks of staff retention (Chapter 4).

Based on the factors of staff retention identified in Table 5.1, a new theoretical model of staff retention is proposed consisting of twelve organisational staff retention factors (independent variables), five biographical factors that affect staff retention, and one dependent variable (Intention to leave). This new theoretical proposed staff retention model is depicted in Figure 5.1.

Table 5.1

Staff Retention Factors Extracted from the Literature Review, Staff Retention Measurement Instruments, and Existing Models and Frameworks of Staff Retention

Staff retention factors from literature review	Staff retention factors from staff retention measurement instruments	Staff retention factors from existing staff retention models and frameworks
Compensation & benefits	Compensation & benefits	Compensation & benefits, recognition, and rewards (tangible & intangible rewards)
Job characteristics	Job characteristics	Stimulating work/Job autonomy, work content
Training & development	Training & development	Training & development
Supervisory/Manager support	Supervisory support	Supervisory support
Career growth & development	Career growth & development	Career advancement
Work-life balance	Work-life balance	Work-life balance
Engagement	Employee engagement	Engagement
Organisational support	Organisational support	Organisational support

Staff retention factors from literature review	Staff retention factors from staff retention measurement instruments	Staff retention factors from existing staff retention models and frameworks
Leadership & ethical leadership	Ethical leadership	Management styles, leadership, reputation
Job satisfaction	Job satisfaction	Not addressed in existing models and frameworks consulted
Meaningful job	Meaningful job	Meaningfulness of the job
Organisational culture	Organisational culture	Organisational culture
Not emphasised in the staff retention literature consulted	Not measured as an element of retention in the literature consulted	Work environment
Not mentioned in the staff retention literature consulted	Intention to leave, turnover intention	Person-job fit
Not emphasised in the staff retention literature consulted	Human resource policies	Not addressed in existing models and frameworks consulted
Biographical factors: Gender, age, educational	Biographical factors: Gender, age, home language, ethnicity, education, years of	Not addressed in existing models and frameworks consulted

Staff retention factors from literature review	Staff retention factors from staff retention measurement instruments	Staff retention factors from existing staff retention models and frameworks
qualifications, tenure, and grade	service, departments, and number of years in a position	

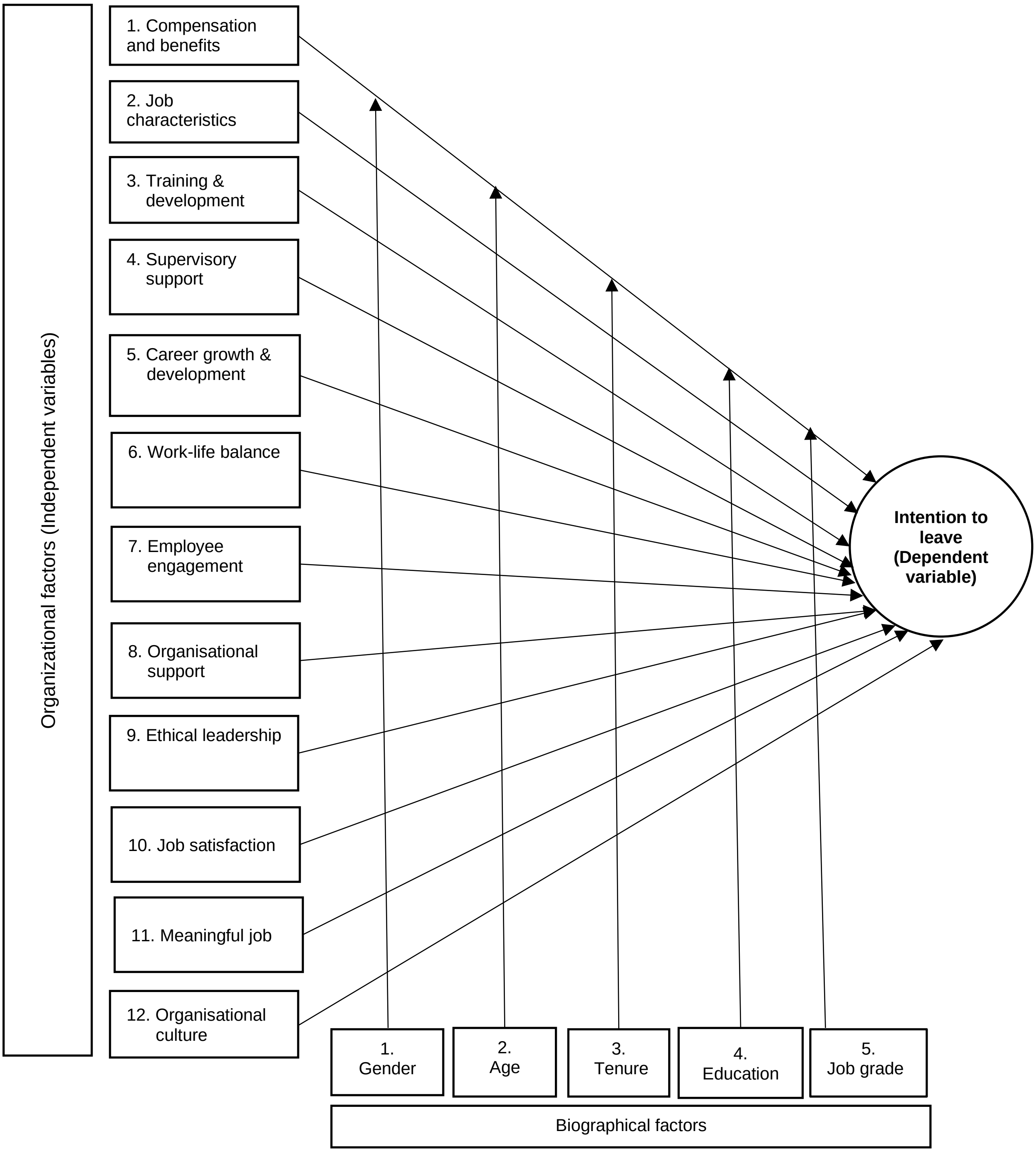
Note. Compiled by researcher

In Figure 5.1, the one-way arrows between the 12 organisational staff retention factors (independent variables) and Intention to leave (dependent variable) indicate that there is a theoretical relationship between these factors and an employee’s decision to leave or stay in an organisation.

Although the one-way arrows from the biographical factors all end at the arrow from Compensation & benefits to the dependent variable, this does not imply that the biographical variables only affect the Compensation & benefits factor. The arrows from the biographical factors intersect all the one-way arrows between the 12 organisational staff retention factors (independent variables) and Intention to leave (dependent variable), indicating that, theoretically, these biographical factors influence the relationship between the 12 organisational staff retention factors (independent variables) and Intention to leave (dependent variable). This means employees belonging to these biographical groups differ regarding their decision to leave or stay in an organisation.

Figure 5.1

Proposed New Theoretical Model of Staff Retention Consisting of Twelve Organisational and Five Biographical Factors



Note. Compiled by researcher

All the aforementioned organisational and biographical factors depicted in Figure 5.1 were discussed in detail in Chapter 2. In the sub-sections that follow, they will be shortly discussed with emphasis on research indicating the relationship between the factors and Intention to leave, the dependent variable.

5.4 DISCUSSION OF THE ORGANISATIONAL AND BIOGRAPHICAL STAFF RETENTION FACTORS INCLUDED IN THE PROPOSED NEW THEORETICAL MODEL OF STAFF RETENTION

Netswera et al. (2005) referred to retention factors as those factors that influence an employee's decision to either leave or stay in an organisation, depending on the perceived direction of an individual's priorities. These consist of both organisational and biographical retention factors.

5.4.1 Organisational factors influencing staff retention

Organisational factors influencing staff retention are discussed in this sub-section.

5.4.1.1 Compensation and benefits

Moncarz et al. (2009), WorldatWork (2012), Yamamoto (2013), and Zimmerman et al. (2019) all found that compensation and benefits have a significant impact on retention. Shakeel (2015) stated that poor salary levels are the number one reason employees leave the organisation. This is supported by Dhanpant et al. (2018, p. 10), who stated that "compensation contributed the most towards an employee's intentions to leave the organisation and can be regarded as the best predictor of the intention to leave."

5.4.1.2 Job characteristics

Döckel (2003) and Ramlall (2003) argued that job characteristics represented some of the most important factors of retention. This is supported by Al shaher and Zreik (2022), who found that job characteristics are positively correlated with employee retention, as they resulted in higher levels of emotional commitment by employees.

When the core job characteristics are present, employees are likely to experience meaningfulness in their job and have insight in terms of what is expected of them from their job, which in turn results in decreased turnover intention (Al shaher & Zreik, 2022).

5.4.1.3 Training and development

A number of authors contended that training and development had an effect on retention (Al Mamun & Hassan, 2017; Bigliardi, 2005; Dikshit & Jain, 2017; Elnaga & Imran, 2013; Hausknecht & Trevor, 2010; Heavey et al., 2013; Memon, 2014; Nkomo et al., 2018; Saleem et al., 2011; Vija et al., 2018). Das and Baruah (2013) argued that employers should regard training and development as one of the most important retention factors, as it ensures that employees perform better when provided with training and adds value to how they execute their work. Kaur (2017) also asserted that training is a strategic retention factor and is considered imperative with respect to employees of all ages. In turn, Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) alluded to the fact that training and development provided employees with better opportunities for their career development and thus influenced their decision to stay or leave.

5.4.1.4 Supervisory support

It has been found that the support provided by supervisors is of critical importance for staff retention (Chen et al., 2014; Gentry et al., 2007; Jordan-Evans, 2000; Kara et al., 2013; Karatepe & Kilic, 2015; Mani, 2015; Mehta et al., 2014; Paille et al., 2013). Supervisory support played a vital role in increasing enthusiasm among employees, and the relationship between the manager and the employee can affect employee retention (Shakeel, 2015). The support supervisors provided and their relationship with their immediate subordinates influenced their subordinates' decision to leave or stay with the organisation (Mani, 2015).

5.4.1.5 Career growth and development

Numerous studies have shown that career growth and development assisted employers in retaining their staff (Elnaga & Imran, 2013; Gamage & Herath, 2013; Nyamubarwa, 2013; Othman & Lembang, 2017; Weng & McElroy, 2012). A study by Shakeel (2015) showed that career development opportunities have a direct impact on employee retention. Silva et al. (2019) argued that career growth and development created a balance between the needs of the individual to grow and benefited the organisation by fostering commitment in employees, which enhanced their retention.

5.4.1.6 Work-life balance

Fapohunda (2014) and Shakeel (2015) stressed the importance of balancing work and one’s private life and the involvement of employees in the workplace, as work-life balance increased employee commitment, which in turn affected retention positively. This is supported by Gupta et al. (2015, p. 98), who stated that “Balancing reduces stress and emotional exhaustion, promoting retention of employees, while employee involvement with work retention occurs to the same extent, as employees feel part of the organisation.” Dhanpat et al. (2018) also found that work-life balance had a significant negative relationship with the intention to leave. When a decrease is observed in work-life balance, the intention to leave increases. Studies indicated that when there are happy homes, workplaces tend to be conflict-free and enjoyable places to be (Shakeel, 2015). When employees are happy and content with their work-life situation, organisations benefit doubly by getting a productive workforce as well as employees who are more likely to stay with the organisation over time (Fapohunda, 2014).

5.4.1.7 Employee engagement

The relationship between employee engagement (EE) and staff retention has been considered important and been widely studied (Choudhary, 2016; Das et al., 2017; Doh et al., 2011; Ghosh et al., 2013; Jindal et al., 2017; Mone & London, 2018; Soni, 2013). Tarique and Schuler (2010) and Shuck et al. (2011) indicated that EE plays a pivotal role in an organisation; hence, it can negatively affect staff retention if it is not present. Markos and Sridevi (2010) cited that EE is part of the human resources retention strategy, and if not addressed, it can collapse the organisation. Macey et al. (2009) argued that EE is an important method to ensure the loyalty of employees, which reduces the desire to leave the organisation voluntarily. If employees are engaged, they express positive feelings about being part of the organisation, stay with the organisation for longer, and exert extra effort in their work (Jaharuddin & Zaino, 2019).

5.4.1.8 Organisational support

Allen et al. (2003) found that perceived organisational support is a predictor of turnover intention, as a significant negative relationship was observed in this regard. Studies by Eisenberger et al. (2001) and Macey and Schneider (2008) also found a positive relationship between organisational support and the retention of employees. These findings are supported by Kumaresh and Krishnan (2014), Mani (2015), and Holston-Okae and Mushi (2018), who stated that perceived organisational support shaped an employee’s decision to stay or leave the organisation. Arasanmi and Krishna (2019) also argued that organisational support was important for the retention of staff, as it contributed to a good work environment which encouraged employees to stay with the organisation.

5.4.1.9 Ethical leadership

Numerous studies have found that ethical leadership plays an important role in convincing employees to stay or leave an organisation (Avey et al., 2012; Hedberg & Helenius, 2007; Ibrahim & Mayende, 2018; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009; Mohsin et al., 2015; Ng’ethe et al., 2012; Tansley, 2011). Karatepe and Kilic (2015) found that ethical leadership enhanced job satisfaction and organisational commitment, which in turn was shown to reduce turnover intention. Mayende and Musenze (2018) found that ethical leadership affected staff retention positively, and that unethical leader practices demoralised staff and led to increased turnover intention.

5.4.1.10 Job satisfaction

Ali (2008) found that job satisfaction has a significant negative relationship with turnover intention, while studies by Terera and Ngirande (2014) and Mathimaran and Kumar (2017) found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and staff retention. These findings are supported by Priyadharshini (2019), who stated that when employees find satisfaction in their jobs, they reach a state of complete fulfilment which results in higher engagement and ultimately motivates them to remain with the organisation.

5.4.1.11 Meaningful work

Terera and Ngiranda (2014) and Fouché et al. (2017) indicated that meaningful work contributed to retention in the workplace. The authors stated that employees who viewed their work as meaningful intended to stay longer with the organisation. This view is supported by Kwan et al. (2020), who stated that employees who believed their employers make effective use of their talents and abilities appeared to be overwhelmingly committed to staying in their jobs, while those who felt that their job did not make good use of their skills considered leaving. Consequently, if no meaning is derived from the work done, this can lead to turnover intention. Kwan et al. (2020, p. 3) further warned that “engage employees with meaningful work … or watch them walk out of the door.”

5.4.1.12 Organisational culture

Research has indicated that organisational culture has a major influence on employees, and that a conducive culture correlated with the retention of employees (Ghosh et al., 2013; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009; Kessler-Ladelsky & Catana, 2013; Michani et al., 2015; Soni, 2013; Tansley, 2011). Furthermore, the organisation’s culture plays a vital role in retaining employees for a long period (Chahal & Poonam, 2017).

Organisational culture had a significant effect on employee morale and retention. It is not just about being a good employer but about having an employee committed to the vision, mission, and the strategy of the organisation, and possessing the will and means to make these a reality. “Effective corporate culture therefore engages employees at the fundamental level and translates that engagement into high productivity.” (Brenyah & Obuobisa-Darko, 2017, p. 1).

According to Shah and Sarkar (2017), the main element in attracting and, most importantly, retaining a key employee is culture. It is imperative for employees to feel that they are part of a team. They need to share a connection to the vision, the strategic direction of the organisation, and be attached to their colleagues’ ways of working better together; this ultimately leads to greater collaboration (Norman, 2012). A lack of connection with the vision affects the fit between an employee and the organisation; therefore, if the culture is not aligned with the individual’s values, retention may not be achieved or enhanced (Shah & Sarkar, 2017).

5.4.2 Biographical factors influencing staff retention

According to Agyeman and Ponniah (2014) and Gupta et al. (2015), demographic characteristics such as age, tenure, level of education, level of income, job category, and gender, among others, cannot be ignored, as they influence an employee’s decision to leave or stay in an organisation. This is supported by Coetzee (2015), who argued that it is imperative to understand the retention factors with regard to staff, while it will also be advantageous to consider the influence of different demographic factors in a multi-generational workforce culture to inform the organisation’s retention practices. The following five biographical factors were identified in the literature as having the greatest influence on an employee’s decision to leave or stay in an organisation.

5.4.2.1 Gender

Turnover research has produced conflicting results relating to turnover and gender, although the majority of studies have supported a positive relationship between gender and turnover. For example, Griffeth et al. (2000) found that there was no difference between men and women with regard to turnover, suggesting that women do not display higher turnover behaviour than men, as is sometimes believed. However, this finding is contradicted by studies by Li et al. (2008), Agyeman and Ponniah (2014), and Kraemer and Gouthier (2014), who all found that gender played a significant role in retention and turnover intention. This is supported by Govindaraju (2018), who found that gender disparity issues influenced turnover intention. A study by Silva et al. (2019) also showed that the placement of women in specific jobs helped to retain employees, in addition to training and safety at work, as well as factors that are essential for retaining female employees. A study by Choong et al. (2013) further found that there were substantial differences between genders, as females had a higher intention to leave compared to their male counterparts.

5.4.2.2 Age

Various authors found that age is a factor in staff retention and needs to be considered for retention purposes (Bursch & Kelly, 2014; Dowd-Higgins, 2013; Eratas, 2015; Festing & Schafer, 2014; Li et al., 2008). There is a tendency among younger workers to change jobs regularly, whereas older workers require security and job stability (Lyria et al., 2017). Kabungaidze and Mahlatshana (2013) found that older individuals in the age group of 45 years and above exhibited lower intentions to leave as opposed to younger employees. Emiroğlua et al. (2015) also found that older workers, aged between 46 and 56, had lower intentions to quit their jobs than those who were below 30 years of age. Furthermore, Theron (2015) found age to be a factor in staff retention, as their study showed that it was challenging to attract and retain a younger workforce in higher education institutions.

Jadoo et al. (2015) found that age is a factor in retention and revealed that younger employees were more likely to risk their careers at the beginning of their work-life careers than older employees. Younger employees were found to be on the move for better opportunities, with a likelihood of accepting positions below their abilities and expectations.

5.4.2.3 Educational qualifications

Studies by Li et al. (2008), Agyeman and Ponniah (2014), Theron (2015) and Arasanmi and Krishna (2019) found that educational level had an impact on staff turnover intention. Their studies indicated that highly educated employees were more difficult to retain than staff that were not highly educated. Kiragu et al. (2020)

also found that employees with a high educational qualification level had higher intentions to leave their jobs than those with low levels of education.

5.4.2.4 Tenure

A study by Griffeth et al. (2000) found that employees with a longer term of service are likely to have lower turnover rates. This finding is supported by studies by Kraemer and Gouthier (2014) and Cloutier et al. (2015), who all found that the number of years an employee has spent in an organisation tends to influence their intention to stay or leave. In turn, Kwan (2020) found that employee tenure is correlated negatively with turnover intentions. This entails that employees who have stayed longer in organisations are unlikely to leave their jobs.

5.4.2.5 Job grade

Hausknecht et al. (2008) and Khan et al. (2008) emphasised that seniority and job level need to be taken into consideration when dealing with retention issues in the organisation. A study by Tian-Foreman (2009) found that non-managerial staff have a higher intention of leaving the organisation than managerial staff. Kim et al. (2010) also found that the position factor influenced turnover intention, as people in low positions generally have higher turnover intention than people in high positions. This could be due to the number of jobs available within certain grade jobs and that the organisations are linear on top, which means that there will be fewer positions at the senior level. Likewise, Emiroğlua et al. (2015) found that the position factor has an influence on turnover intention.

5.4.3 Staff retention (intention to leave) as the dependent variable

In summary, there are various factors (independent variables) that contributed towards staff retention (dependent variable). As discussed in the previous section, these organisational and biographical factors contributed towards the way that employees related to the organisation and can be instrumental in employees' decisions to remain or leave the organisation. Furthermore, as explained in Chapter 3, Section 3.2.8, in this study, the dependent variable – staff retention – is operationalised and measured by *Intention to leave*. This is in line with the suggestion by Nasir et al. (2019, p. 157) that “retention processes (staff retention) should be studied along with the quitting processes (intention to leave).” Staff retention can be better understood by studying factors leading towards increased dissatisfaction among employees and thus their intention to leave the organisation. Thus, the measurement of the factors contributing towards an employee’s intention to leave an organisation gives the most valid measurement of the concept of staff retention (Yousuf & Siddqui, 2019).

5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In Chapter 5, a new theoretical model of staff retention was proposed. The chapter started with a restatement of the study’s research question and then explained the theoretical basis of the new proposed staff retention model. After this, a summary was provided of the staff retention factors extracted from a literature review, staff retention measurement instruments, and the existing models and frameworks of staff retention. This was followed by a proposed new theoretical model of staff retention consisting of twelve organisational and five biographical staff retention factors. The chapter was then concluded with a discussion of each staff retention factor included in the new proposed theoretical model of staff retention.

In the next chapter, the empirical study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 6: EMPIRICAL STUDY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the empirical study will be discussed. The discussion will include the research design, the research approach, and the research method. Under the research method, the population and sample, measuring instruments, and research procedure will be explained. Following this, the steps that will be followed in data analysis will be discussed. The chapter will then be concluded with a discussion of methods to ensure the reliability and validity of the study, and ethical considerations regarding the study.

6.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research needs a structure or a design before data can be collected. Babbie (2014, p. 647) referred to a research design as “the plan or structured framework of how the researcher intends conducting the research process in order to solve the research problem.” Another way of thinking about a research design is as a ‘blueprint’ of research, dealing with at least four problems: what questions to study, what data is relevant, what data to collect, and how to analyse the results (Yin, 2017).

According to Salkind (2018), research design is the process or the strategy selected by the researcher for data collection and investigation. The research design is a framework within which research will take place and served as a form of action to implement research and write the final report. Bryham and Bell (2015) posited that a research design is based on a choice and is determined by the kind of research question posed by the researcher. Creswell (2014) purported that the purpose of a research design is to plan and structure the research investigation in order to obtain answers to research questions. The research design has to do with critical thinking in directing and regulating how the research is to be undertaken to attain its purpose and how to answer the research question(s) (Trafford & Lesham, 2008).

This study adopted the quantitative, deductive, cross-sectional survey research design. The cross-sectional survey research design revolved around a single study with data collected within a brief time from the participants, which meant the data, is collected from the participants only once (Christensen et al., 2015). According to Christensen et al. (2015), survey research can be used to investigate a number of problems, is cost-effective, and is relatively easy to use. The design allowed the use of a large sample, and the researcher had the flexibility of investigating two or more levels of analysis at the same time, effectively providing variation in respect of individuals or organisations (Bryham & Bell, 2015).

Survey research is considered a good strategy when the researcher wanted to measure individual attitudes, activities, beliefs, and opinions using a sound measurement procedure (Neuman, 2014). This study opted for the use of a cross-sectional survey design, as it allowed the use of a large sample and provided an opportunity to use structured questionnaires to gather data. Furthermore, a cross-sectional design provided an overview of constructs included in the study at one particular time (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

This study was conducted in two phases, as depicted in Figure 6.1.

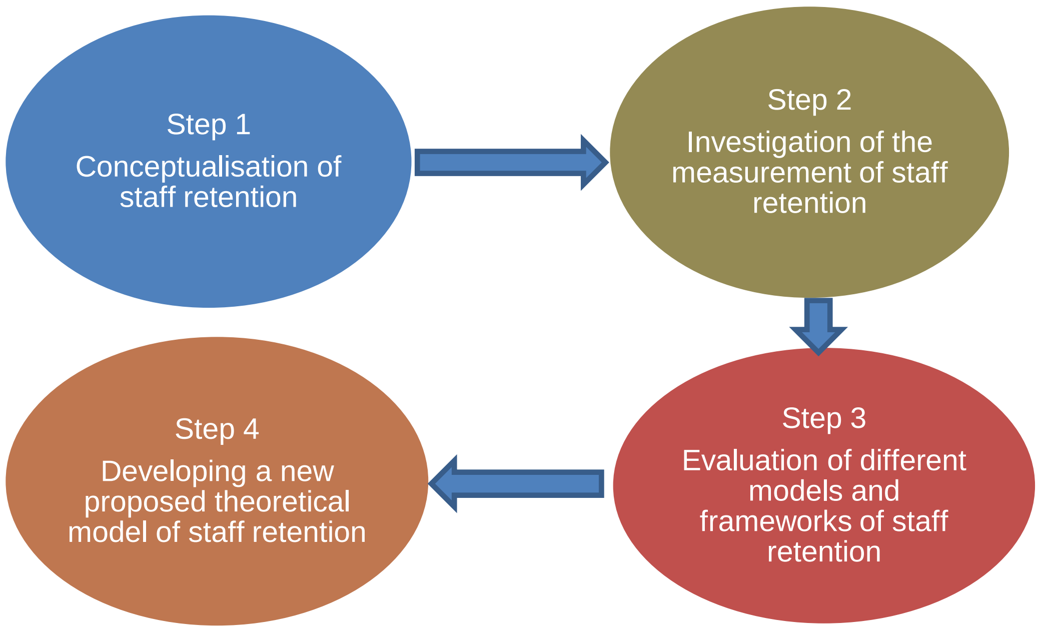
6.2.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The literature review consisted of four steps, namely, (1) the conceptualisation of staff retention, (2) an investigation of the measurement of staff retention, (3) the evaluation of existing models and frameworks of staff retention, and (4) the development of a proposed new theoretical model of staff retention. This phase was comprehensively addressed in Chapters 1 to 5.

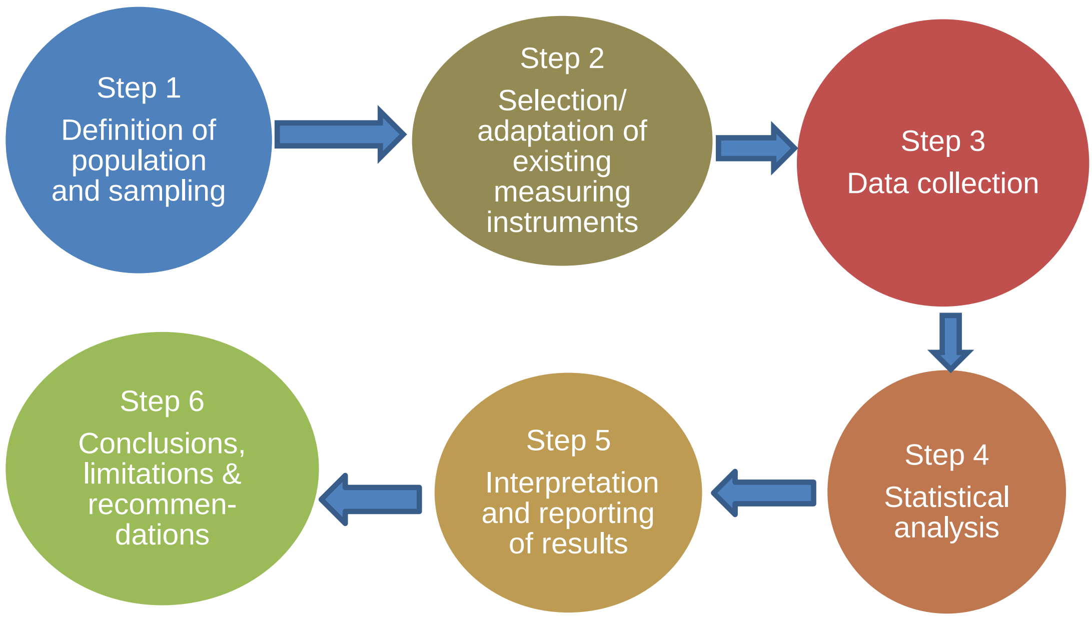
Figure 6.1

Overview of the Research Methodology

Phase 1: Literature review



Phase 2: Empirical study



Note. Compiled by researcher

6.2.2 Phase 2: Empirical study

The empirical study, as reported in this and the next two chapters, was conducted to validate the new proposed model of staff retention conceptualised during Phase 1. Phase 2 consisted of the following six steps: (1) the definition of the population and sampling, (2) the selection/adaptation of existing measuring instruments, (3) the research procedure, (4) the statistical analysis of the data, (5) the reporting and interpretation of results, and (6) the formulation of conclusions, limitations, and recommendations.

6.2.3 Types of research

The two types of research that were conducted in this study were descriptive and explanatory, which are explained in more detail below.

6.2.3.1 Descriptive research

According to Salkind (2012) and Neuman (2014), descriptive research refered to an in-depth description of the individual situation, group, organisation, culture, subculture, interactions, and social objects. Its purpose is to clarify the relationships between variables in the research domain systematically, and the main objective is to describe issues as accurately as possible. Christensen et al. (2015) stated that descriptive research is concerned with describing phenomena, events, or situations. Kumar (2014) posited that a description of a problematic phenomenon detailed the effects of steps and processes.

In the literature review of this study, descriptive research was applicable to the conceptualisation of staff retention and the development of a theoretical model of staff retention. The empirical study was consequently applied to the theoretical model of retention to validate it. Saunders et al. (2016, p. 175) stated that description research may be a forerunner to a piece of explanatory research. Furthermore, Neuman (2014) highlighted that descriptive and explanatory research are normally blurred together in practice. Saunders et al. (2016) further argued that if the research utilised description it is likely to be a precursor to an explanation and such studies are known to be descripto-explanatory.

6.2.3.2 Explanatory research

Explanatory research focused on defining the research questions and hypotheses about new and relatively unexplored research areas (Salkind, 2012). Neuman (2014, p. 31) pointed out that “Explanatory research identifies the source of social behaviours, beliefs, conditions and events; it documents causes, tests, theorist and provides reasons.” Explanatory research is concerned with why the aforementioned occur in this manner. According to Salkind (2012) and Kumar (2014), explanatory research goes further than merely indicating that a relationship exists between the variables. Conversely, Salkind (2012) postulated that this type of research indicated the direction of the relationship in a causal relationship model that seek to uncover a possible relationship between variables. This study is partly explanatory because it aims to gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between retention factors and intention to quit.

6.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

There are three research approaches, which are qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). According to Creswell (2014), the choice of a research approach regulated the research design. In choosing a research approach, the researcher can use either numeric data or words, that is, a quantitative or qualitative approach, or a combination of the two, which is the mixed method approach. Qualitative data is generally non-numerical and descriptive or nominal in nature. This means the data collected is in the form of words and sentences (Kabir, 2016). On the other hand, Kabir (2016) stated that mixed methods research combined both the qualitative and quantitative approaches into a single research framework. The researcher followed a quantitative research approach for this study.

6.3.1 Rationale for using a quantitative research approach

For this study, a quantitative research approach was considered to be the most appropriate. The reason for this is that the rudimentary aim of quantitative research is to define and explain an object, phenomenon, or situation and to generalise findings from a sample to the rest of the populace (Terre Blanche et al., 2008). This is what this study intends to do regarding staff retention, which is studied as a single case.

The research is aimed at the development of a retention model based on objective measurement of reality and data accuracy. Creswell (2014) stated that in quantitative research, the problem is understood in terms of what variables or factors influenced the outcome. In this instance, the factors or variables involved the retention factors, and the outcome reflected retention or intention to leave. This research adopted a quantitative approach, as it employed research questions, which needed to be addressed; it included a dependent variable and independent variable that needed to be measured, and it required hypothesised outcomes. The ordered model of quantitative research recommended by Creswell (2014) is followed. This involves beginning with descriptive questions, followed by inferential variables and comparisons between groups. Creswell and Creswell (2018) highlighted that growth and more elaborative quantitative methods have been established. These included structural equation modelling (SEM) – which is employed in this study – linear regression modelling, and logistic regression. Complex measures are also included, which involved factorial designs and repeated measure designs.

As part of the quantitative research approach, a cross-sectional survey design was used, as the study required data collected within a brief time from the participants, which meant that the data is collected from the participants only once (Christensen et al., 2015). According to Christensen et al. (2015), survey research can be used to investigate a number of problems simultaneously, is cost-effectiveness, and is relatively easy to use. The use of a survey strategy also enabled the researcher to examine the relationships among variables, make predictions, and determine how subgroups differed (Christensen et al., 2015). A contrivance called Lime Survey was used to create the survey electronically.

6.4 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method includes the population and sample and specific methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2014). The research method for this study is explained in the sub-sections that follow.

6.4.1 Population and sampling

Saunders et al. (2016) defined the study population as the entire group of objects or individuals to be studied. On the other hand, Bryman and Bell (2015, p. 1230) defined a population as “The universe of units from which the sample is selected.” The population for the current study consisted of 5395 employees of a South African SOE and comprised male and female employees of various generational cohorts and grade levels.

As it was not possible to survey the entire population, a sample of the population was selected from which the actual data was collected, which is propagated by Taherddost (2016), who noted that sampling can be used to make inferences about a population or to generalise in relation to results. For this study, stratified sampling was used to divide the population into homogeneous groups, and then simple random samples were selected from each group (Neuman, 2014; Saunders et al., 2016). This meant that each participant had an equal chance or probability of being selected in the sample (Taherdoost, 2016).

The existing six job grades of the SOE in the study were used as the strata, and a sample of 1000 employees were identified for the sample and provided with the survey questionnaire. A total of 685 employees finally responded and returned the completed questionnaire. This was considered an adequate representation of the population for survey purposes. Hair et al. (2019) stated that a sample of at least 500 is required to conduct SEM, the main data analysis technique used to validate the proposed theoretical staff retention model. According to Christensen et al. (2015), stratified random sampling is more effective than simple random sampling because it requires fewer people, and the relative size of each stratum is controlled to guarantee representation rather than letting random sampling control it (Neuman, 2014).

The six strata for the stratified sampling consisted of different ages, ranks, gender, tenure, and educational qualifications, and were selected as follows:

- B – level general managers;
- C – level executive managers;

- D – level senior managers;
- E – level managers (middle-management level) and senior specialists;
- F – level managers and specialists; and
- G – level managers (supervisory level/first line managers) and practitioners.

The research was targeted at skilled and professional employees of the South African SOE in the study. The targeted SOE classified skilled employees as those who possessed expertise obtained through training and development, and classified professional employees as those who performed advanced tasks that required specific training, typically obtained through a bachelor's degree or equivalent to a bachelor's degree.

6.4.2 Measuring instruments

After an extensive literature review, it became clear to the researcher that no one single questionnaire existed to measure all 12 of the identified retention factors in the new proposed theoretical model of staff retention. After discussing and evaluating eight existing questionnaires in Chapter 3 that have been used in various studies to measure the 12 underlying constructs of the concept of staff retention as well as to measure the one construct of intention to leave, which has been used as an operational measure for staff retention, it became clear to the researcher that there are enough existing reliable and valid questionnaires to measure staff retention (operationalised as Intention to leave) and its underlying constructs. Thus, it was found to be unnecessary to develop a new staff retention questionnaire from scratch, as the eight existing questionnaires discussed in Chapter 3 can just be incorporated into a consolidated Staff Retention Questionnaire (SRQ) for use in the empirical phase of this study. This approach was used and promoted by scholars such as George (2015), Choudhary (2016), and Dhanpat et al. (2018).

The available eight questionnaires and the underlying staff retention constructs that can be used to measure staff retention factors were listed and discussed in detail in Chapter 3 (see Table 3.1). These eight questionnaires are again listed in Table 6.1 for easy reference. The final consolidated SRQ consisted of three sections, namely, biographical information, the survey statements on retention, and intention to leave as an independent variable measuring staff retention. One hundred and sixty-two (162) items were used to assess the following 12 staff retention factors that were identified as forming the new proposed theoretical model of staff retention:

(1) Compensation and benefits (15 items)
(2) Job characteristics (4 items)
(3) Training and development (6 items)
(4) Supervisory support (6 items)
(5) Career growth and development (6 items)
(6) Work-life balance (4 items)
(7) Employee engagement (6 items)
(8) Organisational support (12 items)
(9) Ethical leadership (15 items)
(10) Job satisfaction (5 items)
(11) Meaningful job (10 items)
(12) Organisational culture (67 items)
(13) Intention to leave (6 items) as the dependent variable

All dimensions, except for Compensation and benefits, were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (Likert, 1932) that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

According to Hyman et al. (2006) and Saunders et al. (2016), the advantages of using existing measurement instruments are the following:

- The reliability and validity of existing questionnaires have usually already been established and are thus likely to be acceptable as data-gathering instruments.

- Using existing questionnaires resulted in cost savings, as a new questionnaire does not have to be developed from scratch.

However, Hyman et al. (2006) also acknowledged that the use of existing questionnaires is not without some pitfalls, such as the context in which these questionnaires were developed. This possible pitfall was mitigated by ensuring that the adapted questionnaires used were all developed for use in circumstances similar to this study.

A copy of the consolidated SRQ is attached as ***Appendix D*.**

Table 6.1

Staff Retention, Constructs, and Existing Measuring Instruments Available to Measure Them

Staff retention constructs	Measurement instrument that can be used and source	Number of items used to measure the construct
Biographical information	Self-developed by researcher	5 biographical items
Compensation and benefits	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	15
Job characteristics	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	4
Training and development	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel 2003)	6
Supervisory support	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	6
Career growth and development	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	6
Work-life balance	Retention Factor Scale (Döckel, 2003)	4
Employee engagement	Employee Engagement Questionnaire (Kahn, 1990)	7

Staff retention constructs	Measurement instrument that can be used and source	Number of items used to measure the construct
Organisational support	Perceived Organisational Support Questionnaire (Eisenberger et al., 1986)	12
Ethical leadership	Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (Yukl et al., 2013)	15
Job satisfaction	Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985)	5
Meaningful job	Work and Meaning Inventory (Steger et al., 2012)	10
Organisational culture	South African Culture Instrument (Martin, 1989)	67
Staff retention (Intention to leave – dependent variable)	Intention to Quit Scale (Cohen, 1993)	6
		Total = 162

Note. Compiled by researcher

All dimensions, except for Compensation and benefits, were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (Likert, 1932) that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), as indicated below:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

The dimension of Compensation and benefits was measured on a 5-point Likert scale using level of satisfaction, which ranged from 1 (strongly dissatisfied) to 5 (strongly satisfied).

The SRQ was converted to an electronic format that participants completed online. A cut-off score of 3.2 was used as the mean for all items measured by the SRQ (except for the biographical items) as suggested by Ondendaal (1997). Thus, a score of less than 3.2 represented a negative opinion, while a score of 3.2 and above represented a positive opinion. This cut-off score was just used for interpretation purposes, and no items were deleted.

According to Neuman (2014), Christensen et al. (2015), and Babbie (2020), the use of self-report instruments has the following limitations:

- Depending on how questions are structured and designed, non-responses to items that a respondent does not understand can be expected.
- There is a possibility of low response rates from respondents, as they may find it too much trouble to complete the questionnaire and opt not to do so.
- The quality of a self-report questionnaire (reliability and validity) influenced the quality and the relevance of data collected.
- Self-report questionnaires also tend to be inflexible, as new variables that emerge from the data collection cannot be investigated once the questionnaire has been completed and submitted.

The above self-report limitations of the SRQ used in this study were mitigated based on the guidelines provided by Hyman (2006), Neuman (2014), and Christensen et al. (2015). These included (1) ensuring that the layout of the questionnaire was simple and clearly structured, (2) ensuring that the questionnaire items were clear and unambiguous, (3) ensuring that the instructions as to how the questionnaire should be completed were clear, and (4) doing continuous follow-ups to ensure that participants submitted their completed questionnaire within the allocated time frame.

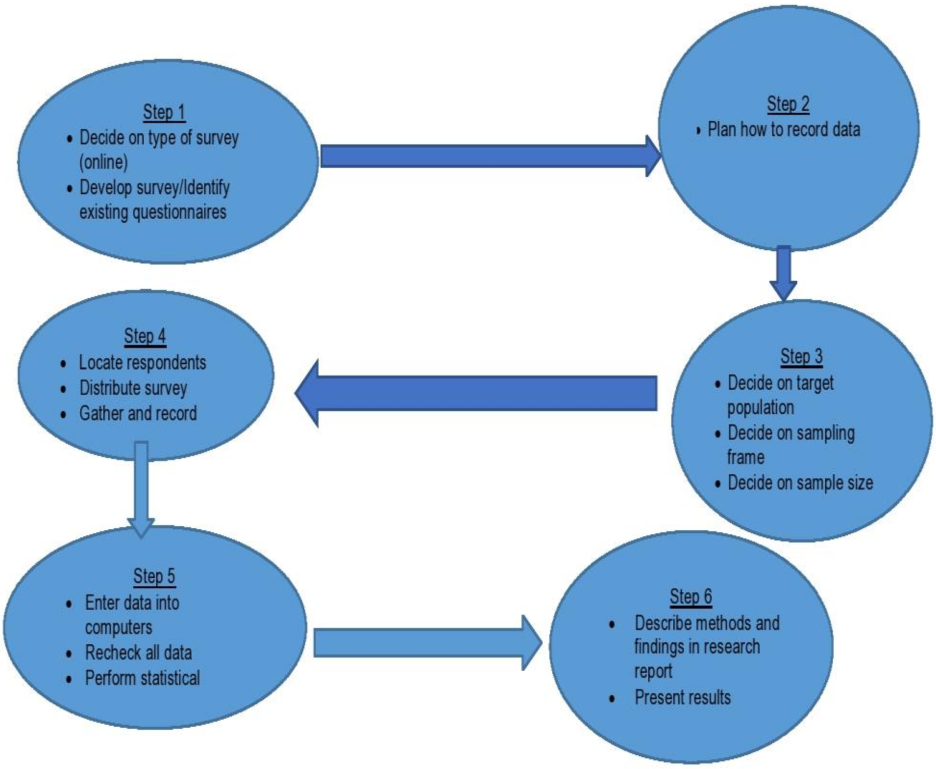
6.4.3 Research procedure and data collection

To gather the necessary data for this study, an online self-report instrument in the form of a survey was utilised. A total of eight questionnaires and their scales were previously selected and integrated into a single questionnaire, the Staff Retention Questionnaire (SRQ). The SRQ was used to measure the 12 staff retention factors (independent variables) and the one dependent variable, Intention to leave. The SRQ was converted to an electronic format that participants completed online. The online version of the SRQ was used to collect primary data from participants, and a survey was conducted at a single point in time (cross-sectional survey study). An online questionnaire was used to ensure anonymity and to prevent face-to-face interaction during the COVID-19 pandemic. According to Christensen et al. (2015, p. 66), “In a cross-sectional study data is collected from research participants during a single relatively brief period.” Leedy and Ormrod (2015, p. 159) stated that “some scholars use survey research to refer to almost any form of descriptive, quantitative research. Survey strategy is regarded as popular; they use questionnaires to allow the collection of data from a sizeable population.” In this study, respondents were requested to respond to the online questionnaire at a particular time and to state their level of agreement with regard to staff retention factors. The survey process followed is illustrated in Figure 6.2.

The researcher is an employee at the South African SOE targeted for this study, which facilitated her entry into the organisation. A formal letter was directed to the top management of the SOE that subsequently granted the researcher permission to access employees in the SOE for purposes of the study. After this, ethical clearance to conduct the study was obtained from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology Ethics Committee at the University of South Africa before commencement of data collection.

Figure 6.2

The Survey Process Followed for This Study



Note. Adapted from *Basics of Social Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* (3rd ed., p. 194)*,* by W.L. Neuman, 2014, Pearson.

A list of all the SOE employees (N = 5395), with their contact details, was made available to the researcher and constituted the research population. A stratified sample of 1000 employees were targeted with random sampling used to select employees from each of the six identified strata, being professional and skilled employees from levels B to G. All the employees in the identified sample of 1000 were invited to participate in the survey in order to obtain self-generated data to test the validity of the new proposed theoretical model of staff retention (Chandon et al., 2005). The invitation to participate was in the form of an email that was sent to all 1000 identified participants. It contained an introduction to the study as well as the purpose and nature of the research. The invitation email also clearly stated that participation was voluntary and that no information provided would be linked to the identity of a specific person (i.e., anonymity would not be compromised). The employees were also notified of their right to discontinue with the survey at any time, since the survey was designed in such a way that the respondents were required to fill in all questions.

A link to the online questionnaire was included at the end of the email, and participants were requested to click on the link if they agreed to participate in the study. Once the online questionnaire was accessed by a participant, informed consent was explained and requested by asking participants to click on an acknowledgement of informed consent before commencing with answering the questionnaire. Completed survey questionnaires from participating employees were submitted electronically via the online link to the organisation's electronic communication system and then imported into an electronic spreadsheet format for further statistical analysis. A total of 685 participants finally completed and returned the survey and returned their questionnaires electronically.

6.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Quantitative analysis consisted of processes that are involved in numerical representation and manipulation of observations with the main aim of describing and explaining any phenomena that are reflected within those observations (Babbie, 2020). The quantitative data for this study was gathered using an online survey. The data was exported from the online survey into Microsoft Excel 2016 and then analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26 (IBM, 2015), which included the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) module for conducting SEM.

The following statistical procedures were conducted, and are discussed in more detail thereafter: (1) descriptive statistics to explain the sample, (2) an internal consistency analysis to determine the reliability of the SRQ, (3) factor analysis to determine the factor structure of the SRQ, (4) confirmatory factor analysis as part of the Structural Equation Modelling process, and (5) hierarchical moderated regression analysis to investigate the moderating effect of the biographical variables on the staff retention factors.

The data was first screened by removing all those observations where the respondent did not give consent to participate in the study. A total of 686 responded to the online questionnaire, but one person did not give consent to participate in the survey, leaving the number of respondents at 685. A missing value analysis was not conducted, since the study was designed in such a way that a person gives a response to a question before proceeding to the next question. Thus, all fields in the questionnaire were answered. The technique of dealing with a missing date was thus addressed during design of the online questionnaire. Engelbrecht et al. (2015) used the same method of dealing with the issue of missing value data by designing the online questionnaire so that a respondent could not proceed to the next level if the previous questions were not answered.

6.5.1 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are statistical procedures or methods of describing and summarising data using tabular, visual, and quantitative techniques (Evans, 2017). Descriptive statistics can be in the form of summary statistics (numerical techniques) or visual representations (graphical techniques). For this study, descriptive statistics in the form of frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations were calculated to explain and understand the study sample (Field, 2017).

Frequency distributions were used to present the distribution of the biographical data, namely, (1) Gender, (2) Age, (3) Tenure, (4) Educational Qualifications, and (5) Job Grade. A frequency distribution is merely a description of the number of times that the various attributes of a variable are observed in a sample (Babbie, 2020). The frequency distributions that were calculated in this study will be represented in tabular form.

In this study, the mean of responses on the 13 constructs in the SRQ was obtained by summing all the observations and dividing by the number of observations (Keller, 2018). Odendaal (1997) stated that when a 5-point Likert scale is used in an instrument where 1 represents strongly disagree and 5 strongly agree, the cut-off point of a mean score of 3.2 is suggested. This is used to represent a potential negative or positive score on an item, where a score of 3.2 or more indicates a positive opinion on the construct measured. The Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) also suggested a cut-off score of 3.2 as a good guideline to determine the positive and the negative perceptions of issues measured by an instrument (Castro

& Martins, 2010). This study thus used the suggested cut-off score of 3.2 when calculating the means of responses (Castro & Martins, 2010; Odendaal, 1997).

The standard deviation is a measure of the variability between the values of different observations (Anderson et al., 2017). Higher values of the standard deviation mean that the observations are more dispersed, and a lower standard deviation means that they are more bunched together (Babbie, 2020). In this study, the standard deviation (SD) was used as a measure of variance to estimate the average amount that each of the individual scores on the 13 constructs of the SRQ varied from the mean of the scores.

6.5.2 Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability is a measure of reliability of a measurement instrument. It examines the unidimensional nature of a set, that is, it examines how unified the items are in a test or assessment (Salkind, 2018). The internal consistency of the SRQ was calculated using Cronbach's alpha to determine the reliability of the instrument, which is commonly used as a measure of reliability in social sciences (Diedenhofenc & Musch, 2016). The closer the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the instrument (Namdeo & Rout, 2016). Interpretation of the Cronbach's alpha was done using the following guidelines proposed by Jain and Angural (2017): Cronbach's alpha of ≥ .9 = excellent; $.9 > \alpha \geq .8$ = good; $.8 > \alpha \geq .7$ = acceptable; $.7 > \alpha \geq .6$ = questionable; $.6 > \alpha \geq .5$ = poor; and < .05 = unacceptable.

6.5.3 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is an interdependence technique whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Broadly speaking, factor analysis provides the tools for analysing the structure of the interrelationships (correlations) among a large number of variables (e.g. test scores, test items, and questionnaire responses) by defining sets of variables that are highly interrelated, known as factors. These groups of variables (factors), which are by definition highly intercorrelated, are assumed to represent dimensions within the data (Hair et al., 2019).

The researcher can choose from two similar, yet unique, methods for defining (extracting) the factors to represent the structure of the variables in the analysis, namely, (1) exploratory (or common) factor analysis (EFA) and (2) principal component analysis (PCA) (Hair et al., 2019). PCA is most appropriate when data reduction is a primary concern, focusing on the minimum number of factors needed to account for the maximum portion of the total variance represented in the original set of variables, and prior knowledge suggests that specific and error variance represent a relatively small proportion of the total variance (Hair et al., 2019). As these two aspects are applicable to this study, the researcher considered PCA to be more appropriate than EFA as the factor extraction method to be used.

In this study, PCA was performed to determine the factor structure of the SRQ. PCA was conducted to examine the results obtained from the SRQ survey to determine interrelationships among the items and to identify clusters of items that share sufficient variation to justify their existence as a factor in the proposed new theoretical model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa. Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) explained that factor analysis usually involved three steps: (1) computing the intercorrelations between variables, (2) extracting initial factors, and (3) rotating the factors to obtain a clearer picture of the factor content.

In order to apply factor analysis, it is important to ensure that the sample size is adequate and that the data is appropriate for conducting a factor analysis. According to Hair et al. (2019), the sample must have more observations than variables, and the minimum absolute size should be 50 observations, with 100 observations being the preferred minimum. In this study, the total sample was 685 and a split-sample approach was used as propagated by Fokkema and Greiff (2017). This means PCA was conducted on part of the sample (n = 300) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which will be discussed hereafter under Structural Equation Modelling, was conducted on the other part of the sample (n = 385). Thus, the sample size used for PCA, namely n = 300, was considered more than adequate according to Hair et al. (2019).

The appropriateness of the factor analysis was assessed using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The KMO is an index that reaches 1 when all variables are totally predicted by other variables and a value of at least .5 is required, which indicates that the data is adequate for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2019; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Bartlett's test of sphericity is a statistical technique that assesses the presence of correlations among the variables, and it provides the statistical significance, indicating that the correlation matrix has significant correlations among at least some of the variables (Hair et al., 2019). It tests the null hypothesis as to whether there is lack of sufficient correlation, that is, it tests the hypothesis to determine if the correlations matrix of items measuring a construct is an identity matrix. The null hypothesis implies that there are no significant relationships between items measuring each construct other than the perfect correlation identified on the diagonal of the matrix between the same items. A rejection of the null hypothesis leads to the conclusion that there are sufficient correlations among the variables. This means for a PCA to be appropriate, the Bartlett test should have a significant *p*-value (*p*-value of less than .05).

6.5.4 Statistically significant levels

Statistical significance, or a *p*-value, is a number describing how likely it is that data would have occurred by random chance (Field, 2017). In statistics, a result is considered significant not because it is important or meaningful but because it has been predicted as unlikely to have occurred by chance alone (Field, 2017). However, Pallant (2014) argued that statistically, significance on its own is not enough, as it does not disclose anything about the magnitude or importance of the result. For this reason, Pallant (2014) encouraged researchers to also report the effect size along with the *p*-value. In this study, levels will be considered to be statistically significant at the .05 level, but the effect size will also be reported and considered in the analysis (Shaver, 2014).

6.5.5 Structural equation modelling

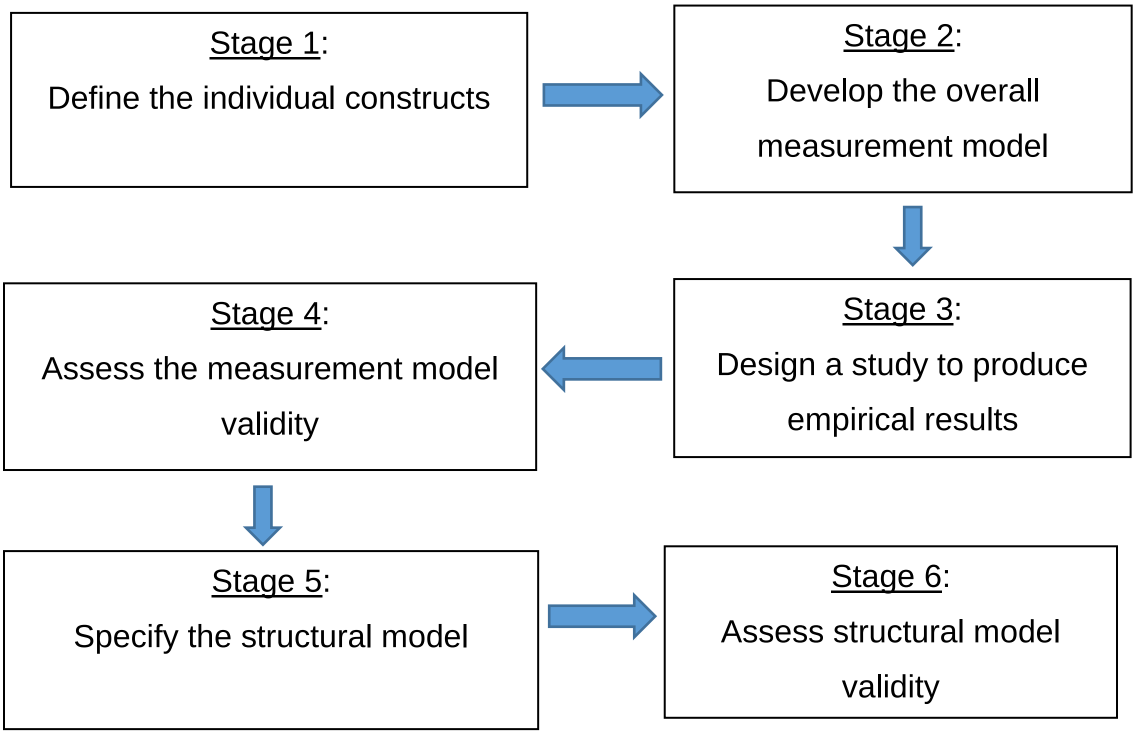
SEM is a collection of statistical techniques that allowed a set of relationships between one or more independent variables, either continuous or discrete, and one or more dependent variables, either continuous or discrete, to be examined (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). It examines the structure of interrelationships expressed in a series of equations, similar to a series of multiple regression equations. These equations depict all of the relationships among constructs (the dependent and independent variables) involved in the analysis. Constructs are unobservable or latent factors represented by multiple variables (Hair et al., 2019).

Hair et al. (2019) explained that SEM does not designate a single statistical technique but refers to a family of related procedures known by many names, such as covariance structure analysis, latent variable analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis. SEM is used to evaluate the validity of theories with empirical data, and the goal is thus to determine whether a hypothesised model is consistent with the data collected to reflect this theory (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Thus, SEM can be used to determine whether an organisational model is valid (Hair et al., 2019), such as the new proposed theoretical model of staff retention proposed in Chapter 5. As such, the researcher is of the opinion that SEM is ideal to fulfil the aim of this study, namely, to validate a theoretically developed staff retention model for SOEs in South Africa.

According to Hair et al. (2019), the six stages in SEM are as set out in Figure 6.3. These stages are discussed in more detail hereafter and include how the researcher applied and integrated each stage of the overall research design with SEM to achieve the aim of the study.

Figure 6.3

Stages in Structural Equation Modelling



Note. Adapted from *Multivariate Data Analysis* (8th ed., p. 626), by J.F. Hair, W.C., Black, B.J., Babin. and R.E. Anderson, 2019, Cengage Learning.

Stage 1: This stage involves defining the individual constructs that will be measured in the study. The process begins with a good theoretical definition of the constructs involved, as this definition provides the basis for selecting or designing individual indicator items. Constructs are operationalised by selecting their measurement scale items and scale type. Constructs can be defined and operationalised either (1) as they were in previous research studies or (2) developed from scratch (Hair et al., 2019).

In this study, this stage was completed first in Chapter 2 where a detailed literature review identified the 12 most researched underlying constructs that have been shown to significantly influence staff retention (Intention to leave – the dependent variable), including their definitions. Secondly, in Chapter 3 the constructs were operationalised by selecting various reliable and valid questionnaires and their measurement scales as used in previous research studies. A total of eight questionnaires and their scales were selected to measure the twelve staff retention constructs and the one dependent variable.

Stage 2: This stage involves developing and specifying the measurement model. With the scale items specified, the researcher must now specify the measurement model. In this stage, each latent construct to be included in the model is identified and the measured indicator variables (items) are assigned to latent constructs. Although this identification and assignment can be represented by equations, it is simpler to represent this process with a diagram (Hair et al., 2019).

This stage was completed in Chapter 5 (Figure 5.1) where a new proposed theoretical model of staff retention was developed based on the literature review conducted in Chapter 2 (measurement model). Each of the 12 identified staff retention constructs in the new proposed theoretical model of staff retention was defined and the relationship between the constructs (independent variables) and Intention to leave (the dependent variable) was indicated (path diagram). In the measurement model in Figure 5.1 in Chapter 5, the one-way arrows between the 12 organisational staff retention factors (independent variables) and Intention to leave (dependent variable) indicates that there is a theoretical relationship between these factors and an employee's decision to leave or stay in an organisation.

Stage 3: This stage involves designing a study to produce empirical results. In the area of research design, attention must be given to (1) choosing the input matrix type; (2) the impact and remedies for missing data; (3) the impact of sample size; and (4) the model estimation technique to be used (Hair et al., 2019).

1. Choosing the input matrix type. This can be either a covariance or a correlation matrix. When assessing the guidelines provided by Hair et al. (2019) as to whether to use a covariance or correlation matrix as input in the SEM process, it was decided to use a correlation matrix. This was done because default parameter estimates are standardised and are not scale dependent, making identification of inappropriate estimates easier than with covariances, which have no defined range. A correlation matrix was subsequently compiled for this study as the input to estimate the proposed theoretical model of staff retention using Pearson's product-moment

correlation coefficient. This matrix is shown in the following chapter (Chapter 7 – Results).

2. Missing data. Hair et al. (2019) explained that missing data complicated the testing of SEM models and the use of SEM in general because in most approaches to remedying missing data, the sample size is reduced to some extent from the original number of cases. A missing data analysis was done on the sample as proposed by Hair et al. (2019), which indicated that there was never more than 10% missing data for any individual question in the SRQ. As such, the researcher is of the opinion that the missing data had no effect on the statistical power of the analyses conducted.

3. The impact of sample size. Hair et al. (2019) stated that SEM is in some ways more sensitive to sample size than other multivariate approaches. Based on the discussion of sample size, Hair et al. (2019) suggested a minimum sample size of 500 for SEM. In this study, the sample size was 685, which is above the minimum suggested by Hair et al. (2019) to produce trustworthy results.

4. Model estimation technique. The most common SEM estimation procedure is maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), which is more efficient and unbiased when the assumption of multivariate normality is met (Hair et al., 2019). MLE is a flexible approach to parameter estimation in which the 'most likely' parameter values to achieve the best model fit are found (Hair et al., 2019). As such, MLE was used in this study to estimate the measurement model.

Stage 4: This stage involves assessing the measurement model validity. Hair et al. (2019) stated that with the measurement model specified, sufficient data collected, and key decisions such as the estimation technique made, the researcher comes to the most fundamental event in SEM testing, namely, asking the question as to whether the measurement model is valid.

In this study, a CFA was conducted to test whether the data obtained from the study survey fit the developed and specified measurement model in Chapter 5 (Figure 5.1). This was done to validate the measurement model. The CFA was conducted on the second part of the sample, namely, 285. As was explained under Section **6.5.3 Factor analysis** above, a split-sample approach was used as propagated by Fokkema and Greiff (2017) on the total sample of 685. That is to say, a PCA was conducted on part of the sample (n = 300) and CFA was conducted on the other part of the sample (n = 385). According to Hair et al. (2019), a researcher would want to split a sample, using one half to develop a model and the other half to validate the solution obtained from the first half. The sample size used for CFA, namely, n = 385, was considered more than adequate according to the guidelines provided by Hair et al. (2019). Important to note is that the CFA was conducted on the new factors extracted during the PCA technique used during the factor analysis phase.

The SEM procedure followed under Stage 4 was to try and find a best model fit with the study survey data obtained from the SRQ by conducting an EFA on the data using SPSS AMOS version 26 (IBM, 2015). Hair et al. (2019) explained that measurement model validity depends on two things: (1) first, establishing acceptable levels of goodness-of-fit (GOF) tests for the measurement model (fit validity) and (2) secondly, finding other specific evidence of construct validity.

1. Establishing acceptable levels of <u>Goodness-of-fit (GOF)</u>

GOF indicates how well the specified measurement model reproduces the observed correlation matrix among the indicator items (i.e., the similarity of the observed and estimated correlation matrices) (Hair et al., 2019). A number of alternative GOF measures are available to the researcher which can be classed into three general groups: (1.1) absolute fit indices, (1.2) incremental fit indices, and (1.3) parsimony fit indices (Hair et al., 2019). Hair et al. (2019) suggested using three to four fit indices to provide adequate evidence of model fit, with at least one absolute index and one incremental index in addition to the chi-square and the associated degrees of freedom. As such, the researcher decided to use the following three absolute fit indices, three incremental fit indices, and one parsimony fit index:

1.1 *<u>Absolute fit indices</u>*. Absolute fit indices are a direct measure of how well the specified model reproduces the observed data. As such, they provide the most basic assessment of how well a theory fits the sample data. The following three absolute fit indices were used:

- Chi-square (CMIN). The X^2 test indicates the difference between the observed correlation matrix and the expected correlation matrix. Values closer to zero, indicating non-significance, would indicate a good fit. However, Kline (2011) stated that passing the X^2 test is not the final word in model testing, and other measures of fit should also be used.

- Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI). The GIF index is a measure of fit between the hypothesised model and the observed correlation matrix. The GFI ranges between 0 and 1, with values greater than .90 generally indicating a good model fit (Kline, 2011).

- Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). The RMSEA better represents how well a model fits a population, not just a sample used for estimation. It explicitly tries to correct for both model complexity and sample size by including each in its computation. The RMSEA ranges from 0 to 1, with a value of .06 or less indicating an acceptable model fit.

1.2 *Incremental fit indices*. These indices differ from absolute fit indices in that they assess how well the estimated model fits relative to some alternative baseline model. The following three Incremental fit indices were used:

- Normed-Fit Index (NFI). The NFI analyses the discrepancy between the chi-square value of the hypothesised model and the chi-square value of the null model. Values for the NFI should range between 0 and 1, while Hair et al. (2019) recommended a level of .90 or above as indicating a good model fit.

- Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). The TLI is similar to the NFI, but it is not normed, and these values can fall below 0 or above 1. Hair et al. (2019) recommended a level of .90 or above as indicating a good model fit.

- Comparative Fit Index (CFI). The CFI analyses the model fit by examining the discrepancy between the data and the hypothesised model while adjusting for issues of sample size inherent in the chi-squared test of model fit. CFI values range from 0 to 1, with larger values indicating better fit, while a value of .90 or larger is generally considered to indicate an acceptable model fit (Hair et al., 2019).

1.3 <u>*Parsimony fit indices*</u>. Parsimony fit indices are designed specifically to provide information about which model among a set of competing models is best, considering its fit relative to its complexity. A parsimony fit measure is improved either by a better fit or by a simpler model. The following parsimony fit index was used:

- Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI). An AGFI attempts to take into account differing degrees of model complexity. It does so by adjusting GFI by a ratio of the degrees of freedom used in a model to the total degrees of freedom available. AGFI values are typically lower than GFI values in proportion to model complexity. No statistical test is associated with AGFI, only guidelines to fit.

A summary of the indices used to test for model fitness and their thresholds are shown in Table 6.2

Table 6.2

Acceptable Threshold Levels for Model Goodness-of-Fit Indices

Indices	*Name*	*Threshold levels*
Absolute fit indices		
CMIN	*Chi-square (X^2)*	*When ration of X^2 to degrees of freedom is less than 2, a good fit is indicated*
GFI	*Goodness-of-Fit Index*	*Ranges between 0 and 1, with values of greater*

		than .9 indicating good model fit
RMSEA	*Root Mean Square Error of Approximation*	*Values of ≤ .06 indicate acceptable model fit*
Incremental fit indices		
NFI	*Normed-Fit Index*	*Values range between 0 and 1, with values ≥ .95 indicating good model fit*
TLI	*Tucker-Lewis Index*	*Values can fall below 0 or above 1, with values ≥ .90 indicating good model fit*
CFI	*Comparative Fit Index*	*Values range from 0 to 1, with with values ≥ .90 indicating good model fit*
Parsimony fit index		
AGFI	*Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index*	*Values range between 0 and 1, with values ≥ .9 indicating good model fit*

Note. Adapted from *Multivariate Data Analysis* (8th ed.), by J.F. Hair, W.C. Black, B.J. Babin, & R.E. Anderson, 2019, Prentice-Hall; *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modelling* (3rd ed.), by R.B. Kline, 2011, The Guilford Press; *Using Multivariate Statistics* (5th ed.), by B.G. Tabachnick & L.S. Fidell, 2007, Pearson.

2. Construct validity

The second part of the validity issue is assessing the construct validity of the measurement model. Construct validity is the extent to which a test truly measured a proposed psychological ability or skill and is related to an underlying theory or model of behaviour (Salkind, 2018). Construct validity deals with accuracy of measurement and is measured using three components, namely, (1) nomological validity and face validity, (2) convergent validity, and (3) discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2019).

2.1 *Nomological validity and face validity*

Nomological validity examines whether correlations between the constructs in the measurement theory make sense, and in this case, the matrix of construct correlations can be useful in this assessment (Hair et al., 2019). On the other hand, face validity is the extent to which a scale's content logically appeared to reflect what was intended to be measured (Quinlan et al., 2019). It is the extent to which, on the surface, a measurement instrument looked like it is measuring a particular characteristic (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Face validity should be established prior to any theoretical testing using CFA.

In this study, a review of the literature on staff retention produced suitable items that could be used to measure the staff retention constructs. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to assess nomological validity at the 5% level of significance. The coefficient of correlation measured the relative strength of a linear relationship between two numerical variables (Levine et al., 2016). According to Salkind (2018), the coefficient ranges from 0 (zero or no relationship between the two variables) to 1 (a perfect relationship). A value close to ±1 signified a stronger relationship, and one close to 0 signified a weaker relationship. Cohen (1988) proposed a rule of thumb for interpreting the correlation coefficient which stated that r = .10 - .29 is low effect (low correlation); r = .30 - .49 is medium effect (moderate correlation); and r = .50 - .99 is large effect (strong correlation).

2.2 *Convergent validity*

According to Salkind (2018), convergent validity is a component of construct validity in which method variance is shared when measuring the same trait. Convergent validity was assessed by the loadings of all the items: composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and construct reliability (CR). The factor loadings of all the items were above the threshold of .7 as proposed by Hair (et al., 2019), indicating that the observed variables have high convergent validity.

Reliability was also found to be an indicator of convergent validity (Hair et al., 2019). High construct (composite) reliability indicated that internal consistency existed

(≥ .7), meaning that the measures all consistently represented the same latent construct (Hair et al., 2019:676).

2.3 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is a component of construct validity in which trait variance is shared when using the same method (Salkind, 2018). It represented the uniqueness or distinctiveness of a measure; a scale should not correlate too highly with a measure of a different construct. High discriminant validity provided evidence that a construct is unique and captured some phenomena that other measures do not capture (Hair et al., 2019).

Stage 5: This stage involves specifying the structural method, which is converting the measurement model to the structural model. Stage 5 involves specifying the structural model by assigning relationships from one construct to another based on the proposed theoretical model. A distinction was also made between endogenous and exogenous constructs. Structural model specification focuses on adding single-headed, directional arrows to represent structural hypotheses in the researcher's model. In other words, the researcher identifies the dependence relationships that are hypothesised to exist among the constructs. Each hypothesis represents a specific relationship that must be specified. The structural model constructed for this model is illustrated in the following chapter (Results).

Stage 6: This stage involved assessing the structural model validity. The final stage involves efforts to test the validity of the structural model and its corresponding hypothesised theoretical relationships. Two key differences arise in testing the fit of a structural model relative to a measurement model. First, even though an acceptable overall model fit must be established, alternative or competing models are encouraged to support a model's superiority. Second, particular emphasis is placed on the estimated parameters for the structural relationships because they provide direct empirical evidence relating to the hypothesised relationships depicted in the structural model (Hair et al. 2019).

The process of establishing the structural model's validity follows the general guidelines outlined in Stage 4 (assessing the measurement model validity). The observed data is still represented by the observed sample correlation matrix. It does not and should not change. However, a new SEM-estimated correlation matrix is computed, and it is different from that for the measurement model. This difference is a result of the structural relationships in the structural model. The measurement model assumes all constructs are correlated to one another (correlational relationships). However, in the structural model the relationships between some constructs are assumed to be 0 (Hair et al., 2019).

The overall fit of the structural model is assessed using the same criteria as the measurement model (see the fit indices discussed under Stage 4). These fit measures establish the validity of the structural model, but comparisons between the overall fit should also be made with the measurement model. Generally, the closer the structural model GOF comes to the measurement model, the better the structural model fit because the measurement model fit provides an upper bound to the GOF of a conventional structural model (Hair et al., 2019).

The results of the validation of the structural model are reported in the next chapter (Results).

6.5.6 Hierarchical moderated regression analyses

In general terms, a moderator is a qualitative or quantitative variable that affects the strength and/or direction of the relationship between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable (Chooi, 2020). Specifically, within a correlational analysis framework, a moderator is a third variable that affects the zero-order correlation between two other variables (Hair et al., 2019). Hierarchical moderated regression analysis (HMRA) is used to empirically test how a variable moderates or influences the nature of a relationship between other variables (Hair et al., 2019). An HMRA enables the relationships between independent and dependent variables to be linked to other independent variables (i.e., moderator). In this study, the moderating effect occurs when the level of the third variable (age, gender, educational level, tenure, and job grade) influences or affects the relationship between the staff retention constructs (independent variables) and Intention to leave (dependent variable).

Empirical Aim 4 of this study states the following: To determine whether the biographical variables of age, gender, educational qualification, tenure, and job grade statistically significantly moderate the relationship between the staff retention factors (independent variables) and Intention to leave (the dependent variable). Empirical Aim 4 was achieved by conducting an HMRA on the biographical variables and the independent and dependent variables.

6.6 METHODS TO ENSURE RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE STUDY

The reliability and validity of the measuring instruments used to compile the final SRQ were discussed in detail in Sub-section 6.5.2. In the next chapter (Results), the reliability of the final SRQ used to gather data in this study (internal consistency reliability) and its validity (factor analysis) will be presented and discussed. This section will only concentrate on a discussion of how the reliability and validity of the entire research study was addressed.

6.6.1 Reliability

If a study is reliable, it means that if it is repeated multiple times, the results will be consistent every time. Research reliability thus has to do with how the research was conducted and referred to the replication of the study (Andrade, 2018). In this study, replication was ensured by providing a detailed description of the design details of the study, such as the sampling method and the data collection methods that were used. This information should create the possibility for other researchers to replicate this study in future, which should produce the same results as obtained in this study.

6.6.2 Validity

Both the internal and external validity of a research study needs to be considered, as both types of validity are concepts that reflected whether or not the results of a study are trustworthy and meaningful. While internal validity related to how well a study is conducted (its structure and procedure), external validity related to how applicable the findings are generalisable to other contexts (Andrade, 2018).

Internal validity examined whether the manner in which a study was designed, conducted, and analysed allowed trustworthy answers to the research questions in the study (Andrade, 2018). In this study, internal validity was ensured by adhering to the guidelines propagated by Patino and Ferreirea (2018):

- The literature used in this study was related to the nature, problems, and aims of the research. The concepts and constructs related to staff retention were discussed systematically, and the choice of these concepts and constructs were objective. The literature consulted was also the most recent literature sources applicable for the study.

- The study was carefully planned to ensure that the research methodology was scientifically sound and would ensure that the research questions could be answered.

- The data collection and analysis were done according to recognised research practices, which included quality control of the process.

- The sample was carefully planned and selected to ensure that all members of the population had an equal chance of being included in the final sample (stratified and random sampling), and that no sampling bias existed.

External validity examined whether the findings of a study can be generalised to other contexts (Andrade, 2018). In this study, external validity was ensured by adhering to the guideline propagated by Patino and Ferreirea (2018). This guideline stated that the sample must be chosen to ensure that it was random and large enough to be representative of the study population from which the sample was drawn. This study consequently made use of stratified, random sampling and used a large sample size of 685 participants to comply with this guideline.

6.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS REGARDING THE STUDY

According to Newman (2014), ethical considerations are an important part of the research method. Rosenthal and Rosnow (2009) defined research ethics as the minimum standards of moral principles that guide the researcher's behaviour.

Conversely, Neuman (2014) stated that conducting scientific research required more than understanding the research procedure or methods; as a researcher, one is expected to behave in an ethical way. This included avoiding scientific misconduct, such as plagiarism. According to Walliman (2011), working with human beings raised ethical considerations, which required that respondents be treated with dignity and respect during and after research projects. These principles included compliance with social science as well as professional obligations towards research participants and participating organisations. As part of the effort to honour these requirements, the following ethical considerations were applied to this study:

- Approval from Executive Leadership facilitated by the General Manager Talent and Transformation of the targeted SOE was sought and officially obtained.

- Thereafter ethical clearance to conduct the study was obtained from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology Ethics Committee of the University of South Africa.

- The online informed consent of research participants was obtained and confidentiality was maintained with respect to the results. Confidentiality meant that the data gathered was not publicly reported in a way that identified the organisation in the study nor the respondents.

- The anonymity of participants was ensured by not disclosing respondents' names on the online questionnaires and research reports.

- The researcher used recent academic sources of information applicable to the study, and the research was conducted within recognised parameters. All sources of information were also acknowledged.

- Experts in data analysis and the field of research were consulted to ensure a scientifically accurate research process.

- The organisation was informed of the research results as previously contracted.

- The study findings were compiled and reported according to prescribed ethics guidelines.

- As the study entailed direct human participant involvement, the only foreseeable risk of harm was the potential for minor discomfort or inconvenience due to the time spend completing the data-gathering questionnaire. Thus, this research did not pose a risk above the everyday norm. This potential risk of minor discomfort or inconvenience was mitigated by making participation completely voluntary. Employees were thus given a choice to participate or not, with no negative consequences for non-participation.

6.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the empirical study was discussed. The discussion included the research design, the research approach, and the research method. Under the research method, the population and sample, measuring instruments and research procedure were explained. Following this, the steps that were followed during the data analysis process were discussed. The chapter was then concluded with a discussion of the methods used to ensure the reliability and validity of the study and ethical considerations regarding the study.

In the next chapter, the results of the empirical study will be reported, interpreted, and discussed.

CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the empirical study. The researcher will begin by discussing the participant response rate, the descriptive statistics generated, and the internal consistency reliability of the measurement instrument. Following this, the results of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses will be presented. The final adapted theoretical model of staff retention will then be discussed, along with the results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis (HMRA) that was conducted to determine the moderating effect of five biographical variables (gender, age, educational qualifications, tenure, and job grade) on the relationship between the staff retention constructs (independent variables) and intention to leave (the dependent variable). The chapter will conclude with a summary of the results presented.

7.2 RESPONSE RATE

The targeted sample for this study was 1000 employees of a South African state-owned enterprise (SOE). However, data was collected during the COVID-19 lockdown period (it started from 27 March 2020), which resulted in uncertainty for many employees who were working from home or did not have the equipment to do so. Despite the targeted sample of 1000, a total of 685 participants completed the Staff Retention Questionnaire (SRQ), resulting in a response rate of 68.5%. This response rate was considered adequate in comparison to research conducted by Baruch and Holtom (2008), who assessed 17 refereed academic articles and found an average response rate of 52.7% with a standard deviation of 3.4 for data collected from individuals. It was also deemed adequate for the purposes of conducting structural equation modelling (SEM), as Hair et al. (2019) stated that a sample of at least 500 is required for SEM.

A missing data analysis was conducted, as proposed by Hair et al. (2019), and indicated that there was never more than 10% missing data for any individual question in the SRQ. Therefore, the researcher believes that the missing data had no effect on the statistical power of the analyses conducted.

7.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

During this study, descriptive statistics in the form of frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations were calculated for the research sample. The data was obtained from the first part of the SRQ.

7.3.1 Descriptive statistical analysis of biographical information

The analyses of frequencies for the biographical information are presented in Table 7.1 and include the variables gender, age, highest educational qualifications, tenure (years of working for the organisation), and job grade.

Table 7.1

Frequency Distributions of the Biographical Information (n = 685)

Variable	Category	Frequency	%
Gender	Male	456	66.7%
	Female	229	33.3%
	Total	685	100.0%
Age	Less than 29 years	15	2.2%
	29 – 39 years	212	30.9%
	40 – 49 years	277	40.4%
	50 – 60 years	151	22.0%
	Older than 60 years	30	4.4%
.	Total	685	100.0%
Highest educational Qualification	Certificate and below	55	8.0%
	Diploma	139	20.3%
	3 – 4-year degree	144	21.%
	Honours degree	183	26.7%
	Master’s degree	156	22.8%
	Doctoral degree	8	1.2%
	Total	685	100.0%

Variable	Category	Frequency	%
Tenure	Less than 2 years	18	2.6%
	2 – 3 years	26	3.8%
	4 – 5 years	90	13.1%
	6 – 10 years	202	29.5%
	More than 10 years	359	50.9%
	Total	685	100.0%
Job Grade	Grade B	12	1.7%
	Grade C	68	9.9%
	Grade D	68	9.9%
	Grade E	219	32.%
	Grade F	197	28.8%
	Grade G	121	17.7%
	Total	685	100%

Note. Compiled by researcher

Table 7.1 illustrates that 66.7% (*n* = 457) of the respondents were male and 33.3% (*n* = 228) were female. The gender distribution indicates that more males than females participated in the study, which aligns with the gender distribution of the SOE in the study, in which males constitute 69.8% of the total SOE population.

Regarding the age distribution of the respondents, Table 7.1 shows that the highest number of respondents were in the 40-49-year-old category, constituting 40.4% (*n* = 277), while the lowest was in the 60 years or older category, comprising 4.4% (*n* = 30). The remainder of the sample fell into the categories 29-39 years (30.9%, *n* = 212), 50-60 years old (22%, *n* = 151), and less than 29 years old (2.2%, *n* = 15). The majority of the respondents were middle-aged, which is consistent with the South African labour force.

Table 7.1 reveals that most of the respondents had a degree (78.5%), with 21.0% (*n* = 144) having undertaken 3-4-year degree programmes, 26.7% (*n* = 183) having acquired an honours degree, 22.8% having a master's degree, and 1.2% (*n* = 8) having a doctorate. The remaining respondents (21.5%, *n* = 194) had either a diploma or a certificate or below. The sample is skewed towards higher levels of education, indicating that most of the respondents were highly qualified and professional. This was the targeted group since the research aimed at skilled employees. Therefore, the survey reached mostly skilled professional workers and not lower-skilled workers.

Table 7.1 illustrates that the majority of the respondents had been working for the company for more than 10 years (50.9%, $n = 349$), which suggests that the sample consisted of relatively long-term employees who should be able to provide valid indications when completing the SRQ as to why they have remained in the SOE for such a long period. Table 7.1 also indicates that 80.4% of the respondents had been working at the SOE for more than five years, indicating a relatively low turnover rate among the sampled employees. This could confirm the fact that, given the current high unemployment rate in South Africa, employees tend to remain in their jobs and not take the chance of job-hopping.

Table 7.1 shows that most of the respondents, namely 32.0% ($n = 219$), classified themselves as grade level E, which represents middle management and specialised professional grade. The grade distribution demonstrates decreasing percentages as it moves to higher-level grades (D-B), which represent senior management, executive, and general management. This is representative of most organisational structures, as organisations mostly consist of small numbers of senior managers at the top.

7.3.2 Descriptive statistical analysis of the staff retention questionnaire constructs

The study utilized a Staff Retention Questionnaire (SRQ) which measured 13 constructs, consisting of 12 staff retention factors and one dependent variable, namely Intention to leave. The construct on compensation and benefits was measured using a 5-point Likert scale, with levels of satisfaction ranging from 1 (strongly dissatisfied) to 5 (strongly satisfied). The remaining constructs were measured using a 5-point Likert scale, with responses ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Means were used to present the average scores for each of the 13 constructs of the SRQ. Odendaal (1997) and the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) suggested a cut-off point of 3.2 on a 5-point Likert scale as a guideline for determining the positive and negative perceptions of participants. Thus, a score of 3.2 and above represented a positive perception while a score less than 3.2 represented a negative perception. Table 7.2 presents the mean and standard deviation for each of the 13 constructs of the SRQ.

Table 7.2

Means and Standard Deviations for the 13 Dimensions of the SRQ (n = 685)

Staff retention survey dimensions	M	95% confidence interval for mean		SD	Skew-ness	Kurtosis
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
1. Compensation and benefits	2.77	2.69	2.83	.93	.04	-.73
2. Job characteristics	3.80	3.74	3.86	.80	-.62	-.19
3. Training and development	3.12	3.04	3.19	.99	-.19	-.58
4. Supervisory support	3.32	3.23	3.39	1.08	-.41	-.71
5. Career growth and development	2.74	2.68	2.80	.83	.15	-.47
6. Work-life balance	3.19	3.11	3.26	1.02	-.53	-.63
7. Employee Engagement	4.03	3.97	4.09	.78	-1.10	1.36
8. Organisational support	2.97	2.89	3.04	.99	-.17	-.83
9. Ethical leadership	2.94	2.86	3.01	1.03	-.13	-.89
10. Job Satisfaction	4.03	3.95	4.10	.99	-1.14	.79
11. Meaningful work	4.04	3.98	4.10	.78	-.95	.91
12. Organisational culture	3.07	3.01	3.12	.71	-.14	-.38
13. Intention to leave	3.52	3.43	3.60	1.13	-.50	-.71

Note. Compiled by researcher

Table 7.2 indicates that respondents tended to have a negative perception of seven of the 12 staff retention factors. These staff retention factors were (1) compensation and benefits (*M* = 2.77), (2) training and development (*M* = 3.12), (3) career growth and development (*M* = 2.74), (4) work-life balance (*M* = 3.19), (5) organisational support (*M* = 2.97), (6) ethical leadership (*M* = 2.94), and (7) organisational culture (*M* = 3.07). These factors could be potential reasons for the employees to leave the SOE, and should receive urgent attention.

On the other hand, respondents were mostly satisfied with the following five staff retention factors: (1) job characteristics (*M* = 3.80), (2) supervisory support (*M* = 3.32), (3) employee engagement (*M* = 4.03), (4) job satisfaction (*M* = 4.03), and (5) meaningful job (*M* = 4.04).

The dependent variable, intention to leave, had a mean score of 3.52, indicating that respondents were slightly positive about leaving the SOE if given the opportunity. Most of the dimensions had small standard deviations, except for supervisory support, work-life balance, ethical leadership, and intention to leave, which had standard deviations greater than 1. According to Field (2017), small standard deviations indicate that data is closer to the mean, while large standard deviations indicate that data points are distant from the mean. The data was also found to be within two standard deviations of the mean, which is an acceptable variance range for such studies (Green & Salkind, 2014). Additionally, the data was found to follow a normal distribution, as skewness and kurtosis values were within the acceptable range limit for normal distributions of ±2 (George & Mallery, 2011). These findings indicate that the sample is moderately standardised and that the mean gives a satisfactory indication of the responses.

7.4 MEASURING THE INTERNAL CONSISTENCY RELIABILITY OF THE STAFF RETENTION QUESTIONNAIRE

The researcher aimed to measure the internal consistency reliability of the SRQ used in the study. Internal consistency refers to the degree to which responses are consistent across the items within an instrument (Green & Salkind, 2014) and is measured on a scale from 0 (no internal reliability) to 1 (perfect internal reliability). To determine the reliability of the SRQ, the researcher used Cronbach’s alpha, a commonly used measure of reliability in social sciences (Diedenhofen & Musch, 2016). Guidelines provided by Jain and Angural (2017) were used to interpret the results, with a Cronbach's alpha of ≥ .9 considered excellent, .9 > α ≥ .8 considered good, .8 > α ≥ .7 considered acceptable, .7 > α ≥ .6 considered questionable, .6 > α ≥ .5 considered poor, and < .5 considered unacceptable. The results of the internal consistency of the SRQ are presented in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3

The Internal Consistency of the 13 Constructs of the SRQ

Construct	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha	Acceptable level
1. Compensation and Benefits (CB)	15	.91	Excellent
2. Job Characteristics (JC)	4	.58	Poor
3. Training and Development (TD)	6	.85	Good
4. Supervisory Support (SS)	6	.85	Good
5. Career Growth and Development (CGD)	6	.71	Acceptable
6. Work-life Balance (WLB)	4	.85	Good
7. Employee Engagement (EE)	7	.84	Good
8. Organisational Support (OS)	12	.89	Good
9. Ethical Leadership (EL)	14	.96	Excellent
10. Job Satisfaction (JS)	5	.94	Excellent
11. Meaningful Job (MJ)	10	.89	Good
12. Organisational Culture (OC)	67	.97	Excellent
13. Intention to Leave (IL)	6	.79	Acceptable
Total	162	.98	Excellent

Note. Compiled by researcher

Table 7.3 presents the results of the internal consistency reliability of the SRQ used in the study. The table indicates that all the constructs had reliabilities greater than .7, except for the construct of job characteristics, which had a poor reliability of .58. According to Jain and Angural (2017), low reliability can be attributed to factors such as having less questions, items that are partly related to each other, or diversity in questionnaire construction. However, Hair et al. (2019) state that in the social sciences, a reliability as low as .6 can still be considered acceptable for research.

Since the reliability of .58 is close to .6, the researcher decided to retain the construct. The other constructs had reliabilities above the acceptable levels, and the overall reliability of the instrument was .98, considered excellent. Thus, the instrument was considered reliable, and the data emanating from it could be used for further data analysis.

7.5 FACTOR ANALYSIS

The researcher used factor analysis (FA) to identify underlying relationships among the measured variables in the study in order to identify a set of latent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). The questions of the SRQ were subjected to PCA using SPSS version 22 (IBM, 2015). PCA was utilised in the current study as it is the solution of choice for the researcher who is primarily interested in reducing a large number of variables down to a smaller number of components (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). PCA focuses on the minimum number of factors needed to account for the maximum portion of the total variance represented in the original set of variables, and prior knowledge suggests that specific and error variance represent a relatively small proportion of the total variance (Hair et al., 2019). PCA is also useful as an initial step in factor analysis where it reveals a great deal about maximum number and nature of factors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

This study's sample size was 685, and a split-sample approach was used, where PCA was conducted on a random sample of 300, and confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the other randomly selected part of the sample (n = 385). The sample size of 300 used for PCA was assessed for factor analysis adequacy and suitability using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The KMO value was .9, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity reached statistical significance at the $p < .001$ level, supporting the factorability of the data.

The next step was to select the appropriate number of factors to include in the model. The researcher aimed to balance parsimony (a model with relatively few factors) and plausibility (that there are enough factors to account for correlations among measured variables) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). It is better to include too many factors (overfactoring) than too few factors (underfactoring) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

Hair et al. (2019) explain that there are several methods for determining the optimal number of factors to retain in PCA. They note that most researchers do not use a single method. For this study, the researcher used two commonly used methods: Kaiser's (1974) eigenvalue-greater-than-one rule and parallel analysis (PA).

1. Kaiser's (1974) eigenvalue-greater-than-one rule (K1 rule)

Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) state that the eigenvalue of a factor reflects the amount of variance in the variables explained by the factor. The lower the eigenvalue, the less that factor contributes to explaining variance in the variables. Using Kaiser's (1974) K1 rule, the researcher computed the eigenvalues for the correlation matrix to determine how many eigenvalues were greater than 1. This number would be the number of factors to include in the model.

PCA, using the 162 original items of the SRQ, revealed 11 components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (down from the original 13 constructs measured by the SRQ). Table 7.4 shows these 11 components, which cumulatively explain 56.82% of the variance in the data. The researcher decided to retain these 11 components, as the total amount of variation explained by the factor solution indicates that it is robust, explaining more than 50% of the total variance (Pallant, 2020).

Table 7.4

Total Variance Explained by 11 Components Obtained from the Principal Component Analysis with the 162 Items of the Staff Retention Questionnaire

Component	Initial eigenvalues		
	Eigenvalues	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	28.85	24.66	24.66
2	7.82	6.68	31.34
3	6.14	5.25	36.59
4	4.99	4.23	40.86

5	3.74	3.19	44.06
6	3.18	2.72	46.78
7	2.77	2.37	49.15
8	2.43	2.07	51.22
9	2.34	1.99	53.22
10	2.18	1.66	55.08
11	2.04	1.74	56.82

Note. Compiled by researcher

2. Parallel Analysis (PA)

PA is a statistical method for determining the number of components to retain in a PCA. The method compares the eigenvalues generated from the data matrix to the eigenvalues generated from a Monte-Carlo simulated matrix created from random data of the same size (Hayton et al., 2004). Eigenvalues that exceed the corresponding values from the random data set are retained (Pallant, 2020). Hayton et al. (2004) explain in more detail that PA involves constructing a number of correlation matrices of random variables based on the same sample size and number of variables in the real data set. The average eigenvalues from the random correlation matrices are then compared to the eigenvalues from the real data correlation matrix, such that the first observed eigenvalue is compared to the first random eigenvalue, the second observed eigenvalue is compared to the second random eigenvalue, and so on. Components corresponding to actual eigenvalues that are greater than the parallel average random eigenvalues should be retained. Actual eigenvalues less than or equal to the parallel average random eigenvalues are considered due to sampling error (Hayton et al., 2004).

In the current study, SPSS version 22 (IBM, 2015) was used to conduct a PA following the steps proposed by Hayton et al. (2004). As Hayton et al. (2004) explain, the mean or the 95th percentile of each eigenvalue generated from the random data (n = 300) can be used when comparing the generated and actual eigenvalues. In this study, the means were used. From this comparison, components from the real data with eigenvalues greater than the corresponding eigenvalue from the random data (the mean) were retained. These results are shown in Table 7.5, which indicates that the values of the first 11 actual eigenvalues are greater than the mean values generated by PA and these 11 components were thus retained.

The factor structure obtained from the Eigenvalues and PA processes was interpreted, and a final solution was selected (Hair et al., 2019). The unrotated factor matrix, which contained the factor loadings for each variable on each factor, was the source of this structure.

According to Hair et al. (2019), an unrotated factor solution reduces data but does not provide an adequate interpretation of the variables under examination. They argue that rotation should simplify the factor structure, and a rotational method should be employed for a simpler and theoretically more meaningful factor solution.

Hair et al. (2019) note that no specific rules have been developed to guide researchers in selecting an orthogonal or oblique rotational technique. In this study, the Varimax orthogonal rotation method was used as it is the simplest form of rotation and the correlation matrix suggested minimal significant relationships between factors.

Table 7.5

Parallel Analysis Results

				Random data eigenvalues
Component	Actual eigenvalues	Percentage of variance explained (%)	Cumulative (%)	Mean
1	28.85	24.66	24.66	2.55
2	7.82	6.68	31.34	2.46
3	6.14	5.25	36.59	2.39
4	4.99	4.23	40.86	2.32
5	3.74	3.19	44.06	2.27
6	3.18	2.72	46.78	2.22
7	2.77	2.37	49.15	2.17

8	2.43	2.07	51.22	2.12
9	2.34	1.99	53.22	2.08
10	2.18	1.66	55.08	2.04
11	2.04	1.74	56.82	1.99

Note. Compiled by researcher

As shown in Table 7.6, the rotated solution revealed a simple structure, with each of the 11 components showing a number of significant loadings. Loadings less than .4 were excluded from the solution, as suggested by Hair et al. (2019).

Table 7.6

Rotated Component Matrix: Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Orthogonal Rotation

Ques no.	Question content	Component 1 loadings
C3.4	Management does their best to ensure the success of change	.683
C3.13	Change in the company is a well-planned process	.660
C3.8	Employees are adequately informed about what other divisions are doing	.650
C5.5	The company takes purposeful action to integrate its core values with all activities and results	.633
C3.10	In the company, those persons in positions of authority delegate as much power as is required to complete the tasks successfully	.629
C5.4	Executive Management keeps employees informed about the strategy of the company	.626
C3.2	Employees are continuously encouraged to develop better work procedures and methods	.622

Ques no.	Question content	Component 1 loadings
C3.3	The achievement of goals is considered as important; therefore, enough time is spent on implementation	.602
C3.7	Performance evaluation is succeeded with development interviews during which training and development actions are jointly planned	.599
C4.13	The company responds quickly to changes in the internal and external environment	.591
C3.9	Employees and managers collectively formulate objectives	.589
C3.16	The company is known for its innovative products and/or services	.580
C2.3	The activities of the various divisions are coordinated and aligned	.577
C2.12	The company recognises and manages the impact of change on the business	.571
C4.9	The company is managed effectively	.535
C3.1	Rules and regulations are continuously reviewed and upgraded to cope with change	.529
C3.15	Performance feedback sessions are held with employees weekly/monthly to evaluate their performance against predetermined	.529
C3.14	Performance/achievement is evaluated objectively according to actual results	.524
C4.11	When decisions are made at higher levels, those affected most by these decisions are consulted	.523
C4.6	There is openness in the company on matters that are important to me	.518

Ques no.	Question content	Component 1 loadings
C4.7	A visible trust relationship exists between employees and management	.492
C2.9	We are all clear about our roles	.482
C4.8	Employees are given the opportunity to make a contribution in identifying the outputs for their own division	.480
C3.5	Our employees display a professional image in their contact with the public	.452
C3.6	Employees are committed to change that will improve the company	.438
B12.4	Is honest and can be trusted to tell the truth	.807
B12.5	Keeps his/her actions consistent with his/her stated values	.792
B12.10	Regards honesty and integrity as important personal values	.774
B12.3	Sets an example of ethical behaviour in his/her decisions and actions	.773
B12.11	Sets an example of dedication and self-sacrifice for the organisation	.770
B12.8	Insists on doing what is fair and ethical even when it is not easy	.751
B12.7	Can be trusted to carry out promises and commitments	.726
B12.9	Acknowledges mistakes and takes responsibility for them	.717
B12.12	Opposes the use of unethical practices to increase performance	.697
B12.1	Shows a strong concern for ethical and moral values	.688
B12.14	Puts the needs of others above his/her own self-interest	.681

Ques no.	Question content	Component 1 loadings
B12.13	Is fair and objective when evaluating member performance and providing rewards	.669
B12.6	Is fair and unbiased when assigning tasks to employees	.664
B12.15	Holds employees accountable for using ethical practices in their work	.610
B12.2	Communicates clear ethical standards to employees	.604
B14.2	I understand how my job contributes to my life meaning	.798
B14.1	I have found a meaningful career	.798
B14.6	My work helps me better understand myself	.784
B14.3	I have a good sense of what makes my job meaningful	.783
B14.5	I know my work is contributing to my personal growth	.778
B13.2	I like doing the things I do at work	.762
B13.5	I feel my work is fulfilling	.711
B13.1	My job is meaningful to me	.701
B13.4	My job is enjoyable	.701
B14.4	I have discovered the work that has a satisfying purpose	.681
B14.7	My work helps me make sense of the world around me	.677
B14.10	The work I do serve a greater purpose	.668
B14.9	I know my work makes a positive difference to the world	.487
B1.8	The value of my benefits	.810
B1.4	My current total salary package	.807
B1.1	My benefits package	.796

Ques no.	Question content	Component 1 loadings
B1.11	The number of benefits I receive	.744
B1.7	The competitiveness of my total salary package (base pay, benefits, and incentives)	.739
B1.14	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organisations offer	.665
B1.10	Size of my current financial incentive	.630
B1.3	The information about pay issues provided by the company	.619
B1.5	The company’s pay structure	.616
B1.13	How the company administers pay	.560
B1.9	Consistency of the company’s pay policies	.551
B1.2	My most recent raise	.548
C1.2	My immediate manager sets an example everyone can follow – he/she walks the talk	.779
C1.3	My immediate manager/supervisor does a good job at people management	.778
C1.5	My immediate manager/supervisor encourages teamwork among members of my division	.740
C1.6	I get along well with my immediate manager/supervisor	.717
C1.7	My immediate manager/supervisor encourages subordinates to give their opinion regarding work matters	.708
C1.1	My immediate manager/supervisor treats staff consistently (in the same way) irrespective of who you are	.680
C1.4	My immediate manager/supervisor is competent; he/she knows his/her job	.629

Ques no.	Question content	Component 1 loadings
C1.8	Managers in my department recognise the value of working with a team of diverse employees	.619
B4.3	The supervisor almost never gives me feedback about how well I complete my work (Reverse coded) (RC)	-.542
B4.2	I feel undervalued by my supervisor (RC)	-.541
B4.5	My supervisor seldom recognises an employee for work well done (RC)	-.469
C6.2	We are serious about the social responsibility – respect for the environment is clearly visible in our activities	.622
C6.1	I am satisfied with the company's involvement in the community	.610
C6.3	The company shares its success with the community	.557
C5.2	I fully understand the mission of the company	.516
C5.1	I understand the overall objectives of the company	.491
C7.3	I understand the company's Employment Equity strategy	.488
B3.2	Sufficient time is allocated for product and solution training	.715
B3.1	This company is providing me with job-specific training	.685
B3.3	I can apply the training I receive in this organisation	.611
B3.6	I have the opportunity to be involved in activities that promote my professional development	.600
B3.5	Sufficient money is allocated for product and solution training	.576

Ques no.	Question content	Component 1 loadings
B3.4	There are enough development opportunities for me in this company	.525
B11.5	Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice (RC)	-.631
B11.4	My organisation would ignore any complaint from me (RC)	-.609
B11.8	The organisation shows very little concern for me (RC)	-.550
B5.1	My chances for being promoted are good	.513
B11.2	My organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me (RC)	-.427
B6.2	My work schedule is often in conflict with my personal life (RC)	.844
B6.3	My job affects my role as a spouse and/or parent (RC)	.816
B6.4	My job has negative effects on my personal life (RC)	.723
B6.1	I often feel like there is too much work to do (RC)	.545
B8.3	I take an active interest in what happens in this organisation	.654
B8.6	I look for ways to do my job more effectively	.614
B8.5	I feel inspired to go the extra mile to help this organisation succeed	.567
B8.2	I feel a sense of commitment to this organisation	.487
B7.5	Would leave for more pay in another company	-.641
B7.6	Would leave for a promotion	-.604
B7.2	Do you intend to leave this company voluntarily in the near future?	-.536

B7.4	I am currently searching for employment outside the organisation	-.525

Note. Compiled by researcher

The researcher studied the component pattern and component loadings in Table 7.6 to label the 11 PCA-extracted components and considered the constructs of staff retention from the literature review and the original staff retention construct names used in the SRQ (Hair et al., 2019). The 11 extracted components were named as follows:

- Component 1: Organisational Culture (OC)
- Component 2: Ethical Leadership (EL)
- Component 3: Meaningful Job (MJ)
- Component 4: Compensation & Benefits (CB)
- Component 5: Supervisory Support (SS)
- Component 6: Internal & External Relationships (RR)
- Component 7: Training & Development (TD)
- Component 8: Organisational Support (OS)
- Component 9: Work-Life Balance (WLB)
- Component 10: Employee Engagement (EE)
- Component 11: Intention to Leave (IL) (Dependent variable)

The measurement scales for the extracted components were obtained by calculating the means of the items loading on each of the scales. These scales were then subjected to an internal consistency reliability analysis. According to Green and Salkind (2014) and Hair et al. (2019), the generally agreed upon lower limit for Cronbach's alpha in an internal consistency reliability analysis is .7. Using this guideline, each of the extracted 11 components demonstrated acceptable internal consistency reliability as illustrated by the Cronbach's alpha coefficients listed in Table 7.7, which ranged from a low of .720 to a high of .958.

A confirmatory factor analysis as part of the SEM process was conducted using the 106 items and 11 components specified in Table 7.75 to specify and validate the measurement and structural models. This was the next step required to validate the previously proposed theoretical model of staff retention (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 7.7

Reliability Statistics for the 11 Extracted Components

Component no.	Description	No of items	Cronbach's alpha
1	Organisational Culture (OC)	25	.886
2	Ethical Leadership (EL)	15	.958
3	Meaningful Job (MJ)	13	.896
4	Compensation & Benefits (CB)	12	.887
5	Supervisory Support (SS)	11	.907
6	Internal & External Relationships (RR)	7	.903
7	Training & Development (TD)	6	.823
8	Organisational Support (OS)	5	.758
9	Work-Life Balance (WLB)	4	.885
10	Employee Engagement (EE)	4	.720
11	Intention to Leave (IL)	4	.795
		106	

Note. Compiled by researcher

7.6 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING

SEM is a collection of statistical techniques that allow for the examination of relationships between independent and dependent variables, both continuous and discrete. SEM examines the structure of interrelationships expressed in a series of equations, similar to multiple regression equations. These equations depict all of the relationships among the constructs involved in the analysis. Constructs are unobservable or latent factors represented by multiple variables. SEM is used to evaluate the validity of theories with empirical data, with the goal of determining whether a hypothesised model is consistent with collected data.

In this study, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test whether the data obtained from the study survey fit the developed and specified measurement model in Chapter 5. A split-sample approach was used, as advocated by Fokkema and Greiff (2017), on the total sample of 685. Factor analysis in the form of a PCA was conducted on part of the sample (*n* = 300), and CFA was conducted on the other part of the sample (*n* = 385). The CFA was conducted using the 106 items and 11 components extracted with the PCA technique during the factor analysis phase.

The SEM procedure followed under stage 4 was to try and find the best model fit with the study survey data obtained from the SRQ by conducting a CFA on the data using SPSS AMOS version 26. Measurement model validity depends on two things: (1) establishing acceptable levels of goodness-of-fit (GOF) indices for the measurement model (fit validity) and (2) finding other specific evidence of construct validity. The first aspect, namely establishing acceptable levels of GOF indices, is reported under Section **7.6.1: Confirmatory Factor Analysis**. The second aspect, namely construct validity, is reported under Section **7.6.2 Construct Validity of the Model.**

7.6.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

7.6.1.1 Developing and specifying the measurement (baseline) model

As previously stated, a CFA using maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) was conducted using the 11 components and 106 items extracted during the EFA. The measurement (baseline) model developed and specified is depicted in Figure 7.1, and the following labels were used:

- Organisational Culture (OC) – AAA
- Ethical Leadership (EL) – BBB

- Meaningful Job (MJ) – CCC
- Compensation and Benefits (CB) – DDD
- Supervisory Support (SS) – EEE
- External and Internal Relationships (RR) – FFF
- Training and Development (TD) – GGG
- Organisational Support (OS) – HHH
- Work-Life Balance (WLB) – III
- Employee Engagement (EE) – JJJ
- Staff Retention (IL) (Independent Variable) – KKK

Figure 7.1

The Specified Baseline Measurement Model

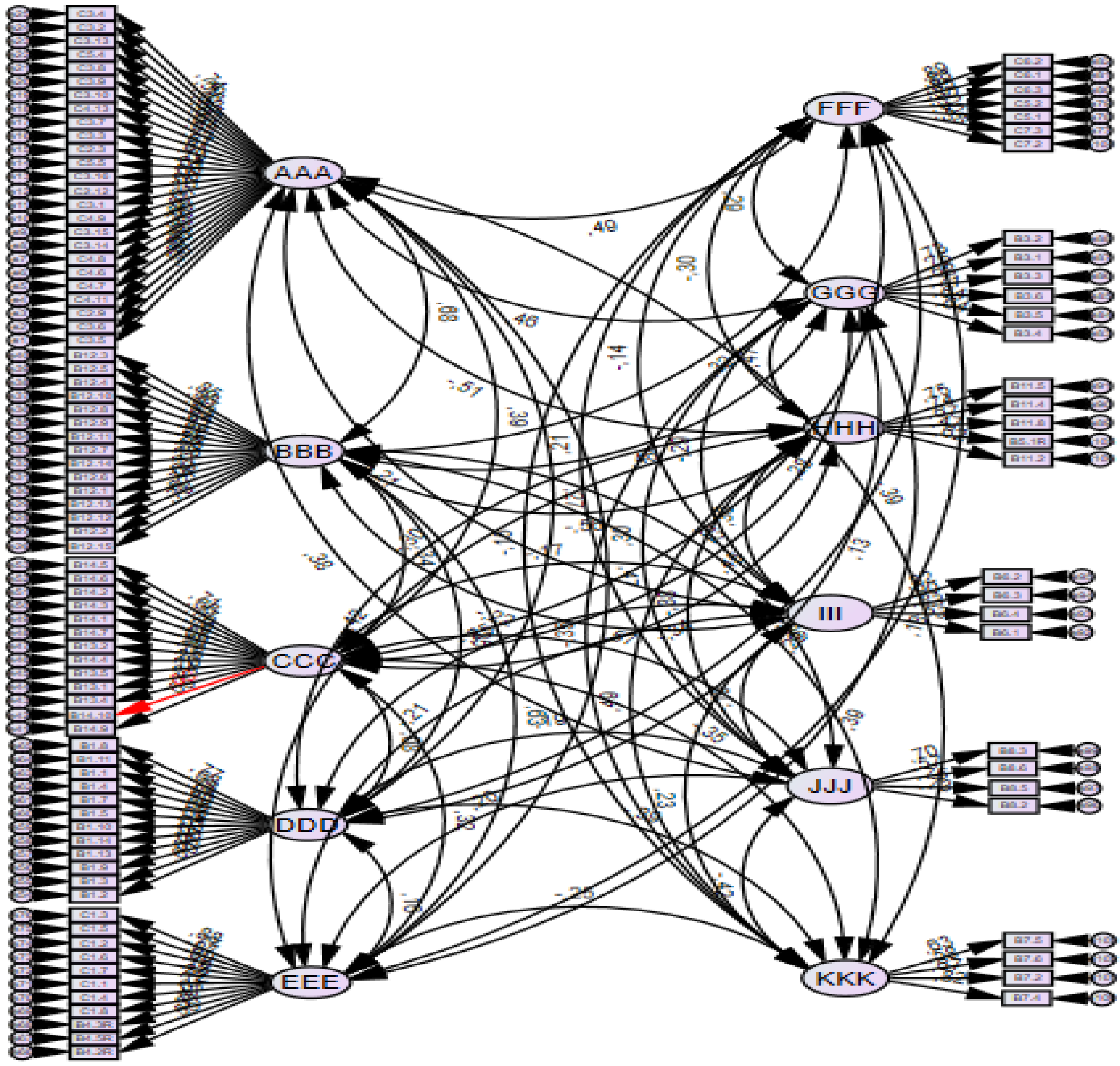


Table 7.8 presents the standardised regression weights of the 106 items (manifested variables) and the 11 latent variables of the measurement (baseline) model depicted in Figure 7.2. All estimates in Table 7.8 are statistically significant at the .001 level (the lowest was question C5.2 at .295, while the highest was question B6.3 at .910).

Table 7.8

Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates of Regression Weights of the 106 Items (Manifested Variables) and 11 Latent Variables (p < .001)

Manifested variables		Latent variable	Estimate
C3.5	<---	1 Organisational Culture (OC)	.505
C3.6	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.565
C2.9	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.596
C4.11	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.676
C4.7	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.683
C4.6	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.745
C4.8	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.661
C3.14	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.668
C3.15	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.606
C4.9	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.752
C3.1	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.597
C2.12	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.681
C3.16	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.643
C5.5	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.696
C2.3	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.606
C3.3	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.674
C3.7	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.714

Manifested variables		Latent variable	Estimate
C4.13	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.673
C3.10	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.61
C3.9	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.671
C3.8	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.666
C5.4	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.623
C3.13	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.756
C3.2	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.588
C3.4	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.744
B12.15	<---	2 Ethical Leadership (EL)	.733
B12.2	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.672
B12.12	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.737
B12.13	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.688
B12.1	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.768
B12.6	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.731
B12.14	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.802
B12.7	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.852
B12.11	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.816
B12.9	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.824
B12.8	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.836
B12.10	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.826
B12.4	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.871
B12.5	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.883
B12.3	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.852
B14.9	<---	3 Meaningful Job (MJ)	.653
B14.10	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.633
B13.4	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.843

Manifested variables		Latent variable	Estimate
B13.1	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.758
B13.5	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.854
B14.4	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.794
B13.2	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.803
B14.7	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.684
B14.1	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.786
B14.3	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.757
B14.2	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.771
B14.6	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.656
B14.5	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.714
B1.2	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits (CB)	.597
B1.3	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.658
B1.9	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.58
B1.13	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.496
B1.14	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.64
B1.10	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.656
B1.5	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.664
B1.7	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.800
B1.4	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.839
B1.1	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.781
B1.11	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.681
B1.8	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.767
B4.2R	<---	5 Supervisory Support (SS)	.554
B4.5R	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.312
B4.3R	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.472

Manifested variables		Latent variable	Estimate
C1.8	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.607
C1.4	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.724
C1.1	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.832
C1.7	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.763
C1.6	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.687
C1.2	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.874
C1.5	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.773
C1.3	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.880
C7.3	<---	6 Internal & External Relations (RR)	.416
C5.1	<---	6 Internal & External Relations	.321
C5.2	<---	6 Internal & External Relations	.295
C6.3	<---	6 Internal & External Relations	.846
C6.1	<---	6 Internal & External Relations	.865
C6.2	<---	6 Internal & External Relations	.889
C7.2	<---	6 Internal & External Relations	.382
B3.4	<---	7 Training & Development (TD)	.642
B3.5	<---	7 Training & Development	.645
B3.6	<---	7 Training & Development	.708
B3.3	<---	7 Training & Development	.682
B3.1	<---	7 Training & Development	.749
B3.2	<---	7 Training & Development	.735
B11.4	<---	8 Organisational Support (OS)	.742
B11.5	<---	8 Organisational Support	.746
B5.1R	<---	8 Organisational Support	.471

Manifested variables		Latent variable	Estimate
B11.2	<---	8 Organisational Support	.615
B11.8	<---	8 Organisational Support	.671
B6.1	<---	9 Work-Life Balance (WLB)	.528
B6.4	<---	9 Work-Life Balance	.831
B6.3	<---	9 Work-Life Balance	.901
B6.2	<---	9 Work-Life Balance	.821
B8.2	<---	10 Employee Engagement (EE)	.733
B8.5	<---	10 Employee Engagement	.750
B8.6	<---	10 Employee Engagement	.570
B8.3	<---	10 Employee Engagement	.702
B7.4	<---	11 Intention to Leave (IL)	.823
B7.6	<---	11 Intention to Leave	.578
B7.5	<---	11 Intention to Leave	.631
B7.2	<---	11 Intention to Leave	.672

7.6.1.2 Assessing the Measurement (Baseline) Model Validity

To establish acceptable levels of goodness-of-fit (GOF) for the measurement (baseline) model (fit validity), as stated in Chapter 6, it was decided to use the following three absolute fit indices, three incremental fit indices, and one parsimony fit index as indicated in Table 7.9:

Table 7.9

Acceptable Threshold Levels for Model Goodness-of-Fit Indices

Indices	Name	Threshold levels
Absolute fit indices		
CMIN	Chi-square (X2)	When the ration of X2 to degrees of freedom is less than 2, a good fit is indicated
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index	Ranges between 0 and 1, with values of greater than .9 indicating good model fit
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	Values of ≤ .06 indicate acceptable model fit
Incremental fit indices		
NFI	Normed-Fit Index	Values range between 0 and 1, with values ≥ .95 indicating good model fit
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index	Values can fall below 0 or above 1, with values ≥ .90 indicating good model fit
CFI	Comparative Fit Index	Values range from 0 to 1, with values ≥ .90 indicating good model fit
Parsimony fit index		
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index	Values range between 0 and 1, with values ≥ .9 indicating good model fit

Note. Adapted from *Multivariate Data Analysis* (8th ed.), by J.F. Hair, W.C. Black, B.J. Babin, & R.E. Anderson, 2019, Prentice-Hall; *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modelling* (3rd ed.), by R.B. Kline, 2011, The Guilford Press; *Using Multivariate Statistics* (5th ed.), by B.G. Tabachnick & L.S. Fidell, 2007, Pearson.

The GOF Indices obtained for the measurement (baseline) model are indicated in Table 7.10.

Table 7.10

Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the Measurement (Baseline) Model

Indices		Value
Absolute fit indices		
CMIN	Chi-square (X2)	10886.84
Df	Degrees of freedom	5404
CMIN/df	X2 divided by df	.20
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index	.65
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	.051
Incremental fit indices		
NFI	Normed-Fit Index	.66
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index	.79
CFI	Comparative Fit Index	.80
Parsimony fit index		
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index	.63

To evaluate the measurement (baseline) model’s fit, the following fit indices were used:

- CMIN (Chi-square). A chi-square of 10886.84 with 5404 degrees of freedom produced a ratio of 2.015 ($p \leq .001$), which is on the threshold for a good model fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).
- Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI). A GFI of .65 was obtained, which does not indicate a good model fit.
- Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). An RMSEA of .051 was obtained, which indicates a good model fit.
- Normed-Fit Index (NFI). An NFI of .66 was obtained, which does not indicate a good model fit.
- Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). A TLI of .79 was obtained, which does not indicate a good model fit.
- Comparative Fit Index (CFI). A CFI of .80 was obtained, which does not indicate a good model fit.
- Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI). An AGFI of .63 was obtained, which does not indicate a good model fit.

The measurement (baseline) model did not meet all the minimum threshold requirements for a good model fit. Therefore, adjustments to the original model were necessary to improve the model fit, as suggested by Hair et al. (2019). Two approaches to improving model fit propagated by Hair et al. (2019) were utilised, namely removing items that have low loadings and identifying those items with high standardised residuals. The cut-off point used for low loadings was < .7 as suggested by Hair et al. (2019). This resulted in a total of 53 problematic items being identified as having too low loadings and removed from the baseline measurement model (See Table 7.11), after which a CFA was again conducted (Bishnoi & Kumar, 2016). The new CFA produced the adjusted measurement model given in Figure 7.2, and the labels used are given below Figure 7.2.

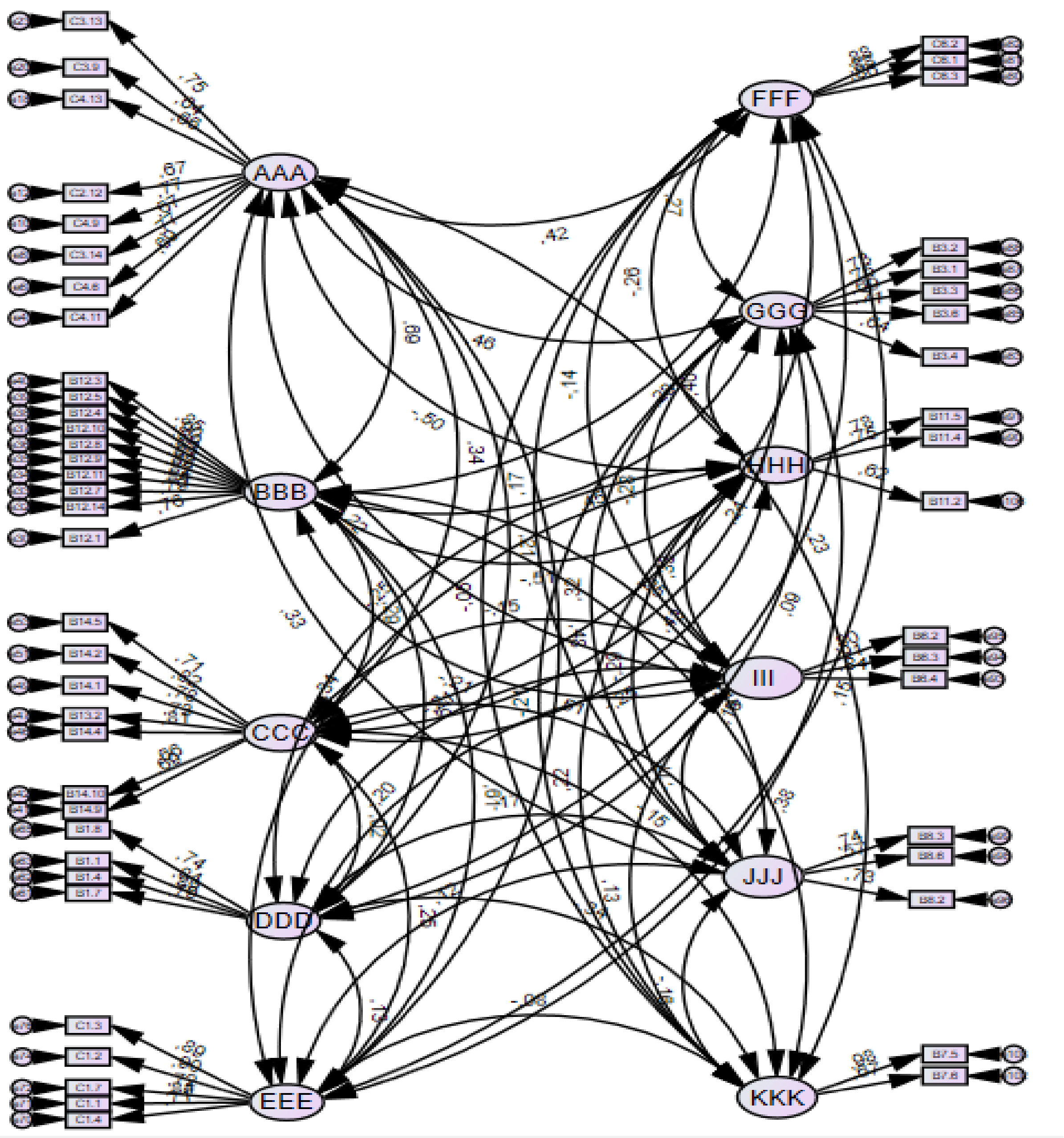
Table 7.11

Problematic Items Removed from the Baseline Model Before a New CFA was Conducted

Component no.	Description	Items removed	Items remaining
1	Organisational Culture (OC)	8	8
2	Ethical Leadership (EL)	6	10
3	Meaningful Job (MJ)	7	7
4	Compensation & Benefits (CB)	9	4
5	Supervisory Support (SS)	7	5
6	External & Internal Relationships (RR)	5	3
7	Training & Development (TD)	2	5
8	Organisational Support (OS)	3	3
9	Work-Life Balance (WLB)	2	3
10	Employee Engagement (EE)	2	3
11	Intention to Leave (IL)	2	2
		53	53

Figure 7.2

The Adjusted (Final) Measurement Model



AAA = Organisational culture (OC)

BBB = Ethical leadership (EL)

CCC = Meaningful job (MJ)

DDD = Compensation and benefits (CB)

EEE	=	Supervisory support (SS)
FFF	=	External and Internal Relationships (RR)
GGG	=	Training and development (TD)
HHH	=	Organisational support (OS)
III	=	Work-life balance (WLB)
JJJ	=	Employee engagement (EE)
KKK	=	Staff retention (IL) (independent variable)

Table 7.12

Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the Final (Adjusted) Measurement Model

Indices		Value
Absolute fit indices		
CMIN	Chi-square (X2)	2076.384
Df	Degrees of freedom	1270
CMIN/df	X2 divided by df	1.635
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index	.936
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	.041
Incremental fit indices		
NFI	Normed-Fit Index	.851
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index	.930
CFI	Comparative Fit Index	.936
Parsimony fit index		
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index	.810

To evaluate the measurement (baseline) model’s fit, the following fit indices were used:

- CMIN (Chi-square). A chi-square of 2076.384 with 1270 degrees of freedom produced a ratio of 1.634 ($p < .001$), which indicates a good model fit (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).
- Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI). A GFI of .936 was obtained, which indicates a good model fit.
- Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). An RMSEA of .041 was obtained, which indicates a good model fit.
- Normed-Fit Index (NFI). An NFI of .851 was obtained, which is below the recommended threshold of .95, indicating a poor model fit.
- Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). A TLI of .930 was obtained, which indicates a good model fit.
- Comparative Fit Index (CFI). A CFI of .936 was obtained, which indicates a good model fit.
- Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI). An AGFI of .810 was obtained, which indicates a poor model fit.

Summary: Except for the NFI and AGFI, all the other GOF indices indicated a good model fit as per the guidelines provided by various authors (Hair et al., 2019; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The adjusted model was thus accepted as being valid and was accepted as the final measurement model.

As an additional support for a good model fit, Table 7.12 indicates the standardised regression weights of the variables in the final adapted measurement model. As can be seen from Table 7.12, all estimates were statistically significant (the lowest was item B8.6 = .572 while the highest was item B7.5 = .980; $p < .001$), making further model trimming unnecessary (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 7.13

Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates of Regression Weights of the Final Measurement Model (53 Manifested Variables and 10 Latent Variables)

Manifested variable		Latent variable	Estimate
C4.11	<---	1 Organisational Culture (OC)	.692
C4.6	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.768
C3.14	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.665
C4.9	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.765
C2.12	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.675
C4.13	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.656
C3.9	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.637
C3.13	<---	1 Organisational Culture	.754
B12.1	<---	2 Ethical Leadership (EL)	.759
B12.14	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.794
B12.7	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.845
B12.11	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.816
B12.9	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.821
B12.8	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.827
B12.10	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.829
B12.4	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.888
B12.5	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.897
B12.3	<---	2 Ethical Leadership	.854
B14.9	<---	3 Meaningful Job (MJ)	.688
B14.10	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.661
B14.4	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.811
B13.2	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.733

Manifested variable		Latent variable	Estimate
B14.1	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.779
B14.2	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.817
B14.5	<---	3 Meaningful Job	.712
B1.7	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits (CB)	.786
B1.4	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.892
B1.1	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.836
B1.8	<---	4 Compensation & Benefits	.738
C1.4	<---	5 Supervisory Support (SS)	.713
C1.1	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.842
C1.7	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.718
C1.2	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.905
C1.3	<---	5 Supervisory Support	.887
C6.3	<---	6 Internal & External Relations (RR)	.858
C6.1	<---	6 Internal & External Relations	.885
C6.2	<---	6 Internal & External Relations	.885
B3.4	<---	7 Training & Development (TD)	.636
B3.6	<---	7 Training & Development	.707
B3.3	<---	7 Training & Development	.688
B3.1	<---	7 Training & Development	.747
B3.2	<---	7 Training & Development	.732
B11.4	<---	8 Organisational Support (OS)	.751
B11.5	<---	8 Organisational Support	.778
B11.2	<---	8 Organisational Support	.621
B6.4	<---	9 Work-Life Balance (WLB)	.839

Manifested variable		Latent variable	Estimate
B6.3	<---	9 Work-Life Balance	.910
B6.2	<---	9 Work-Life Balance	.803
B8.2	<---	10 Employee Engagement (EE)	.727
B8.6	<---	10 Employee Engagement	.572
B8.3	<---	10 Employee Engagement	.739
B7.6	<---	11 Intention to Leave (IL)	.675
B7.5	<---	11 Intention to Leave	.980

7.6.2 Construct validity of the model

The construct validity of the final measurement model was assessed by measuring (1) nomological and face validity, (2) convergent validity, and (3) discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2019).

7.6.2.1 Nomological and face validity of the final measurement model

Nomological validity examines whether the correlations between the constructs in the measurement theory are logical. In this case, the matrix of construct correlations was used for assessment (Hair et al., 2019). Face validity, on the other hand, refers to the extent to which a scale's content appears to logically reflect what is intended to be measured (Quinlan et al., 2019). Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to assess nomological validity at a 5% level of significance. These correlations enabled the researcher to identify the direction and strength of the linear relationship between each of the variables: $r \leq .10$ (small practical effect), $r > .10$ but $\leq .29$ (low practical effect), $r \geq .30 \leq .49$ (medium practical effect) and $r \geq .50$ (large practical effect), according to Pallant (2011). The correlations between the variables in the final measurement model are shown in Table 7.14.

Intention to leave (IL) had a statistically significant (at the $p \leq .01$ level) negative relationship with all the variables in the model, except for External & internal relationships (RR), which was -.045. According to the guidelines provided by Pallant (2011), most of the correlations were of a small, low or medium effect, with only two correlations having a large practical effect (EL and OC = .634; EL and SS = .567), both at the $p \leq .01$ level). However, the correlation between the constructs in the measurement theory makes sense; thus, it can be concluded that nomological and face validity were achieved.

7.6.2.2 Convergent validity of the final measurement model

According to Salkind (2018), convergent validity is a component of construct validity in which method variance is shared when measuring the same trait. Convergent validity was assessed by considering the loadings of all 11 constructs in the final model on the composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). These measures are commonly used to assess convergent validity (Hair et al., 2019). All the CR loadings were above the recommended threshold of .70 proposed by Hair et al. (2019), and all the CRs were higher than the AVEs. All the AVE loadings were above the recommended threshold of .5 proposed by Hair et al. (2019), except for three constructs: Organisational culture (OC) (.495), Training & development (TD) (.494), and Employee engagement (EE) (.467). However, these three loadings were so close to the suggested .5 that they can be considered acceptable (Bishnoi & Kumar, 2016). Furthermore, all the CR loadings were greater than the AVE loadings, which indicates convergent validity (Hair et al., 2019). Therefore, it can be concluded that the final measurement model has achieved convergent validity. Table 7.15 presents the CR and AVE loadings for the 11 constructs in the final measurement model.

Table 7.14

Correlations Between Variables in the Final Measurement Model

	OC	EL	MJ	CB	SS	RR	TD	OS	WLB	EE	IL
OC	-										
EL	.634**	-									
MJ	.293**	.257**	-								
CB	.188**	.215**	.102**	-							
SS	.455**	.567**	.247**	.136**	-						
RR	.394**	.264**	.200**	.125**	.206**	-					
TD	.439**	.408**	.335**	.175**	.316**	.259**	-				
OS	-.422**	-.416**	-.216**	-.245**	-.300**	-.226**	-.318**	-			
WLB	-.158**	-.137**	-.042	-.172**	-.132**	-.116**	-.240**	.243	-		
EE	.258**	.223**	.439**	.188**	.150**	.142**	.254**	-.207	-.094	-	
IL	-.209**	-.179**	-.144**	-.291**	-.102**	-.045	-.198**	.190	.082	-.134	-

* = p ≤ .05

** = p ≤ .01

The meaning of the abbreviations are as follows:

OC	=	Organisational culture
EL	=	Ethical leadership
MJ	=	Meaningful job
CB	=	Compensation and benefits
SS	=	Supervisory support
RR	=	External and internal relationships
TD	=	Training and development
OS	=	Organisational support
WLB	=	Work-life balance
EE	=	Employee engagement
IL	=	Staff retention (IL) (independent variable)

Table 7.15

CR and AVE Loadings for the 11 Constructs of the Final Measurement Model

Model construct	CR	AVE
Organisational culture (OC)	.886	.495
Ethical leadership (EL)	.958	.695
Meaningful job (MJ)	.897	.556
Compensation & benefits (CB)	.887	.664
Supervisory support (SS)	.909	.668
Internal & external relationships RR)	.908	.767
Training & development (TD)	.830	.494
Organisational support (OS)	.762	.518
Work-life balance (WLB)	.888	.725
Employee engagement (EE)	.722	.467
Intention to leave (IL)	.824	.708

7.6.2.3 Discriminant validity of the final measurement model

Discriminant validity is a component of construct validity in which trait variance is shared when using the same method (Salkind, 2018). It represents the uniqueness or distinctiveness of a measure; a scale should not correlate too highly with a measure of a different construct. High discriminant validity provides evidence that a construct is unique and captures phenomena that other measures do not (Hair et al., 2019).

In this study, the Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlation was used to assess discriminant validity of the adapted (final) measurement model (Hamid et al., 2017). The HTMT method examines the ratio of between-trait correlations to within-trait correlations of two constructs. It examines the correlations of indicators across constructs to the correlations of indicators within a construct. If the HTMT value is below .90, discriminant validity has been established between two reflective constructs (Henseler et al., 2015).

Based on the correlations reflected in Table 7.15, all the HTMT values were less than .9, suggesting that discriminant validity has been established between the 11 constructs in the adapted (final) measurement model (Hamid et al., 2017). See Table 7.15 for the meaning of the construct abbreviations used in Table 7.16.

7.7 THE STRUCTURAL MODEL

According to Hair et al. (2019), Stage 5 of the SEM process involves specifying the structural model. In SEM, the measurement model links latent variables (factors or constructs) to manifest variables (questionnaire items), while the structural model captures the hypothesised causal relationships among research constructs (Chinomona, 2013).

The structural model depicted in Figure 7.3 was specified by hypothesising relationships between the 10 staff retention factors (independent variables) and the dependent variable, Intention to Leave (IL). These hypothesised structural relationships are depicted by single-headed directional arrows in Figure 7.3, indicating the dependence relationships. The relationships hypothesised among the 11 variables are given in Table 7.17.

Table 7.16

HTMT Analysis for Discriminant Validity of the Final Measurement Model

The 11 constructs of the adapted (final) measurement model											
	OC	EL	MJ	CB	SS	RR	TD	OS	WLB	EE	IL
OC	-										
EL	.686	-									
MJ	.337	.301	-								
CB	.213	.184	.014	-							
SS	.483	.614	.268	.109	-						
RR	.421	.277	.246	.090	.176	-					
TD	.473	.452	.446	.163	.391	.270	-				
OS	.501	.508	.262	.253	.361	.261	.400	-			
WLB	.236	.221	.158	.211	.209	.141	.292	.334	-		
EE	.328	.258	.519	.170	.145	.181	.329	.252	.177	-	
IL	.260	.184	.162	.317	.117	.056	.261	.294	.137	.132	

Table 7.17

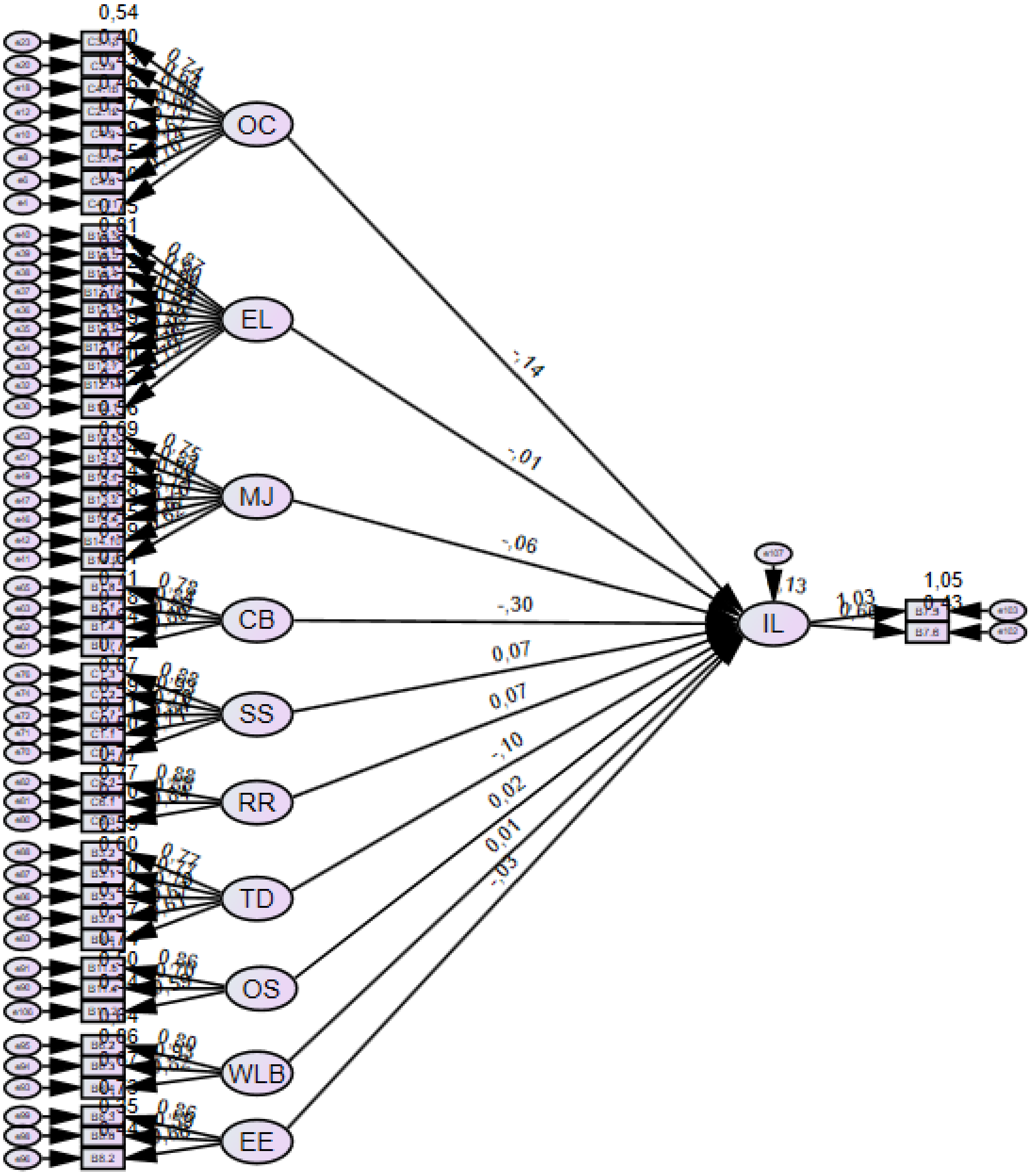
Hypothesised Structural Model Relationships

Hypothesis no.	Description
H1	Organisational culture (OC) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)
H2	Ethical leadership (EL) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)
H3	Meaningful job (MJ) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)
H4	Compensation & benefits (CB) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)
H5	Supervisory support (SS) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)
H6	Internal & external relationships (RR) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)
H7	Training & development (TD) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)
H8	Organisational support (OS) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)
H9	Work-life balance (WLB) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)
H10	Employee engagement (EE) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)

The structural model specified is given in Figure 7.3.

Figure 7.3

Specified Structural Model



The acceptability of the hypothesised structural model was assessed by considering the regression weights between the 11 latent constructs for the structural model. These are presented in Table 7.18. As can be seen in the table, only three paths were statistically significant (all with a negative relationship with the dependent variable Intention to Leave, or IL) at the p < .001 level. These were: (1) IL ← Organisational Culture (-.14); (2) IL ← Compensation and Benefits (-.30); and (3) IL

← Training and Development (-.10). The relationships between the remaining seven independent variables and IL were statistically insignificant.

Table 7.18

Structural Model Maximum Likelihood Estimates of Standardised Regression Weights

Latent constructs			Estimate	Relationship
IL	<---	OC	-.14***	Significant
IL	<---	EL	-.01	Not significant
IL	<---	MJ	-.06	Not significant
IL	<---	CB	-.30***	Significant
IL	<---	SS	.070	Not significant
IL	<---	RR	.070	Not significant
IL	<---	TD	-.10***	Significant
IL	<---	OS	.02	Not significant
IL	<---	WLB	.01	Not significant
IL	<---	EE	-.30	Not significant

*** $p < .001$

The meaning of the abbreviations are as follows:

OC = Organisational culture
EL = Ethical leadership
MJ = Meaningful job
CB = Compensation and benefits
SS = Supervisory support
RR = External and internal relationships
TD = Training and development
OS = Organisational support
WLB = Work-life balance

EE = Employee engagement

IL = Staff retention (IL) (independent variable)

7.7.1 Validating the structural model

To establish the validity of the structural model, Hair et al. (2019) recommend using the X2 value and at least one absolute fit index and one incremental fit index while using the same threshold criteria as for the measurement model. The researcher thus decided to use the Chi-square index, the RMSEA as an absolute fit index, and the TLI as an incremental fit index. The obtained model fit indices are presented in Table 7.19.

Table 7.19

Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the Structural Model

Indices		Value
Absolute fit indices		
CMIN	Chi-square (X2)	3956.00
df	Degrees of freedom	1315
CMIN/df	X2 divided by df	3.00
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	.054
Incremental fit indices		
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index	.88

The structural model was validated using three fit indices: the CMIN (Chi-square), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI).

CMIN (Chi-square). A chi-square of 3956.00 with 1315 degrees of freedom produced a ratio of 3.00 ($p < .001$), which is more than the suggested threshold of

2 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, Hair et al. (2019) stated that the SEM-estimated covariance matrix used for the structural model is different from that for the measurement model. As a result, the X2 GOF for the structural model tends to be higher than the X2 GOF for the measurement model. This was true for the current study as well, as the ratio for the final measurement model was 2.0, whereas the ratio of 3.0 for the structural model was slightly higher but still acceptable as an indicator of a good model fit (Hair et al., 2019).

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). A RMSEA of .054 was obtained, which is lower than the threshold of .06 and indicates a good model fit.

Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). A TLI of .88 was obtained, which is slightly lower than the suggested threshold of .90, but according to Ab Hamid et al. (2017), this is close enough to the threshold to still be used as an indicator of good model fit.

Summary: Because of the obtained GPD indices discussed above, the structural model can be accepted as being valid (Ab Hamid et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2019; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

7.7.2 Testing of structural model hypotheses

Table 7.20 indicates the results of the tested structural model hypotheses based on the structural model maximum likelihood estimates of the standardised regression weights reported in Table 7.20.

Table 7.20

Results of the Tested Structural Model Hypotheses

Hypothesis no.	Description	Estimate	Decision
H1	Organisational culture (OC) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)	-.14***	Accepted
H2	Ethical leadership (EL) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)	-.01	Rejected
H3	Meaningful job (MJ) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)	-.06	Rejected
H4	Compensation & benefits (CB) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)	-.30***	Accepted
H5	Supervisory support (SS) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)	.070	Rejected
H6	Internal & external relationships (RR) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)	.070	Rejected
H7	Training & development (TD) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)	-.10***	Accepted
H8	Organisational support (OS) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)	.02	Rejected

Hypothesis no.	Description	Estimate	Decision
H9	Work-life balance (WLB) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)	.01	Rejected
H10	Employee engagement (EE) has a negative influence on Intention to leave (IL)	-.30	Rejected

*** $p < .001$

All tested hypotheses had negative estimates, but only three were statistically significant at the $p < .001$ level: (1) Organisational culture (-.14), (2) Compensation and benefits (-.30) and (3) Training and development (-.10), with Compensation and benefits having the most influence on Intention to leave. Thus, to reduce the chances of employees leaving an organisation, it is necessary to ensure that a positive work culture exists, that compensation and benefits are acceptable to employees, and that they receive the necessary training and development to carry out their tasks and progress in their careers.

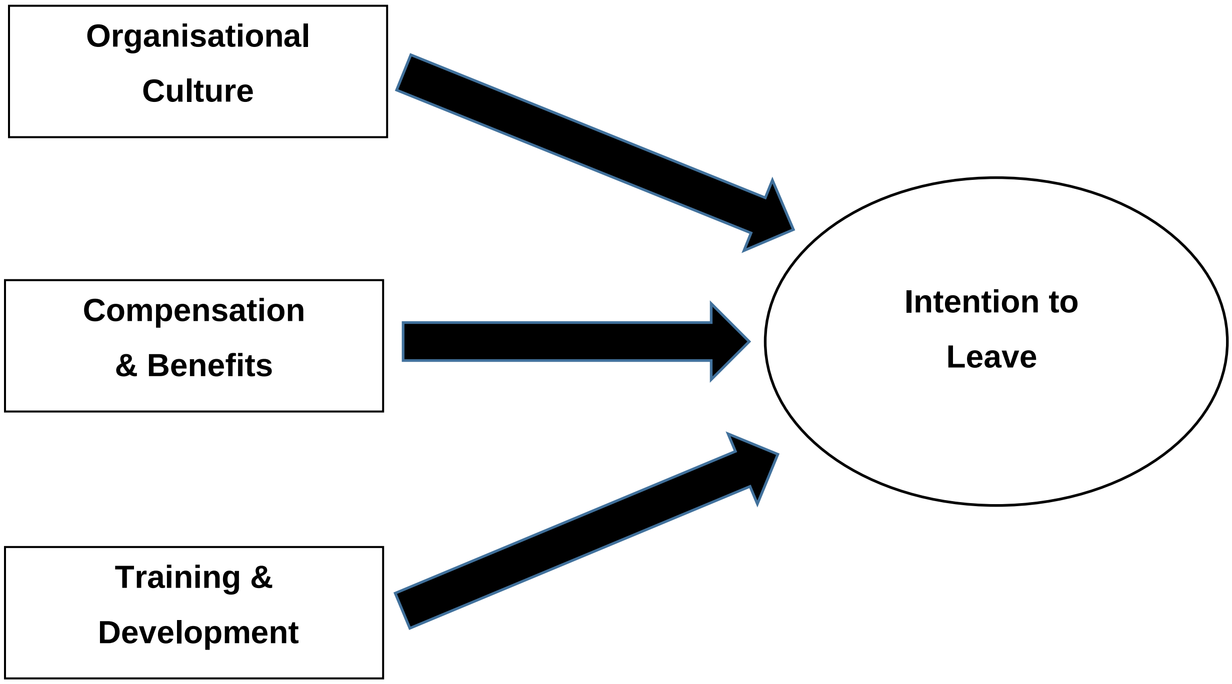
7.8 ADAPTATION OF THE ORIGINAL PROPOSED THEORETICAL STAFF RETENTION FRAMEWORK FOR SOEs IN SOUTH AFRICA TO CONFORM TO THE STRUCTURAL MODEL OF STAFF RETENTION OBTAINED FROM THE SEM PROCESS

The original proposed theoretical staff retention framework for SOEs in South Africa, developed in Chapter 5 (See Figure 5.1 in Chapter 5), consisted of 12 organisational staff retention factors (independent variables) and one dependent variable (Intention to leave). However, the results of the SEM process produced a structural model with three statistically significant staff retention factors (independent variables) and one dependent variable (Intention to leave). The originally proposed staff retention framework will thus need to be adapted. This is in line with the SEM model development strategy followed in the current study, which states that although a basic theoretical model framework is proposed, the purpose of the SEM model development strategy is to improve this theoretical framework through modifications of the measurement and/or structural models (Hair et al., 2019). Theory thus provides a starting point for the development of a theoretically justified model that can be empirically supported, and the researcher must employ SEM not just to test the model empirically but also to provide insights into its respecification/adaptation. Moreover, model respecification/adaptation needs to be done with theoretical support and not just empirical justification (Hair et al., 2019).

In this study, model adaptation was done by (1) considering the structural model produced and (2) theoretical support from the literature for the relationships indicated in the structural model, as propagated by Hair et al. (2019). This resulted in the model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa depicted in Figure 7.4.

Figure 7.4

The Final Adapted Theoretical Model of Staff Retention for SOEs in South Africa



Note. Compiled by researcher

The adapted model of staff retention depicted in Figure 7.4 addresses the research question that was formulated in Chapter 1, which asks: “Statistically, which staff retention factors are the strongest indicators of staff retention in a South African SOE?” This model is supported by multiple empirical studies.

Research has shown that organisational culture has a significant impact on employees and that a positive culture is positively correlated with employee retention (Ghosh et al., 2013; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009; Kessler-Ladelsky & Catana, 2013; Michani et al., 2015; Soni, 2013; Tansley, 2011). Furthermore, the organisation’s culture plays a critical role in retaining employees over a prolonged period (Chahal & Poonam, 2017). Organisational culture has a significant effect on employee morale and retention. It is not just about being a good employer but about having employees who are committed to the vision, mission and strategy of the organisation and possess the will and means to make these a reality. “Effective corporate culture therefore engages employees at the fundamental level and translates that engagement into high productivity” (Brenyah & Obuobisa-Darko, 2017, p. 1). According to Shah and Sarkar (2017), the main element in attracting and, most importantly, retaining key employees is culture. It is crucial for employees to feel that they are part of a team, that they share a connection to the vision, the strategic direction of the organisation, and are attached to their colleagues’ ways of working better together, ultimately leading to greater collaboration (Norman, 2012). A lack of connection with the vision affects the fit between an employee and the organisation, and thus, if the culture is not aligned with the individual’s values, retention may not be achieved or enhanced (Shah & Sarkar, 2017).

Moncarz et al. (2009), WorldatWork (2012), Yamamoto (2013), and Zimmerman et al. (2019) all found that compensation and benefits have a significant impact on retention. Shakeel (2015) stated that poor salary levels are the number one reason why employees leave the organisation. This is supported by Dhanpat et al. (2018, p. 10), who stated that “compensation contributed the most towards an employee’s intentions to leave the organisation and can be regarded as the best predictor of the intention to leave.”

A number of authors contended that training and development had an effect on retention (Al Mamun & Hassan, 2017; Bigliardi, 2005; Dikshit & Jain, 2017; Elnaga

& Imran, 2013; Hausknecht & Trevor, 2010; Heavey et al., 2013; Memon, 2014; Nkomo et al., 2018; Saleem et al., 2011; Vija et al., 2018). Das and Baruah (2013) argued that employers should regard training and development as one of the most important retention factors, as it ensured that employees performed better when provided with training and added value to how they execute their work. Kaur (2017) also asserted that training is a strategic retention factor and is considered imperative with respect to employees of all ages. In turn, Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) alluded to the fact that training and development provided employees with better opportunities for their career development and thus influenced their decision to stay or leave. The model of staff retention depicted in Figure 7.5 indicates that to reduce the chances of employees leaving an organisation, there is a need to ensure that a positive work culture exists, that compensation and benefits are acceptable to employees, and that they receive the necessary training and development to carry out their tasks and progress in their career.

7.9 HIERARCHICAL MODERATOR REGRESSION ANALYSIS

The fourth empirical aim of the current study is to determine whether the biographical variables of gender, age, educational qualification, tenure, and job grade statistically significantly moderate the relationship between the staff retention factors (independent variables) and intention to leave (the dependent variable). To achieve this aim, a Hierarchical Moderator Regression Analysis (HMRA) was conducted on the aforementioned biographical, independent, and dependent variables.

A moderator is a variable that affects the strength and/or direction of the relationship between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable (Chooi, 2020). HMRA is used to empirically test how a variable moderates or influences the nature of a relationship between other variables (Hair et al., 2019). In this study, the moderating effect would occur if the third variable (age, gender, educational level, tenure, and job grade) influenced or affected the relationship between the 10 staff retention factors identified during factor analysis (independent variables) and intention to leave (dependent variable).

Tables B.1 – B.50 in ***Appendix B*** contain the detailed results and analysis of the HMRA with the five biographical variables (gender, age, educational qualifications, tenure, and job grade) as moderators of the relationship between the 10 staff retention factors identified during factor analysis (independent variables) and intention to leave (dependent variable). The summarised results per biographical variable are reported in Tables 7.21 to 7.25 below and discussed in the sub-sections that follow. The meaning of the abbreviations are as follows:

OC	=	Organisational culture
EL	=	Ethical leadership
MJ	=	Meaningful job
CB	=	Compensation and benefits
SS	=	Supervisory support
RR	=	External and internal relationships
TD	=	Training and development
OS	=	Organisational support
WLB	=	Work-life balance
EE	=	Employee engagement
IL	=	Staff retention (IL) (independent variable)

The effect size of the relationships between the 10 staff retention factors and intention to leave will also be reported and discussed. According to Bhandari (2022), effect size tells you how meaningful the relationship between variables is. A large effect size means that a research finding has practical significance, while a small effect size indicates limited practical applications. The r-squared ($R^{2)}$ calculation will be used to represent the effect size, using the criteria suggested by Cohen (1992), namely:

- +R^2 ≤.12 = small practical effect
- ++R^2 ≥.03 ≤.25 = medium practical effect
- +++R^2 ≥ .26 = large practical effect

7.9.1 Gender as a moderator

Table 7.21

Results of the Hierarchical Moderator Regression Analysis: The Effect of Gender on the Relationship Between the 10 Staff Retention Factors and Intention to Leave (n = 685)

Staff retention factors	r	R^2	F	df	β	p	Effect size
OC	.209	.044	10.38	3.00	-.013	.904	+R
EL	.189	.036	8.37	3.00	-.140	.118	+R
MJ	.145	.021	4.85	3.00	-.025	.840	+R
CB	.292	.085	21.10	3.00	-.025	.774	+R
SS	.104	.011	2.47	3.00	-.033	.711	+R
RR	.052	.003	.617	3.00	.033	.736	+R
TD	.199	.040	9.35	3.00	-.042	.659	+R
OS	.192	.037	8.68	3.00	.032	.738	+R
WLB	.085	.007	1.66	3.00	.014	.880	+R
EE	.140	.020	4.57	3.00	.137	.288	+R

Note: Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at $^{***}p \leq .001$, $^{**}p \leq .01$ and $^{*}p \leq .05$. Gender classified as follows: (1) Male; (2) Female. Practical effect size: +*R* = small, ++*R* = medium, +++*R* = large.

Table 7.21 shows that the biographical variable of gender does not act as a moderator between the 10 staff retention factors and intention to leave. This is because none of the regression coefficients (*ß*) produced by the HMRA conducted on gender, the 10 staff retention factors, and the intention to leave variable were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level (Chooi, 2020).

There would seem to be no consensus on the effect of gender on staff turnover. The findings of the current study contradict the views of Choong et al. (2013) who argued that substantial differences were found between genders, as females had a higher intention to leave compared to their male counterparts. Kraemer and Gouthier (2014), in turn, did not support the views of Choong et al. (2013), as they argued that females had a greater commitment to their organisation than males and thus manifested a lower intention to leave. Victoria and Olalekan (2016) had a different view and concluded that gender had no significant influence on the intention of employees to leave.

7.9.2 Age as a moderator

Table 7.22

Results of the Hierarchical Moderator Regression Analysis: The Effect of Age on the Relationship Between the 10 Staff Retention Factors and Intention to Leave (n = 685)

Staff retention factors	r	R^2	F	df	β	p	Effect size
OC (> 50 years)	.343	.118	12.88	7.00	**-.584**	**.034***	+R
EL (> 50 years)	.328	.108	11.68	7.00	**-.624**	**.003***	+R
MJ (all 3 age groups)	.284	.081	8.49	7.00	-.064 -.058 -.739	.625 .726 .087	+R
CB (40 – 49 years)	.382	.146	16.55	7.00	**-.233**	**.029***	+R
SS (> 50 years)	.304	.093	9.88	7.00	**-.555**	**.016***	+R
RR (all 3 age groups)	.255	.065	6.74	7.00	.067 -.132 .069	.516 .300 .792	+R
TD (> 50 years)	.341	.117	12.76	7.00	**-.801**	**.003***	+R
OS (> 50 years)	.337	.114	12.41	7.00	**.610**	**.004***	+R
WLB (all 3 age groups)	.271	.073	7.67	7.00	.011 .076 .313	.914 .478 .210	+R
EE (all 3 age groups)	.271	.073	7.64	7.00	-.159 .017 -.191	.262 .925 .593	+R

Note: Standardised regression beta weights (*β*) significant at ****p* ≤ .001, ***p* ≤ .01 and **p* ≤ .05. Age classified as follows: (1) < 40 years; (2) 40 – 50 years; (3) > 50 years. Practical effect size: +*R* = small, ++*R* = medium, +++*R* = large.

Table 7.22 indicates that two of the age groups of the biographical variable of age (40 – 49 years and > 50 years) acted as a moderator between six of the 10 staff retention factors and intention to leave, negatively for five of the factors and positively for one of the factors. The age category 40-49 years old negatively moderated the relationship between Compensation & Benefits (CB) and Intention to leave (IL) (-.233; p = .029*), while the age category 50 years and older negatively moderated the relationship between Organisational Culture (OC) (-.584; p = .034*), Ethical Leadership (EL) (-.624; p = .003*), Supervisory Support (SS) (-.555; p = .016*), and Training & Development (TD) (-.801; p = .003*) and positively moderated the relationship between Organisational Support (OS) and Intention to leave (IL) (.610; p = .004*). However, the practical effect of all the coefficients were small (Cohen, 1992).

As the age increases to between 40 and 50 years old, Compensation & Benefits (CB) has a negative effect on Intention to leave (IL), that is, IL decreases. Compensation & Benefits (CB) is thus important to ensure that this age category remains in the organisation. As the age increases to 50 years and older, Organisational Support (OS) has a positive effect on Intention to leave (IL), that is, IL increases. It thus appears that Organisational Support (OS) is not important for this age category and will not prevent them from leaving the organisation. As the age increases to 50 years and older, Organisational Support (OC), Ethical Leadership (EL), Supervisory Support (SS), and Training & Development (TD) have a negative effect on Intention to leave (IL), that is, IL decreases. These four staff retention factors, namely Organisational Culture (OC), Ethical Leadership (IL), Supervisory Support (SS) and Training & Development (TD), are thus important to ensure that this age category remains in the organisation.

These results are partially supported by a study by Eratas (2015), who found that age had an impact on turnover decisions. Additionally, a study by Li et al. (2008) among Chinese employees reported a significant impact of age on work values, as older employees prefer to rate work values highly. This could explain the results of the current study in which Organisational Culture (OC) and Ethical Leadership (EL) decreased the Intention to leave (IL) an organisation, as both of these retention factors are based on values.

7.9.3 Tenure as a moderator

Table 7.23

Results of the Hierarchical Moderator Regression Analysis: The Effect of Tenure on the Relationship Between the 10 Staff Retention Factors and Intention to Leave (n = 685)

Staff retention factors	r	R^2	F	df	β	p	Effect size
OC (all 3 categories)	.261	.068	7.05	7.00	-.133 -.007 -.208	.588 .968 .075	+R
EL (all 3 categories)	.244	.060	6.14	7.00	.029 .061 .180	.881 .665 .064	+R
MJ (all 3 categories)	.191	.036	3.65	7.00	.013 .036 -.099	.958 .849 .472	+R
CB (all 3 categories)	.342	.117	12.78	7.00	.306 -.022 -.177	.104 .872 .060	+R
SS (all 3 categories)	.187	.035	3.50	7.00	.242 -.133 -.062	.226 .358 .523	+R
RR (all 3 categories)	.155	.024	2.38	7.00	.230 -.020 -.038	.341 .902 .732	+R
TD (all 3 categories	.244	.059	6.12	7.00	.115 -.205 .028	.589 .162 .794	+R
OS (all 3 categories)	.246	.061	6.24	7.00	-.166 .243 -.005	.478 .122 .958	+R
WLB (all 3 categories)	.171	.029	2.90	7.00	-.078 -.011 .023	.703 .940 .819	+R
EE (all 3 categories	.182	.033	3.31	7.00	-.035 .178 -.089	.897 .415 .551	+R

Note: Standardised regression beta weights (*β*) significant at ****p* ≤ .001, ***p* ≤ .01 and **p* ≤ .05. Tenure classified as follows: (1) < 5 years; (2) 5 – 10 years; (3) > 10 years. Practical effect size: +*R* = small, ++*R* = medium, +++*R* = large.

Table 7.24 indicates that tenure does not act as a moderator between the 10 staff retention factors and Intention to leave (IL). This is because all 10 regression coefficients of the 10 staff retention factors were not statistically significant at the *p* < .05 level (Chooi, 2020). However, previous studies have found that tenure has an impact on retention and commitment. Kraemer and Gouthier (2014) found that employees who worked for their organisation for a longer period had higher levels of organisational commitment than those who worked for the organisation for a shorter period and tended to remain with the organisation. This finding is supported by Lyria et al. (2017), who found that younger workers tend to change jobs regularly, whereas older workers require security and job stability and thus tend to remain with an organisation rather than leave.

7.9.4 Educational qualifications as a moderator

Table 7.24

Results of the Hierarchical Moderator Regression Analysis: The Effect of Educational Qualifications on the Relationship Between the 10 Staff Retention Factors and Intention to Leave (n = 685)

Staff retention factors	r	R^2	F	df	β	p	Effect size
OC (3-year degree)	.318	.101	5.81	13.00	**-.540**	**.025***	+R
EL (all 6 categories)	.315	.099	5.70	13.00	.082 .013 .533 -.294 -.181 .123	.720 .955 .015 .107 .128 .296	+R
MJ (all 6 categories)	.282	.080	4.46	13.00	-.060 .243 .131 .042 -.006 -.163	.872 .453 .691 .886 .973 .297	+R
CB (all 6 categories)	.390	.152	9.25	13.00	-.086 .377 -.115 .067 -.081 -.006	.694 .077 .619 .747 .466 .957	++R

Staff retention factors	r	R^2	F	df	β	p	Effect size
SS (all 6 categories)	.277	.077	4.30	13.00	.211 .013 .158 -.069 -.109 -.034	.329 .952 .448 .700 .375 .771	+R
RR (all 6 categories)	.275	.075	4.21	13.00	-.173 .171 .342 -.044 -.183 .204	.470 .481 .180 .843 .168 .102	+R
TD (all 6 categories	.314	.099	5.66	13.00	.507 -.428 .148 -.068 -.014 .058	.040 .058 .569 .777 .914 .643	+R
OS (Advanced diploma and 3-year degree)	.326	.106	6.15	13.00	**-.583** **.518**	**.023*** **.022***	+R
WLB (all 6 categories)	.264	.070	3.88	13.00	.155 -.271 .029 -.012 .049 -.078	.487 .216 .900 .955 .687 .505	+R
EE (all 6 categories	.265	.070	3.91	13.00	.250 .101 -215 .019 -.055 .124	.598 .823 .571 .950 .749 .422	+R

Note: Standardised regression beta weights (*β*) significant at ***$p \le .001$, **$p \le .01$ and *$p \le .05$. Educational qualifications classified as follows: (1) Certificate and lower; (2) Diploma (1, 2 & 3 years); (3) Advanced Diploma; (4) 3-year Degree; (5) 4-year Degree and Honours; (6) Master's and Doctoral Degree. Practical effect size: +*R* = small, ++*R* = medium, +++*R* = large.

Table 7.24 indicates that the biographical variable of educational qualifications does not act as a moderator between the 10 staff retention factors and Intention to leave (IL). This is because the regression coefficients produced by the HMRA conducted on educational qualifications, the 10 staff retention factors, and intention to leave variable were not statistically significant for eight of the 10 staff retention factors at the $p < .05$ level. For one staff retention factor, namely Organisational Culture (OC), only one of the six interaction regression coefficients were significant (-.540; p = .025*). For a second staff retention factor, namely Organisational Support (OS), only two of the six interaction regression coefficients were significant (-.583; p = .023* and .518; p = .022*). However, the practical effect of these three coefficients were small (Cohen, 1992). As such this does not provide enough evidence of overall moderation of educational qualifications for all of the 10 staff retention factors and Intention to leave (IL) (Chooi, 2020). Thus, educational qualifications can be considered to have no moderation effect on the relationship between the 10 staff retention factors and Intention to leave (IL).

7.9.5 Job grade as a moderator

Table 7.25

Results of the Hierarchical Moderator Regression Analysis: The Effect of Job Grade on the Relationship Between the 10 Staff Retention Factors and Intention to Leave (n = 685)

Staff retention factors	r	R^2	F	df	β	p	Effect size
OC (all 4 grades)	.242	.058	4.65	9.00	-.193 .323 -.259 .116	.414 .102 .045 .446	+R
EL (all 4 grades)	.211	.044	3.50	9.00	-.144 .140 -.019 -.184	.443 .385 .856 .153	+R
MJ (all 4 grades)	.182	.033	2.56	9.00	-.021 -.105 .213 -.257	.948 .665 .144 .138	+R
CB (all 4 grades)	.313	.098	8.12	9.00	-.372 .174 -.003 .138	.058 .296 .973 .268	+R
SS (all 4 grades)	.148	.022	1.68	9.00	.058 .018 -.035 .133	.749 .909 .744 .309	+R

Staff retention factors	r	R^2	F	df	β	p	Effect size
RR (all 4 grades)	.147	.022	1.66	9.00	-.115 -.137 -.043 -.114	.579 .459 .715 .419	+R
TD (all 4 grades)	.224	.050	3.96	9.00	-.039 .173 -.072 .122	.853 .321 .535 .379	+R
OS (Grade D & E and Grade F)	.233	.054	4.32	9.00	**-.312*** **.242***	**.044** **.033**	+R
WLB (all 4 grades)	.143	.021	1.57	9.00	.245 -.266 .042 -.133	.215 .116 .687 .351	+R
EE (all 4 grades)	.162	.026	2.03	9.00	-.197 .150 .045 -.038	.532 .508 .773 .845	+R

Note: Standardised regression beta weights (β) significant at ***$p \leq .001$, **$p \leq .01$ and *$p \leq .05$. Job Grades classified as follows: (1) Grade B & C (General & Executive Managers; (2) Grade D & E (Senior and Middle Managers and Senior Specialists; (3) Grade F (Managers and Specialists); (4) Grade G (Supervisory/First Line Managers and Practitioners. Practical effect size: +*R* = small, ++*R* = medium, +++*R* = large.

Table 7.25 indicates that job grade does not act as a moderator between the 10 staff retention factors and Intention to leave (IL). This is because the regression coefficients of nine of the 10 staff retention factors were not statistically significant at the $p < .5$ level. For one staff retention factor, namely Organisational Support (OS), two of the four interaction regression coefficients were significant (.312; p = .044* and .242; p = .033*). However, the practical effect of these two coefficients were small (Cohen, 1992). Thus, there was not enough evidence of overall moderation for all of the 10 staff retention factors (Chooi, 2020). As such, job grade can be considered to have no moderation effect on the relationship between the 10 staff retention factors and Intention to leave (IL).

7.10 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

A summary of the results of this study is presented below.

7.10.1 Recap

This study aimed to develop a model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa. A new theoretical model was developed from the literature review, and a sample of 685 employees in a South African SOE was asked to complete an SRQ to validate the proposed model. Additionally, the study aimed to investigate how staff retention was affected by biographical variables, such as gender, age, tenure, educational qualifications, and job grade.

7.10.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics were calculated for the research sample, and results showed that there were more male participants than female participants. Results also revealed that the majority of respondents were in the age group of 40-49 years old, held a degree, had worked in the SOE for more than 10 years, and were classified as middle management and professionals. Means were calculated for the factors measured by the SRQ, which indicated that perceptions of five staff retention factors were positive, while perceptions of seven factors were negative and could be seen as areas for development. Respondents scored 3.52 on the dependent variable, Intention to Leave, which indicated that slightly more than half of the respondents would leave the SOE if the opportunity presented itself.

7.10.3 Reliability of the measuring instrument

The internal consistency reliability of the SRQ was calculated, and results showed that the instrument could be considered reliable for use in the current study.

7.10.4 Exploratory factor analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using PCA was conducted on the questions (items) of the SRQ, and 11 components were extracted, which were named as follows:

- Component 1: Organisational Culture (OC)
- Component 2: Ethical Leadership (EL)
- Component 3: Meaningful Job (MJ)
- Component 4: Compensation & Benefits (CB)
- Component 5: Supervisory Support (SS)
- Component 6: Internal & External Relationships (RR)
- Component 7: Training & Development (TD)
- Component 8: Organisational Support (OS)
- Component 9: Work-Life Balance (WLB)
- Component 10: Employee Engagement (EE)
- Component 11: Intention to Leave (IL) (Dependent variable)

7.10.5 Structural Equation Modelling

A CFA using MLE was conducted using the 11 components and 106 items extracted during the EFA. This led to the development, specification, and validation of a measurement and structural model. The original theoretical model of staff retention was subsequently adapted to reflect the final proposed theoretical model with three staff retention factors: (1) Organisational Culture (OC), (2) Compensation and Benefits (CB), and (3) Training and Development (TD).

7.10.6 Hierarchical moderated regression analysis

Finally, an HMRA was conducted to determine whether the biographical variables of gender, age, educational qualifications, tenure, and job grade statistically significantly moderate the relationship between the original 10 staff retention factors (independent variables) and Intention to Leave (the dependent variable).

7.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presents the results of the empirical study. It begins by discussing the participant response rate, the descriptive statistics generated, and the internal consistency reliability of the measurement instrument. Next, the results of the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses are discussed. The final adapted theoretical model of staff retention is then presented, followed by a discussion of the results of the HMRA, which was conducted to determine the moderating effect of the five biographical variables (gender, age, educational qualifications, tenure, and job grade) on the relationship between the staff retention constructs (independent variables) and Intention to Leave (the dependent variable). The chapter concludes with a summary of the results presented in the chapter.

In the next and final chapter, the conclusions, limitations, and recommendations of the study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter, a discussion and integration of the findings of the study will be presented, including conclusions, limitations, and recommendations. The chapter will commence with a discussion and integration of the findings of the study followed by conclusions drawn in relation to the study's aims. This will be followed by a discussion of the limitations of the study. Subsequently, suggestions will be made regarding factors to be included in a staff retention model for South African SOEs, as well as recommendations for the participating SOE, the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in terms of staff retention practices, and future research. The chapter will conclude with an overall evaluation of the study.

8.2 DISCUSSION AND INTEGRATION OF THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

8.2.1 Discussion of the biographic profile of the sample

Table 7.1 is relevant to this section.

The sample was predominantly represented by males with the highest number of participants aged between 40 and 49 years of age, while the majority of respondents had a degree. Regarding tenure, just over half of the respondents had been working for the company for more than 10 years, which indicates that that the sample consisted of relatively long-term employees. The largest group of respondents were from middle management and specialised professional grades, with the grade distribution demonstrating decreasing percentages for the higher grades. The sample could thus be considered as consisting of older, long-term, male, professional employees.

The sample was found to be representative of the current SOE as well as other South African SOEs (McKinsey & Company, 2022), which indicates that the results of this study will be generalisable to other South African SOEs.

8.2.2 Discussion of the descriptive statistics: the staff retention questionnaire constructs

Table 7.2 is relevant to this section.

The study utilized a Staff Retention Questionnaire (SRQ) which measured 13 constructs, consisting of 12 staff retention factors and one dependent variable, namely Intention to leave. Means were used to present the average scores for each of the 13 constructs of the SRQ. Odendaal (1997) and the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) suggested a cut-off point of 3.2 on a 5-point Likert scale as a guideline for determining the positive and negative perceptions of participants. Thus, a score of 3.2 and above represented a positive perception while a score less than 3.2 represented a negative perception.

The results indicate that respondents tended to have a negative perception of seven of the 12 staff retention factors. These staff retention factors were (1) compensation and benefits (M = 2.77), (2) training and development (M = 3.12), (3) career growth and development (M = 2.74), (4) work-life balance (M = 3.19), (5) organisational support (M = 2.97), (6) ethical leadership (M = 2.94), and (7) organisational culture (M = 3.07). These factors could be potential reasons for the employees to leave the SOE, and should receive urgent attention.

On the other hand, respondents were mostly satisfied with the following five staff retention factors: (1) job characteristics (M = 3.80), (2) supervisory support (M = 3.32), (3) employee engagement (M = 4.03), (4) job satisfaction (M = 4.03), and (5) meaningful job (M = 4.04). These factors are important to retain employees in the SOE, and should be further strengthened.

The dependent variable, Intention to leave, had a mean score of 3.52, revealing that the respondents were slightly likely to leave the SOE, if given the opportunity. It is thus important for the SOE to give urgent attention to the seven negative staff retention factors and strengthen the five positive staff retention factors.

8.2.3 Discussion of the reliability of the Staff Retention Questionnaire

Table 7.2 and 7.7 are relevant to this section.

The results indicate that 12 of the 13 staff retention constructs measured by the SRQ had reliabilities greater than the acceptable level of .7, while the overall reliability of the instrument was .98, considered excellent. Only one staff retention construct, namely job characteristics, had a poor reliability of .58, having being measured by only 4 items. According to Jain and Angural (2017), low reliability can be attributed to factors such as having less questions, items that are partly related to each other, or diversity in questionnaire construction. However, Hair et al. (2019) state that in the social sciences, a reliability as low as .6 can still be considered acceptable for research. Since the reliability of .58 is close to .6, the researcher decided to retain the construct. Furthermore, the Job Characteristic Scale (JCS), which was used to measure the construct of job characteristics was part of the Retention Factor Scale (RFS) developed in South Africa by Döckel (2003). In the current study the RFS was used to measure six of the staff retention factors, including job characteristics. Although the JCS produced a reliability score of .58 in the current study, the researcher could not find another more reliable separate instrument to measure job characteristics, and thus retained the JCS. Important to note is that the use of the JCS also did not adversely affect the factors analysis conducted on the obtained data from participants. The measurement scales for the extracted components obtained from the factor analysis were obtained by calculating the means of the items loading on each of the scales. These scales were then subjected to an internal consistency reliability analysis. According to Green and Salkind (2014) and Hair et al. (2019), the generally agreed upon lower limit for Cronbach's alpha in an internal consistency reliability analysis is .7. Using this guideline, each of the 11 components extracted during factors analysis demonstrated acceptable internal consistency reliability as illustrated by the Cronbach's alpha coefficients listed in Table 7.7, which ranged from a low of .720 to a high of .958. The SRQ was thus considered a reliable instrument for measuring intention to leave and the relevant staff retention factors influencing intention to leave in a South African SOE.

8.3 CONCLUSIONS IN RELATION TO THE STUDY'S AIMS

This section discusses conclusions in relation to the aims of the study.

8.3.1 Conclusions regarding the specific theoretical aims of the study

The five specific theoretical aims of the study were as follows:

8.3.1.1 Theoretical Aim 1: To conceptualise the concept of staff retention from a theoretical perspective

This aim was accomplished in Chapter 2 of the study. From the conceptualisation, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- The concept of staff retention is ever-evolving and influenced by various factors (Ibidunni et al., 2016).

- Staff retention emerged from the war on talent, aimed at implementing measures to encourage employees to stay with the organisation for an extended period (Lyria et al., 2017).

- Staff retention encompasses the measures taken by organisations to encourage their employees to remain with them for a longer period (Cloutier et al., 2015; Kumari & Chauhan, 2013; Singh, 2019; Zareen et al., 2013).

- The applicability of various retention factors to different organisations must be explored as there is no one-size-fits-all retention strategy (Cloutier et al., 2015).

- Retaining employees contributes to increased organisational productivity and enhances the cumulative performance of employees (Zareen et al., 2013).

- Retention management has become a crucial source of competitive advantage in the global environment, with organisations striving to attract the best talent (Tomcikova & Coculova, 2020).

- Preventing staff turnover through effective staff retention is crucial to reducing organisational expenses associated with recruitment, hiring, and training of replacements, and maintaining productivity (Hancock et al., 2013; Mitchell et al., 2008; Wright & Bonett, 2007).

- The terms “turnover intention” and “intention to leave” are considered interchangeable and often used as a substitute measurement for staff retention (Cho et al., 2008; Li et al., 2016).

- Employee turnover refers to employees exiting the organisation voluntarily, which negatively impacts the organisation in terms of costs, work-team dynamics, and its ability to deliver the minimum required services or performance standards (Iqbal, 2017; Yankeelov et al., 2008).

- Talent retention is viewed as an organisation's ability to offer flexible working hours, content and motivated employees, competitive compensation, desirable non-monetary benefits, a positive company image, a fair recruitment process, and a participative leadership style (Lyria et al., 2014; Vance, 2008).

- It was established that monetary rewards are a critical factor in retaining staff, and a shortage of such rewards is a common cause of high staff turnover rates (Sattar & Ahmed, 2014; Vance, 2008).

- The issue of staff retention is closely linked to motivation and motivational theories, as these theories provide a deeper understanding of the retention concept and how individuals behave and what motivates them (DeShields et al., 2005; Gewertz & Logan, 2015; Samuel & Chipunza, 2009; Shikalepo, 2020; Yener et al., 2017). The following points are emphasised by these motivational theories:

    - An individual will remain in an organisation as long as their contributions are valued.

    - When employees feel that there is compatibility between themselves, their organisation, and their family and friends in their communities, they are less likely to leave their organisation.

- Effective retention strategies can ensure that skilled employees are retained within an organisation, but there may still be skill gaps. These gaps can be filled by using contingent workers who possess the required skills (Bhatia, 2020; Harve, 2019; Revunit, 2022).

- Over the next few years, organisations must increase learning opportunities and enable upskilling of their workforce to counter job obsolescence due to advancements in AI, machine learning, and robotics. Hence, training and development is crucial to prevent employees from leaving the organisation (Bhatia, 2020; Harve, 2019; Revunit, 2022).

- To prepare for the new world of work, organisations must adopt a continuous learning approach and foster a culture of lifelong learning. This will ensure that current employees have the required skills when needed, reducing the risk of losing them (Balalle & Balalle, 2019).

- In the case of South African state-owned enterprises (SOEs), the skills needed for the new world of work and fourth-industrial revolution will have to be sourced from the private sector or from other countries unless current employees are reskilled. Retaining talented employees and reskilling them, as well as promoting a culture of lifelong learning, is a more cost-effective solution than recruiting external skills for SOEs (Hewapathirana & Almasri, 2019).

- Five biographical factors have been widely researched and demonstrated to significantly impact staff retention. These factors are: gender (Bursch & Kelly, 2014; Dowd-Higgins, 2013; Eratas, 2015; Festing & Schafer, 2014; Khan et al., 2011; Kraemer & Gouthier, 2014; Lyria et al., 2017; Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011), age, education, tenure, and job grade.

- The most researched and demonstrated to be significantly influential 12 constructs of staff retention are:
  - <u>Compensation and benefits</u> (Choudhary, 2016; Crawford, 2015; Das et al., 2017; Ghapanchi & Aurum, 2011; Hosie et al., 2013; Irshad & Afridi, 2011; Mohsin et al., 2015; Nyamubarwa, 2013; Robyn & Du Preez, 2013; Terera & Ngirande, 2014; Tourangeau et al., 2010; Yamamoto, 2013).
  - <u>Job characteristics</u> (Aguenza & Som, 2012; Döckel, 2003; Ramalall, 2003; Tomlinson, 2002).
  - <u>Training and development</u> (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017; Armstrong, 2009; Blume et al., 2019; Chabane et al., 2018; Dikshit & Jain, 2017; Elnaga & Imran, 2013; Ibidunni et al., 2016; Nda & Fard, 2013; Noe et al., 2017; Samgnanakkan, 2010; Vija et al., 2018; Wahyuningtyas, 2015).
  - <u>Supervisory support</u> (Alzayed & Murshid, 2017; Chen et al., 2014; Dhanpat et al., 2018; Karatepe & Kilic, 2015; Mani, 2015; Powell, 2012; Raihan, 2012; Tunzu & Kalemei, 2012).
  - <u>Career growth and development</u> (Elnaga & Imran, 2013; Gamage & Herath, 2013; Gaurav & Bagga, 2013; Hay Group, 2011; Herman, 2005; Kroon & Freese, 2013; Nyamubarwa, 2013; Othman & Lembang, 2017; Weng & McElroy, 2012; Yang et al., 2015).
  - <u>Work-life balance</u> (Aguenza & Som, 2012; Barrow & Mosley, 2005; Deery & Jago, 2015; Dixon et al., 2007; Hammer et al., 2003; Jang et al., 2011; Karatepe, 2013; Kossivi et al., 2016; Mani, 2015; Mazerolle et al., 2013; Mita et al., 2014; Omar, 2010; Osman, 2013; Shoaib et al., 2009; Shockley et al., 2017; Yamamoto, 2011).
  - <u>Employee engagement</u> (Bedarkar & Pandita, 2014; Das et al., 2017; Doh et al., 2011; Jindal et al., 2017; Kahn, 1990; Karatepe et al., 2013; Kim & Fernandez, 2017; Lyria et al., 2017; Mani, 2015; Mone & London, 2018;

Osborne & Hammoud, 2017; Rayton et al., 2012; Schaufeli, 2013; Shuck et al., 2011; Soni, 2013; Smythe, 2017; Tarique & Schuler, 2010).

- Organisational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Holston-Okae & Mushi, 2018; Kumaresh & Krishnan, 2014).
- Ethical leadership (Avey et al., 2012; Belsare, 2015; Brown, 2005; Hashish, 2017; Hedberg & Helenius, 2007; Ibrahim & Mayende, 2018; Kangas et al., 2016; Karatepe & Kilic, 2015; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009; Loi et al., 2006; Ng'ethe et al., 2012; Tansley, 2011; Tews et al., 2014; Yukl, 2010).
- Job satisfaction (Baison, 2017; Mathimaran & Kumar, 2017; Spector, 1987, 1997; Terera & Ngirinda, 2014).
- Meaningful work (Fouché et al., 2017; Ghadi, 2017).
- Organisational culture (Al Mamun & Hasan, 2017; Bussin, 2014; Ghosh et al., 2013; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009; Kessler-Ladelsky & Catana, 2013; Khalili, 2014; Michani et al., 2015; Purohit, 2016; Soni, 2013; Tansley, 2011; Zimmerman et al., 2019).

From a theoretical perspective, it can be concluded that 'retention' is a concept with multifaceted layers. When employees are fulfilled with regard to their work environment, the likelihood that they will stay longer with one organisation will increase (Baharin & Hanaf, 2018). Thus, a lack of fulfilment will result in turnover intention. The causes of employee turnover are numerous and subjective, with most of these causes stemming from issues such as job dissatisfaction, a lack of prospective future job growth, and mismatched hiring (Anil, 2021). Social ties, in terms of the relationship between employers and employees, can also influence employees to stay in the organisation. Moreover, it is imperative to understand that the causes of staff turnover have internal factors (for example, team dynamics) and external factors (for example, the job market). To ensure employee retention, it is imperative to understand what they consider to be important for them to remain with the organisation (Anil, 2021).

The literature also indicates that biographical factors could influence staff retention; hence they need to be considered when developing and implementing retention strategies to address the high turnover levels in SOEs. Chowdhury (2015), Emiroğlu et al. (2015), and Victoria and Olalekan (2016) all discovered that biographical factors such as gender, age, job level, educational level, marital status and tenure influence turnover intention, and these aspects must be considered when attempting to retain skilled employees.

8.3.1.2 Theoretical Aim 2: To investigate the existing instruments used to measure staff retention and its key components

This aim was addressed in Chapter 3 of this study. The focus of Chapter 3 was on exploring the current measurement instruments used to assess the five biographical factors and the 12 underlying constructs of staff retention, as well as the construct of intention to leave, which was utilised as an operational measure for staff retention (as identified in Chapter 2). The following conclusions were drawn from this investigation:

- The accurate measurement of staff retention can be achieved through the use of reliable and valid instruments, as demonstrated by several researchers (Coetzee & Van Dyk, 2012; Döckel, 2003; Munro, 2015; Theron, 2012; Theron et al., 2014).

- A comprehensive instrument that measures all factors related to staff retention is difficult to find, hence the common practice is to use a combination of various existing instruments to measure the separate factors contributing to staff retention (Coetzee & Van Dyk, 2012; Döckel, 2003; Munro, 2015; Theron, 2012; Theron et al., 2014; Yin-Fah et al., 2010).

- Several researchers have chosen to develop their own instruments to measure staff retention-related aspects (Döckel, 2003; Martin & Roodt, 2008; Theron et al., 2014).

- Eight existing measurement instruments that have been widely used in studies to assess the five biographical factors and 12 underlying staff retention constructs, which have been found to significantly influence staff retention, have been shown to be reliable and valid by various researchers (Döckel, 2003; Cohen, 1993; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kahn, 1990; Martin, 1989; Spector, 1985; Steger et al., 2012; Yukl et al., 2013).

- The development of a new measurement instrument from scratch is not necessary to assess the five biographical factors and 12 underlying staff retention constructs that have been widely researched and found to significantly influence staff retention. The eight reliable and valid existing measurement instruments that have been evaluated can be combined into a consolidated questionnaire for use in the empirical phase of this study.

- The use of existing measurement instruments has several advantages, including established reliability and validity, as well as cost savings through the avoidance of the development and piloting of a new questionnaire (Hyman et al., 2006; Saunders et al., 2016).

- A disadvantage of using existing questionnaires is the potential for a mismatch with the context of the current study (Hyman et al., 2006).

The review of these instruments provided a frame of reference for the establishment of a single measurement instrument to measure staff retention in a South African SOE. The individual instruments that were integrated into one Staff Retention Questionnaire (SRQ) were also used in different industries in different countries.

8.3.1.3 Theoretical Aim 3: To evaluate the existing models of staff retention to determine which constructs of staff retention they include and their applicability to South African state-owned enterprises

This aim was achieved in Chapter 4 of the study

The following conclusions were drawn from this evaluation:

- A variety of staff retention models and frameworks are available for comprehending staff retention (Fauzi et al., 2013; George, 2015; Kaur, 2017; Wee, 2013).

- Models and frameworks of staff retention commonly encompass elements that organisations consider critical for retaining staff and avoiding staff departure (Fauzi et al., 2013; George, 2015; Kaur, 2017).

- The six general organisational models of staff retention and the three SOE staff retention frameworks evaluated in Chapter 4 all make significant contributions to understanding staff retention and its underlying factors. These models will be noted in the process of developing a staff retention model for South African SOEs.

- However, each model and framework was developed for a specific industry and environment, and did not consider or incorporate all the globally empirically tested staff retention factors, regardless of the industry or environment.

- None of the evaluated models and frameworks have been validated in South African organisations or specifically in South African SOEs.

It is therefore concluded that no general organisational model of staff retention or South African SOE framework can be indiscriminately applied to all organisations or all South African SOEs without first customising and validating the model and framework for a particular industry and environment. These models are not a one-size-fits-all solution, as staff retention factors are industry and even country specific. For this reason Letchmiah and Thomas (2017) and Gorde (2019) maintain that each organisation should determine their own specific factors that help retain employees and incorporate them into its own specific retention strategy. This view is supported by Al-sharafi et al. (2018) and Bharath (2021) who contended that 'retention' is a multifaceted concept and that different factors drive an employee's decision to stay and will differ from organisation to organisation.

8.3.1.4 *Theoretical Aim 4: To investigate the role of biographical variables regarding staff retention from a theoretical perspective*

This aim was achieved in Chapter 2 of the study. The following conclusions were drawn from this investigation:

- Biographical factors, such as age, gender, educational level, marital status, tenure, job level, and working department, have been demonstrated to impact turnover intention and are crucial to consider for staff retention (Choong et al., 2013; Chowdhury, 2015; Emiroğlu et al., 2015; Hausknecht et al., 2008; Khan et al., 2011; Kraemer and Gouthier, 2014; Lyria et al., 2017; Royi, 2021; Victoria and Olalekan, 2016).

- Any staff retention model or framework must incorporate at least five biographical factors, which have been globally empirically tested to impact staff retention, namely gender, age, tenure, educational qualifications, and job grade.

8.3.1.5 *Theoretical Aim 5: To determine which constructs of staff retention should be included in a theoretical model of staff retention for South African SOEs from a theoretical perspective*

The fifth theoretical aim of the study was achieved in Chapter 5, and the following conclusions were reached:

- Staff retention is a complex concept, and no single solution exists for retaining employees within an organisation.

- An employee's decision to remain or leave an organisation is influenced by both biographical (Agyeman & Ponniah, 2014; Kraemer & Gouthier, 2014; Li et al., 2008) and organisational factors (Bryant & Allen, 2013; Bursch & Kelly, 2014; Döckel et al., 2006; George, 2015; Ghapanchi & Aurum, 2011; Kelly, 2013; Moshin et al., 2015).

- A theoretical model of staff retention should include the following five biographical factors, as they have a theoretical relationship with staff retention (Bussin, 2014; Döckel, 2003; Fauzi et al., 2013; George, 2015; Kaur, 2017; Munro, 2015; Paulsen, 2014; Rao & Shaikh, 2016; Samuel & Chipunza, 2010; Sharma & Misra, 2015; Theron et al., 2014; Umamaheswari & Krishnan, 2014; Yin-Fah et al., 2010; Wee, 2013; Zimmerman et al., 2019):

  - Gender
  - Age
  - Tenure
  - Educational qualifications
  - Job grade

- A theoretical model of staff retention should include the following 12 factors, as they have a theoretical relationship with staff retention (Bussin, 2014; Döckel, 2003; Fauzi et al., 2013; George, 2015; Kaur, 2017; Munro, 2015; Paulsen, 2014; Rao & Shaikh, 2016; Samuel & Chipunza, 2010; Sharma & Misra, 2015; Theron et al., 2014; Umamaheswari & Krishnan, 2016; Yin-Fah et al., 2010; Wee, 2013; Zimmerman et al., 2019):

  - Compensation and benefits
  - Job characteristics
  - Training and development
  - Supervisory/manager support
  - Career growth and development
  - Work-life balance
  - Engagement
  - Organisational support
  - Leadership and ethical leadership
  - Job satisfaction
  - Meaningful job
  - Organisational culture

- The construct of staff retention is operationalised and measured as Intention to Leave (Nasir et al., 2019; Theron et al., 2014; Yousuf & Siddqui, 2019).

8.3.2 Conclusions regarding the specific empirical aims of the study

8.3.2.1 Empirical Aim 1: To select and/or adapt existing questionnaires measuring the constructs of staff retention as the independent variables in a South African state-owned enterprise

This empirical aim was fulfilled in Chapter 3 of the study. The following conclusions can be drawn:

- There are eight reliable and valid measurement instruments that have been utilised in prior studies to measure the twelve most researched and significant staff retention constructs (Döckel, 2003; Cohen, 1993; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kahn, 1990; Martin, 1989; Spector, 1985; Steger et al., 2012; Yukl et al., 2013).

- The Retention Factor Scale (RFS) developed by Döckel (2003) is a reliable and valid questionnaire that can be utilised to measure six of the twelve staff retention constructs, including Compensation and Benefits, Job Characteristics, Training and Development, Supervisory Support, Career Growth and Development, and Work-Life Balance.

- The Employee Engagement Questionnaire (EEQ) developed by Kahn (1990) is a reliable and valid questionnaire that can be used to measure Employee Engagement.

- The Perceived Organisational Support Questionnaire (POSQ), developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986), is a reliable and valid questionnaire that can be used to measure Organisational Support.

- The Ethical Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ), developed by Yukl et al. (2012), is a reliable and valid questionnaire that can be used to measure Ethical Leadership.

- The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1985) is a reliable and valid questionnaire that can be used to measure Job Satisfaction.

- The Work and Meaning Inventory (WMI), developed by Steger et al. (2012), is a reliable and valid questionnaire that can be used to measure Meaningful Job.

- The South African Culture Instrument (SACI), developed by Martin (2014) specifically for the South African context, is a reliable and valid questionnaire that can be used to measure Organisational Culture.

- The aforementioned eight existing questionnaires can be incorporated into one questionnaire to measure the 12 constructs of staff retention as independent variables in a South African SOE, as they have been empirically shown to be a reliable and valid measurement of staff retention factors.

8.3.2.2 Empirical Aim 2: To select and/or adapt an existing questionnaire measuring the concept of staff retention as the dependent variable in a South African state-owned enterprise

This empirical aim was realised in Chapter 7 of the study. The following conclusions were drawn:

- The concept of staff retention can be better comprehended by investigating the factors that result in increased dissatisfaction among employees and their intention to depart from the organisation. Hence, the measurement of the factors that contribute to an employee's intention to leave an organisation provides the most accurate measurement of the concept of staff retention (Yousuf & Siddiqui, 2019).

- Intention to leave is utilised as the operationalisation of the concept of staff retention and as a substitute measurement in empirical studies (Cho et al., 2008; Dhanpat, 2018; Nasir et al., 2019).

- The Intention to Quit Scale (IQS), developed by Cohen (1993), is a reliable and valid questionnaire that can be employed to measure Intention to leave, which serves as the dependent variable in this study.

8.3.2.3 Empirical Aim 3: To determine the statistical relationship between the concept of 'staff retention' and the key constructs of staff retention as independent variables

The third empirical aim of the study was met in Chapter 7. In order to meet this aim, a factor analysis was performed and 11 components were extracted. Out of these, 10 components were identified as key constructs of staff retention (independent variables), and one component was identified as the concept of staff retention (dependent variable). The components were labelled as follows:

- Component 1: Organisational Culture (OC)
- Component 2: Ethical Leadership (EL)
- Component 3: Meaningful Job (MJ)
- Component 4: Compensation and Benefits (CB)
- Component 5: Supervisory Support (SS)
- Component 6: Internal and External Relationships (RR)
- Component 7: Training and Development (TD)
- Component 8: Organisational Support (OS)
- Component 9: Work-Life Balance (WLB)
- Component 10: Employee Engagement (EE)
- Component 11: Intention to Leave (IL) (Dependent variable)

A Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to establish the statistical relationship between the concept of 'staff retention' and the key constructs of staff retention as independent variables. The baseline measurement model produced by the CFA did not meet the minimum requirements for a good model fit. Thus, 53 problematic questionnaire items were removed and a second CFA was conducted, which resulted in an adjusted measurement model that indicated a good model fit. This adjusted model was accepted as the final measurement model.

The researcher then specified a structural model, which hypothesised that all 10 staff retention constructs (independent variables) would have a negative impact on Intention to Leave (dependent variable). The statistical relationship between the concept of 'staff retention' and the key constructs of staff retention was evaluated and it was found that only three staff retention constructs were statistically significantly negatively related to the concept of staff retention (Intention to Leave) at the $p < .001$ level. These were (1) Organisational Culture (-.014), (2) Compensation and Benefits (-.30), and (3) Training and Development (-.10). The relationships between the seven remaining staff retention constructs and Intention to Leave were found to be statistically insignificant.

The following conclusions were drawn from this analysis:

- The original proposed theoretical staff retention framework for State-Owned Enterprises in South Africa, presented in Chapter 5 (refer to Figure 5.1 in Chapter 5), consisted of 12 organisational staff retention factors (independent variables) and one dependent variable (Intention to Leave). However, the results of the Structural Equation Modelling process produced a structural model with three statistically significant staff retention factors (independent variables) and one dependent variable (Intention to Leave). Thus, the originally proposed staff retention framework will need to be revised.

- Theory provides a foundation for the development of a theoretically justified model that can be empirically supported, and Structural Equation Modelling must be used not only to test the model empirically, but also to provide insights into its revision and adaptation (Hair et al., 2019).

- Revision and adaptation of the model must be based on theoretical support and not just empirical justification (Hair et al., 2019).

8.3.2.4 *Empirical Aim 4: To determine whether the biographical variables of age, gender, educational qualification, tenure, and job grade statistically significantly moderate the relationship between the staff retention factors (independent variables) and Intention to leave (the dependent variable) in a South African state-owned enterprise*

The fourth empirical aim of the study was accomplished in Chapter 7. A Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis (HMRA) was performed to examine the relationship between the biographical variables of gender, age, educational qualification, tenure, and job grade and the 10 staff retention factors (independent variables) and intention to leave (the dependent variable) in a South African state-owned enterprise (SOE). The conclusions reached from this analysis are as follows:

- In the current study, the five biographical variables (gender, age, educational qualification, tenure, and job grade) were found to have no statistically significant effect on the relationship between the 10 staff retention factors and intention to leave in a South African SOE. However, previous studies contradict this finding. Agyeman and Ponniah (2014) and Gupta et al. (2015), found that demographic characteristics such as age, tenure, level of education, level of income, job category, and gender, among others, influence an employee’s decision to leave or stay in an organisation. Furthermore, Theron (2015) found age to be a factor in staff retention, as their study showed that it was challenging to attract and retain a younger workforce in higher education institutions. This is supported by Coetzee (2015), who argued that it is imperative to consider the influence of different demographic factors in a multi-generational workforce culture to inform the organisation’s retention practices.

- In the current study, the staff retention model developed for South African SOEs does not need to be statistically adapted to account for the impact of gender, age, educational qualification, tenure, and job grade on intent to leave the organisation. However, this does not mean that biographical factors are not important in a staff retention factor model, since previous studies have proved that biographical factors need to be taken into consideration when developing retention strategies for organisations.

8.3.2.5 Empirical Aim 5: To develop an empirical staff retention model for South African state-owned enterprises

This aim was achieved in Chapter 7 of the study. The Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) process was employed, as detailed in Aim 4, to arrive at this outcome. Results from the SEM process (CFA, measurement model, and structural model) showed that only three staff retention constructs had a statistically significant negative relationship with staff retention (Intention to Leave) at a $p < .001$ level. These were: (1) Organisational Culture ($r = -.014$), (2) Compensation and Benefits ($r = -.30$), and (3) Training and Development ($r = -.10$). No significant relationships were found between the seven remaining staff retention constructs and Intention to Leave, namely (1) Ethical leadership, (2) Meaningful job, (3) Supervisory support, (4) Internal & external relationships, (5) Organisational support, (6) Work-life balance, and (7) Employee engagement. As a result, the original proposed theoretical staff retention framework for South African SOEs (presented in Figure 5.1 of Chapter 5) was adapted to reflect these findings. The adaptation was based on the structural model and relevant literature. The adapted model of staff retention, presented in Figure 7.4 of Chapter 7, is supported by multiple empirical studies. The adapted staff retention model, indicating that Organisational Culture, Compensation and Benefits, and Training and Development reduce an employee's intention to leave, can be considered a valid model for South African SOEs. Thus, to minimise staff turnover in an SOE, efforts must be made to create a positive organisational culture, offer an acceptable compensation and benefits package, and provide necessary training and development opportunities for employees.

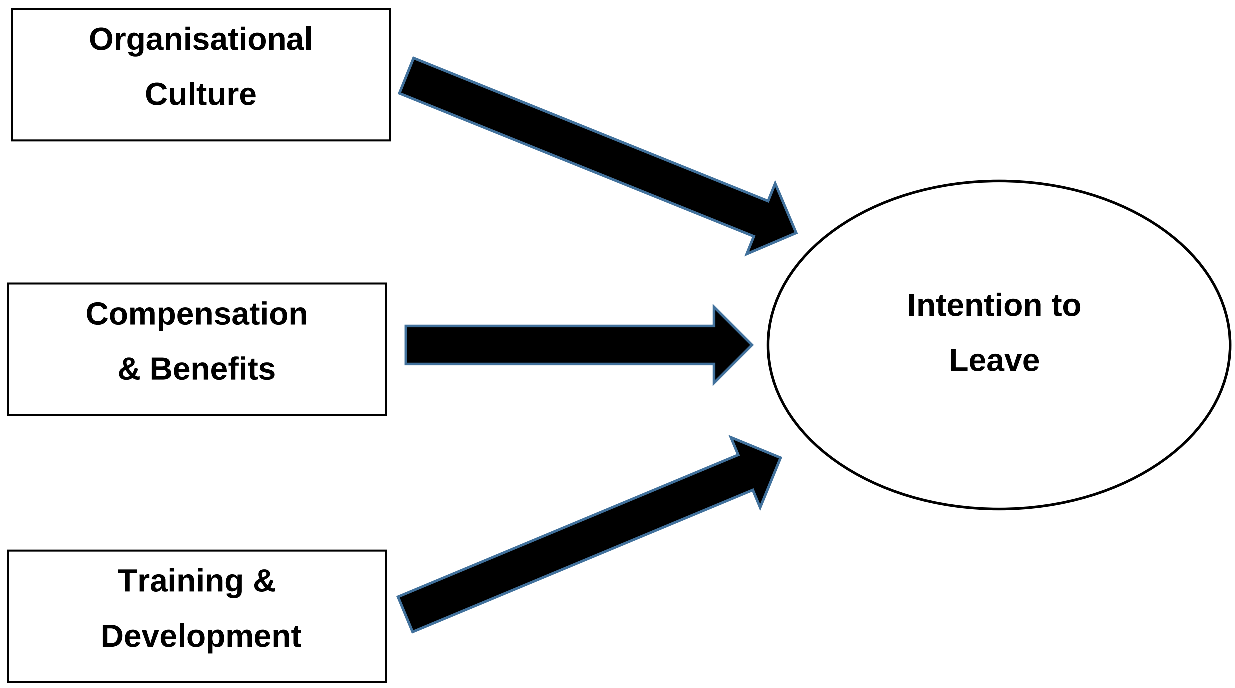
8.3.2.6 A discussion of the final new proposed model of staff retention for South African SOEs

The original proposed theoretical staff retention framework for SOEs in South Africa, developed in Chapter 5 (See Figure 5.1 in Chapter 5), consisted of 12 organisational staff retention factors (independent variables) and one dependent variable (Intention to leave). However, the results of the SEM process produced a structural model with three statistically significant staff retention factors (independent variables) and one dependent variable (Intention to leave). The originally proposed staff retention framework was thus adapted. This is in line with the SEM model development strategy followed in the current study, which states that although a basic theoretical model framework is proposed, the purpose of the SEM model development strategy is to improve this theoretical framework through modifications of the measurement and/or structural models (Hair et al., 2019). Theory thus provides a starting point for the development of a theoretically justified model that can be empirically supported, and the researcher must employ SEM not just to test the model empirically but also to provide insights into its respecification/adaptation. Moreover, model respecification/adaptation needs to be done with theoretical support and not just empirical justification (Hair et al., 2019).

In this study, model adaptation was done by (1) considering the structural model produced and (2) theoretical support from the literature for the relationships indicated in the structural model, as propagated by Hair et al. (2019). This resulted in the model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa depicted below.

Figure 8.1

The Final Adapted Theoretical Model of Staff Retention for SOEs in South Africa



Note. Compiled by researcher

This model is supported by multiple empirical studies. Research has shown that organisational culture has a significant impact on employees and that a positive culture is positively correlated with employee retention (Ghosh et al., 2013; Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009; Kessler-Ladelsky & Catana, 2013; Michani et al., 2015; Soni, 2013; Tansley, 2011). Furthermore, the organisation's culture plays a critical role in retaining employees over a prolonged period (Chahal & Poonam, 2017). Organisational culture has a significant effect on employee morale and retention. It is not just about being a good employer but about having employees who are committed to the vision, mission and strategy of the organisation and possess the will and means to make these a reality. "Effective corporate culture therefore engages employees at the fundamental level and translates that engagement into high productivity" (Brenyah & Obuobisa-Darko, 2017, p. 1). According to Shah and Sarkar (2017), the main element in attracting and, most importantly, retaining key employees is culture. It is crucial for employees to feel that they are part of a team, that they share a connection to the vision, the strategic direction of the organisation, and are attached to their colleagues' ways of working better together, ultimately leading to greater collaboration (Norman, 2012). A lack of connection with the vision affects the fit between an employee and the organisation, and thus, if the culture is not aligned with the individual's values, retention may not be achieved or enhanced (Shah & Sarkar, 2017).

Moncarz et al. (2009), WorldatWork (2012), Yamamoto (2013), and Zimmerman et al. (2019) all found that compensation and benefits have a significant impact on retention. Shakeel (2015) stated that poor salary levels are the number one reason why employees leave the organisation. This is supported by Dhanpat et al. (2018, p. 10), who stated that "compensation contributed the most towards an employee's intentions to leave the organisation and can be regarded as the best predictor of the intention to leave."

A number of authors contended that training and development had an effect on retention (Al Mamun & Hassan, 2017; Bigliardi, 2005; Dikshit & Jain, 2017; Elnaga & Imran, 2013; Hausknecht & Trevor, 2010; Heavey et al., 2013; Memon, 2014; Nkomo et al., 2018; Saleem et al., 2011; Vija et al., 2018). Das and Baruah (2013) argued that employers should regard training and development as one of the most important retention factors, as it ensured that employees performed better when provided with training and added value to how they execute their work. Kaur (2017) also asserted that training is a strategic retention factor and is considered imperative with respect to employees of all ages. In turn, Van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) alluded to the fact that training and development provided employees with better opportunities for their career development and thus influenced their decision to stay or leave. The model of staff retention depicted in Figure 7.5 indicates that to reduce the chances of employees leaving an organisation, there is a need to ensure that a positive work culture exists, that compensation and benefits are acceptable to employees, and that they receive the necessary training and development to carry out their tasks and progress in their career.

The current adapted model is based on the responses of employees in a South African SOE. These employees identified the three final factors as the most important for staff retention in a South African SOE. Although research has shown that the remaining seven factors are also important for staff retention, they were considered as subordinate to the final three factors by the SOE employees in the current study. These three final factors can thus be considered to be the most valid for retaining staff in South African SOEs.

8.3.2.7 Empirical Aim 6: To make recommendations for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology regarding staff retention practices and future research

These recommendations will be discussed in Section 8.4.

8.3.3 Conclusions regarding the General Aim of the Study

The general aim of this study was to develop a model of staff retention for state-owned enterprises (SOEs) in South Africa. A two-phased research design was employed, which consisted of a literature review phase and an empirical study phase (see Figures 1.1 and 6.1 in Chapters 1 and 6, respectively). This design enabled the researcher to develop and validate a proposed theoretical model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa. The proposed and validated model can be viewed in Figure 7.5 in the previous chapter. It can thus be concluded that the general aim of the study was achieved.

8.4 LIMITATIONS

The limitations of this study are discussed in this section.

8.4.1 Limitations of the literature review

The following limitations pertained to the literature review:

- Although there are various other industries that are experiencing difficulties in retaining skilled employees, this study only focused on retention in South African SOEs. For this reason, the findings cannot be generalised to other organisations in other sectors in South Africa.

- Retention is a multifaceted construct and the literature does not offer a single solution for retaining employees in an organisation. This was confirmed by Al-sharafi et al. (2018) and Bharath (2021), who stated that retention has always been approached as consisting of various factors, rather than a single construct. This complexity resulted in a need to individually investigate the various factors that contribute to retention.

- Different studies have investigated the antecedents of an employee's intention to quit, but have not always provided answers on what retains employees. This difficulty was due to the diversity of employees who participated in the studies and inconsistencies in their findings. Thus, the reasons why employees quit or leave an organisation for another one differ (Das & Baruah, 2013).

- The challenge of finding research that was applicable to retention factors in South African SOEs resulted in the literature on staff retention consulted in this study being a general view of employee retention.

- The literature reviewed investigated various factors that influence retention, including leadership style. However, the literature review was limited to ethical leadership specifically and did not consider other leadership styles. Daft (2015) states that leadership style is important in the context of organisational culture and as part of a retention strategy. The emphasis on ethical leadership in this study was based on Hashish (2017), who paved the way to concentrate on ethical leadership in relation to retention. According to Elci et al. (2012) and Hashish (2017), ethical leadership has been shown to have a negative influence on turnover intention, indicating that it contributes to staff retention.

8.4.2 Limitations of the empirical study

The limitations of the empirical study are as follows:

- The Staff Retention Questionnaire (SRQ) utilised to gauge staff retention incorporated a range of questionnaires that evaluated various individual factors impacting staff retention. Although these questionnaires were all deemed reliable and valid, the final SRQ was not specifically developed to measure staff retention in South African state-owned enterprises (SOEs).

- The study was confined to only one of the many SOEs in South Africa, and hence, generalisation to other SOEs in the country must be approached with caution.

- There exists a broader range of staff retention factors in the literature apart from the 13 factors measured in this study. As it was not feasible to measure every possible staff retention factor mentioned in the literature, which would have necessitated a lengthy questionnaire, this may have impacted the results obtained.

- The five biographical variables assessed in this study were restricted to age, gender, educational qualifications, tenure, and job level. The possibility that other biographical variables might have influenced the research findings differently cannot be ignored.

- The researcher encountered challenges during data collection, as the data was collected during the COVID-19 lockdown in South Africa. Employees of the target SOE were working remotely during this time, leading to inadequate internet connectivity issues experienced by respondents working from home. This resulted in only 685 of the intended sample of 1,000 being able to respond to the online survey. Although the data collection period was extended, the COVID-19 lockdown was prolonged, affecting the response rate.

8.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

To further the existing knowledge in the area of this study, the recommendations that follow are proposed.

8.5.1 Recommendations for the participating state-owned enterprise

The following recommendations are put forward for the participating SOE:

- Respondents exhibited a negative inclination towards seven of the SRQ constructs, and appropriate measures should be implemented to address these constructs, which are:

    - Compensation and benefits (2.77)
    - Training and development (3.12)
    - Career growth and development (2.74)
    - Work-life balance (3.19)
    - Organisational support (2.97)
    - Ethical leadership (2.94)
    - Organisational culture (3.07)

- At least one year after implementing measures to address the previously mentioned seven developmental constructs, the SOE should conduct a follow-up survey to assess if there was any improvement in the scores of the identified constructs.

- The SOE must ensure that its overall retention strategy takes into account the following factors:

  1) Compensation and benefits
  2) Organisational culture
  3) Training and development and their sub-aspects.

- The SOE should take into consideration biographical variables while devising its retention strategy as the results indicated that there is a difference in the intention to leave among employees based on their age, educational qualifications, and job grade. Although the results were not statistically significant, they did show significance within certain elements of the biographical variables and categories.

8.5.2 Recommendations for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology regarding staff retention practices

As Industrial and Organisational Psychologists (IOPs) play a crucial role in helping organisations retain their staff, the model of staff retention for South African State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs) established and validated in this study can serve as a useful resource.

IOPs can leverage the literature review on staff retention provided in this study to enhance their understanding of the construct of staff retention. This can enable them to design and implement effective interventions to assist organisations in retaining their staff.

In terms of ensuring that compensation and benefits are adequate and reducing employee turnover intention, the following recommendations are made:

- Remuneration and benefits should be regarded as one of the key tools that organisations can use to attract, retain, and motivate their staff.
- Pay reviews should be carried out to address pay disparities and ensure fair and equitable pay practices.
- Consider implementing flexible remuneration plans that can cater to the needs of different groups and levels within the organisation.
- Design rewards practices that are linked to the organisation's mission and vision and support the achievement of business goals, thereby promoting motivation, addressing issues of uninterrupted performance, and fostering a high-performance culture.
- Incorporate non-financial benefits into compensation or reward strategies, including work-life balance and training and development.

To promote organisational support and reduce turnover intention, the following recommendations are made:

- Ensure that employees have a supportive work environment and culture in which they can thrive.
- Assist the organisation in developing HR policies that support favourable treatment.
- Establish a fair and equitable process and monitor its enforcement to enhance organisational support.
- Develop and recommend an individualised benefit and support programme that addresses the diverse needs of staff.
- Implement a coaching tool to teach managers and supervisors how to support and coach employees and reciprocate the same support to their subordinates.
- Develop and implement a programme to assist subordinates and managers in being supportive.

To promote employee engagement and reduce turnover intention, the following recommendations are made:

- Ensure that employees receive constructive feedback on their performance and that a management feedback system is in place that encourages and promotes employee engagement.
- Assist management in engaging employees and including them in the decision-making process by providing meaningful and challenging tasks for their career development.
- Help organisations establish fair and equitable work practices that enable employees to succeed and be fully engaged.

8.5.3 Recommendations for further research

The phenomenon of staff retention holds practical significance for organisations operating in the IOP industry, as well as for practitioners in this field. It is recommended that further research be conducted to deepen understanding of the concept and to refine its measurement.

The model of staff retention, which was developed and validated within a specific South African State-Owned Enterprise (SOE) in Chapter 7, should be subjected to further validation through examination within additional South African SOEs, to establish its generalizability across the SOE sector.

It is recommended that a questionnaire tailored to the staff retention model validated in this study (Chapter 7) be developed and validated for use in all South African SOEs.

Further exploration of the staff retention phenomenon in South African SOEs through multiple-case studies, incorporating a mixed-methods approach, is encouraged to enhance the results of the study.

8.6 EVALUATION OF THE STUDY

8.6.1 Value added at a theoretical level

This study has explored the factors that may be incorporated into a model of staff retention for state-owned enterprises (SOEs) in South Africa. The research has identified a number of factors that can have a substantial impact on employee retention, including the ongoing shortage of skills globally, even during economic downturns, and the ongoing "war for talent" in a globalised world, even during the COVID-19 pandemic. The study has also taken into account the effect of biographical variables such as gender, age, tenure, educational qualifications, and job grade on staff retention, providing insights for organisations and practitioners to better understand the concept of staff retention and the organisational and biographical factors that impact it.

8.6.2 Value added at an empirical level

This study has also made empirical contributions, including the development and validation of a staff retention model for South African SOEs. A significant relationship was found between intention to leave the organisation and three main factors: organisational culture, compensation and benefits, and training and development. This study is particularly valuable, as it focuses on the issues of staff retention in the South African context, an area that has received limited research. Given the current organisational context, which is characterised by diversity and generational gaps, the study has added value to the empirical literature on staff retention practices in South African SOEs. The moderation analysis of biographical aspects that influence staff retention further strengthens the empirical value of the study.

The study also contributed to new knowledge regarding the development of a staff retention model for SOEs in South Africa. The originality of the model developed provides insights that inform industrial psychologists, human resources practitioners and talent management specialists about the core elements that contribute to the retention of skilled employees in South African SOEs.

8.6.3 Value Added at a practical level

This study can provide practical assistance to Industrial and Organisational Psychologists (IOPs), practitioners, and Human Resource (HR) specialists in comprehending the elements affecting staff retention in South African State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs). The findings of this research can aid IOPs, practitioners, and HR specialists in formulating a staff retention strategy for organisations, which will aid in retaining skilled staff members despite incentives for departure. Organisational culture was established as having a substantial impact on staff retention. Hence, IOPs can utilise their knowledge of human behaviour to devise coaching techniques that can be employed within organisations, leading to effective leadership and a leader-led approach to ensure that the culture is led from the top. This can be achieved through the application of evidence-based methods, such as action learning and facilitation of human behaviour change, to ensure organisational support, which is another significant factor affecting staff retention. Employees should be treated in a manner that fosters a sense of belonging to the organisation, which will enhance their intention to stay with the organisation for an extended period.

In conclusion, the researcher is of the belief that the findings of this study will offer valuable insights into the critical elements considered in retaining talented and valuable staff in South African SOEs, thereby reducing the current high turnover rate.

8.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this final chapter, a discussion and integration of the findings of the study was presented, including conclusions, limitations, and recommendations. The chapter commenced with a discussion and integration of the findings of the study followed by conclusions drawn in relation to the study's aims. This was followed by a discussion of the limitations of the study. Subsequently, suggestions were made regarding factors to be included in a staff retention model for South African SOEs, as well as recommendations for the participating SOE, the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in terms of staff retention practices, and future research. The chapter was concluded with an overall evaluation of the study.

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APPENDIX A: GATEKEEPER LETTER

Dear Ms Ogotlhe Sathekge

My name is Christina Maphanga and I am currently enrolled for a Doctoral Degree in Commerce in the Industrial/Organisational psychology Department (Student number: 30935423) at the University of South Africa.

The topic for my research study is titled “A STAFF RETENTION MODEL FOR STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN SOUTH AFRICA.” The purpose of the study is to develop the staff retention model for the state-owned entities in South Africa. I would like to request permission to conduct research within XXXXXXX. The research study will involve the following:

- The administration of Survey/questionnaire on factors that influence retention of employees in the organisation. Factors incorporated into the survey tool include, Employee engagement**,** leadership, ethical leadership, organisational culture, supervisory support, organisational support, job satisfaction compensation, job characteristics, opportunities for training and development, career opportunities work-life balance, commitment to the organisation
- The purpose of the questionnaire is to gather data on the factors that could influence employee retention in the workplace.

The survey will be administered to the entire organisation to employees from grade G to B and employees may voluntarily participate in the research study. The online survey platform will be utilised for ease use and written in a non-scientific language. It is anticipated that the recommendations of the study will serve as guide towards better working environment and the retention strategies will benefit the organisation, employees and the entire state-owned entities at large. By agreeing to grant permission for this survey to be disseminated, you agree that the information you provide may be used for research purpose, including peer reviews, journal articles, and conference presentation and dissertation publication.

It is not foreseen that the organisation or its employees will experience any negative consequences by completing the survey. The researcher undertake to keep any information provided herein confidential, not to let it out of our possession and to report on the findings from the perspective of the participating group and not from the perspective of an individual.

The following information is requested from the organisation:

- Email addresses, confidential reports and documents, documents that are not in the public domain, assistance with identification of participants

The records will be kept for five years for audit purposes where after it will be permanently destroyed <hard copies will be shredded and electronic versions will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer.
The respondents will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for their participation in the survey.

The research will be reviewed and approved by the College of Economic and Management Sciences Ethics Review Committee.The primary researcher, Christinah Maphanga, can be contacted during office hours at 0634074045/christinah.maphanga@gmail.com. The study leader, Professor Benjamin Olivier can be contacted during office hours at 012 429 8801/ olivibh@unisa.ac.za.

Kind Regards

2/2019

TRANSNET

11 March 2019

Ms Christinah Maphanga
University of South Africa
PO Box 392
UNISA
0003

Christinah.maphanga@transnet.net

Dear Ms Christinah Maphanga

Re: Request for permission to conduct research at Transnet SOC Ltd

Your request for permission to conduct research at Transnet on "The development and validation of a staff retention model for State Owned Enterprises in South Africa" is acknowledged.

We duly note the conditions of the study for strict academic purposes, the results of the study will be submitted to Transnet, and the research will be confidential and that anonymity for both respondents and the organisations is guaranteed. Should you or the University of South Africa want to publish the study in any other manner than the final assignment, Transnet will be approached for permission to do so.

Based on the above conditions, your request to conduct the research study in Transnet is granted. We are looking forward to the outcomes and recommendations of your study and the positive contributions towards the marketing strategy of Transnet.

Yours sincerely,

Ms Ogotlhe Sathekge
General Manager: Talent & Transformation
Date: 11 /03 /2019

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APPENDIX B: FOR CHAPTER 7

DETAILED RESULTS OF HIERARCHICAL MODERATOR REGRESSION ANALYSIS USING THE FIVE BIOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES, 10 STAFF RETENTION VARIABLES (INDEPENDENT VARIABLES) AND ONE DEPENDENT VARIABLE

RESULTS OF HIERARCHICAL MODERATOR REGRESSION ANALYSIS WITH GENDER AS THE MODERATING VARIABLE (1st biographical variable)

Table B.1

Influence on Organisational Culture (OC) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,209	,044	1,449	10,384	3,000	681,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,749	,183	26,001	,000	4,391	5,108
OC	-,277	,063	-4,395	,000	-,400	-,153
Q1	,058	,301	,193	,847	-,533	,649
Int_1	**-,013**	,106	-,121	**,904**	-,221	,196

Notes applicable to all tables in Appendix B:

- H0: There are no interaction effects: β3 = 0.
- H1 (Alternative hypothesis): There are interaction effects: β3 ≠ 0.

Since the regression coefficient (β3 = -.013) for the interaction term OCW is not significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .904, there is no significant moderation effect. In other words, the relationship between OC and IL is not affected by gender.

Table B.2

Influence on Ethical Leadership (EL) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,189	,036	1,462	8,366	3,000	681,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,438	,167	26,517	,000	4,110	4,767
EL	-,152	,053	-2,873	,004	-,256	-,048
Q1	,386	,267	1,444	,149	-,139	,910
Int_1	**-,140**	,089	-1,563	**,118**	-,315	,036

Since the regression coefficient (β3 = -.140) for the interaction term ELW is not significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .118), there is no significant moderation effect. In other words, the relationship between EL and IL is not affected by gender.

Table B.3

Influence on Meaningful Job (MJ) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,145	,021	1,484	4,853	3,000	681,000	,002

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,864	,302	16,085	,000	4,270	5,458
MJ	-,214	,072	-2,957	,003	-,356	-,072
Q1	,142	,517	,274	,784	-,873	1,157
Int_1	**-,025**	,125	-,202	**,840**	-,271	,220

Since the regression coefficient (β3 = -.025) for the interaction term MJW is not significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .840), there is no significant moderation effect. In other words, the relationship between MJ and IL is not affected by gender.

Table B.4

Influence on Compensation and Benefits (CB) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,292	,085	1,387	21,105	3,000	681,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,875	,151	32,332	,000	4,579	5,171
CB	-,310	,049	-6,337	,000	-,407	-,214
Q1	,096	,258	,373	,709	-,410	,603
Int_1	**-,025**	,086	-,287	**,774**	-,193	,144

The regression coefficient (β3 = -.025) for the interaction term CBW is not significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .774), there is no significant moderation effect. In other words, the relationship between CB and IL is not affected by gender.

Table B.5

Influence on Supervisory Support (SS) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,104	,011	1,499	2,471	3,000	681,000	,061

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,327	,189	22,937	,000	3,957	4,698
SS	-,100	,053	-1,899	,058	-,203	,003
Q1	,138	,306	,451	,652	-,462	,738
Int_1	**-,033**	,089	-,371	**,711**	-,207	,141

The regression coefficient (β3 = -.033) for the interaction term SSW is not significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .711), there is no significant moderation effect. In other words, the relationship between SS and IL is not affected by gender.

Table B.6

Influence on Relationships (RR) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,052	,003	1,512	,617	3,000	681,000	,604

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,218	,208	20,250	,000	3,809	4,627
RR	-,066	,057	-1,160	,246	-,178	,046
Q1	-,059	,362	-,162	,871	-,769	,652
Int_1	**,033**	,099	,337	**,736**	-,161	,227

Since the regression coefficient (β3 = .033) for the interaction term RRW is not significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .337), there is no significant moderation effect. In other words, the relationship between RR and IL is not affected by gender.

Table B.7

Influence on Training and Development (TD) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,199	,040	1,456	9,350	3,000	681,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,716	,195	24,152	,000	4,332	5,099
TD	-,225	,058	-3,905	,000	-,338	-,112
Q1	,123	,309	,399	,690	-,483	,729
Int_1	**-,042**	,095	-,442	**,659**	-,229	,145

Since the regression coefficient (β3 = -.042) for the interaction term TDW is not significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .659), there is no significant moderation effect. In other words, the relationship between TD and IL is not affected by gender.

Table B.8

Influence on Organisational Support (OS) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,192	,037	1,460	8,678	3,000	681,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3,328	,176	18,940	,000	2,983	3,673
OS	,216	,055	3,953	,000	,109	,323
Q1	-,038	,306	-,125	,901	-,640	,563
Int_1	**,032**	,095	,334	**,738**	-,155	,219

Since the regression coefficient (β3 = .032) for the interaction term OSW is not significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .738), there is no significant moderation effect. In other words, the relationship between OS and IL is not affected by gender.

Table B.9

Influence on Work-Life Balance (WLB) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,085	,007	1,505	1,657	3,000	681,000	,175

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3,757	,149	25,219	,000	3,465	4,050
WLB	,087	,052	1,662	,097	-,016	,189
Q1	,017	,260	,067	,947	-,493	,528
Int_1	**,014**	,090	,150	**,880**	-,163	,190

Since the regression coefficient (β = .014) for the interaction term WLBW is not significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .880), there is no significant moderation effect. In other words, the relationship between WLB and IL is not affected by gender.

Table B.10

Influence on Employee Engagement (EE) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,140	,020	1,486	4,566	3,000	681,000	,004

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5,159	,352	14,673	,000	4,469	5,850
EE	-,276	,082	-3,383	,001	-,436	-,116
Q1	-,555	,543	-1,023	,307	-1,621	,511
Int_1	**,137**	,129	1,063	**,288**	-,116	,391

Since the regression coefficient (β3 = .137) for the interaction term EEW is not significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .288), there is no significant moderation effect. In other words, the relationship between EE and IL is not affected by gender.

In summary: The biographical variable of gender does not act as a moderator between the 10 staff retentions factors and IL. This is due to the fact that the regression coefficients produced by the HMRA conducted on gender, the 10 staff retention factors and the IL variable were not statistically significant at the p < .05 level.

RESULTS OF HIERARCHICAL MODERATOR REGRESSION ANALYSIS WITH AGE AS THE MODERATING VARIABLE (2nd biographical variable)

Table B.11

Influence on Organizational Culture (OC) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,343	,118	1,346	12,879	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,726	,238	19,869	,000	4,259	5,193
OC	-,180	,085	-2,129	,034	-,346	-,014
W1	-,023	,323	-,070	,944	-,656	,611
W2	-,052	,375	-,139	,890	-,789	,685
W3	1,606	,825	1,947	,052	-,014	3,225
Int_1	-,027	,113	-,242	,809	-,250	,195
Int_2	-,203	,130	-1,555	,120	-,459	,053
Int_3	**-,584**	,275	-2,126	**,034**	-1,123	-,045

Since the regression coefficient (β = -.584) for the interaction term OCW3 is significant at the alpha level .05 (p = .034), there exists a significant negative moderation effect. However, not all age categories had a moderation effect on the relationship between OC and IL. The only age category which had an effect is the category 50 years and older. In other words, as the age increases to more than 50 years old, the influence of OC on IL is negative, that is, IL decreases. OC is thus important to ensure that this age category remains in the organisation.

Table B.12

Influence on Ethical Leadership (EL) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,328	,108	1,360	11,678	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,643	,221	21,036	,000	4,209	5,076
EL	-,141	,073	-1,916	,056	-,285	,003
W1	-,129	,292	-,442	,659	-,703	,445
W2	-,311	,337	-,923	,356	-,974	,351
W3	1,695	,669	2,533	,012	,381	3,009
Int_1	,009	,096	,091	,927	-,180	,198
Int_2	-,095	,108	-,883	,378	-,307	,117
Int_3	**-,624**	,211	-2,955	**,003**	-1,039	-,209

Since the regression coefficient (β = -.624) for the interaction term ELW3 is significant at the alpha level .05 with p = .003, there exists a significant negative moderation effect. However, not all age categories had a moderation effect on the relationship between EL and IL. The only age category which had an effect is the category 50 years and older. In other words, as the age increases to 50 years and older, EL has a negative effect on IL, that is, IL decreases. EL is thus important to ensure that this age category remains in the organisation.

Table B.13

Influence on Meaningful Job (MJ) and Intention to Leave (IL)

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,284	,081	1,402	8,488	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,674	,371	12,609	,000	3,946	5,402
MJ	-,111	,094	-1,179	,239	-,295	,073
W1	,188	,535	,351	,726	-,863	1,238
W2	-,354	,703	-,503	,615	-1,734	1,027
W3	3,073	1,881	1,634	,103	-,620	6,766
Int_1	-,064	,131	-,490	,625	-,321	,193
Int_2	-,058	,165	-,350	,726	-,382	,267
Int_3	-,739	,431	-1,713	,087	-1,586	,108

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term MJ is significant at the alpha level .05, as all p-values > .05. In other words, age has no moderation effect on the relationship between MJ and IL.

Table B.14

Influence on Compensation and Benefits (CB) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,382	,146	1,302	16,550	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,891	,211	23,167	,000	4,477	5,306
CB	-,231	,071	-3,271	,001	-,370	-,092
W1	-,123	,273	-,452	,652	-,659	,412
W2	,146	,331	,440	,660	-,505	,796
W3	,635	,699	,908	,364	-,738	2,008
Int_1	,001	,091	,008	,994	-,179	,180
Int_2	**-,233**	,106	-2,185	**,029**	-,442	-,024
Int_3	-,217	,209	-1,040	,299	-,627	,193

Since the regression coefficient (β = -.233) for the interaction term CBW2 is significant at the alpha level 0.05 with p = 0.029, there exists a significant negative moderation effect. However, not all age categories had a moderation effect on the relationship between CB and IL. The only age category which had an effect is the category 40 – 49 years old. In other words, as the age increases to between 40 and 50 years old, CB has a negative effect on IL, that is, IL decreases. CB is thus important to ensure that this age category remains in the organisation.

Table B.15

Influence on Supervisory Support (SS) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,304	,093	1,383	9,878	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,420	,259	17,053	,000	3,911	4,928
SS	-,052	,075	-,699	,485	-,199	,094
W1	-,144	,344	-,419	,675	-,819	,531
W2	,006	,356	,016	,987	-,694	,705
W3	1,781	,817	2,179	,030	,176	3,386
Int_1	,011	,098	,112	,911	-,181	,203
Int_2	-,190	,102	-1,874	,061	-,390	,009
Int_3	**-,555**	,230	-2,414	**,016**	-1,007	-,104

Since the regression coefficient (β = -.555) for the interaction term SSW3 is significant at the alpha level 0.05 with p = .016, there exists a significant negative moderation effect. However, not all age categories had a moderation effect on the relationship between SS and IL. The only age category which had an effect is the category 50 years and older. In other words, as the age increases to 50 years and older, SS has a negative effect on IL, that is, IL decreases. SS is thus important to ensure that this age category remains in the organisation.

Table B.16

Influence on Relationships (RR) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,255	,065	1,425	6,744	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,462	,279	15,973	,000	3,913	5,010
RR	-,062	,077	-,802	,423	-,213	,090
W1	-,343	,374	-,917	,360	-1,078	,392
W2	-,133	,470	-,284	,777	-1,055	,789
W3	-,409	,966	-,423	,672	-2,305	1,487
Int_1	,067	,103	,650	,516	-,135	,268
Int_2	-,132	,127	-1,037	,300	-,382	,118
Int_3	,069	,261	,264	,792	-,443	,581

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term RRW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, age has no moderation effect on the relationship between RR and IL.

Table B.17

Influence on Training and Development (TD) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,341	,117	1,347	12,762	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,857	,251	19,370	,000	4,365	5,349
TD	-,196	,077	-2,557	,011	-,347	-,046
W1	-,184	,336	-,547	,585	-,843	,476
W2	-,227	,385	-,589	,556	-,983	,529
W3	2,497	,899	2,778	,006	,732	4,262
Int_1	,027	,102	,261	,794	-,173	,227
Int_2	-,119	,116	-1,033	,302	-,347	,108
Int_3	**-,801**	,266	-3,014	**,003**	-1,323	-,279

Since the regression coefficient (β3 = - 0.801) for the interaction term TDW3 is significant at the alpha level .05 with p = .003, there exists a significant negative moderation effect. However, not all age categories had a moderation effect on the relationship between TD and IL. The only age category which had an effect is the category 50 years and older. In other words, as the age increases to 50 years and older, TD has a negative effect on IL, that is, IL decreases. TD is thus important to ensure that this age category remains in the organisation.

Table B.18

Influence on Organisational Support (OS) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,337	,114	1,351	12,411	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3,753	,254	14,756	,000	3,253	4,252
OS	,159	,078	2,039	,042	,006	,311
W1	-,195	,329	-,592	,554	-,841	,451

W2	-,757	,365	-2,073	,039	-1,474	-,040
W3	-2,037	,689	-2,958	,003	-3,389	-,685
Int_1	,035	,102	,345	,730	-,165	,236
Int_2	,045	,114	,394	,694	-,179	,269
Int_3	**,610**	,212	2,883	**,004**	,195	1,026

Since the regression coefficient (β = .610) for the interaction term OSW3 is significant at the alpha level .05 with p = .004), there exists a significant moderation effect. However, not all age categories had a moderation effect on the relationship between OS and IL. The only age category which had an effect is the category 50 years and older. In other words, as the age increases to 50 years and older, OS has a positive effect on IL, that is, IL increases. It thus appears that OS is not important for this age category, and will not prevent them from leaving the organisation.

Table B.19

Influence on Work-Life Balance (WLB) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,271	,073	1,413	7,669	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,101	,212	19,339	,000	3,684	4,517
WLB	,056	,076	,742	,458	-,092	,205
W1	-,145	,278	-,522	,602	-,690	,400
W2	-,812	,315	-2,582	,010	-1,430	-,195
W3	-,881	,658	-1,340	,181	-2,173	,410
Int_1	,011	,097	,109	,914	-,180	,201
Int_2	,076	,108	,710	,478	-,135	,288
Int_3	,313	,249	1,255	,210	-,177	,803

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term WLBW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, age has no moderation effect on the relationship between WLB and IL.

Table B.20

Influence on Employee Engagement (EE) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,271	,073	1,413	7,636	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,471	,396	11,297	,000	3,694	5,249
EE	-,057	,098	-,579	,563	-,249	,136
W1	,577	,590	,978	,329	-,582	1,735
W2	-,649	,804	-,807	,420	-2,228	,930
W3	,674	1,584	,425	,671	-2,436	3,783
Int_1	-,159	,141	-1,123	,262	-,436	,119
Int_2	,017	,183	,094	,925	-,342	,377
Int_3	-,191	,357	-,535	,593	-,891	,510

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term EEW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, age has no moderation effect on the relationship between EE and IL.

In summary: Two categories of the biographical variable of age acted as a moderator between six of the 10 staff retention factors and IL, negatively for four of the factors and positively for one of the factors. The age category 40 – 49 years old negatively moderated the relationship between CB and IL, while the age category 50 years and older negatively moderated the relationship between OC, EL, SS, and TD and positively moderated the relationship between OS and IL.

RESULTS OF TENURE AS MODERATING VARIABLE (3rd variable)

Table B.21

Influence on Organisational Culture (OC) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,261	,068	1,421	7,050	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,161	,609	6,834	,000	2,966	5,357
OC	-,036	,202	-,180	,857	-,433	,360
W1	,553	,724	,763	,446	-,869	1,975
W2	-,091	,469	-,193	,847	-1,011	,830
W3	,278	,329	,845	,398	-,367	,923
Int_1	-,133	,245	-,542	,588	-,613	,348
Int_2	-,007	,167	-,040	,968	-,334	,321
Int_3	-,208	,116	-1,784	,075	-,436	,021

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term OCW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, tenure has no moderation effect on the relationship between OC and IL.

Table B.22

Influence on Ethical Leadership (EL) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,244	,060	1,434	6,141	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,316	,505	8,540	,000	3,324	5,308
EL	-,086	,157	-,549	,583	-,395	,222
W1	,108	,622	,173	,863	-1,114	1,330
W2	,075	,433	,174	,862	-,774	,925
W3	,199	,296	,673	,501	-,383	,782
Int_1	,029	,197	,149	,881	-,357	,416
Int_2	-,061	,142	-,433	,665	-,340	,217
Int_3	-,180	,097	-1,855	,064	-,370	,011

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term ELW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, tenure has no moderation effect on the relationship between EL and IL.

Table B.23

Influence on Meaningful Job (MJ) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,191	,036	1,469	3,653	7,000	677,000	,001

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,824	,807	5,974	,000	3,239	6,409
MJ	-,192	,196	-,975	,330	-,577	,194
W1	,146	1,029	,142	,887	-1,874	2,166
W2	-,245	,769	-,318	,751	-1,755	1,266
W3	,127	,569	,222	,824	-,991	1,244
Int_1	,013	,252	,053	,958	-,480	,507
Int_2	,036	,190	,190	,849	-,337	,409
Int_3	-,099	,138	-,719	,472	-,370	,172

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term MJW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, tenure has no moderation effect on the relationship between MJ and IL.

Table B.24

Influence on Compensation and Benefits (CB) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,342	,117	1,347	12,780	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5,522	,472	11,687	,000	4,594	6,449
CB	-,496	,149	-3,338	,001	-,787	-,204
W1	-,732	,583	-1,254	,210	-1,877	,414
W2	-,005	,418	-,011	,991	-,826	,817
W3	,138	,290	,475	,635	-,431	,706
Int_1	,306	,188	1,629	,104	-,063	,674
Int_2	-,022	,138	-,162	,872	-,294	,249
Int_3	-,177	,094	-1,886	,060	-,362	,007

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term CBW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, tenure has no moderation effect on the relationship between CB and IL.

Table B.25

Influence on Supervisory Support (SS) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,187	,035	1,471	3,499	7,000	677,000	,001

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,763	,578	8,236	,000	3,627	5,898
SS	-,204	,158	-1,287	,199	-,514	,107
W1	-,635	,728	-,872	,383	-2,065	,794
W2	,348	,519	,671	,502	-,670	1,367
W3	-,119	,338	-,351	,726	-,781	,544
Int_1	,242	,199	1,213	,226	-,150	,634
Int_2	-,133	,144	-,920	,358	-,416	,150
Int_3	-,062	,097	-,638	,523	-,252	,128

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term SSW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, tenure has no moderation effect on the relationship between SS and IL.

Table B.26

Influence on Relationships (RR) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,155	,024	1,488	2,384	7,000	677,000	,021

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,963	,777	6,387	,000	3,437	6,489
RR	-,245	,204	-1,200	,231	-,645	,156
W1	-,651	,915	-,712	,477	-2,447	1,144
W2	-,028	,587	-,048	,962	-1,180	1,124
W3	-,195	,402	-,485	,628	-,984	,594
Int_1	,230	,242	,953	,341	-,244	,705

Int_2	-,020	,159	-,124	,902	-,331	,292
Int_3	-,038	,110	-,342	,732	-,253	,178

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term RRW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, tenure has no moderation effect on the relationship between RR and IL.

Table B.27

Influence on Training and Development (TD) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,244	,059	1,434	6,107	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,624	,550	8,402	,000	3,544	5,705
TD	-,193	,177	-1,092	,275	-,541	,154
W1	-,118	,671	-,175	,861	-1,436	1,201
W2	,537	,480	1,118	,264	-,406	1,480
W3	-,380	,357	-1,065	,287	-1,081	,321
Int_1	,115	,212	,541	,589	-,302	,531
Int_2	-,205	,146	-1,401	,162	-,492	,082
Int_3	,028	,109	,262	,794	-,185	,241

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term TDW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, tenure has no moderation effect on the relationship between TD and IL.

Table B.28

Influence on Organisational Support (OS) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,246	,061	1,432	6,235	7,000	677,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3,553	,548	6,479	,000	2,476	4,630
OS	,187	,192	,973	,331	-,190	,564
W1	,646	,691	,935	,350	-,710	2,002

W2	-,855	,499	-1,715	,087	-1,834	,124
W3	-,292	,333	-,877	,381	-,946	,362
Int_1	-,166	,234	-,710	,478	-,625	,293
Int_2	,243	,157	1,548	,122	-,065	,550
Int_3	-,005	,102	-,053	,958	-,206	,195

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term OSW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, tenure has no moderation effect on the relationship between OS and IL.

Table B.29

Influence on Work-Life Balance (WLB) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,171	,029	1,480	2,901	7,000	677,000	,005

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3,606	,466	7,745	,000	2,692	4,520
WLB	,175	,166	1,054	,292	-,151	,501
W1	,421	,565	,745	,457	-,688	1,530
W2	-,089	,397	-,223	,823	-,867	,690
W3	-,394	,289	-1,364	,173	-,962	,173
Int_1	-,078	,205	-,382	,703	-,482	,325
Int_2	-,011	,146	-,076	,940	-,299	,277
Int_3	,023	,101	,229	,819	-,174	,221

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term WLBW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, tenure has no moderation effect on the relationship between WLB and IL.

Table B.30

Influence on Employee Engagement (EE) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,182	,033	1,474	3,312	7,000	677,000	,002

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI

constant	5,036	,788	6,390	,000	3,489	6,584
EE	-,250	,195	-1,278	,202	-,633	,134
W1	,371	1,090	,340	,734	-1,770	2,511
W2	-,813	,895	-,909	,364	-2,569	,944
W3	,094	,631	,148	,882	-1,146	1,333
Int_1	-,035	,268	-,129	,897	-,562	,492
Int_2	,178	,218	,816	,415	-,250	,607
Int_3	-,089	,149	-,597	,551	-,382	,204

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term EEW is significant at the alpha level 0.05 with all p-values > 0.05. In other words, tenure has no moderation effect on the relationship between EE and IL.

In summary: The biographical variable of tenure does not act as a moderator between the 10 staff retentions factors and Intention to leave (IL). This is due to the fact that the regression coefficients produced by the HMRA conducted on tenure, the 10 staff retention factors and intention to leave variable were not statistically significant at the p < .05 level.

RESULTS OF EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS AS MODERATING VARIABLE (4th variable)

Table B.31

Influence on Organisational Culture (OC) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,318	,101	1,383	5,815	13,000	671,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,360	,576	7,563	,000	3,228	5,492
OC	-,372	,181	-2,054	,040	-,728	-,016
W1	,847	,796	1,064	,288	-,716	2,410
W2	-,626	,775	-,808	,420	-2,148	,896
W3	-1,230	,845	-1,455	,146	-2,890	,430
W4	1,385	,715	1,936	,053	-,020	2,790
W5	,135	,410	,329	,742	-,671	,941
W6	-,291	,391	-,745	,457	-1,060	,477
Int_1	-,164	,255	-,641	,522	-,665	,338
Int_2	,253	,254	,997	,319	-,245	,751
Int_3	,537	,280	1,915	,056	-,014	1,088

Int_4	**-,540**	,241	-2,239	**,025**	-1,013	-,066
Int_5	,063	,144	,438	,661	-,220	,346
Int_6	,053	,144	,369	,712	-,229	,335

Only one of the six interaction regression coefficients for the interaction terms OCW4 is significant at the alpha level .05, as this p-value was < .05 (-.540; p = .025). This means that the majority of interaction regression coefficients are not significant. In other words, educational qualifications can be considered to have no overall moderation effect on the relationship between OC and IL.

Table B.32

Influence on Ethical Leadership (EL) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,315	,099	1,386	5,694	13,000	671,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,535	,542	8,366	,000	3,471	5,599
EL	-,410	,162	-2,535	,011	-,728	-,092
W1	,074	,736	,100	,920	-1,371	1,519
W2	,100	,691	,145	,885	-1,257	1,457
W3	-1,301	,713	-1,824	,069	-2,701	,099
W4	,766	,593	1,291	,197	-,399	1,931
W5	,831	,362	2,295	,022	,120	1,542
W6	-,487	,349	-1,393	,164	-1,172	,199
Int_1	,082	,228	,359	,720	-,366	,530
Int_2	,013	,220	,057	,955	-,419	,444
Int_3	,533	,219	2,431	,015	,103	,963
Int_4	-,294	,182	-1,612	,107	-,652	,064
Int_5	-,181	,119	-1,525	,128	-,413	,052
Int_6	,123	,118	1,047	,296	-,108	,354

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term ELW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, educational qualifications have no overall moderation effect on the relationship between EL and IL.

Table B.33

Influence on Meaningful Job (MJ) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,282	,080	1,416	4,458	13,000	671,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5,105	1,143	4,467	,000	2,861	7,349
MJ	-,448	,269	-1,664	,097	-,976	,081
W1	,756	1,601	,473	,637	-2,386	3,899
W2	-1,023	1,395	-,733	,464	-3,761	1,716
W3	-,209	1,392	-,150	,881	-2,942	2,525
W4	-,303	1,230	-,247	,805	-2,719	2,112
W5	,342	,674	,508	,612	-,981	1,666
W6	,546	,644	,847	,397	-,719	1,811
Int_1	-,060	,371	-,161	,872	-,789	,669
Int_2	,243	,323	,751	,453	-,392	,878
Int_3	,131	,329	,398	,691	-,515	,777
Int_4	,042	,291	,143	,886	-,529	,613
Int_5	-,006	,164	-,034	,973	-,328	,317
Int_6	-,163	,157	-1,043	,297	-,471	,144

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term MJW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, educational qualifications have no overall moderation effect on the relationship between MJ and IL.

Table B.34

Influence on Compensation and Benefits (CB) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,390	,152	1,305	9,248	13,000	671,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,614	,434	10,641	,000	3,763	5,466
CB	-,487	,142	-3,439	,001	-,766	-,209
W1	,562	,643	,874	,382	-,701	1,825
W2	-,870	,625	-1,392	,164	-2,096	,357
W3	,672	,712	,943	,346	-,727	2,071
W4	-,346	,638	-,542	,588	-1,598	,906
W5	,562	,335	1,678	,094	-,096	1,219
W6	-,081	,334	-,244	,807	-,737	,574

Int_1	-,086	,219	-,394	,694	-,516	,343
Int_2	,377	,213	1,769	,077	-,041	,796
Int_3	-,115	,232	-,497	,619	-,570	,340
Int_4	,067	,207	,323	,747	-,340	,474
Int_5	-,081	,111	-,729	,466	-,298	,137
Int_6	-,006	,108	-,053	,957	-,219	,207

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term CBW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, educational qualifications have no overall moderation effect on the relationship between CB and IL.

Table B.35

Influence on Supervisory Support (SS) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,277	,077	1,420	4,302	13,000	671,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,306	,490	8,792	,000	3,344	5,268
SS	-,335	,143	-2,345	,019	-,616	-,055
W1	-,224	,752	-,298	,766	-1,700	1,252
W2	,039	,758	,051	,959	-1,451	1,528
W3	-,210	,752	-,280	,780	-1,686	1,266
W4	,116	,650	,178	,859	-1,161	1,392
W5	,700	,434	1,615	,107	-,151	1,552
W6	-,037	,405	-,090	,928	-,832	,759
Int_1	,211	,216	,976	,329	-,213	,635
Int_2	,013	,215	,060	,952	-,410	,436
Int_3	,158	,209	,759	,448	-,251	,568
Int_4	-,069	,179	-,385	,700	-,421	,283
Int_5	-,109	,123	-,889	,375	-,350	,132
Int_6	-,034	,115	-,291	,771	-,260	,193

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term SSW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, educational qualifications do not moderate the relationship between SS and IL.

Table B.36

Influence on Relationships (RR) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,275	,075	1,422	4,209	13,000	671,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,011	,584	6,866	,000	2,864	5,158
RR	-,222	,158	-1,405	,160	-,532	,088
W1	1,090	,896	1,217	,224	-,669	2,849
W2	-,578	,894	-,647	,518	-2,333	1,176
W3	-,875	,937	-,933	,351	-2,715	,966
W4	,042	,827	,050	,960	-1,583	1,666
W5	,972	,487	1,995	,046	,015	1,928
W6	-,843	,453	-1,862	,063	-1,732	,046
Int_1	-,173	,239	-,723	,470	-,643	,297
Int_2	,171	,242	,706	,481	-,304	,646
Int_3	,342	,255	1,341	,180	-,158	,842
Int_4	-,044	,222	-,198	,843	-,479	,391
Int_5	-,183	,133	-1,379	,168	-,444	,078
Int_6	,204	,124	1,637	,102	-,041	,448

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term RRW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, educational qualifications have no moderation effect on the relationship between RR and IL.

Table B.37

Influence on Training and Development (TD) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,314	,099	1,386	5,661	13,000	671,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,581	,617	7,422	,000	3,369	5,793
TD	-,394	,173	-2,279	,023	-,733	-,055
W1	-1,254	,840	-1,493	,136	-2,904	,395
W2	1,420	,739	1,920	,055	-,032	2,871
W3	-,191	,814	-,235	,814	-1,789	1,407
W4	,145	,739	,196	,845	-1,307	1,596
W5	,355	,425	,837	,403	-,479	1,189
W6	-,300	,412	-,728	,467	-1,108	,509
Int_1	,507	,247	2,055	,040	,023	,991
Int_2	-,428	,226	-1,898	,058	-,871	,015

Int_3	,148	,261	,569	,569	-,363	,660
Int_4	-,068	,240	-,283	,777	-,539	,403
Int_5	-,014	,128	-,108	,914	-,266	,238
Int_6	,058	,125	,463	,643	-,187	,303

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term TDW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, educational qualifications do not moderate the relationship between TD and IL.

Table B.38

Influence on Organisational Support (OS) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,326	,106	1,375	6,145	13,000	671,000	,000

Model	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1,707	,508	3,357	,001	,709	2,705
OS	,501	,160	3,139	,002	,188	,814
W1	1,104	,732	1,508	,132	-,333	2,541
W2	-,124	,712	-,174	,862	-1,523	1,275
W3	2,030	,795	2,552	,011	,468	3,592
W4	-1,684	,711	-2,367	,018	-3,081	-,287
W5	,862	,417	2,067	,039	,043	1,681
W6	-,349	,385	-,907	,365	-1,106	,407
Int_1	-,215	,228	-,942	,347	-,663	,233
Int_2	,082	,228	,359	,720	-,365	,529
Int_3	**-,583**	,256	-2,275	**,023**	-1,087	-,080
Int_4	**,518**	,225	2,300	**,022**	,076	,960
Int_5	-,176	,130	-1,357	,175	-,431	,079
Int_6	,068	,118	,575	,566	-,164	,299

Only two of the six interaction regression coefficients for the interaction terms OSW3 and OSW4 are significant at the alpha level .05, as these two p-values were < .05 (-.583; p = .023 and .518; p = .022). This means that the majority of interaction regression coefficients are not significant. In other words, educational qualifications can be considered to have no overall moderation effect on the relationship between OS and IL.

Table B.39

Influence on Work-Life Balance (WLB) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,264	,070	1,431	3,882	13,000	671,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2,771	,404	6,856	,000	1,977	3,564
WLB	,168	,137	1,220	,223	-,102	,438
W1	,016	,659	,024	,981	-1,277	1,309
W2	,811	,652	1,243	,214	-,470	2,091
W3	,258	,680	,379	,705	-1,077	1,592
W4	-,083	,615	-,135	,893	-1,290	1,125
W5	,193	,348	,554	,580	-,490	,876
W6	,076	,331	,230	,818	-,574	,727
Int_1	,155	,224	,695	,487	-,283	,594
Int_2	-,271	,218	-1,239	,216	-,699	,158
Int_3	,029	,234	,126	,900	-,430	,489
Int_4	-,012	,217	-,057	,955	-,439	,415
Int_5	,049	,123	,403	,687	-,191	,290
Int_6	-,078	,116	-,667	,505	-,306	,151

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term WLBW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, educational qualifications do not moderate the relationship between WLB and IL.

Table B.40

Influence on Employee Engagement (EE) and Intention to Leave (IL)

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,265	,070	1,430	3,906	13,000	671,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,670	1,304	3,582	,000	2,110	7,230
EE	-,328	,293	-1,119	,263	-,903	,247
W1	-,643	2,140	-,301	,764	-4,846	3,559
W2	-,379	2,033	-,186	,852	-4,370	3,613
W3	1,223	1,618	,756	,450	-1,954	4,401
W4	-,200	1,303	-,154	,878	-2,758	2,358
W5	,536	,727	,737	,461	-,892	1,964
W6	-,626	,677	-,925	,355	-1,955	,703
Int_1	,250	,473	,527	,598	-,680	1,179
Int_2	,101	,453	,224	,823	-,788	,990
Int_3	-,215	,378	-,568	,571	-,957	,528

Int_4	,019	,308	,062	,950	-,585	,623
Int_5	-,055	,173	-,320	,749	-,396	,285
Int_6	,124	,161	,769	,442	-,193	,441

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term EEW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, educational qualifications do not moderate the relationship between EE and IL.

In summary: The biographical variable of educational qualifications does not act as a moderator between the 10 staff retentions factors and Intention to leave (IL). This is due to the fact that the regression coefficients produced by the HMRA conducted on educational qualifications, the 10 staff retention factors and intention to leave variable were not statistically significant for nine of the 10 staff retention factors at the p < .05 level. For one staff retention factor, namely OS, only one of the six interaction regression coefficients were significant (-.583; p = .023 and .518; p = .022). However, this does not provide enough evidence of overall moderation of educational qualifications for all of the 10 staff retention factors and intention to leave; thus, educational qualifications can be considered to have no moderation effect on the relationship between the 10 staff retention factors and IL.

RESULTS OF JOB GRADE AS MODERATING VARIABLE (5th variable)

Table B.41

Influence on Organisational Culture (OC) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,242	,058	1,440	4,651	9,000	675,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,528	,429	10,544	,000	3,685	5,371
OC	-,268	,156	-1,724	,085	-,573	,037
W1	,806	,656	1,228	,220	-,483	2,095
W2	-,914	,554	-1,651	,099	-2,002	,173
W3	,752	,366	2,056	,040	,034	1,471
W4	-,525	,451	-1,162	,246	-1,411	,362
Int_1	-,193	,236	-,818	,414	-,657	,271

Int_2	,323	,198	1,635	,102	-,065	,711
Int_3	-,259	,129	-2,005	,045	-,512	-,005
Int_4	,116	,152	,762	,446	-,182	,414

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term OCW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, job grade has no moderation effect on the relationship between OC and IL.

Table B.42

Influence on Ethical Leadership (EL) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,211	,044	1,461	3,491	9,000	675,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,235	,388	10,906	,000	3,472	4,997
EL	-,138	,122	-1,126	,261	-,378	,103
W1	,682	,584	1,168	,243	-,464	1,829
W2	-,467	,491	-,951	,342	-1,430	,497
W3	,115	,326	,354	,723	-,525	,756
W4	,293	,402	,730	,466	-,496	1,083
Int_1	-,144	,188	-,768	,443	-,513	,224
Int_2	,140	,160	,869	,385	-,176	,455
Int_3	-,019	,108	-,181	,856	-,231	,192
Int_4	-,184	,129	-1,432	,153	-,437	,068

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term ELW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, job grade has no moderation effect on the relationship between EL and IL.

Table B.43

Influence on Meaningful Job (MJ) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,182	,033	1,479	2,559	9,000	675,000	,007

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,589	1,072	4,282	,000	2,485	6,694

MJ	-,173	,241	-,719	,472	-,646	,300
W1	,342	1,430	,239	,811	-2,466	3,150
W2	,334	1,040	,322	,748	-1,707	2,376
W3	-,816	,594	-1,373	,170	-1,982	,351
W4	,757	,705	1,073	,284	-,628	2,142
Int_1	-,021	,326	-,065	,948	-,661	,619
Int_2	-,105	,243	-,433	,665	-,582	,372
Int_3	,213	,145	1,463	,144	-,073	,498
Int_4	-,257	,173	-1,486	,138	-,597	,083

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term MJW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, job grade has no moderation effect on the relationship between MJ and IL.

Table B.44

Influence on Compensation and Benefits (CB) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,313	,098	1,380	8,118	9,000	675,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,317	,426	10,125	,000	3,480	5,155
CB	-,152	,125	-1,214	,225	-,398	,094
W1	1,496	,666	2,247	,025	,189	2,802
W2	-,825	,551	-1,496	,135	-1,908	,258
W3	,037	,292	,127	,899	-,536	,611
W4	-,559	,382	-1,461	,145	-1,309	,192
Int_1	-,372	,196	-1,903	,058	-,757	,012
Int_2	,174	,167	1,045	,296	-,153	,501
Int_3	-,003	,102	-,033	,973	-,203	,197
Int_4	,138	,125	1,108	,268	-,107	,384

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term CBW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, job grade has no moderation effect on the relationship between CB and IL.

Table B.45

Influence on Supervisory Support (SS) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p

,148	,022	1,496	1,676	9,000	675,000	,091

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,427	,423	10,454	,000	3,595	5,258
SS	-,183	,122	-1,502	,134	-,421	,056
W1	,112	,650	,172	,864	-1,165	1,389
W2	-,136	,556	-,244	,807	-1,227	,955
W3	,173	,374	,462	,644	-,562	,907
W4	-,722	,461	-1,566	,118	-1,628	,184
Int_1	,058	,181	,320	,749	-,298	,414
Int_2	,018	,153	,114	,909	-,283	,318
Int_3	-,035	,107	-,327	,744	-,246	,176
Int_4	,133	,131	1,018	,309	-,124	,390

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term SSW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, job grade has no moderation effect on the relationship between SS and IL.

Table B.46

Influence on Relationships (RR) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,147	,022	1,496	1,657	9,000	675,000	,096

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3,163	,453	6,981	,000	2,273	4,053
RR	,191	,124	1,533	,126	-,054	,435
W1	,665	,766	,869	,385	-,838	2,169
W2	,435	,687	,633	,527	-,913	1,783
W3	,206	,432	,478	,633	-,641	1,053
W4	,129	,518	,250	,803	-,888	1,147
Int_1	-,115	,207	-,555	,579	-,521	,292
Int_2	-,137	,184	-,740	,459	-,499	,226
Int_3	-,043	,118	-,366	,715	-,276	,189
Int_4	-,114	,142	-,808	,419	-,393	,164

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term RRW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, job grade has no moderation effect on the relationship between RR and IL.

Table B.47

Influence on Training and Development (TD) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,224	,050	1,453	3,957	9,000	675,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,901	,484	10,119	,000	3,950	5,852
TD	-,329	,142	-2,313	,021	-,608	-,050
W1	,455	,732	,622	,534	-,982	1,893
W2	-,704	,606	-1,163	,245	-1,893	,485
W3	,266	,373	,713	,476	-,466	,998
W4	-,623	,459	-1,358	,175	-1,525	,278
Int_1	-,039	,211	-,185	,853	-,453	,375
Int_2	,173	,174	,993	,321	-,169	,514
Int_3	-,072	,116	-,620	,535	-,299	,155
Int_4	,122	,138	,881	,379	-,149	,393

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term TDW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, job grade has no moderation effect on the relationship between TD and IL.

Table B.48

Influence on Organisational Support (OS) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,233	,054	1,446	4,321	9,000	675,000	,000

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2,747	,437	6,287	,000	1,889	3,605
OS	,383	,148	2,594	,010	,093	,674
W1	,360	,600	,600	,549	-,819	1,539
W2	,830	,485	1,709	,088	-,124	1,783
W3	-,711	,380	-1,872	,062	-1,457	,035
W4	-,294	,443	-,664	,507	-1,165	,576
Int_1	-,037	,200	-,184	,854	-,428	,355
Int_2	**-,312**	,154	-2,018	**,044**	-,615	-,008
Int_3	**,242**	,113	2,137	**,033**	,020	,465
Int_4	,039	,143	,274	,784	-,241	,320

Two of the four interaction regression coefficients for the interaction terms OSW2 and OSW3 are significant at the alpha level .05, as these two p-values were < .05. However, the practical effect of these two coefficients were very small (-.312 and .242 respectively), and are thus not significant. Due to this there is not enough evidence to suggest that job grade has a moderation effect on the relationship between OS and IL.

Table B.49

Influence on Work-Life Balance (WLB) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,143	,021	1,498	1,574	9,000	675,000	,119

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3,599	,369	9,757	,000	2,875	4,323
WLB	,082	,124	,659	,510	-,162	,326
W1	-,369	,571	-,646	,518	-1,490	,752
W2	,652	,482	1,352	,177	-,295	1,599
W3	-,052	,305	-,170	,865	-,652	,548
W4	,065	,383	,170	,865	-,687	,817
Int_1	,245	,197	1,241	,215	-,143	,632
Int_2	-,266	,169	-1,576	,116	-,597	,065
Int_3	,042	,104	,404	,687	-,162	,245
Int_4	-,133	,143	-,934	,351	-,414	,147

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term WLBW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values > .05. In other words, job grade has no moderation effect on the relationship between WLB and IL.

Table B.50

Influence on Employee Engagement (EE) and Intention to Leave (IL)

Model Summary						
R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,162	,026	1,489	2,025	9,000	675,000	,034

Model						
	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4,578	1,123	4,078	,000	2,374	6,783

EE	-,166	,246	-,676	,499	-,649	,317
W1	1,081	1,415	,764	,445	-1,697	3,859
W2	-,722	,976	-,740	,460	-2,637	1,194
W3	-,145	,654	-,222	,824	-1,431	1,140
W4	-,106	,818	-,130	,897	-1,712	1,500
Int_1	-,197	,316	-,625	,532	-,818	,423
Int_2	,150	,226	,663	,508	-,294	,594
Int_3	,045	,157	,289	,773	-,262	,353
Int_4	-,038	,195	-,195	,845	-,420	,344

None of the interaction regression coefficients for the interaction term EEW is significant at the alpha level .05 with all p-values >0.05. In other words, job grade has no moderation effect the relationship between EE and IL.

In summary: The biographical variable of job grade does not act as a moderator between the 10 staff retentions factors and IL. This is due to the fact that the regression coefficients produced by the HMRA conducted on job grade, the 10 staff retention factors and intention to leave variable were not statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. For one staff retention factor, namely OS, two of the four interaction regression coefficients were significant (.312; $p = .044$ and .242; $p = .033$). However, this does not provide enough evidence of overall moderation of job grade for all of the 10 staff retention factors and IL; thus, job grade can be considered to have no moderation effect on the relationship between the 10 staff retention factors and IL.

APPENDIX C: CONSENT FORM

UNISA university of south africa

PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT

Ethics clearance reference number: N/A

Research permission reference number:

A STAFF RETENTION MODEL FOR STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Date:

Dear Participant

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I, ___________________ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation. I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet. I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable). I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified. I agree to the recording of the information submitted via the electronic survey system. I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname………………………………………… (Please print)

Participant Signature………………………………………………. Date…………………

Researcher's Name & Surname……………………………………… (Please print)

Researcher's signature…………………………………………….Date…………………

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PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Ethics clearance reference number: N/A
Research permission reference number: 30935424

Date

Title: A STAFF RETENTION MODEL FOR STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Dear Prospective Participant

You are voluntary invited to participate in the study, which Christinah Maphanga a research student and HR professional will be conducting at Transnet Soc Ltd as part of my Doctoral study in Organisational and Industrial Psychology through the University of South Africa under supervision of Prof Benjamin Olivier. The researcher and not the organisation initiate the study. The University of South Africa Ethical Review Committee has approved the study. The purpose of the study is to develop and validate a model of staff retention for SOEs in South Africa. The reason for your selection is that my sample is based skilled and professional employees who work for Transnet. The research in this area will assist organizations to enhance their retention strategies and models.

Your participation will be strictly anonymous and information will be used in a confidential manner and be protected under (the Protection of Personal Information Act, nr 4 of 2013,). Your participation will be only be used for research purposes and to enable the organization to understand its employees better. Your role in the study would be to answer the research questionnaires pertaining employee retention variables to build the model for retention for the South African state Owned entities in South Africa. Access to contact you will be via an automated electronic survey via a general company mailbox. Your participation would be appreciated as the study involves assisting the organization to build a retention strategy that could also contribute to the value proposition. The questionnaires to be distributed will only take 30 minutes to complete in the form of electronic survey. Participants in the electronic survey will

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be given 4 weeks to complete the survey. Your name and identify will not be required for the research as the purpose is to sample 1000 employees. As a participant to the study, you may withdraw at any time without any prejudice or loss to you. We do not foresee that you will experience any negative consequences from participating in the survey. Your involvement will require you to agree to a consent form and your participation is voluntary. Your involvement in the study will be accordance with strict ethical clearance/approval and all data will be dealt will be held in a secured and confidential setting. Information will not be linked to your name or any confidential information, the data will be stored for academic purposes in secured electronic system and not accessible to the organisation for period of 5 years, and thereafter it would be deleted. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for your participation in the survey. All data thereafter will be destroyed and shredded permanently. Any academic publications of the study will not disclose any confidential information and all privacy protocols will be adhered to and maintained. The study once concluded will be accessible to the participants in the form a research report upon request.

The research was reviewed and approved by the CAES General Ethics Review Committee. The primary researcher, MS Christinah Maphanga can be contacted during office hours at 0634074045. The study leader, Professor Benjamin Olivier, can be contacted during office hours at. 012 429 8801 Should you have any questions regarding the ethical aspects of the study, you can contact the chairperson of the CAES General Ethics review Committee, Dr A Van Niekerk, at 012 429 8231 or vniekerk@unisa.ac.za. Alternatively, you can report any serious unethical behaviour at the University's Toll -Free Hotline 0800 86 96 93.

Thank you

Christinah Maphanga – Researcher

APPENDIX D: ETHICAL APPROVAL

UNISA

UNISA CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

NHREC Registration # : (if applicable)
ERC Reference # : ***2019_CEMS/IOP_031***
Name : Mrs Christinah Hlamalane Maphanga
Student #: 30935423
Staff #: N/a

02 January 2020

Dear Mrs Christinah Hlamalane Maphanga,

Decision: Ethics approval from 02 January 2020 to 02 January 2025

Researcher(s): Name: Christinah Hlamalane Maphanga
Address: P O BOX 1856, Faerie glen, Postal code, 43
E-mail address, telephone: christinah.maphanga@gmail.com, 0828477618

Supervisor (s): Name: Prof Benjamin Hugh Olivier
Email address, telephone: olivibh@unisa.ac.za, (012) 429-8801

A STAFF RETENTION MODEL FOR STATE-OWNED ENTERPRISES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Qualification: Doctoral- Post graduate degree

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for **five** years.

*The **low risk application** was **reviewed** by the CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee on the 2nd December 2019 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The decision was approved on 2nd January 2020.*

The proposed research may only commence with the provision that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

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2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date (02 January 2025). Submission of a complete research ethics progress report will constitute an application for the renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:
*The reference number **2019_CEMS/IOP_031** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,

Signature
Chair of IOP ERC
E-mail: vnieka2@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 429-8231

Signature
Executive Dean : CEMS
E-mail: mogalmt@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 429-4805

APPENDIX E: QUESTIONNAIRE

Available on Request from the researcher

STAFF RETENTION
QUESTIONNAIRE (SRQ)

The ***aim of this questionnaire*** is to collect, analyse and interpret data regarding the retention practices in your organisation. This data will be used for research purposes to compile a model of staff retention.

As a member of your organisation, you are invited to express your views on the ***staff retention practices*** of your organisation, as you perceive them to be. To this end, you are asked to answer ALL the following questions honestly and openly. Your opinion is very important, as it will assist the researcher in gathering the necessary data to statistically analyse all responses.

Your views, concerns and opinions will be treated with the ***utmost confidentiality***. For this reason, you need not identify yourself by name on this questionnaire.

Thank you for your participation and cooperation in this research study!

Please read the instructions carefully and remember to answer each question as honestly as you can.

INSTRUCTIONS

This questionnaire consists of three sections, namely ***Section A***: *Biographical Information and* **Section B**: *Questionnaire Items* on retention factors and ***Section C*** *the Intention to leave Questions* which determine the retention factors.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Under this section each item must be answered on the questionnaire itself. Please write down your choices for Questions 1 to 5 by making a cross (X) over the appropriate number for each of the 5 items. Please answer ALL 5 items.

1. Are you:

Male?	1
Female?	2

2. What is your current age?

Less that 29 years old	1
29 - 39 years old	2
40 – 49 years old	3
50 – 60 years old	4
Plder than 60 years	5

3. What is your highest educational qualification? (Mark ONLY one)

Standard 8/Grade 10 and below	1
Standard 9/Grade 11	2
Standard 10/Grade 12	3
Certificate	4
Diploma (1 year)	5
Diploma (2 years)	6
Diploma (3 years)	7
Advanced diploma	8
3 – 4 year Degree	9
Honours Degree	10
Masters Degree	11
Doctoral Degree	12
Other (Specify) ____________________	13

4. How long have you been working for your organisation?

Less than 2 years	1
2 - 3 years	2
4 - 5 years	3
6 - 10 years	4
More than 10 years	5

5. What is your job grade?

Grade B	1
Grade C	2
Grade D	3
Grade E	4
Grade F	5
Grade G	6

SECTION B: Retention Factors

This section has 156 questions that must also be answered on the questionnaire itself in the blocks provided. In all cases, there are five answers to choose from. Please indicate your choice by making a cross (X) in the appropriate block. Please try to mark the *Undecided* block or option as little as possible.

On my present job, this is how I feel about my **compensation and benefits** …	Strongly Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Undecided	Satisfied	Strongly Satisfied
1. My benefits package	1	2	3	4	5
2. My most recent raise	1	2	3	4	5
3. The information about pay issues provided by the company	1	2	3	4	5
4. My current total salary package (base pay, benefits and incentives)	1	2	3	4	5
5. The company's pay structure	1	2	3	4	5
6. Influence my supervisor has on my pay	1	2	3	4	5
7. The competitiveness of my total salary package (base pay, benefits and incentives)	1	2	3	4	5
8. The value of my benefits	1	2	3	4	5
9. Consistency of the company's pay policies	1	2	3	4	5
10. Size of my current financial incentive	1	2	3	4	5
11. The number of benefits I receive	1	2	3	4	5
12. How my raises are determined	1	2	3	4	5
13. How the company administers pay	1	2	3	4	5
14. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organisations offer	1	2	3	4	5
15. There are benefits we do not have which we should have	1	2	3	4	5
On my present job, this is how I feel about my job characteristics...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
16. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills	1	2	3	4	5
17. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgement in carrying out the work	1	2	3	4	5
18. The job is quite simple and repetitive	1	2	3	4	5
19. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work	1	2	3	4	5
On my present job, this is how I feel about training and development ...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
20. This company is providing me with job-specific training	1	2	3	4	5
21. Sufficient time is allocated for product and solution training	1	2	3	4	5
22. I can apply the training I receive in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
23. There are enough development opportunities for me in this company	1	2	3	4	5
24. Sufficient money is allocated for product and solution training	1	2	3	4	5
25. I have the opportunity to be involved in activities that promote my professional development	1	2	3	4	5
On my present job, this is how I feel about my supervisor...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
26. My supervisor looks for opportunities to praise positive employee performance, both privately and in front of others	1	2	3	4	5
27. I feel undervalued by my supervisor	1	2	3	4	5

28. The supervisor almost never gives me feedback about how well I complete my work	1	2	3	4	5
29. My supervisor rewards a good idea by implementing it and giving the responsible employee(s) credit	1	2	3	4	5
30. My supervisor seldom recognises an employee for work well done	1	2	3	4	5
31. My supervisor often lets me know how well he thinks I am performing on the job	1	2	3	4	5
On my present job, this is how I feel about my <u>career growth and development</u>...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
32. My chances for being promoted are good	1	2	3	4	5
33. There are enough career opportunities for me in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
34. Job vacancies at this organisation are usually filled by people from outside this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
35. It would be easy to find a job in another department	1	2	3	4	5
36. An employee who applies for another job at this organisation has a better chance of getting that job than someone from outside this organisation who applies for the job	1	2	3	4	5
37. An employee's career development is important to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
On my present job, this is how I feel about <u>the balance between work and life</u>...	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
38. I often feel like there is too much work to do	1	2	3	4	5
39. My work schedule is often in conflict with my personal life	1	2	3	4	5
40. My job affects my role as a spouse and/or parent	1	2	3	4	5
41. My job has negative effects on my personal life	1	2	3	4	5
In terms of <u>engagement</u> this is how I feel	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
42. Overall, I'm satisfied with my job"	1	2	3	4	5
43. I feel a sense of commitment to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
44. "I take an active interest in what happens in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
45. Overall, I would recommend this organisation as a great place to work	1	2	3	4	5
46. I feel inspired to go the extra mile 47. to help this organisation succeed	1	2	3	4	5
48. I look for ways to do my job more effectively	1	2	3	4	5
On my present job this is how I feel about <u>organisational support</u>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
49. My organisation values my contribution to its well-being	1	2	3	4	5
50. My organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me	1	2	3	4	5

51. My organisation really cares about my wellbeing	1	2	3	4	5
52. My organisation would ignore any complaint from me	1	2	3	4	5
53. Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice	1	2	3	4	5
54. The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work	1	2	3	4	5
55. I look for ways to do my job more effectively	1	2	3	4	5
56. The organisation shows very little concern for me	1	2	3	4	5
57. The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work	1	2	3	4	5
58. My organisation would grant a reasonable request for a change in my working conditions	1	2	3	4	5
59. Help is available from the organisation when I have a problem	1	2	3	4	5
60. If I decided to quit, my organisation would try to persuade me to stay.	1	2	3	4	5
Regarding <u>ethical leadership</u>, this is how leaders, managers and supervisors conduct themselves …	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
Shows a strong concern for ethical and moral Values.	1	2	3	4	5
61. Communicates clear ethical standards to employees	1	2	3	4	5
62. Sets an example of ethical behaviour in his/her decisions and actions					5
63. Is honest and can be trusted to tell the truth	1	2	3	4	5
64. Keeps his/her actions consistent with his/her stated values (“walks the talk”).	1	2	3	4	5
65. Is fair and unbiased when assigning tasks to employees	1	2	3	4	5
66. Can be trusted to carry out promises and commitments	1	2	3	4	5
67. Insists on doing what is fair and ethical even when it is not easy	1	2	3	4	5
68. Acknowledges mistakes and takes responsibility for them.	1	2	3	4	5
69. Regards honesty and integrity as important personal Values.	1	2	3	4	5
70. Sets an example of dedication and self-sacrifice for the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
71. Opposes the use of unethical practices to increase Performance	1	2	3	4	5
72. Is fair and objective when evaluating member performance and providing rewards	1	2	3	4	5
73. Puts the needs of others above his/her own self-interest.	1	2	3	4	5
74. Holds employees accountable for using ethical practices in their work	1	2	3	4	5
On my present job, this is how <u>satisfied</u> I am with my present job ….	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

75. My job is meaningful to me	1	2	3	4	5
76. I like doing the things I do at work	1	2	3	4	5
77. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job	1	2	3	4	5
78. My job is enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5
79. I feel my work is fulfilling	1	2	3	4	5
This is how <u>meaningful</u> I find my present job	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
80. I have found a meaningful career	1	2	3	4	5
81. I understand how my job contribute to my life meaning	1	2	3	4	5
82. I have a good sense of what makes my job meaningful	1	2	3	4	5
83. I have discovered the work that has satisfying purpose	1	2	3	4	5
84. I know my work is contributing on my personal growth	1	2	3	4	5
85. My work helps me better understand myself	1	2	3	4	5
86. My work helps me makes sense of the world around me	1	2	3	4	5
87. My work really makes no difference to the world	1	2	3	4	5
88. I know my work makes a positive difference to the world	1	2	3	4	5
89. The work I do serve a greater purpose	1	2	3	4	5

Retention factors : ORGANISATION CULTURE

This section has 67 questions that must also be answered on the questionnaire itself in the blocks provided. In all cases there are five answers to choose from. Please indicate your choice by making a cross (X) in the appropriate block. Please try to mark the *Undecided* block or option as little as possible

The following questions (90 – 156) has to do with the <u>culture</u> of your organisation					
	Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
LEADERSHIP					
90.My immediate manager/supervisor treats staff consistently (in the same way) irrespective of who you are.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
91 My immediate manager sets an example everyone can follow – he/she walks the talk.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐/ 4	☐ 5
92 My immediate manager/supervisor does a good job at people management.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
93 My immediate manager/supervisor is competent; he/she knows his/her job.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
94 My immediate/supervisor encourages teamwork amongst members of my division.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
95 I get along well with my immediate manager/supervisor.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
96 My immediate manager/supervisor encourages subordinates to give their opinion regarding work matters.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5

The following questions (90 – 156) has to do with the culture of your organisation					
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
97 Managers in my department recognise the value of working with a team of diverse employees.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
98 Management takes purposeful action to make contact with employees on lower levels.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
99 There are sufficient personal discussions on matters of significance between managers and their employees.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
100 Management in my division has informed us timeously how new plans and changes will affect our work.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
101 Teamwork is an important characteristic.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
MEANS TO ACHIEVE OBJECTIVES					
102 We solve our differences – we get down to the root of our differences.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
103 Conflict between divisions/functions in the company does not cause a waste of resources.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
104 The activities of the various divisions are co-ordinated and aligned.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
105 Structures do not change too rapidly.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
106 Conflict is resolved by confronting those involved with the problem and mutually working towards solutions.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
107 A relaxed yet dynamic atmosphere exists.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
108 There is an unconditional acceptance of subordinates as human beings.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
109 The need for diversity is recognised and used to the benefit of the company.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
110 We are all clear about our roles.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
111 The minimum duplication of work occurs.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
112 Management believes subordinates are self-motivated and have the ability to control their own work.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
113 The company recognises and manages the impact of change on the business.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
114 Work is equally distributed amongst employees, not overloaded while others are under utilised.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
115 We are satisfied with the technology (computers, software) we use.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
MANAGEMENT PROCESSES					
116 Rules and regulations are continuously reviewed and upgraded to cope with change.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5

The following questions (90 – 156) has to do with the culture of your organisation					
	Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
117 Employees are continuously encouraged to develop better work procedures and methods.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
118 The achievement of goals is considered as important; therefore, enough time is spent on implementation.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
119 Management does their best to ensure the success of change.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
120 Our employees display a professional image in their contact with the public.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
121 Employees are committed to change that will improve the company.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
122 Performance evaluation is succeeded with development interviews during which training and development actions are jointly planned.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
123 Employees are adequately informed about what other divisions are doing.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
124 Employees and managers collectively formulate objectives.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
125 In the company those persons in positions of authority delegate as much power as is required to complete the tasks successfully.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
126 We provide our products/services totally free from any discrimination (race or gender).	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
127 My work environment could be described as participative.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
128 Change in the company is a well-planned process.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
129 Performance/achievement is evaluated objectively according to actual results.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
130 Performance feedback sessions are held with employee's weekly/monthly to evaluate their performance against predetermined …	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
131 The company is known for its innovative products and/or services.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
132 I believe that my own personal objectives can be satisfied, through the achievement of organisational objectives.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
EMPLOYEE NEEDS AND OBJECTIVES					
133 Our remuneration system (salary, fringe benefits, etc) is fair.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
134 Equal opportunities for all people in the company have become a reality.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
135 The company is doing what it says regarding equal opportunities for all employees.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐
136 The company cares for its employees.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
137 When any employee makes a mistake such a mistake is not held against him/ her for a long time.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
138 There is openness in the company on matters that are important to me.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5

The following questions (90 – 156) has to do with the <u>culture</u> of your organisation					
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
139 A visible trust relationship exists between employees and management.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
140 Employees are given the opportunity to make a contribution in identifying the outputs for their own division.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
141 The company is managed effectively.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
142 Subordinates have an open channel of communication to higher levels in the hierarchy.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
143 When decisions are made at higher levels, those affected most by these decisions are consulted.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
144 Recruitment takes place without discrimination in terms of gender, race or language.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
145 The company responds quickly to changes in the internal and external environment.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
VISION AND MISSION					
146 I understand the overall objectives of the company.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
147 I fully understand the mission of the company.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
148 I believe that our Executive Management has the vision and knowledge to lead the company successfully.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
149 Executive Management keeps employees informed about the strategy of the company.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
150 The company takes purposeful action to integrate its core values with all activities and results.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT					
151 I am satisfied with the company's involvement in the community.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
152 We are serious about the social responsibility – respect for the environment is clearly visible in our activities.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
153 The company shares its success with the community.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
INTERNAL RELATIONSHIPS					
154 It is desirable to appoint people of all race groups at all levels of authority in the company.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
155 The company's Employment Equity/ diversity strategy has been clearly communicated to me.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
156 I understand the company's Employment Equity strategy.	☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5

SECTION C: INTENTION TO LEAVE

This section has 6 questions that must also be answered on the questionnaire itself in the blocks provided. In all cases there are five answers to choose from. Please indicate your choice by making a cross (X) in the appropriate block. Please try to mark the *Undecided* block or option as little as possible

On my present job, this is how I feel about <u>my intention to leave the organisation</u>...	Chances are very low	Chances are low	Undecided	Chances are good	Chances are Very good
1. How would you rate your chances of still working at this company a year from now	1	2	3	4	5
2. Do you intend to leave this company voluntarily in the near future?	1	2	3	4	5
3. What are your plans for staying with this organisation?	*1*	*2*	3	4	5
4. I am currently searching for employment outside the organisation	*1*	*2*	3	4	5
5. Would leave for more pay in another company	1	2	3	4	5
6. Would leave for a promotion	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR YOU