INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES –THE CASE OF THE

ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT

IN LIGHT OF THE ABU DHABI ECONOMIC VISION 2030

EMAN AWNI ABOUABIDALLA

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of Liverpool John Moores University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

MAY 2022

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Abstract

As the literature reveals, Strategic Talent Management (STM) processes are critical to organisational success, which depends on the ability to attract, develop, and retain top talents that align with organisational goals and objectives, in order to maximize performance and sustain a competitive advantage. While managing talent remains one of the most challenging issues for key actors across various industries, this thesis specifically explores Talent Management (TM) strategies in Abu Dhabi Government (ADG)-affiliated departments. It investigates TM adoption and implementation levels through a framework that ranks and gauges the effectiveness and influence of context-specific factors on talent retention in the Emirates, where talent is in high demand and low supply. An integrated model was developed, using nine independent factors, of which six were found to be the main determinants of talent acquisition and nurturing in the context of Abu Dhabi public service establishments. This framework integrates essential concepts from the human resources management field with job satisfaction and the employer branding, which is the contextual/organisational environment-related factor at ADG. Such multiple theoretical and Human Resources Management (HRM) lenses are TM strategies involved in the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development's TM pipeline, the Framework for Social Exchange Theory (SET) and the Resource-Based View (RBV) Theory.

This study adopts a positivist philosophical stance to examine the impact of the relevant/emerging factors on talent retention. Data were collected employing a web-based survey, which returned 287 valid responses from the recruited population, comprising UAE national leaders of ADG. SPSS (version 26) was utilised in the demographic and inferential analysis to test the proposed hypotheses and rank the study factors extrapolated from the extant literature (multiple regression), and AMOS (version-26) was employed to examine the

measurement model (study variables/constructs) via confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which demonstrated good construct validity. In addition, AMOS was applied for structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis to verify the theoretical propositions and test the structural model. This analysis showed that the developed model had an acceptable fit with the collected data.

The findings of this study confirm that the establishment of talent management programmes at ADG is grounded by TM adaptation factors. Moreover, an effective talent management and retention strategy is influenced by various TM-related factors, in addition to other factors that impinge on the ability to deliver and obtain a competitive edge in talent enticement and retention. Such factors have a significant effect on the predicted level of talent attraction and the retention of talented Emirati leaders in local Abu Dhabi service organisations within the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Therefore, each dimension of the integrated approach provided more insight into the adoption and implementation of talent attraction and retention strategies, as well as the intention of recruited talent to remain with their employer. Talent Satisfaction was the major success factor; other influential factors were a Leadership Development Programme, Performance Appraisal, Attraction and Retention Strategies by Enabling and Empowering talents, Participative Leadership, and Supportive Leadership. All these factors have been integrated in the final model. Meanwhile, the context-specific factors of Leadership Development Effectiveness, Incentives, Work Conditions and Performance Rewards, and Instrumental Leadership had no significant impact on talent retention. Accordingly, these have been excluded. The SEM retention model offered in the study was, therefore, proven to be effective in explaining the intentions of talent to stay for the long-term future (a dependent variable). By collecting empirical evidence, this study attempts to offer theoretical and practical contributions to the under-researched field of global talent management in an emerging market context. The primary aim of this study is to assist the ADG in identifying and addressing problems in order to provide a STM framework to help deliver a competitive advantage in quality service in line with the UAE Economic Vision 2030. This study demonstrates the significant potential of STM and management theory to mitigate challenges and offer solutions for decisionmakers and relevant stakeholders. It provides priority-ranked success contributors/effective strategies such as focusing on ascertaining job satisfaction – via Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, the psychological contract, and affective organisational commitment) – leveraging leadership developmental and career exposure opportunities, supportive leadership traits, and an emphasis on fair appraisals and rare talent empowerment. These strategies will have a significant and direct impact on TM effectiveness in achieving and enhancing talent retention in the UAE Public sector, while strengthening ADG's position as the preferred employer within the UAE.

Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis has been composed and produced by the author, unless duly acknowledged, which have been done after registration for the degree of PhD at Liverpool John Moores University, and no portion of the work in the thesis has been previously submitted in support of an application for another degree or professional qualification at this university or other learning institution.

Signed: …………………………………….……………..

Date: May, 2022

Acknowledgements

In the name of Allah, the most beneficent, the most merciful. All praise and thanks be to Allah, the Lord for blessing the completion of my PhD. I attribute the success of my PhD to my lovely parents who empowered me to this achievement, as I wouldn't have been able to reach the end without their blessing and endless love; my determination to accomplish this thesis stemmed, above all, from my desire to spread happiness into their pure hearts during their severe illness. I gift this piece of work to my youngest son Ali Qishtah and his siblings Aysha, Radi, Mohammad, Yusuf, and Abdullah, May Allah almighty bless them all. I would also like to take this opportunity to show my deepest thanks to my soul mate, my husband Sheikh Abdulrahman Qishtah, for his love and patience, and for his emotional support and sincere counselling throughout my PhD project. I wish to acknowledge my gratitude to the supervisory team at Liverpool John Moores University (LJMU); I owe countless debts of gratitude to Dr Patricia Harrison for her encouragement and role in my registration for this PhD; my sincere gratitude to Dr Harrison and Dr Cynthia Akwei for their kind contribution in the scale development of my PhD research. A very special recognition for my Director of Studies, Dr Cynthia Akwei, without whose support, motivation, and consistent follow-up. Please accept my sincere gratitude, appreciation, and respect for your fruitful encouragement and for inspiring me with useful insights into Strategic Talent Management and its methodological aspects; please join with me in this success. My sincere recognition for Professor Julie Sheldon, the Dean for the Doctoral Academy, and another special acknowledgement for Dr Scott Foster, the PhD Programme Leader at LJMU for his continuous and unlimited support and for nurturing all PhD candidates and research students, for whom he is a significant determinant to wellbeing. I would like to express a million thanks to "Dr Bob", the dad and trainer, who was the first person to supervise, accommodate, and motivate me in this once-in-a-lifetime accomplishment. Dr McClelland's incredible support will remain memorable. I present my appreciation and all respect to Dr Majed Aldusimani and Dr Majed Al Tayyar for their precious support, my friends in the UAE and the UK, especially my hero in ADG, Eng. Aysha Al-Hammadi for sharing the study survey among all local leaders in ADG. A big thank you and appreciation to my research colleagues Dr Sundis Ashreef and Dr Nadeem Al-Adaileh for their exceptional support during my PhD journey; this appreciation is extended to Dr Karim Menacere, for his great help preparing me for viva voce and his generous advice and the emotional support. I dedicate this work to many kind persons who helped me to fulfil my dream of accomplishing my PhD, the brilliant childminder sister Fardowsa and her great family, my neighbour sister Hayat and her beautiful and respectful family, my brothers Dr Omar and Abdulrahman AbouabidAlla and my sisters in the UAE; the blessed couple sister Zahra Q. and Eng. Zaid M. Finally, I thank my friends Jameela and Halima with her gorgeous girls.

List of Abbreviations

ADG	Abu Dhabi Government
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel Development
CR	Composite Reliability
DV	Dependent Variable
EEO	Equal Employment Opportunity
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EMP	Attraction and Retention by Empowering
EPMS	Electronic Performance Monitoring System
ESOS	Employee Stock Option Schemes
EVP.	Employee Value Proposition
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Countries
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOF	Goodness-of-Fit
HRD	Human Resources Development
HRM	Human Resources Management
IL	Instrumental Leadership
IS	Intention to Stay
IVs	Independent Variables
IWR	Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions and Performance Rewards
LDE	Leadership Development Effectiveness
LDP	Leadership Development Programme
MOHRE	Ministry of Human Resources and Emiratisation
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
PA	Performance Appraisal
PL	Participative Leadership
PMS	Performance Management System
RBV	Resource-Based View
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
ROE	Return of Expectation
ROI	Return of Investment
RS	Retention Strategies
SEM	Structured Equation Modelling
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SHRM	Strategic Human Resources Management
SL	Supportive Leadership
SMART	Specific/Stretching, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant, and Time-Framed
SME	Small and Medium-sized Enterprise
STM	Strategic Talent Management
TARS	Talent Acquisition and Retention strategies

TM	Talent Management
TMP	Talent Management Programmes
TS	Talent Satisfaction
UAE	United Arab Emirates
WLB	Work–Life Balance

List of Publications

- AbouabidAlla, E., Harrison, P., and Foster, S. (2014). 'The Impact of Talent Management Programme on the Performance of Leaders – the case of Western Region Municipality, the United Arab Emirates'. *The International Conference of the Human Resources Management by University Forum for Human Resource Development (UFHRD).* 4–6 June. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh Napier University. Available from https://www.ufhrd.co.uk/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2014/11/Eman-Abouabid-Alla.pdf

- AbouabidAlla, E., Akwei, C., and Bryde, D. (2021). 'The Impact of talent management strategies on talent's retention – the case of the Abu Dhabi Government in the light of the Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030'. Manuscript in preparation for review by the Human Resource Development International (HRDI).

- AbouabidAlla, E., Akwei, C., and Bryde, D. (2021). 'Priority-ranked integrated model for talent attraction and retention among Abu Dhabi public sector using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) – The Case of the United Arab Emirates'. Manuscript in preparation for review by the Human Resource Development International (HRDI).

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research background

Talent management (TM) is a relatively new management concept within the discipline of human resources management (HRM). TM is a set of policies and practices implicated in HRM (Iles et al. 2010). Talents are 'certain individuals perceived as exceptional,' as suggested by Stewart and Rigg (2011, 29). To illustrate the importance of the research background for this topic, the 'war for talent' that emerged in the 1990s led to wider debate among scholars and human resources (HR) practitioners and eventually led organisations to adopt TM strategies (Vinod et al. 2014). In 1997, the term 'talent' became a buzzword in organisational management, when the firm McKinsey coined the phrase 'war for talent' to indicate how the business world was suffering from a talent shortage, and that firms were struggling to attract and retain human capital (Michaels et al. 2001). Cui et al. (2017, 11) identified TM as the crucial driver for the corporate performance of the organisation. Extensive studies have been undertaken on TM in western contexts, but a full conceptualisation remains undeveloped and ambiguous in this field. TM is unavoidably context-bound, in that each setting has its own contributing factors, in addition to more general business/economy attributes; it is therefore challenging to generate a one-size-fits-all Strategic TM (STM) model, as discussed by Collings and Scullion (2012) and Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2020).

Likewise, research on TM in the context of the UAE is scarce; for this reason, studies conducted on the Gulf Cooperation Countries (GCC) region have been cited in this investigation, as GCC countries are linked geographically, historically, culturally, religiously, ethnically, and economically (GCC 2019). Given that TM is a new concept in the public sector to some extent (Glenn 2012), only a handful of papers have explored its effects in the public sector (Kravariti and Johnston 2020); instead, the primary focus has been on the private sector

(Thunnissen and Buttiens 2017). Implementing TM is associated with developing talent, managing performance, retaining high potential, sustaining the flow of leaders, and responding to organisational competencies in defining gaps in core skills. Moreover, TM is a key determinant for achieving the strategic objectives, financial success, and the competitive advantage within organisations (Berger and Berger 2011; CIPD 2015). However, studies by Hofmann (2010) and Singh et al. (2012) revealed that TM was unsuccessful in attracting and retaining talents within the UAE private sector. Furthermore, the abovementioned studies asserted that TM in general was challenging in the Middle East region, even though the GCC context had been theretofore perceived as a fertile environment for talent retention (Singh et al. 2012; Budhwar et al. 2019). The Arabian Business (2021) reported that employees change employment more often in the Middle East region than elsewhere. Talent flow is challenging owing to globalisation, demographics, the need for specific competencies, and the high demand for skilled workers; this is in addition to external attractions such as incentives in the private versus the public sector (Schuler and Tarique 2009; Tatoglu et al. 2016).

1.2 Identifying research gaps

While TM has gained popularity and attention from both academics and the business world; gaps remain that call for further theoretical and empirical study, particularly in the Middle East, while studies of TM in Asia are insufficient, as revealed by Li et al.'s (2018) study, which concluded that TM research in Asia had been conducted from a biased perspective (Anlesinya and Amponsah-Tawiah 2020). Overall, there has been little research in the area of human resource management in the Middle East region (Budhwar and Mellahi 2007; Budhwar et al. 2019) and empirical research findings on TM within the public sector in developing countries remain very limited. While Singh et al. (2012) examined TM in the private sector in the GCC countries, no further studies have been devoted to the investigation of TM in the public sector across ADG. Further investigation is called for into the prevalent typologies in distinct work settings, including different contexts such as the GCC, where the vast heterogeneity of labour between Emiratis (local citizens of the UAE) and foreigners, plus other factors such as this region's 'distinctive regulatory environment' and its corresponding talent recruitment practices were not properly addressed in previous studies (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014, 216). Other under-researched areas include Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (SMEs) and public organisations, and the influences of TM typologies (in terms of practice) on talent acquisition and retention (Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2013; Tansley et al. 2013; Thunnissen et al. 2013). In addition, there has been little research into how employer brand measures impact on prospective talent acquisition (Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010). Furthermore, Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) invited future research to uncover the legal role of government in nationalisation schemes (and the improvements required in regulations), as well as management leadership style and its influence on healthful TM processes, with a particular focus on the local demographic of GCC. Moreover, many studies measured the effectiveness of only one or a limited number of HR practices, and few considered cultural factors (Chami-Malaeba and Garavan 2013). This study examines a number of HR practices and strategies such as leadership talent development, talent appraisal, and attraction and retention, as well as the use of 'leadership behaviour' as a cultural influence to better explicate the interdependent relationship between variables. For instance, the compound set of independent variables depicting 'adopted TM strategies' and their impact on talent satisfaction and retention. Jayawarna et al. (2007) and Nikandrou et al. (2009) suggest that more empirical research is required to understand the link between talent training and talent retention. Ohunakin et al. (2020) and Budhwar et al. (2019) point to a need for future research to consider parameters other than training and development and job performance that may contribute to retaining top talent. These include leadership style, leaders' emotional intelligence, and career growth. Therefore, this investigation will contribute to the literature on the Middle East region, GCC countries, and the developing countries by exploring current TM practices within the scope of the obligatory nationalisation scheme and in the essence of the management leaders' behaviour, using the case study of the Abu Dhabi public service sector in the UAE. This will fulfil the second research objective, to identify the TM strategies adopted by ADG by exploring the perspective of talent themselves, as well as the available literature about the practices in such organisational contexts. This approach is based on Boxall et al. (2007) and their colleagues, such as Johns (2017), who advise the full incorporation of the organisational context into research, and the consideration of contextual factors in both theoretical and empirical investigations (Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2020). This corresponds to the study's third objective: to assess the effectiveness of TM programme implementation in attracting, satisfying, and retaining talented leaders at ADG departments. Thus, the notion of integrating a TM dimension along with leadership style and satisfaction may illuminate a facet of research not formerly accounted for in the context of the UAE. In addition, past studies were largely descriptive rather than experience-based, and most of the empirical studies were directed at global TM (Chaisson and Schweyer 2004; Dietz et al. 2008; Swailes 2020). Moreover, Lewis and Heckman (2006) disclose that the goals anticipated from TM programmes are unclear. Since TM is in its infancy, Collings and Mellahi (2009) urge further research to establish solid grounding for authors and scholars. Shortcomings in underpinning theory and practice have been clearly indicated (Caplan 2010). Furthermore, the majority of research to date has tested particular issues of TM in the absence of an HR role (Koh 2003).

Overall, a widespread focus on the effectiveness of TM and its cross-cultural impact on employee motivation and performance in developing countries has offered little positive evidence (Bhagat and McQuaid 1982; Earley 1997; Steers and Sanchez-Runde 2001). Cappelli (2008a) and Ford et al. (2010) shed light on the lack of credibility and scant evidence for evaluating global TM outcomes. Stewart and Rigg (2011) claimed that studies exploring the benefits of investing in talent development on both the individual and organisational level have shown weak evidence. Similarly, little research has been conducted on the holistic view of TM practices in the contemporary market, while it has been concluded that they are not as impactful as intended in developing countries (Yeung et al. 2008; Tansley and Kirk 2018), despite the Arab world's initiatives to promote the development of HR. Evans et al. (2020) argue that despite compelling evidence for TM's benefits, cases have not provided sufficiently strong demonstrations of return on investment. Hence, this study aims to bridge some of the abovementioned gaps by gauging the organisational merits of TM programmes in terms of talent satisfaction and retention in the government sector in the UAE.

Likewise, Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) research established the need to identify an effective approach to TM (Foster et al. 2007); the absence of such an approach has been a critical barrier to TM for multinational companies (Collings and Scullion 2010). In addition, Collings and Scullion's (2010) paper calls for additional research to investigate the relationship between TM and knowledge management as implied in competencies development (Kirkland 2009). Thunnissen et al. (2013) pointed out that of the three dominant aspects of STM; namely, talent development, talent attraction, and talent retention, talent development has received the least attention from scholars. Hedayati Mehdiabadi and Li (2016) support this view and emphasise the importance for organisations to adopt strategies to develop their talent pool from within. This research will explore talent development with an attempt to develop an adequate strategy for its use in organisations. Moreover, little research has been undertaken at the global level on STM's core role in fostering the key potentials within organisations (Collings 2014; Collings and Mellahi 2009; Stahl et al. 2007). This research will attempt to evaluate each component involved in the STM pipeline, precisely, and independently: this includes leadership development programmes, performance management systems, and retention plans. Another issue identified as influencing TM in the specific culture of the UAE is culture as embodied in leadership style; this gap needs to be filled by future researchers. In the same vein, Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) emphasise the need to empirically evaluate the actual impact of adopted STM practices, as embodied in nationalisation rules and the two-tier system, on the overall performance of firms, as well as the key performance indicators for recruitment in the GCC setting and other related contexts. This research gauges the impact of STM initiatives on local talent only, because unfortunately the UAE do not invest in or include non-local talents in their STM programmes, or even identify them as 'official talent.'

Initial research from Chambers et al. (1998) to Schreuder and Noorman (2019), supports the directional aims of this research. Thunnissen et al. (2013) advocate the need for a pluralistic, tailored approach to STM to best meet a range of variable contexts and organisations. Nevertheless, since the emergence and implementation of strategic TM, its administration has remained corporate across all government establishments in the UAE public sector, as will be examined in this study in order to answer the research question as to what extent TM permeates the ADG.

Khilji et al. (2015) urge researchers to explore an existing relationship between the activities in the STM processing box. They recommend that TM activities be analysed throughout a strategic lens to investigate the complex relationships between TM components in each country, with the possibility of proposing a tailored bundle of TM activities by country. This is similar to previous research undertaken at the organisational level, simply expanded by scale. The research conducted to date on multinational enterprises lacks quantitative empirical evidence and rigorous foundations, such as a proper examination of theoretical frameworks (Boudreau and Ramstad 2005; Collings and Mellahi 2009; Tymon et al. 2010; McDonnel et al. 2010; Sabado 2012; Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2013; Festing 2012; Tansley et al. 2013; Thunnissen et al. 2013; Anlesinya et al. 2019). Accordingly, this investigation contributes to STM theoretical framework development by using theoretical foundations to develop and examine a particular strategic approach for ADG in the UAE. Since STM theories have emerged from a Western context, they do not necessarily apply to the Arab world; hence the need to test and validate such theories in the Emirati setting, based on a range of stakeholders. This project examines the predominant STM activities identified above, while also attempting to corroborate the literature by investigating, identifying, and evaluating where STM falls short in recommended HR practices; for example, talent perceptions of employer leadership styles .

Similarly, Lewis and Heckman (2006) advocate studies that are directly and more robustly focused on investigating the link between TM and HRM, whereby the most successful businesses have adopted a strategic focus. This is in accordance with the research objective to assess the effectiveness of TM programmes' on retaining talent at ADG departments, using talent satisfaction as a major determinant to gauge this relationship. In addition, Sheridan (1992), Ambrosius (2018), and Evans et al. (2020) refer to the handful of published studies exploring organisational culture and employee turnover/retention, the impact of employee motivation on retention (Mak and Sockel 2001; Ramlall, 2004), or research on employee retention in emerging countries apart from Brazil (Bhatnagar 2007; Chen and Francesco 2000). However, Allen and Shanock (2013) assert that empirical studies conceptualising the association between organisational socialisation approaches and voluntary employee turnover are scarce. Moreover, the majority of studies analysing talent retention strategies originate from a developed-country context (Ahammad et al. 2012), whereas analysis of retention strategies from the perspective of emerging markets is rare, and therefore advocated, as in the case here of the UAE (Collings and Mellahi 2009; Collings et al. 2011). Given the considerable range of contexts and effects of STM in emerging economies, studies can be limited in their applicability; for example, to the specific case of the UAE 64 ADG-affiliated departments (Khanna and Palepu 1997).

On the other hand, as in Egerova (2014), current research puts emphasis on employment practice without a clear focus on the talent themselves and how they work. This focus is needed in order to nurture talent and sustain their flow within the organisation (Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2013; Tansley et al. 2013; Thunnissen et al. 2013). This study will attempt to bridge a gap by shedding light on STM practices that are adopted to improve the workplace atmosphere, which is understood to influence talent retention. As discussed, there have been many limitations in empirical findings related to STM, both methodological and theoretical. These problems range from results that have been generalised from specific findings, to facts not based on statistics, to neglect of significant variables. Having stated the key theories surrounding the research as well as the gaps in knowledge and literature, I will now set out the research problem at ADG.

1.3 Statement of the problem

ADG Departments adopt key components of STM: a leadership development programme (LDP), a performance management system (PMS), and retention strategies (RS). The need for an effective TM strategy at the ADG stems from the ADG's use of a nationalisation scheme, or 'Emiratisation,' to develop its non-energy businesses (Budhwar and Mellahi 2007; Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner 2010; Khan 2011; Naif et al. 2013; GLMM 2015). STM focuses on improving competencies and leads to high performance, according to Cheese et al. (2008) and Vural et al. (2012). Therefore, ADG is encouraged to evaluate and revise its STM programmes, as it is keen on equipping its leadership cohort with the necessary managerial skills. The ADG has recently formed the Ministry of Human Resources and Emiratisation (MOHRE), an independent entity, to set plans for resourcing, leadership development, nationalisation, and talent retention (Aladeli 2009; ADG 2016; MOHRE 2019). MOHRE administers a performance management system as a corporate initiative across the ADG federal ministries and establishments to enhance workforce capabilities, track, and achieve high governmental performance (FAHR 2016a). The vision of MOHRE is laid out in 'Our Vision: A labour market in the UAE that empowers Emiratis and attracts talent from around the world' (MOHRE, 2019). However, despite the decisionmakers' current initiatives to adopt STM in the public sector across GCC countries, the reality is that more than 80% of the public service establishments are still run by non-locals. Based on the UAE Federal Vision (2021) and the Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030 (2021) to become the best government globally, the UAE is working to ascertain competitiveness across the various economies, with the aim of becoming the ideal working, investing, and living destination. In fact, the UAE aims to position itself in the top ten countries in talent competitiveness indices. According to the Federal Competitiveness and Statistics Authority (2020), the UAE ranked ninth worldwide for its effective leadership in sustaining healthcare during the Covid-19 crisis. Such indices entail unifying leadership advantages and competitive working environments in the ADG public sector to sustain its talent pool (Al Dari et al. 2018). Hence, the country's cabinet has recently taken the first steps in adopting attraction and retention strategies from rival hubs such as London, Singapore, and New York, with the aim of promoting the UAE to new generations of expatriate talent. Measures introduced include the 10-year work visa, the remote working visa, and retirement visa, as reported by Arabian Business (2021). The UAE government adopted an STM perspective in changing its nationality regulation under federal law to allow special talents, professionals, and investors to acquire Emirati nationality and participate in the development of the country via their contributions (Arabian Business 2021).

As the Middle East extends its war for talent, as described by Justin McGuire, co-founder and CEO – MENA & APAC at the recruitment agency DMCG Global (Arabian Business 2021), there is a knowledge drain at the ADG, owing to the lack of an appropriate STM culture to develop and retain talent in order to face future challenges (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014). Moreover, there is no evaluation of whether ADG has enough talent to achieve the government's vision, nor appropriate staff training for leadership positions. In addition, there is no audit of which specific ADG jobs or positions have talent gaps or weaknesses. Although there are some STM initiatives in the UAE public sector, there is little evidence of their harmonisation and progress (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014; Vinod et al. 2014; FAHR 2016a).

There are challenges to developing and retaining talented leaders in the GCC region, particularly in the UAE (Suliman and Obaidli 2011), which is leaking Emirati talent (Al Mheiri et al. 2021). Such challenges include the heterogeneity in the population (a critical issue in the UAE), the demographic variance in capabilities between nationals and non-nationals, and the demand for a leadership cadre in UAE. The shortfall in leadership and the associated skills makes it difficult to attract and retain national talent. This is in addition to issues relevant to management style (Collings and Scullion 2011; Sidani and Al Ariss 2014) and turnover intentions (Singh and Sharma 2015). The population of UAE is 9.89 million, of which only 10% are locals (WorldPopulationReview 2021). ADG departments have consequently tended to cling to existing leaders, while struggling to add more qualified employees. This problem exemplifies the severe shortage of managerial capabilities in developing economies such as the UAE (Palframan 2008; Weir 2008; Abdullah et al. 2010; Vinod et al. 2014) when it comes to energy growth and expansion, plus the need for extra workforce (Hofmann 2010). Demographic factors, competences, high demand for national labour, and management approach all contribute to the need to invest in STM programmes at ADG Departments (Branham, 2005a; b; Brewster et al. 2005; Singh et al. 2012).

Meanwhile, Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) claim the key determinants that frustrate the recommended implementation of STM at Abu Dhabi are the culture of local management in the UAE, the 'sheikhocracy' – a synonym for the leadership style in assorted countries in the region – and local legislations and policies. In this context, STM is key, with a rapidly expanding economy placing high demands on the human resources and competences of non-locals, with lower expectations applied to locals (Singh et al. 2012; Vinod et al. 2014; Sidani and Al Ariss 2014).

The financial consequences of employee turnover include additional costs in hiring and training (Yamamoto 2011) that can reach 20% to 500% of annual employee salaries, according to Bryant and Allen (2013). To Suliman and Obaidli (2011), employee turnover in the UAE costs employers annually approximately United Arab Emirates Dirhams (AED) 9.9 billion. Yet Ballinger et al. (2011) argue that these costs do not actually portray the full impact of turnover, which drains resources and management time and affects organisational performance (Krishnan et al. 2013). It is essential to implement an effective retention system to save the investment in employees that is under pressure from the need to continually recruit and train new people, which strains knowledge and performance standards and affects productivity, finances, and business memory. In addition, high turnover can negatively influence the morale and motivation of existing employees (Yamamoto 2011).

The challenge of applying Western-based STM models, which are in the majority, has already been mentioned (Beechler and Woodward 2009); it is imperative to assess the transferability of such models (Haladay et al. 2016), for example, 'individualist' models that may not align culturally, as has been pointed out by a handful of authors (Dirani and Nafukho 2018, 387; Lucas et al. 2018). Lucas et al. (2018) addressed this issue in the context of Brazil, which has solid human resources development (HRD) and is characterised by 'paternalism' under which freedom of subordinates is minimised, 'collectivist' culture prevails, the organisational culture has unlimited power, and personal associations take precedence over meritocratic principles. All these features are embraced by the UAE context, work, and culture. The emergence and implementation of country-specific models is clearly necessary to organisational success (Dirani et al. 2018; Meyers et al. 2013). Haladay et al.'s (2016, 123) study identified that the main impediment to full implementation of STM within the UAE is ‘the transient nature of the labour pool, the multiplicity of labour laws regarding compensation and benefits, and the dynamic nature of business in the UAE.’

The above section problematised the area of research for this study; the immediate source of the problem lies in the financial and economic pressure, owing to the drop in oil prices, to develop a pool of Emirati talents and thereby reduce reliance on foreign and expatriate manpower. This is in the face of inadequate coordination among public sector organisations regarding STM implementation strategies for attracting, recruiting, developing, training, and managing talent. The key stakeholders remain unaware of the importance of STM, and thus there is no continuous improvement to maintain the success of any initiatives, and new ones are inhibited by the resistance to change by senior management, a strong organizational culture with top-down pyramid structure, and recruitment through ‘*Wasta*’ (Arabic for ‘connections’) rather than merit. While pursuing the main issues of the problem, this study will next critically explore the literature about theories, concepts, and models related to talent definition and STM in theory and practice. Research questions stem from this exploration.

1.4 Aim of the investigation

This study aims to critically investigate the TM strategies of ADG. It will assess the potential effectiveness of a long-term TM strategy to achieve the goals set out in the latest UAE Vision. It will also assess the current TM initiatives in place at ADG-affiliated departments, in order to measure their success rate by judging the effect of current talent programme practices on the willingness of leaders to stay at their organisations. The goal of evaluating STM programmes in terms of purpose, processes, and outcomes is to determine whether programme objectives have been achieved and to identify the anticipated challenges and barriers that impede TM from functioning successfully. This study will also attempt to develop a strategy for talent acquisition and retention that will allow ADG to promote the UAE as one of the best governments and working destinations worldwide, in line with the UAE Vision 2030, while continually improving across all UAE governmental sectors. The next sub-section contains research questions and hypotheses in line with the study aim to explore the relationship between STM practices and predictable talent intentions and outcomes for turnover in ADG departments.

1.5 Research questions

This study aims to answer the following main questions:

1. What are the existing strategies and practices related to TM and its implementation at ADG departments?
2. What is the impact of the implementation of these TM programmes on talent satisfaction and retention at the organisation?
3. What are the drivers and enablers of, and barriers to, implementing long-term TM strategies in the ADG? What is the influence of the other environmental/exogenous elements (institutional culture and job satisfaction) on talent remaining in the ADG?
4. Can western STM programmes and models be implemented in UAE settings by developing and verifying a contextual framework to procure and sustain Emirati talent at ADG?

1.6 Objectives of the proposed investigation

As the ultimate goal of this study is to attempt to develop an adequate TM strategy for ADG, the research will have the following objectives:

1. To critically review the strategies and practices related to TM and its implementation at ADG departments.
2. To identify the TM strategies adopted by ADG by exploring talent perspectives.
3. To assess the effectiveness of TM programmes' implementation on retention at ADG departments.

4. To assess the effectiveness of TM programmes' implementation on talent satisfaction at ADG departments.
5. To analyse the prevailing leadership behaviour at ADG-affiliated departments.
6. To explain the influence of the individual factors in STM (including job satisfaction and employer branding) and their impact on talent retention levels at ADG departments.
7. To develop and validate a conceptual framework, in the form of an integrated model that captures the factors influencing talented leaders' intentions to stay. This framework will allow for the effective implementation of TM appropriate to the context of the Emirati public sector (ADG), while explaining the adoption of TM strategies and predicting retention levels in the UAE, as a developing Middle Eastern country.

Having stated the research objectives, the following section captures the research context.

1.7 Research context

ADG is a range of strategic public departments that are run under the General Secretariat of the Executive Council (Abu-Dhabi-eGovernment 2016a). It controls the establishments that provide governmental services for residents and citizens. According to the UAE Vision 2021 (2019, 6), the development and retention of executives, as 'valuable contributor[s]' (Tansley 2011), is essential to government performance. Furthermore, the presidential orientation emphasises 'developing sectors of excellence and national champions' to enhance its international standing. Executives, experts, and professionals have historically been the most difficult segment of workers to recruit (CIPD 2015), which has driven ADG and various countries in the Arab region to move away from traditional HRM practices to STM, which attempts to align current operations, manpower, and information technology to the strategy of the organisation. Moreover, TM grants leadership privileges to line managers, which in turn involves the whole organisation in HR activities. As has been observed, traditional human resourcing was centralised within a HR department and was concerned with the daily management of issues such as hiring, pay, attendance, and training (Caplan 2011; Schuler et al. 2011; Naif et al. 2013; Tatoglu et al. 2016).

1.8 Structure of the thesis

This section provides a summary of chapter content:

Chapter One (Introduction) outlines an overview of the investigation, with the appropriate background, listing research gaps and the study's possible contribution to knowledge in light of the proposed research objectives.

Chapter Two (Literature Review) represents a systematic and critical review of STM and its definition, together with related key concepts, theories, and models surrounding TM and its implementation. This section concludes with a debate about the crucial factors influencing talent retention and turnover.

Chapter Three (Strategic Talent Management In Abu Dhabi) gives an overview of the most pressing contextual factors in considering Talent Management and TM within the GCC Region, more specifically in the UAE, and then furthermore, in Abu Dhabi.

Chapter Four (The Conceptual Model For The Research) discusses the development of the theoretical research framework and emphasises the underlying theories related to TM and successful retention strategies, which underpin the proposed model and reinforce the study objectives. The chapter includes a discussion about the critical factors affecting the implementation of a successful STM and retention strategy and introduces the grounding for development of a conceptual research framework. Eventually the chapter offers hypotheses for testing.

Chapter Five (Methodology and Methods) portrays the designs for a quantitative method approach to research, demonstrates approaches for generating samples, and involves explanation for why no sampling frame representing the study population was laid out for the purpose of the study.

Chapter Six (Research Results) presents empirical analysis of data gathered from research participants through the electronic questionnaire and describes the analysis undertaken using the most appropriate instruments for this research.

Chapter Seven (Discussion) puts forward a discussion of the results obtained in Chapter Five, via the survey questionnaire. It highlights key findings related to each research question compared with other studies from the literature, in order to illustrate in which manner the research objectives have been realised and fulfilled.

Chapter Eight (Summary and Conclusions) sets out the conclusions inferred from this study, in addition to proposing recommendations to alleviate the problematic aspects, as well as other suggestions for future studies based on the current research's conclusions and its limitations.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to analyse and synthesise the extant academic literature pertinent to the evolution and development of STM in Europe. Relevant scholarly materials were reviewed in pursuit of an in-depth understanding of TM strategies and practices, and as a theoretical and methodological support to this investigation. This chapter comprises a systematic and evaluative review of literature on theoretical studies, which have reported little empirical research on the best practices adopted by organisations for planning and implementing good STM strategy, including how to groom successors from existing leadership to replace the first level of executives. The chapter also provides clarification and critique of the current literature pertaining to the differentiated proposed definitions of talent, TM, human resources, and STM. Moreover, attention is brought to the advantages and challenges of adopting STM strategies, and to STM adoption and retention strategies at a worldwide level, with specific focus on the context of the GCC and the UAE. A summary is presented at the end of this chapter.

2.2 Systematic literature review

This section explains the protocol followed in identifying appropriate and related studies. Multiple keywords were employed on talent perceptions of TM-relevant strategies such as ‘Leadership talent’ OR ‘TM strategies’ OR ‘Retention strategies’ OR ‘TM model OR theories OR concept OR practices OR initiatives OR elements,’ AND/OR ‘TM implementation,’ ‘TM Drivers and barriers (OR determinants OR factors OR enablers OR inhibitors’ AND/OR ‘Retention influential factors’ AND/OR ‘Nurturing talent’ AND/OR ‘public sector’ OR ‘public service sector’ AND/OR ‘United Arab Emirates.’ Article search criteria followed title(s) and abstract(s) where the keywords were used or implied, based on Dada (2018). The focus was on

1–4 start publications in the English language, according to the Academic Journal Guide (2021) (ranking list), to explore studies on ST and STM practices for leadership segmentation of the workforce in emerging markets, regardless the year of publishing. The electronic databases were mainly Google Scholar and Liverpool John Moores University's library, in addition to textbooks and governmental publications (in the UAE). However, owing to the dearth of research, papers exploring junior employees' perceptions were also included, despite a potentially broad disparity in perceptions between top/middle and low management. Such a range owing to variance in seniority is suggested in the literature surrounding employee HR perceptual mismatch among workforce groups (Wang et al. 2020). However, the emergence of interpersonal divergence in perceptions of HR – and hence TM – within congruent groups is also inevitable and does not need to be controlled. It may be attributable to differences in individual personalities, perceptions of organisational support (Kuvaas 2008), or previous experiences that may shape their ratings (Wright and Nishii 2013). Other organisational traits such as the heterogeneity of the workforce can also lead to variability across raters (Liu et al. 2017), as can organizational contingencies (Bolander et al. 2014) and the role and influence of dominant professions in the public sector on talent perceptions, attitudes, and behaviour, and in shaping the translation of TM meaning and practice (Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2020). Since the various HR practices are tailored differently for diverse organisational levels (Liao et al. 2009), the reasoning regarding TM, which is a set of HR practices interwoven with the business strategy, must also fluctuate. Therefore, it may be speculative to infer the perceptual outcomes of respondents when reviewing various individual levels in the discrete literature, according to the empirical evidence confirming variance in responses to perceived HR bundles (Liao et al. 2009; Boonbumroongsuk and Rungruang 2021). It should be noted that a handful of prior studies found no significant difference in perceptions of HR relevant practices across the organisational hierarchy between subordinates and superiors as shown in their ratings of the organisational learning culture (Ismail 2005; Westerberg and Hauer 2009; Hasson et al. 2013). The above argument is supported by other studies that revealed a moderate level of correlation when perceiving HR content, as affirmed across managers versus employees (r ¼ 0.37 on average) (Liao et al. 2009; *et al.* 2011; Aryee et al. 2012; Den Hartog et al. 2013; Ang et al. 2013, 2017; Jensen et al. 2013; Jiang et al. 2017; Vermeeren 2014; Elorza et al. 2016; Li and Frenkel 2017; Choi 2019; Wang et al. 2020, 145).

Articles were classified into conceptual papers and quantitative empirical studies. It was noted that 149 papers (in addition to other papers) that handled STM dimensions and TM retention were published post-2017, many in the past couple of years (2019–2021) during which time the field has continued to grow rapidly. *Human Resource Management* (102), *International Journal of Human Resource Management* (17), *Journal of World Business* (16), *Human Resource Management Journal* (8), and *Human Resource Development International* (6) are identified as the sixth core journals for literature on employee TM perception. STM is differentiated from TM based on the assumption that talent from leaders at ADG departments represent first-hand experience and awareness, as they are involved in organisational strategy and deal with strategic issues. As well, they are experienced in dealing with TM activities and operations (Wang *et al*. 2020).

2.3 Strategic talent management

A large and growing body of literature has differentiated human resource management, TM, and STM. Morton's (2005, 13) study attempted to explain the essential contribution of HR managers in implementing TM as an organisational commitment and argued that to promote HR practitioners from their routine function to a strategic partnership 'is more essential to the business,' thereby highlighting the importance of HRM to a strategic orientation. That is, HRM focuses on managing the set of HR functions, such as recruitment and training, separately and thus emphasises egalitarianism, while TM, which complements HRM, asserts segmentation because it deals with staff differently based on their capabilities and contribution (Iles et al. 2010; Becker and Huselid 2006). Lewis and Heckman (2006, 140) suggested three concepts to better understand TM. The first is rebranding HRM to TM, or a euphemism associated with HRM; however, this concept was criticised owing to a lack of focus on HR practices such as recruitment, succession planning, and leadership development; and for diverging from strategic HR literature. The second notion is manpower planning and/or succession planning, to emphasise talent development through 'projecting employee/staffing needs and managing the progression of employees through positions' (Lewis and Heckman 2006, 140) and thus predict the flow of workforce across the enterprise based on competencies, supply, and demand, as well as growth and attrition. This makes the TM focus solely on succession planning (Hughes and Rog 2008). However, studies in this area highlighted the variation between TM and HRM, because TM is not only used as a workforce succession planning tool, but also focuses on the development of a talent pool (Lewis and Heckman 2006). The third aspect of Lewis and Heckman's (2006) perspective, however, is managing employee talent, including rewarding exceptional talent. This emphasises 'topgrading', where Smart (1999) argues that all positions within the hierarchy should be occupied with the top performers and there is no place to fit 'C Players' within the organisation (Michaels et al. 2001), thus favouring certain positions over others (Lewis and Heckman 2006). In Hughes and Rog (2008), it is suggested that Lewis and Heckman's (2006) definition of TM implies the use of technology (other databases/systems) to implement HR through all levels of the organisation. Hughes and Rog (2008) added that TM integrates strategy into Lewis and Heckman's (2006) definition when they offer that TM initiatives, practices, and policies are synonymous with human resources management activities (e.g. recruitment, selection, performance management, rewards, development, and succession planning). Bersin (2006) asserts that the new revolution in TM is due to the need to strengthen the linkages between personnel and business matters. As an organisation endeavours to achieve business goals, it ought to assure an up-to-date and constant integration of HR processes; thus, TM has been deemed necessary to successful businesses.

Likewise, there is a wide debate in the literature on how academia conceptualises TM and STM, and how organisations implement them in practice. Some academics view TM as a mere variation on traditional human resource management. While few professionals and academics suggest that TM is a tool for planning future HR needs, numerous academics stress that TM exclusively considers talents with potential in key performance areas. Contradictory, contemporaneous literature emphasizes that STM has a combined focus on strategic roles and the capabilities to deliver business corporate strategy. STM also implies nurturing and cascading the talent mind-sets across the business to secure their commitment and excellent performance. STM connects human resource policies and strategic management processes within organisations, as well as integrating the workforce to achieve the organisation's goals. In other words, a firm's STM is related to its available resources. Talent as an organisational asset provides a long-term competitive advantage. That is, 73% of executives in the USA verified a positive association between TM and a successful business strategy (Mohammad 2015).

Farndale et al. (2010, 106) defined TM as 'all organizational activities for the purpose of attracting, selecting, developing, and retaining the best employees in the most strategic roles (those roles necessary to achieve organizational strategic priorities) on a global scale.' Silzer and Dowell (2010, 114) explain that STM forms a critical paradigm shift in the field of HRM. They define STM as a process that is 'driven by business strategy, managed as a core business practice, and is integrated with other processes and engrained as a talent mindset.' The link between STM and business strategies is important to workforce motivation, which helps in achieving organisational objectives. Similarly, STM and human resources relate to each other since they have a greater impact on the overall development of a firm and therefore should be utilised according to need and a particular business plan.

Some authors argue that TM is simply another term for HRM because it comprises the processes of selection, development, and succession planning (Aguinis et al. 2012). TM was described as a 'strategic human resources discipline' in Cajigas and McGrath (2015). Iles et al. (2010, 5) and Scullion and Starkey (2000) stated that high potential talents and senior managers are deemed the 'strategic human resources' for an organisation; therefore, managing these vital resources is recognised as the key function of HRM. Blass (2009) proposes that TM is just a portion of HRM, as shown in Figure 2.1 below, where HRM functions operate separately, with high attention on the organisational function. In addition, Blass (2009) suggests that TM, as it is positioned in the centre/core of the functions, is closer to employee-focused activities. Therefore, HRM emphasises transactions while STM is more focused on enticing and sustaining top talent (Barney 1991), with people as the key driver to achieving a competitive advantage. However, various scholars claim that STM should be considered as 'clear succession planning,' emphasising the development and supply of key talent (Collings and Mellahi 2009; Cui et al. 2017, 11).

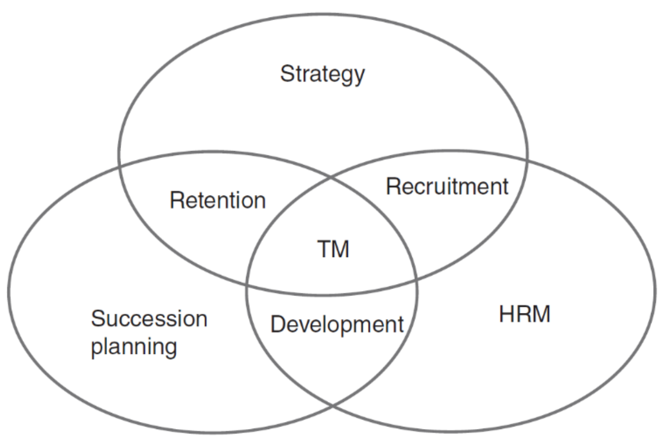


Figure 2.1: Mapping the TM territory. Adopted from Cui et al. (2017, 12).

Thunnissen et al. (2013), as well as Schreuder and Noorman (2019), stress that the traditional practices and activities of TM cannot achieve organisational performance or attract and deploy key talent, who will implement corporate/business strategy and, therefore, argue traditional TM should become STM, in which both personal development and business development shall be aligned and mutually strengthen and in turn reinforce the strategic success of the organisation. Thus, key talent – in other words, strategic talent managers – are advised to thoroughly grasp the corporate strategy, define its drivers (strategy processes) precisely, and take part in strategy formulation, that is, the '*what'* process. They should identify the positions most vital to attaining strategic goals (A-positions or key strategic positions) – the '*where*', as well as the best incumbent to deliver each strategic initiative – that is, the '*who*'. Nevertheless, in Armstrong's (2016, 190) view, TM is a combination of succession planning and management development functions; as well as a 'strategic management process' that concentrates on understanding the business strategy.

Alike, Makram and Sparrow (2015, 249) synthesised definition for TM was based on four philosophies, which reflect how organisations conceptualise TM, as well as the theory of value, which differentiates how TM adds value to the organisation. The said approaches are classified into a people approach, practices approach, position approach – which also explains the subject approach of talent that is the contribution of Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2013) – and strategic pools approach (Makram and Sparrow 2015, 249). Thus, TM can be adopted for a cluster of personnel, as a proof of key HR practice, solely for pivotal roles, or as a succession-planning tool to manage existing internal talent pools. Some scholars argue that STM prioritises human capital before it manages their performance (Farndale et al. 2010). In summary, STM offers many distinctions, such as reducing staff turnover (Ballinger et al. 2011), sustaining a competitive advantage, and improving corporate outcomes (Axelrod et al. 2002; Lewis and

Heckman 2006; McDonnell 2011), via 'having a right candidate in the right job category' (Ahammad et al. 2018, 6; Iles et al. 2010).

The sections above present the debate in literature and practice about who and what is identified as 'talent,' and what is meant by TM and STM, as defined by academics, HR practitioners, and organisations. The next section answers the question of what drives business sectors and firms to adopt TM or STM practices, and why either might contribute to global success.

2.4 Talent management conceptualisation

Various TM-related definitions have been introduced above. TM implies a range of overlapping meanings, depending on whom you ask to define it, and in which sector or industry. In 1997, the term 'talent' became an organisational management buzzword when McKinsey coined the phrase 'war for talent' to define a talent shortage in business and the struggle between firms to attract and retain human capital (Michaels et al. 2001; Egerova 2014). Ashton and Morton (2005, 30) pointed out that there 'isn't a single consistent or concise definition.' In Cui et al. (2017, 11), the phrase 'war for talent' noted TM as the crucial driver for corporate performance. Despite the enduring interest of scholars in TM and its popularity among leading publishers, there is little evidence-based research on talent identification. TM as an overarching concept remains underdeveloped and very broad (Faust, 2008); without coherence or direct focus on the HRM practices embedded in its dimensions (JWB 2010; Caplan 2011). There is also a lack of endorsement in the literature of the definition of STM (Cui et al. 2017). A UK survey stated that only 20% of HR professionals debated the definition of TM, but 51% of them handled TM activities (CIPD change-agenda 2006; Collings and Mellahi 2009). In addition, there are limitations to the literature on TM dimensions and the implementation of a TM approach that can be coherently integrated by multiple stakeholders. In other words, studies and research have targeted one level at a time, such as organisation-focus, and have disregarded the role of line managers and their affiliated sectors in TM practices (Sheehan et al. 2018). Hence, Zhang and Bright (2012) claim that a precise answer to 'who is talent?' is missing. Tarique and Schuler (2010) assert that there is neither a universal definition for TM nor an effective approach in the literature and practice; yet subsequent scholars and practitioners have come up with appropriate TM strategies to fit a particular organisation, as cited in Cui et al. (2017). Meanwhile, Tarique and Schuler (2010) suggest that TM is critical to succession planning.

Thunnisen et al. (2013) defined TM as the complete system that incorporates identifying, recruiting, developing, and nurturing the best and potential employees; equipping them to operate the most strategic positions; and finally, supporting them in utilising their competencies. This engages their commitment and stimulates their efforts in ways essential to the organisation's benefit (Devi 2017). Armstrong (2006) and Iles et al. (2010) saw TM as another term for developing people to head the organisation, therefore phrasing it as TM and development (TMD) (Dirani and Nafukho, 2018; Dirani et al. 2018); nevertheless, according to Vinod et al.'s (2014) definition, talent is innate – which also explains the object-approach of talent. According to Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2013), it cannot be acquired through development paths - unmanageable based on Davies and Davies (2010). They identified talent as, variously, experts in the areas they are presently functioning in, and individuals who are fulfilling the present and future specifications of the organisation. How organisations conceive of talent affects their TM practices; they tend to give more attention to talent identification and recruitment if talent is conceptualised as innate, and to classify A, B, or C players (Michaels et al. 2001). In contrast, if their view of talent is based on acquisition, the emphasis is on talent development. If institutions view talent as developing as a result of nature combined with nurture, the orientation will be on the ability to learn and its associated catalysts, e.g. the personal and environmental aspects of learning (Meyers et al. 2013; Bolander et al. 2014). On the other hand, Tansley et al. (2007) and Singh and Sharma (2015) define TM from a strategic perspective, when Tansley et al. (2007) state that the core definition of talent is the one suggested by the NHS Leadership Academy Talent and Talent Management Insights (NHSLA) (2014). The definition comprised those who have influence on lifting the performance of an organisation either directly or in the long term. Hughes and Rog (2008, 743) found that 'Talent management is an espoused and enacted commitment to implementing an integrated, strategic and technology enabled approach to human resource management (HRM).'

In the efforts of examining and developing TM strategy and to understand how talents are identified within the organisations, possible resource constraints were realised to tap on core areas of business and people (D'Annunzio-Green 2008). Hence, Hughes and Rog (2008, 746) proposed that 'talent management is a multi-faceted concept' shaped by strategic HRM. TM can be conceptualised philosophically as ingraining a talent mindset in an organisational culture or ethos, embedding values that support the view that human assets are worth developing as a crucial source of achieving and sustaining an organisation's competitive edge. TM is effectively consolidated and constituted of a blend of advanced technology-adapted, HRM-based bundles and operations; and a means to uplift the function of HR practitioners to become a strategic partner in the organisation by enabling a long-term and comprehensive approach to change. TM implies (positioning); it is a management commitment, rather than an HR initiative, espoused and cascaded down from executive positions throughout the managerial/supervisory levels, (system) to implement an incorporated, strategic, and technology-supported programme to HRM, with direct attention to HR planning, encompassing employee recruitment, development, retention, and succession initiatives. These practices target the entire workforce (structure) or are particularly designed for those who possess high potential or those in key talent roles. Given the endorsed belief that human resources are the key source for organisational competitive advantage, and a recognised asset that is in constant short supply (accountability), this translates into a shared commitment to launch, enable, develop, and pursue TM endeavours and systems (Ashton and Morton 2005). Hughes and Rog's (2008) definition captures the HRM responsibilities within the function of TM and points to the clash between poaching the best candidates and consolidating their supply of competences to reinforce business's competitive edge (Brown et al 2004). However, the capture of TM seems to have updated legitimacy after Brexit in the new sense of economy uncertainty and the implications of stricter immigration rules which is attached to anticipated talent drain in certain fields which experience heavily reliance on migrant labour (Calnan 2017; KPMG 2017). Moreover, Hughes and Rog's (2008) definition conveys the notion of TM portraying a fully integrated process, as well as the main phases underlined by the traditional operational activities of HRM. Such key phases were pointed out within the academic literature, surrounding talents' sourcing, recruitment, development – along with career progression- as well as their nurturing and engagement (Horner 2017). Hughes and Rog's (2008) perception offers yet one more instance of the contrast in TM key phrases' flow in terms of order and labelling that one may depict across the various proposed definitions conceptualizing TM, such as attraction, selection, development and retention (D'Annunzio-Green 2008).

Hughes and Rog's (2008) coherent approach to TM is also emphasised within the practitioner-oriented literature. For instance, the CIPD (2009, 2) came up with their definition of TM as involving the holistic approach to human resource interrelated practices rather than merely developing leaders; TM implies the 'attraction, identification, development, engagement, retention and deployment of individuals with high potential who are of particular value to an organisation'. Tansley (2011) regards TM as integrated initiatives and activities that incorporate the spiritual goal of a group or community. The CIPD (2016a) also suggests a successful TM system that forms strategy with all processes included in the talent pipeline to attract, identify, develop, engage, reward, and retain those talents. Therefore, the CIPD definition incorporates the necessary aids to nurture talents and impact on their efficiency as suggested by Sparrow et al. (2013) and Farndale et al. (2014). Meyers and Van Woerkom's (2013, 23) definition is more typical, referring to TM as 'the systematic utilisation of human resource management (HRM) activities to attract, identify, develop, and retain individuals who are considered to be "talented".' Similarly, Collings and Mellahi's (2009, 2) definition of STM overlaps with the CIPD's but is more broad; they point out the direct influence of STM on sustaining competitive advantage through mobilizing suitable talent (Isa et al. 2018) and emphasising key 'strategic' positions over 'non-strategic' roles (Becker and Huselid 2006), as opposed to the existing phenomenon in which organisations tend to invest in non-strategic positions (Boudreau and Ramstad 2007).

Hence, Collings and Mellahi's (2009, 2) contribution is built on Lewis and Heckman's (2006) three streams to explain the conceptual framework of TM. Therefore, their definition encompasses the identification of pivotal positions, then cascading talents across the organisation, along with restructuring positions and revising incentive schemes to engage those employees, as:

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

Their rationale is to identify the vital positions to be retained by the most suitable capabilities, but not to identify talent and look for jobs to suit them, which is consistent with Zhang et al. (2015). Nonetheless, Collings and Mellahi (2009, 305) pointed out that key positions are not limited to the senior managerial cohort, but can imply lower positions; they noted that if TM has been applied to all employees including persistently poor performers or ‘C players,’ then it would function similarly to traditional HRM. In this stream Collings and Mellahi (2009) argue that ‘strategic jobs’ are those key roles that should be filled with high potential and top performing workers, which contrasts with Smart (1999) who argues earlier that all positions should be occupied by ‘A performers,’ which he refers to as ‘topgrading.’ However, this suggestion was criticised as inappropriate because it is unnecessary to fill all positions with high performers, and it tends to equate TM with conventional HRM, investing in non-pivotal positions rather than the approach suggested by Collings and Mellahi (2009), who advocate that their suggested approach of managing solely high potentials and high performers in key positions utilises resources most efficiently. The second part of the definition emerges from the literature on strategic HRM; once those top performers with high potential are identified, it is important to develop a talent pool within the organisation. Likewise, Collings and Mellahi (2009) were inspired by the strategic HRM to propose the last part of the definition, when they suggested that it is crucial to disseminate appropriate HRM policies to ensure that strategic positions are filled with competent candidates who are nurtured by an upgraded architecture with differentiated HR policies that can increase employee motivation, commitment, and performance. Raman et al. (2013, 336) subscribe to the above definition and stress strategic positions and ‘top management's deliberate and organized efforts to optimally select, develop, deploy and retain competent and committed employees who bear significant influence on the overall performance of the organization.’

2.5 Talent conceptualisation within the public sector

The 'war for talent' was exacerbated in the public sector owing to the need for more competencies than in the private sector, since the typical public sector employee is more knowledge-equipped. This is according to a Centre for State and Local Government Excellence study in Washington, which revealed that 68% of government workers belong to the knowledge workforce, compared with 32% in the private sector (Benest 2008). TM was conceptualised differently in the public sector, with talent seen as a human entity with distinct potentials to improve the sector's performance immediately or in the future (Harris and Foster 2010); or as a self-motivated person with a rare set of competences (Rana *et al*. 2013); or an individual who believes in public sector principles such as transparency and equal treatment (Thunnissen and Buttiens 2017). The above definitions of public sector talent may address some special traits of a workforce willing to enhance the sector without a heavy emphasis on financial compensation (Delfgaauw and Dur 2010). Kravariti and Johnston (2020, 80) 'propose public sector talent could be conceptualized as an individual who possesses those competencies, knowledge and values that reflect the public sector's core principles, which enable him/her to use their exceptional abilities to serve the public for the common good.' Thus, special attributes of public sector talent are embodied in their inherited willingness or capacity to contribute to the benefit of the public departments without regard for rewards; this depicts talent as human bodies, yet with exceptional values (Delfgaauw and Dur 2010). In comparison, private sector talent has innate or developed distinct abilities (Kravariti and Johnston 2020).

2.5.1 Talent identification

'Talent' is a socially developed concept that can be contextually interpreted as argued by Wiblen (2016). Talent identification can range from those who are functioning well in their current roles and are subject to growth, to those who possess exceptional abilities, or those who work in the A positions that are interrelated to the firm strategy; otherwise, talent may be identified through performance appraisals. The identification and definition of talent can be viewed diversely depending on the organisation. Some scholars believe that talented people are those who can make a difference to organisational performance, either through their immediate contribution or by demonstrating the highest potential. Therefore, there is a lack of common definition and evidence underlying TM and STM practices as endorsed by various authors from the literature. Some firms identify their best talent via performance management systems. For instance, in Hartmann et al.'s (2010, 173) qualitative research, all seven Chinese organisations involved in the study relied solely on the appraisal system in order to identify vital talent. Yet it was found that the cultural aspects of those companies impeded the full adaptation of performance management appraisals such as 'communication through face' rather than the actual exercise of performance appraisals. Organisational variations in talent identification include timing – at which career stage firms identify talents (McDonnell 2011) – as well as objectivity in the assessment approach, which can vary significantly (Bolander et al. 2014).

The talent identification process involves the identification of key personnel who can create and deliver organisational objectives (Davies and Davies 2010; Isa et al. 2018, 688). Bolander et al.'s (2014) qualitative study of Swedish organisations identified three approaches to TM (to be discussed later) in which the empirical contribution of the entrepreneurial view assigns no attention to talent identification. In this sense, talent markets his or her potential based on the challenges and assigned projects where he/she is responsible for identifying their own talent. The role of the employer is to support them via competence development, which is deemed a human right. As suggested by Stewart and Rigg (2011, 229), talents are 'certain individuals perceived as exceptional.' Isa et al. (2018) classify talent into three categories: administrative, professional, or innovative potential candidates. Morton (2004, 6) defines talent as 'individuals who have the capability to make a significant difference to the current and future performance of the company.' Performance reports showed that organisations that pursued this exclusive approach to identifying talent were successful in terms of profitability. However, others endorse the inclusive approach to 'talent inherent in each person, one individual at a time' (Buckingham and Vosburgh 2001, 17), and argue that resourcing and nurturing only specific 'top talented' executives may result in increased employee turnover owing to internal competition and the underestimation of other employees. In contrast, employee training and development is a way of maximising talent stock; as well, organisations can address cultural and systematic aspects, including organisational arrogance, that impede employee performance.

2.6 Strategic TM within the public sector

The conceptualisation of public sector TM and talent is not yet mature (Kravariti and Johnston 2020). TM has only recently been introduced into the public sector (Glenn 2012), and the majority of evidence on its results comes from consultancy agents (Al Ariss et al. 2014; Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2013). Meanwhile, researchers are paying increased attention to TM within the national context, i.e. how talents are managed globally, when 'organizations are not only competing with each other, but governments and their societies have also joined the talent race' (Khilji and Schuler 2017, 400). However, based on Thunnissen and Gallardo-Gallardo's (2017) review, only a few publications have addressed TM in the public sector and have shown most interest in healthcare and education (Paisey and Paisey 2016), perhaps because hospitals and universities recruit professionals who are strategic players in an organisation's success (Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2020). The evidence on public sector TM highlighted that its performance is limited. Moreover, the focus on TM outcomes reflects performance measures that adhere to private sector standards, thus disregarding the unique elements of the public context (Boselie et al. forthcoming).

El Dahshan et al. (2018) explored three TM components (attraction, development, and retention) and studied individual variances in their effect on organisational performance. The subjects were nurses working in two organisations: Menoufia University Hospital and Shebin El-Kom Teaching Hospital in Egypt. The study revealed that participant nurses in both hospitals are satisfied with their employer's attraction, development, and retention strategies. However, Manafa et al.'s (2009) research in Malawi, East Africa concluded that health workers there were unsatisfied owing to the unfair provision of career advancement paths. In the same context, Hafez et al.'s (2017) exploratory study in Egypt affirmed a significant impact from various TM dimensions – promoting outstanding performance, delegating authority, job enrichment, and talent development – and employee retention.

2.7 Talent management and human resource management/ human resource development

Human Resources Management (HRM) is the strategic and aggregate approach to employee relations, with a great emphasis on recruitment and development in line with the firm's goal-setting. HRM is traced back to American academics of the 1980s (Beer et al. 1984). It can be perceived as a philosophy of the ethical considerations that are critical to managing people (the correct and fair way to deal with workers), supported by the existing framework of employee and organisational behaviour. Functionally, HRM encompasses the implementation of employee policies and practices in the area of organisational structure, resourcing, learning and development, performance management, and employee welfare. Those components are fitted into a human resource strategy and aligned to the corporate strategy of the firm (Armstrong and Taylor 2014). HRM has a dual presence in scholarship and activity. In its academic manifestation, it emerges in conference papers, articles, texts, and journals. Meanwhile, its practical application is shown through business values and practices. However, many academics have neglected the efforts of organisations in this particular field (John 2007) John, S. (2007).. While HRM is used across the globe, some object to the term 'human resource,' which might convey a process or product rather than a person and, therefore, they prefer to use the term 'people management' instead (Armstrong and Taylor 2014).

Talent management is one core element of focus for scholars and practitioners from diverse disciplines in their investigations of cross-cultural HRD, HRM, and organisational development (Dirani and Nafukho 2018). Nowadays, there is ample research on talent development, which has become fashionable in HRD literature (Ardichvili and Dirani 2017). Both HRM and TM in particular aspire to enhance workforce capabilities relevant to the key competencies, creativity, and innovative thinking that are essential for knowledge assimilation, exploitation, transformation, and acquisition, as well as employee development (e.g. Russia context). TM may be related to an organisation's absorptive capacity, yet this association is still under researched (Dirani and Nafukho 2018). Garavan et al. (2012) pointed out that HRD, HR, and HRM (Donnelly and Dowling 2010), are key to a firm's STM and TM. Dirani et al.'s (2018) research revealed that the implementation of TM in UAE businesses echoes its strategic orientation in the West. Emerging and predominant HR practices in the UAE seem to be strategically focused, particularly TM.

2.8 Selected definition for the study

The definition of TM used here comes partially from Collings and Mellahi (2009, 304):

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

Other definitions include Gallardo-Gallardo and Thunnissen's (2016, 50): 'Talent management is aimed at the systematic attraction, identification, development, engagement/retention and deployment of high potential and high performing employees, to fill in key positions which have significant influence on organisations' sustainable competitive advantage,' which is consistent with the CIPD Factsheet (2021, 52) 'Talent management is the systematic attraction, identification, development, engagement, retention, and deployment of those individuals who are of particular value to an organisation. This may be through their high potential or because they fulfil critical roles.' This study adopts Collings and Mellahi's (2009) definition most extensively because it explicitly substantiates and constitutes the 'exclusive' band of TM, which is the most prevalent approach cited in the literature (Dries 2013; Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2015; Boonbumroongsuk and Rungruang 2021). Their definition was borrowed in Dirani et al.'s (2018) research on TM and development in the UAE. According to Sparrow and Makram (2015), the conceptualisation of TM is context-specific and thus the aforementioned definition might best fit the UAE context and specifically the ADG, since it encompasses the properties specific to the Abu Dhabi public sector approach to TM. ADG develops executives for the next generation, owing to issues of staff turnover and a declining supply of managerial capabilities (Singh and Sharma 2015).

Armstrong (2009) and Iles et al.'s (2010) approaches to managing talent advocate the exclusive focus on future leaders, while the inclusive approach applies the holistic aspects of HR, identifying all employees as talent (Caplan 2011), and this is where Anlesinya and Amponsah-Tawiah (2020) argue about differentiating TM from HR. In turn, Armstrong (2006) and Iles et al.'s (2010) conceptualisation of TM may match the explicit initiatives of ADG. Furthermore, leadership development at ADG can best be perceived as a succession planning tool that targets certain characteristics and skills portfolio in talent who can, presently or potentially, fill vital roles and sustain the flow of future leaders (CIPD 2016b; Tansley et al. 2007).

Since TM is 'often organisation-specific, and is highly influenced by the nature of the work' (Iles 2013, 302) as cited in Sheehan et al.'s (2018) case study on the health and tourism service sector, the author has adopted Cui et al.'s (2017) STM approach, which maps TM activities and processes with plans related to personnel development, compensation, and performance management, as emerged from their case study on China SMEs service sector. TM is frequently claimed by authors to be a core competency in the HRM field (Morton et al. 2005). The context of this study represents the public service sector, which involves health, tourism, education, transport, etc., and the UAE, which is one of the world's developing countries. For the purpose of this study, STM refers to attracting, developing, and managing the competences (knowledge, skills, experience abilities and attitudes) of actual and potential leaders/candidates, then, nurturing and deploying the inimitable talent panel, who are the incumbents of the pivotal/managerial and strategic positions in ADG. In high demand and low supply, this talent delivers the organisational corporate mission and sustains competitive survival. It does so via the alignment of TM processes with strategy to help achieve organisational goals. Later, and throughout this study, a customised TM strategy will be proposed for this particular service-oriented industry. Notwithstanding, tying TM process and policies with strategy is deemed a global challenge for businesses (Groves 2011; Silzer and Dowell 2010).

2.9 Importance of TM within the public sector

Both private and public sector organisations in the Arab world have begun to focus on TM for its crucial function in achieving economic and strategic visions, as argued by Anzi et al. (2011). The need for STM evolved from the need for skilled employees who will contribute to efficiency, growth, sustainability, development, and excellence and act as a key source for the competitive knowledge advantage (AlMannai et al. 2017). Plenty of research argues the inevitable positive impact of TM on sustaining an organisation's competitive edge (Barney 1991; Pfeffer 1994; Wright et al. 1994; Hatch and Dyer 2004; Ashton and Morton 2005; Towers Perrin 2005; Farndale and Paauwe 2007; Lockwood 2007; Ringo et al. 2008; Lawler 2009; Berger and Berge 2011; Coff and Kryscynski 2011; Ziad Azzam 2014; Rabbi et al. 2015; Manga 2021). A handful of authors also agree that the need for an organisation to design and implement a tailored TM strategy emerges from its various internal and extraneous pressures (Abdul Nasir et al. 2012; Maaytah et al. 2013; Rabbi et al. 2015). Benest's (2008) research on local govermental entities revealed that talents are of crucial benefit to city councils in the US, with governing board members disclosing that talent is key to achieving their policy agenda. Talent is also considered an investment with potential valuable returns to the organisation (Ziad Azzam 2014). AlMannai et al.'s (2017) quantitative study of the Kingdom of Bahrain's Post Department, which is affiliated to the Ministry of Transportation and Communications, investigated executives and junior staff to explore the impact of TM strategies (attraction, development, preservation, and career progression) on enhancing competitive advantage, and ranked the effect of each individual strategy according to its effectivess on the dependent variable (i.e. competitive advantage). The study revealed that development strategy has the strongest positive relationship, followed by attraction, then retention. Career progression was the least influential factor. The above result is supported by Hamidi et al.'s (2011) research on Emirates Police College, Ras Al Khaimah, UAE.

2.10 Object/subject approach of talent

Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2013) contribute to the definition of talent by suggesting two approaches to talent identification that organisations are most likely to adopt. The first is when talent is attributed to people (subject), and the other is when talent refers to a set of traits (object). The latter approach, where 'talent is exceptional characteristics demonstrated by individual employees' (Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2013, 293), was more commonly conceptualised in publications; however, the subject approach seems to dominate firms that target building their talent pool (Dries and Pepermans 2008). Further classification within 'object talent' categorised talent based on their possession of abilities (Hinrichs 1966; Gagné 2000; Williams 2000; Michaels et al. 2001; Tansley et al. 2006; Silzer and Dowel 2010); capability (Stahl et al. 2007); commitment (Ulrich, 2007); competency (Williams 2000; Ulrich 2007; González-Cruz et al. 2009; Silzer and Dowell 2010; Bethke-Langenegger 2012), contribution (Ulrich 2007); experience (Cheese et al. 2008), knowledge (Michaels et al. 2001; Tansley et al. 2006; Cheese et al. 2008; Bethke-Langenegger 2012); performance (Stahl et al. 2007; Tansley et al. 2007); potential (Tansley et al. 2006, 2007; Williams 2000); or behaviour (Buckingham and Vosburgh 2001; Michaels et al. 2001; Cheese et al. 2008); Skills (Hinrichs 1966; Gagné 2000; Tansley et al 2006; Cheese et al. 2008; Silzer and Dowell 2010). In contrast, subject approach (talent as people) falls into only two classifications, inclusive and exclusive approaches, (Iles et al. 2010) which will be explained in the sub-section below:

2.11 Exclusive/inclusive talent management

Inclusive and exclusive views of TM co-exist (Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2020); TM is generally about dividing talent into various groups (such as future GMs, high potentials, global players,) to be managed diversely and provided with development opportunities, which can be scarce. Historically, organisational development focuses on open and fair developmental paths for employees; exclusive TM completely changes the broader social approach (Church 2013). TM is approached differently according to the way organisations conceptualise talent and its nature (Dries 2013; Meyers et al. 2013). Tension exists between views of talent as innate or acquired and whether it should be approached through the lens of ability or motivation, which has implications for how firms focus on the different aspects of TM (Meyers *et al*. 2013). Thus, talent identification may be an input of ambition, career orientation, and effort or an output of achievements, performance, and results; it may be more broadly determined according to the size and business nature of an organisation, as well as the overall organisational culture, all of which play a vital role in TM practices (McDonnell 2011; Festing et al. 2013). Bolander et al.'s (2014) qualitative study in Swedish organisations unveiled three management approaches to TM initiatives (elaborated in the following table): the Humanistic, the Competitive, and the Entrepreneurial. The humanistic approach does not recognise specific talent, but all employees are equally subject to developmental avenues; this approach is predominantly represented fields with humble educational levels (e.g. tourism and retail) in both public and private organisations. Yet some companies applying the humanistic approach also had leadership development programmes with high criteria for enrolment and participation. The competitive typology was more prevalent among globalised and large institutions within intensive knowledge economies, with a high level of educated staff. In such organisations, TM is strategically focused, aiming to globally invest in human assets and appeal across a range of potential talents. Thus, organisations adopting the competitive view may recognise TM a means to attract and retain top performers. The third view of TM, introduced in section 2.5, is the entrepreneurial view, which ascribes no recognition to talent identification, but where talent identify and sell themselves by asking for challenges and projects based on their ambition. In this view it is the duty of the organisation to facilitate employee competence development as a human right. However, unlike the first and second underlying view of talent, this approach lacks career progression for employees (Bolander et al. 2014). A perspective on talent may be either context-dependent or transferable, but a handful of academics argue that this perspective is inevitably specific to its distinct context (Groysberg et al. 2004; Groysberg et al. 2008). A talent-inclusive approach is dominant in German settings (Festing et al. 2013) while exclusive TM is mainly practiced within Sweden organisations (Bolander et al. 2014), which are characterised by egalitarian and collectivistic values (Holmberg and Åkerblom 2012) that could be seen as contrary to other underlying TM characteristics such as the highly elitist and individualistic ones (Michaels et al. 2001).

Fundamental TM dimension	Humanistic approach	Competitive approach	Entrepreneurial approach
View on talent	• Inclusive definition • Possible to acquire • Focus on ability and motivation • Context dependent	• Exclusive definition • Innate • Focus on ability • Transferable	• Inclusive definition • Possible to acquire • Focus on motivation • Context dependent
Identifying talent	• Regular talent reviews performed at all hierarchical levels • Informal assessment: make sure everyone's efforts and performance are seen • Embrace subjectivity	• Regular talent reviews performed on higher levels • Formal assessment: put systems and structures for measurement in place • Strive for objective process	• No regular talent reviews • Informal assessment: talent identified on the basis of successful performance • Embrace subjectivity
Developing talent	• Grow own talent • Focus on continuous development and programmes open to all • No shortcuts, few privileges for 'talent'	• External recruitment of talent • Focus on exclusive programmes to which talents are nominated • Keep talents interested	• Grow own talent • Focus on development through new assignments • 'Sink or swim'

Fundamental TM dimension	Humanistic approach	Competitive approach	Entrepreneurial approach
Succession planning and retention management	• Starting point always 'on the floor' • Horizontal as much as vertical moves • Emphasis on development within roles	• Clear career paths tailored for talents • Focus on vertical promotion	• Ad hoc careers depending on supply of projects and positions
Organisation of TM	• Centralised TM through mindset around talent • Process not built after generic model	• Centralised TM through talent activities and processes • Strong connection to strategic goals • Inspired by generic TM models	• Decentralised TM

Table 2.1. The three approaches to TM summarised. Adopted from Bolander et al. (2014, 23).

The inclusive TM approach, analogous to good employer branding, is interrelated to equality principles and is a dominant feature in diverse public sector contexts (Boselie and Thunnissen 2017). Simultaneously, studies on public sector TM, such as Groves's (2011) and Heilmann's (2010) draw attention to the challenges of poaching and nurturing a certain segment of the workforce – the exclusive focus on talent – that is also common in public sector settings. Notwithstanding, Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2020) state that both the inclusive and exclusive approaches to TM are implemented by public sector organisations.

The inclusive approach to TM has disadvantages, such as costliness (Lacey and Groves 2014). Moreover, some workforces may not be willing to enrol in a TM programme if they have prioritised other initiatives. It is, therefore, perhaps wise to maintain fairness in analysing different approaches and focus on TM of strategic roles rather than talented employees. Furthermore, the percentage of staff involved in an exclusive talent scheme may range from 5% to 20% or may need further clarification, according to Wiblen (2016).

2.12 Talent management strategies and their impact

Talent management is associated with various tangible and intangible advantages to the organisation and its staff. The primary goal of TM is to build a productive, viable and high-performance firm that achieves its strategic mission and operational objectives (Campbell and Smith 2014). The discussion below sheds light on the role of TM in attracting and retaining talents, as well as supporting a business's corporate strategy:

2.12.1 Attract and retain talent

In a customer-facing sector such as the public service sector in the UAE and its ADG-affiliated departments, the formation, development, and implementation of TM initiatives is essential to attract and nurture the finest leadership talent (Sheehan et al. 2018). Talent attractiveness is 'the benefits that a potential employee expects to gain from working in a specific organization' (Berthon et al. 2005). As also revealed by Hughes and Rog (2008), who advocate the benefits of implementing effective TM and its impact on acquiring and retaining talent, in order to leverage talent investment, developing talent and retaining them longer within the organisation is more cost-effective than recruiting new talents with the potential leadership attributes (Caplan 2011). Thus, for Berger and Berger (2011) TM is immensely important to an organisation's success. Clearly, identification of internal talented candidates can be performed internally, and assists their future career development through internal transfers within the organisation or via promotion processes (Isa et al. 2018). According to Morton (2005, 11), 'Talent management is integral to engaging employees in the organization.' Additional benefits such as talent engagement are implicit when adopting TM efficiently (Hughes and Rog 2008).

Ntonga (2007) argues that conserving human capital leads to effective and consistent employee performance; Rothwell (2010) states that it is important to have and develop a skilled workforce in order to sustain the organisation's strategic position and to accomplish strategic business targets. Likewise, numerous authors suggest that TM is the main driver in improving corporate performance (see Axelrod *et al*. (2002), Lewis and Heckman (2006), Hughes and Rog (2008), McDonnell (2011) and others). Implementing TM and retention strategies means gaining a business competitive edge, as revealed by Chikumbi's qualitative research in Van Zyl et al. (2017), which examined TM and staff retention in the Bank of Zambia in 2011. This was with the aim of developing a TM framework appropriate for the private sector in the South Africa region, where organisations are ready for the implementation stage of TM. In addition, the goal was to lift productivity, increase motivation and innovation, and lead to greater contributions from staff to their employers (Van Zyl et al. 2017), improve loyalty, and strengthen the psychological contract, thereby mitigating employee turnover (Prinsloo 2012). Moreover, according to Morton (2005 11), 'Talent management is integral to engaging employees in the organization,' as a handful of studies revealed the impact of TM in enhancing employee engagement (Hughes and Rog 2008; Effron and Ort 2010; Van Zyl et al. 2017).

Ashton and Morton (2005, 28) contend that TM can facilitate the organisational integration of information technology as a core competence, by including its processes in overall strategic texture and aligning its initiatives with organisational goals. In other words, TM can be 'of strategic importance' and 'its talent significantly improves strategic execution and operational excellence' (Ashton and Morton 2005, 28). Furthermore, Odierno (2015, 3) argues that 'talent management offers real and tangible benefits of reducing recruitment costs, effective knowledge transfer, realisation of business strategy, delivery of cutting-edge services and products and the creation of a competitive advantage, in spite of the many challenges that organisations face in order to be sustainable.'

2.12.2 Support business corporate strategy

Egerova (2014) emphasises that the core function of TM is to provide support to the organisation and its corporate strategy, and stresses therefore that it does not merely tackle issues of attracting, developing, supporting, and nurturing talents (Cappeli 2008; Silzer and Dowell 2010); rather, TM is a tool to fulfil the business's strategic goals. This concept embraces the 'unitarist approach', which considers the organisation as one object affected by the various contextual factors that work together to achieve predefined objectives. However, as in Egerova (2014) the bulk of research puts greater emphasis on employment practice than debating employment relationships among talent; thereby focusing on talent and the way they work in order to nurture them and sustain their flow within the organisation (Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2013; Tansley et al. 2013; Thunnissen et al. 2013).

The preceding section has revealed diverse TM-related studies and their implementation. Prior to a deep discussion of the pertinent literature on talent intentions to stay, numerous TM models, strategies, and theories of TM success will be duly realised in the following section, which has inspired the researcher in developing the research conceptual framework.

2.13 Talent management models

Ashton and Morton's (2005, 30) proposed TM model is based on these words: ethos, focus, positioning, structure, and system. 'Ethos' involves the characteristics of 'talent mindset' demonstrated in values and behaviour. 'Focus' means to pay full attention to pivotal positions, thus assuring that the right people fit and fulfil the requirements of these positions. 'Positioning' originates with management rather than HR and cascades through the lower levels of the organisation. 'Structure' is to set and assign responsibilities to workers in the form of processes, tools, and techniques to facilitate and ensure task accomplishment. 'System' is to build up a long-term comprehensive scheme for 'change' initiatives.

The CIPD Change Agenda (2006) indicates the major practices implied in TM. The main proposed facets of TM strategies are talent acquisition, development, performance management, deployment, and conservation. Likewise, Collings and Mellahi's (2009) model – based on their proposed definition stated above – emphasises identifying key positions as the cornerstone in their theoretical development of an STM system, rather than just identifying who is talented. Their developed model (see Figure 2.2) also attempts to fill the gap of Ashton and Morton's (2005) model, which was criticised for its lack of focus on HR practices such as recruitment, succession planning, and leadership development. Collings and Mellahi (2009) claim that their suggested model bridges the gap in talent definition, and it is widely cited in the literature for its precise definition and clear conceptual framework for STM. The model shown below was also inspired by Boudreau and Ramstad (2007), to emphasise positioning TM as a new science of HRM, thus differentiating it from traditional HR strategies. Hence, the model draws wide attention to 'pivotal positions' and strategy sense, to focus on those high performers and those who contribute to the firm's competitive advantage, in order to achieve optimum outcomes (Becker and Huselid 2006). The term 'pivotal' is supported by Boudreau and Ramstad's (2007, 43) 'call for talent segmentation and a focus on the *pivotal* talent pools,' rather than the whole talent pool, because they pointed out that only 20% of the talent pool would have maximum impact on intended outputs and the firm's success, in terms of their discrete or differentiated performance. Therefore, investing in a particular segment of 'pivotal talent' is deemed more efficient. The above aligns with the strategic orientation, which stresses an investment in strategic roles over non-strategic positions (Becker and Gerhart 1996). Nonetheless, it contradicts the common trends, in which firms invest more in non-strategic roles, as claimed by Boudreau and Ramstad (2007) and Huselid and Becker (2005).

Contrasting with Boudreau and Ramstad's (2007) recommendation for identifying the pivotal talent pool/positions, Collings and Mellahi's (2009) definition is consistent with

Smilansky (2006), and Stahl et al. (2007), aiming at developing high potential and high performers – 'the talent pool' – to occupy 'pivotal positions.' Here, talent pool development informs STM. Notwithstanding, a 'talent pool strategy' was found to be extensively adopted by the best performing organisations globally to manage their competent talent, with an emphasis on sourcing candidates with the best competencies, then allocating them to suitable roles (Stahl et al. 2007). This notion is supported by Cappelli (2008a, 77) who points to insights from supply chain management: 'managing the flow of goods and services,' in which goods go through various channels from being raw materials to processing, until they are ultimately consumed by customers. Analogously, Cappelli (2008a) argues that nurturing talents through all stages is very important, beginning with identifying the pivotal talent pool (raw material), then pivotal talent positions, developing them (processing), and stressing the assignment of appropriate roles to ensure job enrichment, which is anticipated to result in cascading talent across the organisation; they are unlikely to stay in the organisation if they are locked into menial or marginal jobs. Moreover, research has revealed that assigning complex roles has positive impacts on employee motivation, satisfaction, and productivity (Hackman et al. 1975).

Collings and Mellahi (2009) also stressed sourcing talent from the organisation internally and externally, which creates career mobility and assists in developing appropriate candidates to fill other roles, as evidenced by organisations that recruited their executives from the external labour market to confront certain business challenges. Therefore, organisations are recommended to develop their internal talent, while continuing to recruit from outside, in order to secure the inflow of broader talent capabilities based on the actual demand at a particular time. This avoids oversupply, which may later result in redundancies. Thus, the development of a bundle of competencies tends to respond appropriately to multiple business needs/roles (Cappelli 2008a).

With the development of a differentiated human resource architecture that emphasises the link between strategic HRM and sustaining an organisational competitive advantage, SHRM is strategy-oriented. Thus, its practices are tailored for the success of the organisation in terms of effectiveness and performance. From the literature, Collings and Mellahi (2009, 308) identified two approaches in the field of strategic HRM, which are critical to improving a firm's profitability. The first stems from Pfeffer's (1994; 1998) contribution, which suggested a set of practices that can be adopted universally irrespective of context. The second is Wood's (1999) approach, also termed the 'contingent school', which urges mapping human resources strategies with the organisational corporate strategy and the external context (Boxall et al. 2008). A key theme emerges from those two approaches, which is that what "is relatively consistent across the studies is their tendency to assume that all employees within an organisation were managed with a single configuration of HR practices" (Collings and Mellahi 2009, 309). Moreover, Tsui et al. (1997) were the first academics to point to a distinction between the numerous HR systems that yield distinct impact on organisational effectiveness.

In this context, Lepak and Snell's (2002) empirical research pointed out the relationship between human capital, their employment nodes, and the configured HR systems that support that particular segment of employees who may yield excellent results to the firm. They suggested four types of human capital employment, based on the 'value and uniqueness' notion. The first consists of certain employees with intimate knowledge-based capabilities, who are categorised 'core employees' and possess the potential to fulfil the organisational strategic objectives; this segment of human capital assists the firm in developing its internal competencies and yields longer employee commitment. The second node is job-based employment for those employees who are hired to act in predetermined roles and are mainly sourced from within the firm; they are valuable to organisational success and therefore constitute a strategic value to the firm with skills that can be deployed internally; meanwhile, they are deemed to possess narrow uniqueness. The third is contract employment, also termed 'outsourcing,' for workers who are not classified 'strategically important or unique.' The fourth is partnership/ alliances employment, for workers who are recognised as 'relatively unique' but do not have enough strategic significance to be recruited internally (Lepak and Snell 2002). Likewise, Lepak et al. (2007) reveal the tendency to apply sophisticated HR systems within service organisations, which invest more to manage their core human capital than their support workers.

Hence, Collings and Mellahi's (2009) theoretical development of TM emphasises talent pool and pivotal positions, along with the differentiated HR architecture, to predict high performance standards as the ultimate intended organisational outcome, in which motivation, commitment, and extra-role behaviour are the mediated factors. Although this framework is underpinned by an ample body of literature advocating its applicability as an effective TM strategy; there was a relatively extensive focus on certain limited factors to retain talent. It should be noted that other factors to realise retention can be extended to incorporate, but are not limited to, employee empowerment, incentives, the prevailing leadership style across the organisation, and issues associated with the organisational environment/organisational culture. Moreover, the proposed model integrates universal HR configuration systems to fit all contexts regardless of other critical factors connected with the nature of the business, e.g. service sector compared with industry. Furthermore, since the proposed model is theoretical and was not tested to measure its impacts in practice, its effectiveness in exploiting the optimum potential of talent for positive performance outcome has not been gauged (Thunnissen et al. 2013). Therefore, without empirical evidence, it may be risky or inappropriate to apply this framework in a sophisticated setting like the UAE, bearing in mind cultural and economic variances. Furthermore, the differentiated HR systems were mentioned (training and development, appraising talent, etc.) but not thoroughly illustrated. Besides, in the absence of an explicitly adopted approach, Collings and Mellahi's (2009) model for an effective STM system appears to inform the adoption of the inclusive approach of TM implementation, so as to comprise all human capital classifications such as leadership/executives or junior employees. Notwithstanding their definition of STM, their research asserts the inclusion of the key pivotal positions, which in turn may yield the adoption of the exclusive TM approach. As contended by the authors, behaviour was the key mediating factor in their model, which indeed constitutes talent's performance. Yet, behaviour is also influenced by internal and external considerations, such as employee empowerment, management style, and its employed instruments, as stated earlier and widely cited. An emphasis on developing talent has been cited without declaring the best facets in the literature and practice.

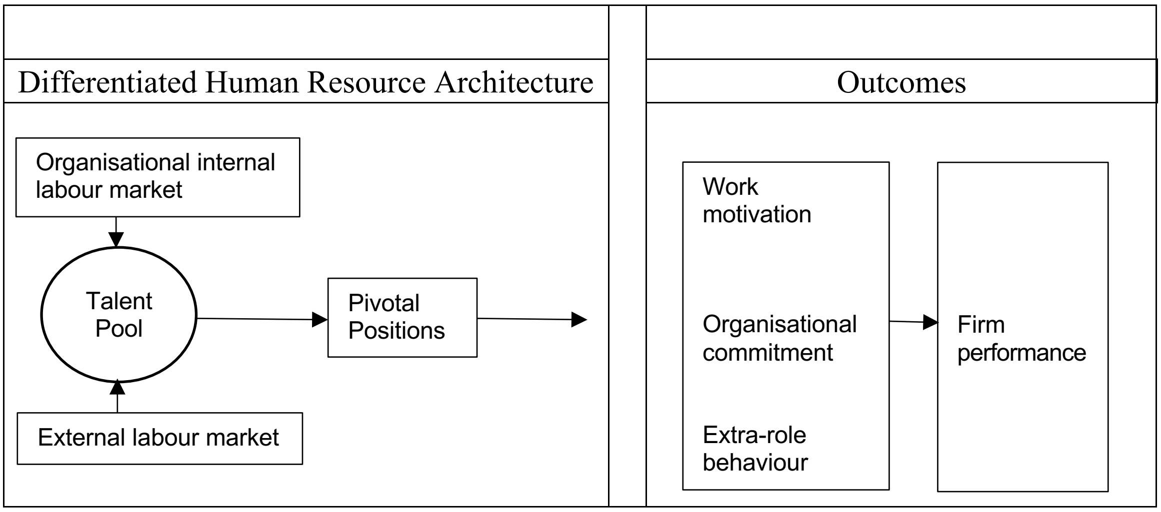


Figure 2.2. Talent Management Model. Adopted from Collings and Mellahi (2009).

So far, this chapter has focused on TM aspects and offered models of key characteristics, including major variables in attracting and retaining talent, as well as the implications for talent development in the service industry. It is now necessary to discuss key strategies to talent attraction, development, management, and retention below.

2.14 Talent management strategies

With a lack of empirical studies with practical implications, the short supply of concrete evidence, and insufficient guidance through the theoretical underpinning, there is no standardised model or holistic framework to guide practitioners and businesses in developing an adequate TM strategy for attraction and retention (Temkin 2008; Van Zyl *et al*. 2017). In the current global economy in particular, employers struggle to combat talent departure and manage their top potentials from workers and leaders, and to have appropriate TM strategies in place for times when talent is scarce (Temkin 2008) (see table 2.3).

There is a growing body of literature emphasising the importance of promoting corporate strategy alongside TM practices. The CIPD (2006) portrays the merits and best practice of TM whose core function a strategy to promote and hand-over corporate and HRM strategies. Alike, in Van Zyl et al.'s (2017) study on the South African private sector, the authors argue that designing a TM strategy should address initiatives of the corporate and human resources strategies, in which STM maps the TM function with the human resources management role. Such a process will be shaped by and cascade from the formal processes of the firm's corporate strategy. Hughes and Rog (2008) and Van Zyl et al. (2017) emphasise leadership and management sponsorship and commitment to exhaust potential TM initiatives, while Van Zyl *et al*. (2017) claim that if TM is not given priority by senior management then TM will look like a normal HR activity. However, ADG handed over TM entirely to HR, which may work closely with managers to set TM-related initiatives. The CIPD (2016a) suggests that successful TM is achieved via strategic integration of a cohesive talent pipeline with approaches to attract, identify, develop, engage, reward, and retain talents. Sheehan et al. (2018) contend that this is the route to sustain the organisational competitiveness for the hotel and tourism sector. Therefore, TM strategy ought to be considered and should reflect the customised context requirements, in this case the service sector of ADG, with its sophisticated culture and complex organisational structure. Prior to discussing the literature relevant to talent retention, it is vital to understand some key literature about the subject under study in the following sub-sections (Table 1 in Appendix 1).

2.14.1 TM strategy focus

Bethke-Langenegger et al. (2011, 528) differentiate TM strategy, in the quest to support organisational performance and success, into four aspects based on the ultimate goal. First, *to explicitly collaborate with the organisational corporate strategy*. Huselid (1995), Joyce et al. (2007), and Tansley et al. (2007) provide support for a definitive link between successful TM, financial profit, better organisational outcomes (customer satisfaction), and enhanced human resources results. When TM is embedded into a business's corporate strategy to successfully expand business activities, a talent mindset can be implemented and flow across the organisation (Cohn et al. 2005). This entails attaining talent commitment and higher motivation, and leads to talent appreciation and satisfaction (Gandossy and Kao 2004). Statistically, Bethke-Langenegger et al. (2011) found that TM that focused on corporate strategy gained the highest advantage and impact on corporate profit; they suggest this result is due to lower coordination costs, and is advantage of the collaboration and matching between HR practices with a specific strategic orientation; the result being, as Boxall and Purcell (2011) argue, harmony between the corporate strategy and TM.

The second focus of TM is *to enable succession planning*. In this regard, TM is a succession planning tool that facilitates the search for talent by providing the right competencies at the right time, either from internal candidates or external sucessors (Bethke-Langenegger et al. 2011), as to Cappelli (2008) and Hills (2009). Sebald et al.'s (2005) and Steinweg's (2009) studies support the view that using TM to strengthen the function of proactive and seamless succession planning cuts replacement costs and consequently leverages corporate profit. Talent knowledge and skills can be preserved, then transferred to successors. Benefits also include reinforcing work quality (Conway 2007) and promoting customer satisfaction based on the improved quality of work, according to Evans and JackH (2003). However, Bethke-Langenegger et al.'s (2011) study rejected this proposition, arguing that there was no significant positive impact on the customer relationship. Still, offering talent available paths for future development will build their trust in their leaders (Mayer et al. 1995). As to Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, when an employer fulfils promises this enhances talent motivation, satisfaction, and performance; this is provided that talent gains the promised 'valences' for the distinct contribution they believe themselves capable of delivering ('expectancy'). The promise itself is 'instrumentality.' Yet Bethke-Langenegger et al.'s (2011) investigation revealed that this strategic orientation had the weakest influence on the workforce, in terms of performance, commitment, and trust in leaders.

Third, TM is adopted *to attract and retain talent*. Aiming to attract new skilled talents and to fill pivotal positions with unique candidates, TM practices emphasise valuing special performers by setting the appropriate incentives to retain them (Ringo et al. 2008; Brundage and Koziel 2010). Maslow (1954) adds that studying and considering rewarding talent, plus providing meaningful jobs, will result in motivating them and consequently improving their satisfaction level. According to Beechler and Woodward (2009) and DeConinck and Johnson (2009), when talents receive what they deserve in appreciation and recognition, their higher commitment and satisfaction (Herzberg et al. 2008) will ensue. This strategy will also lead to leveraging the quality of work, according to Kolb (1984), provided that employees gain skills by experience; thus firm-specific-skills and qualification levels will be sustained and raised when talents stay longer at the organisation. Furthermore, given that customer satisfaction is underlined by quality of work (Evans and Jack 2003) and commitment (Reichheld 1993), this strategy would cause higher customer satisfaction. Finally, since customer satisfaction and employee commitment are profit chain determinants, this strategy will yield enhanced business and corporate profit (Reichheld 1993). However, Bethke-Langenegger et al.'s (2011) study rejected this proposition and argued that there were no significant positive effects on corporate profit; yet others argue that this strategy has its greatest impact on human resources outcomes such as satisfaction, motivation, commitment, and performance.

The fourth forcus of TM strategy, however, is using TM to *develop talent*. TM involves investing in human capital by the identification of training and development needs, then building career development and progression paths for talented staff. In this context, talent are keen to develop organisation-specific skills (Ready and Conger 2007; Ringo et al. 2008). Based on the agency theory (Pratt et al. 1991), TM can direct talents' behaviour towards business needs, because as the employer fulfils talent needs with financial incentives, so talent (who are the agents) are more likely to obey the employer's (principal's) direction. Accordingly, this strategy would contribute to talent accomplishing the work at a higher quality and improving organisational intellectual capital, which eventually ensures the enhanced value of the organisation (Scholz et al. 2006). Moreover, given that this strategy would lead to more skilled talent who tend to be more productive, then higher company profits are likely to result (Axelrod et al. 2001; Lawler 2009). Previous studies have demonstrated that extrinsic compensation such as career progression and development paths are vital elements for talent motivation (Gandossy and Kao 2004; McGrath 2008), job satisfaction (Ellickson and Logsdon 2001), and commitment (Bartlett 2001), rather than monetary reward (Bulter and Waldroop 2000; Gandossy and Kao 2004; Ready *et al*. 2008; Sidani and Al Ariss 2014), as talents are driven by developmental offers (Ready and Conger 2007; Lawler 2008). In addition, high engagement assists in achieving business financial and operational goals, as suggested by Effron and Ort (2010), who state that most HR professionals believe that it leads to increased profit and improved business objectives. According to Bethke-Langenegger et al. (2011), this focus of TM was statistically revealed to be the most effective strategy in attracting talents as a preferred employer brand.

Moreover, the research of Van Zyl et al. (2017) provides a conceptual overview of the best practices to incorporate the key aspects of an effective TM strategy. Such aspects include recognising talent requirements and creating an appropriate workplace climate in order to become the best company for them to work for, as emphasised by Li and Bryan (2010). TM intitiatives have a great impact on boosting talent engagement, as claimed by Tucker and Williams (2011) and Caplan (2011), who explained that TM and employee engagement initiatives are focused on developing talent and investing in their potential.

The findings in the above section are from Bethke-Langenegger et al.'s (2011) research, which reveals how TM can be utilised according to business focus, following four facets, along with the anticipated financial, organisatonal, and human resources outcomes. Research has revealed that strategically aligning TM initiatives with the above core areas has positive effects on the firm's business imperatives. This research argues the benefits of integrating TM with business core function, thus yielding dramatic benefits at the financial, organisational, and human resources levels. The limitations of Bethke-Langenegger et al.'s (2011) study were connected to its design, which employed non-random sampling; in addition to the small sample size; therefore, the generalisability of findings is relatively restricted. Moreover, participation in the survey was limited to senior staff from HR, excluding the workforce level while including personnel managers, section heads from the HR department, supervisors, and executives. Moreover, according to this study, differentiating TM strategies does not necessarily point to various practices; rather it may indicate a different focus over other core areas of the business.

2.14.2 TM programme for the SME service sector

In 2004, the National Tourism Development Authority put forward the Optimus programme, which is deemed an excellent TM example for the governmental sector in terms of achieving high productivity, raising competitiveness, and increasing customer satisfaction and loyalty, while also mitigating employee turnover, saving costs, and increasing profitability (Sheehan et al. 2018). The Optimus programme promotes the growth of business capabilities and the continuous pursuit of excellence in the various business dimensions. The programme encompasses three levels of particular focus, derived from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, which are as follows: Level one – service excellence, which forms the customer focus dimension that is foundational to this approach. Its function is to support and empower management teams in establishing appropriate service level standards (i.e. to set, implement, monitor, and measure service standards). Level two is the establishment of best practice (which forms operational focus). Therefore, this programme nurtures business operations for improvement purposes, where processes are updated to identify, compare, and simulate the existing operational processes according to the best industry practice. Thus, it focuses on management issues of the business to identify and apply business approaches, formulas, and standards that underlie the success of leading organisations witness. Level three, however, is business excellence (which forms the business focus) (OECD 2012a; 2012b). That is, besides constantly pursuing continual improvement and superior performance, businesses are urged to take a proactive approach towards changing market, economic, and social circumstances. Hence, although the Optimus programme was not explicitly directed to serve TM per se, it is obvious that those three levels of focus can be adapted to support the exhaustive activities of TM throughout the vertical and horizontal map, across organisations, particularly and critically those SMEs (OECD 2012a; 2012b). Yet, the effectiveness of these programmes was not tested among the public sector to assess their success.

This section has elucidated the critical dimensions related to TM issues. The next discussion aims at exposing the pertinent factors to talent attraction and retention, such as employer branding, talent engagement, and other aspects.

2.14.3 Employer branding as an attraction and retention tool

Staffing prospective applicants from talent has been an increasing concern, especially in service contexts, owing to the need for competent workforce reservoirs, which is reflect the robustness of and organisation's recruitment strategy compared to its rivals (Ewing et al. 2002; Keefe 2007). Unlike traditional/short-term recruitment strategies, employer branding is used by employers as a long-term strategy to sustain a steady stream of the necessary competencies and skills, particularly in service and knowledge-based economies (Ambler and Barrow 1996). Employer branding in personnel staffing employs some fundamentals from marketing (Maurer et al. 1992); it embodies attributes related to the firm such as its organisational culture, leadership style, staff qualities, staffing image, customers' perspectives towards products , and quality of the service provided (Sullivan 2002). These features privilege the idea of an organisation as caring to its personnel, enabling its employees to apply their potential, supporting their career progression, following a credible and fair approach to compensation and reward, being flexible and ethical in granting its employees autonomy, and last, but not least, to provide its best talent with global exposure (Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010). To McClelland (1975), employee empowerment is a policy of encouraging employees to perform their work through providing resources and sharing organisational power, as manifested by delegating formal authority to subordinates. To Colzon (1987), such a strategy would free employees from the strict control of orders, policies, and instruction and grant them the freedom to act with their own responsibility, and to generate creative ideas, actions, and decisions. As indicated in Singh and Sharma (2015), promoting psychological empowerment implies that supervisors provide staff with support and autonomy and most importantly, consider their contributions; the result is an increased sense of employee self-determination, control, and impact (Keller and Dansereau 1995; Pan et al. 2012).

Talent acquisition is particularly significant to hospitality and tourism owing to the high service expectations of clients in those sectors (Powell and Wood 1999). Numerous hospitality firms proactively address the challenge. For example, in Canada, organisations such as Hewitt Associates (2004) undertake an annual assessment to identify and evaluate the top fifty talents. The process is a robust assessment that encompasses the inclusion of surveys and focus groups and involves different levels across each organisation. This process has been adopted by an increasing number of such organisations, which could mitigate the high level of turnover that has become expected in this industry, and thus lead to strengthening hospitality organisations' endeavours to be ranked as the employer of brand.

Other factors thought to be influencing talent attraction and retention were explored in several studies. These factors were similar to a great extent, as discovered by Hughes and Rog (2008). Deloitte's (2005) study pointed out distinct strategies that are significantly related to TM and may mitigate the adverse consequences of voluntary turnover, including talent learning and development, (Highhouse et al. 1999; Fulmer et al. 2003; Eisen et al. 2005; Lievens et al. 2005), which were highlighted in Deloitte's survey and rated as the most critical strategy at 78%, followed by communications within the organisation at 73%, then cultural improvements at 66%, and mentoring and coaching as the least significant at 65% Deloitte (2005). Deloitte's findings support those of the Government of Alberta, Human Resources and Employment (2003, 8) as Canadian employees emphasised the importance of 'being treated with respect, doing interesting work, a feeling of accomplishment and good communication among co-workers.' These solutions also more or less accord with those of Towers Perrin's (2005, 17) international study, which consisted of 86,000 full-time employees and suggested the leading drivers of recruitment for Canadian workers. Top drivers included competitive benefits/salaries/retirements, performance-based salary increments, provision of learning and development paths, the calibre of employees, work-life balance, the reputation of the employer as the ‘employer of brand.’ The following section provides a reflection on the critical role of talent engagement in forming an effective TM.

2.14.4 Employee/talent engagement

Maintaining talent engagement is one of the merits of implementing an Effective Talent Management Strategy. Employee engagement has been widely debated but ‘lacks a precise definition’ (Hughes and Rog 2008, 749). To Gibbons (2006, 5) ‘employee engagement is a heightened emotional and intellectual connection that an employee has for his/her job, organization, manager, or co-workers that in turn influences him/her to apply additional discretionary effort to his/her work.’ Another available definition, proposed by Hewitt Associates (2004, 12) based on their study, suggests that engagement can be described as the power and passion employees possess, and their actions directed for the success of their organisations. They ‘stay, say, and strive-stay with and are committed to the organization, say positive things about their workplace, and strive to go above and beyond to deliver extraordinary work.’ When engaged employees talk positively about their organisations, this can engender and maintain an organisation’s employer brand. Moreover, employees exert distinct efforts that could potentially have profound a positive impact on other aspects, e.g. customer satisfaction, quality of service, sales, and productivity and profitability.

In the same vein, Gibbons (2006) summarised the top factors that contributed to employee engagement from 12 major studies, which were identified as management-related issues such as trustworthiness and integration; the extent to which an employer’s leadership is felt to be caring as a result of listening and reacting to its workers’ issues and opinions, and how far the leader ‘walks the talk’; the level of employee autonomy and participation/involvement in decisions, as well as the nature of the job; the link between individual and organisational performance; the employees’ role in grasping predefined performance goals and how to achieve the organisational objectives; clear accessible career paths and career progression opportunities;

pride in the organisation and its influence on employee self-esteem about their jobs; teams' and co-workers' attitudes and perceptions pertaining to their jobs and the organisation; training and development opportunities and the extent to which facilities are offered to equip employees with the required skills; and fostering the mutual and personal relationship between the employee and the supervisor, and the extent to which the individual recognises this relationship.

The above drivers arguably mirror the general and prominent philosophy of management in the organisation. Therefore, all managers and supervisors are urged to interact with their employees with respect and integrity, promote the relationship with subordinates, maintain two-way communication, and promote pride in workers' jobs. Following these key factors to employee engagement, further emphasis was given to particular aspects by Gibbons (2006, 6), as follows: 'emotional drivers such as one's relationship with one's manager and pride in one's work had four times greater impact on discretionary work effort than did the rational drivers, such as pay and benefits.' Nevertheless, Towers Perrin (2005) indicates that employee engagement varies by context and the firm's size, as he found that in the top countries such as Mexico (with 40%), then Brazil (rated at 31%), followed by the United States (21%), then Belgium (18%) and finally Canada (17%), small firms where employees were fewer than 5000 tended to feel proud about their employer, were satisfied in their jobs, were offered opportunities for career growth, perceived the integrity of their superiors, and consequently endorsed the view that 'this is the best company to work for' (Gibbons 2006, 7–8).

Some compelling research has reported the robust connection between employee engagement and TM practices, and its association with organisational outcomes that are in turn connected to TM, such as employee recruitment, turnover, and retention. For instance, Towers Perrin (2003) indicated that a highly engaged employee rated plans to continue working with the same employer at 6%6, in comparison to 12% from disengaged employees. In addition, the leveraged degree of employee engagement results in improving overall financial performance, as well as higher productivity and revenue as found by Hewitt and Associates' (2004) study on multiple organisations.

2.15 Talent retention strategies

A considerable amount of literature has been published pertaining to the importance of retaining talents, which is as critical as their acquisition as well. Retention refers to an employers' ability to retain the best employees (Deo 2014). The following debate addresses why it is important to adopt effective retention strategies to promote organisational success. It explains the scarcity in executive talent as separate from a lack of appropriate competences. Surveys such as the UN's Population Division data, conducted by Deloitte (2005, 2), showed that 'the number of 15 to 29-year olds entering the job market is steadily contracting, while the population in both developed and developing countries is ageing.' From the above it is suggested that a 'chronic labour shortage [is evolving] across all geographic and vertical markets.' Moreover, as in the conclusions drawn by Dell and Hickey (2002, 7), the Bureau of Labour Statistics in the United States predicts that 'by 2008 there will be 6 million more jobs than people to fill them, and the gap will grow to peak levels between 2015 and 2025.' Employee retention is often measured by employee turnover (Beynon et al. 2015). In the UAE, employee turnover rates are above the global average, which comes with overwhelming costs as reported by Albawaba.com (2017). It was uncovered that turnover rate increased from 2014 to 2017, as reflected by 38% of the surveyed employees in 2014 compared to 56% of the same sample of employees in 2017, who said they would prefer to quit their organisations during the next 12 months. Moreover, the report indicated that in the UAE a considerable number of employees favour benefits other than monetary packages to build deeper engagement, such as ethical employers who would grant them autonomy in performing their job, or medical insurance. As articulated earlier, implementing adequate TM tactics leads to talent retention. The shortage in talented managers and executives is one of the main challenges in managing human resources nowadays, and was rated the sixth highest critical issue by the conference board when 539 CEOs were surveyed in 2004 (Morton 2005). This made it necessary for managers to assign top priority to talent retention.

Talent retention is associated with various positive contextual implications, such as maintaining employee enthusiasm (France, Brazil, Netherlands), dealing with people with trustworthiness, credibility and respect, and trust (Japan), undertaking appropriate performance reviews (Italy), and sharing with employees the accountability for achieving performance goals (South Korea) (Hughes and Rog 2008).

Employee retention ensures keeping key employees in the organisation. It would be ideal to analyse early resignations, through periodic attitude surveys. This is because when people leave an organisation, they do not tend to openly reveal their main reasons for not staying in an organisation. Determinants of employee turnover include pay against market, job design, dearth or absence of feedback on performance, lack of learning and development opportunities, career development, lack of a cohesive team, conflict with supervisors, mismatch between promotion decisions and selected employees, and the expected capabilities to perform the job (Armstrong and Taylor 2014).

Turnover is one possible way to measure retention rates and could be the fundamental component in analysing the level of employee commitment to an organisation, according to Armstrong (2016). A number of authors have adopted the turnover dimension to forecast the actual turnover Armstrong (2016). Oladapo (2014) estimates talent shortages during the next decade, as indicated by the Society for Human Resource Management 2005 Future of the U.S. Labour Pool Survey Report 2005. Employee retention is highly associated with the quality of supervision, as revealed in a study by Ernst & Young. It was found that inadequate supervisors are the key driver to talent turnover, rated at 78–86%, a finding that reinforces the critical role of good leadership and supervision style to organisational sustainability (Singh and Sharma 2015).

According to Singh and Sharma (2015), retaining talent can be the most challenging aspect for employers, as shown in their research on selected organizations within the private sector in the UAE, which found that retention strategies are two-pronged, with long-term and short-term dimensions. Pivotal factors to long-term retention were depicted in the above study, which built on the academic work of Heinen and O'Neill (2004), Scheweyer (2004), Ashton and Morton (2005), Bhatnagar (2007), Benest (2008), Collings and Mellahi (2009), Iles et al. (2010), Haid (2012), and Wellins et al. (nd). They included promoting employee stock option schemes (ESOS), by granting employees the privileged 'option' to buy shares at a certain price for long-term retention; nurturing employees, i.e. promoting the organisational identity and employee welfare; providing a suitable and friendly work environment, establishing social security, gathering feedback, offering mentoring and coaching interventions, as well as off-the-job training and onsite/external career development programmes, while also offering compensation above the labour market rate. Reward on unbiased performance appraisals was a short-term factor in talent retention, according to the said study. From the responses of talent involved in the survey, it was revealed that organisations should focus on growth and job security drivers rather that monetary and performance-driven incentives (Singh and Sharma 2015). Deery and Jago (2015) stress that work–life balance (WLB) is the prominent driver in retaining talents (Bernard Hodes Group 2007), and propose a framework for TM for the hospitality industry that evolved from the value of WLB; yet, the psychological contract, organisational behaviour, commitment, level of justice, and job satisfaction are also determinants in talents' intentions to stay or quit an organisation. Likewise, Refan and Suciratin's (2021) quantitative study of the Indonesian insurance industry revealed that TM becomes more influential in maintaining talent by mediating organisational trust. The study of the Government of Alberta, Human Resources and Employment (2003) set out significant drivers of employee retention. Some of these overlap with the factors identified as the top strategies to attract talent after they have been appointed; for instance, offering a competitive salary, securing opportunities for talents to acquire and build new skills; appreciating employees' motivation; retirement benefits; employee satisfaction with decisions made by the employer; organisational success strategy/planning; a fair performance-based financial reward system, granting employees appropriate autonomy, as well as the good reputation of the organisation. Mangal's (2021) research revealed fair pay, effective orientation training, role clarity, and other benefits as key determinants to employee retention in the Indian industries. However, Acharya et al. (2021) claim that employers cannot instil talent retention in their staff, and therefore organisations ought to reshape their curricula and teach this within the organisational learning approach, to mitigate millennial turnover intentions.

2.15.1 Learning and talent development strategies

Another HR practice organisations resort to in order to keep talent is to offer talent and leadership development opportunities, which is arguably a strategic intervention that supports human capital and strengthens the strategic value of the organisation (Stewart and Rigg 2011). As it has a crucial role in leveraging talent retention rates by enhancing their affective commitment, so it is harder for business rivals to poach or attract talent, which is anticipated to result in 'returning' the ultimate behavioural outcome as its best performers stay in an organisation. Hence, it has been proven that generating a positive relationship through talent and leadership development affects commitment and talent intention to stay (Chami-Malaeba and Garavan 2013; Wahab et al. 2014). The purpose of a learning and talent development initiative is to address training needs in line with the corporate strategy. Muyial et al.'s (2018) study on emerging economies such as Kenya concluded that talent acquisition alone was insufficient; it is imperative to have strategic planning to develop talents with tailored and high quality learning and training programmes. Laabs's (1993) research found that implementing a training programme reduced employee turnover at Bell Helicopter. In addition, Harel and Tzafrir (1999) conclude that the provision of career exposure opportunities significantly enhanced employee motivation to stay with their employer. Mangal (2021) found that developing talent exerts a significant influence on sustaining talent in Indian industries. Jennings et al.'s (1995) cross-cultural study, exploring leadership attitudes pertaining to HRM interventions, revealed that training and development is considered by managers to be the top HRM strategy in influencing them to remain longer with their employers.

2.15.1.1 Learning and talent development interventions

Figure 2.3 elaborates ten stages in designing structured training based on the ubiquitous four-step model and Harrison's (2009, 184) six-stage training cycle:

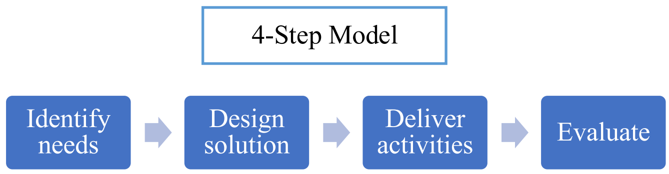


Figure 2.3. Four Step Model, adopted from Stewart and Rigg (2011, 232).

Figure 2.4. The Ubiquitous Four-Step Model and Harrison's (2009, 184) Six-Stage Training Cycle. Adopted from Stewart and Rigg (2011, 232).

The literature identified several essential factors to be considered while designing successful solutions, such as identifying purpose and learning outcomes, together with considering the differentiated objectives of internal and external key stakeholders, so that the learning and talent development would meet their expectations. Designing a training intervention predestines horizontal alignment with the various HR strategies. For instance, TM and various underlying factors – e.g. employer practices pertaining to performance reward and employee engagement, as well as vertical alignment with organisational corporate strategic priorities, in terms of the appropriate competencies, work attitude, and discrete performance – are achieved by acquiring human capital with the business-specific skills and capabilities, that contribute to a firm's success.

In regard to the 'evaluation' process, the research offers illustration in the section below. It is also essential to analyse the attributes of learners in terms of their willingness, the set of learning-interrelated skills and experiences they possess, and how those will add value to the learning intervention, along with their favoured technique for delivering the intervention. It is equally crucial to assure that the targeted learners are the right employees to invest training in, to know if there are any ways to attain the desired expectations, and to ensure the resultant learning outcomes. The 'organisation context' is important, in that it shapes the organisational culture and management's espoused approaches, which determines to what extent it encourages and values learning and talent development. The 'resources' factor includes realising who is in charge to finance such intervention, the time and commitment devoted from all parties, plus the cumulative costs and budget allocation alongside other relevant training resources (equipment, material, and facilities). However, designing a learning intervention necessitates considering the abundant mechanisms and interventions of learning. Likewise, it is advised to study and recognise the technique of transferring learning, the availability of a specific scheme to incentivise learners to contribute to the transfer of knowledge, complete with the necessary follow-up. Eventually, constructing such an intervention entails realising the learning deliverers' characteristic in respect of their suitable competences to deliver the intervention, their capabilities in managing the project and its learning initiatives, and making sure they are informed about a learner's background (Stewart and Rigg 2011, 232–33). However, the above models did not explicitly elaborate on talent behaviour as learners and the implications of such HR practices on their engagement, work attitude, and the ultimate business outcome in terms of reinforcing the competitive advantage.

2.15.1.2 Measuring learning and development

Employee performance is measured according to certain criteria. Some measures are granted more weight based on the contextual variables, so, since this is a strategic process that involves the government spending vast amounts of money on talented leaders' development inteventions, it is considered prudent and necessary to measure the efficiency of learning and talent development activities (Stewart and Rigg 2011). Evaluation data is gained from learners' feedback, and it is ideal to assess the effectiveness of learning and development functions pre and post-training. Moreover, workforce competences are an indicator of the capabilities profile being buit, provided the employees should be offered some training. In addition, it is a high priority to ascertain that the function of the training and development offered is consistent with the organisation's corporate critical aspects for intended outcomes, and finally, to conduct a benchmark comparison of the organisation's applied practices with other successful counterparts (Anderson 2007; Davins and Smith 2010).

2.15.2 Performance management strategies

Managing performance is another HR practice and strategy adopted by organisations. One purpose is strategic communication, such as disseminating the strategic goal of the organisation and what superior performance entails. The other purpose is to target employee development via the provision of feedback, conducting a training needs analysis to identify personnel competences, and establishing a personal development plan. Performance management (PM) also targets the monitoring of employee performance and the fostering of work relationships by periodic performance review meetings to discuss work achievements between managers and subordinates (Shields 2007). A PM strategy is underpinned by the Resource-Based View (RBV) Strategy Theory (Coff 1997); therefore, PM is a useful tool to identify the best performers (Armstrong 2009; Zhang et al. 2015) or for performance-related reward actions, e.g. promotion or job relocation. Moreover, PM systems aim at improving organisational performance (Brumbach 1988) with subsequent organisational success and financial results. PM contributes to talent retention, as was proposed by Zhang et al.'s (2015) study, which reported successful retention results when task-focused managers exercise performance appraisals. Therefore, an emerging theme from the literature on PM tends to affirm the inevitable relationship between employee development and evaluation. Performance management is an ongoing task performed smoothly by effective managers who form the crucial determinant to its success (Armstrong 2012a); therefore, in the absence of supporting aids and the required skills, commitment, and engagement in this process, managing performance could distract them from other functions (Armstrong 2008b).

2.15.2.1 Performance management processes

The PM cycle fits with Deming's (1986) model of the four steps: plan, do, check, and act, shown in Figure 2.5.

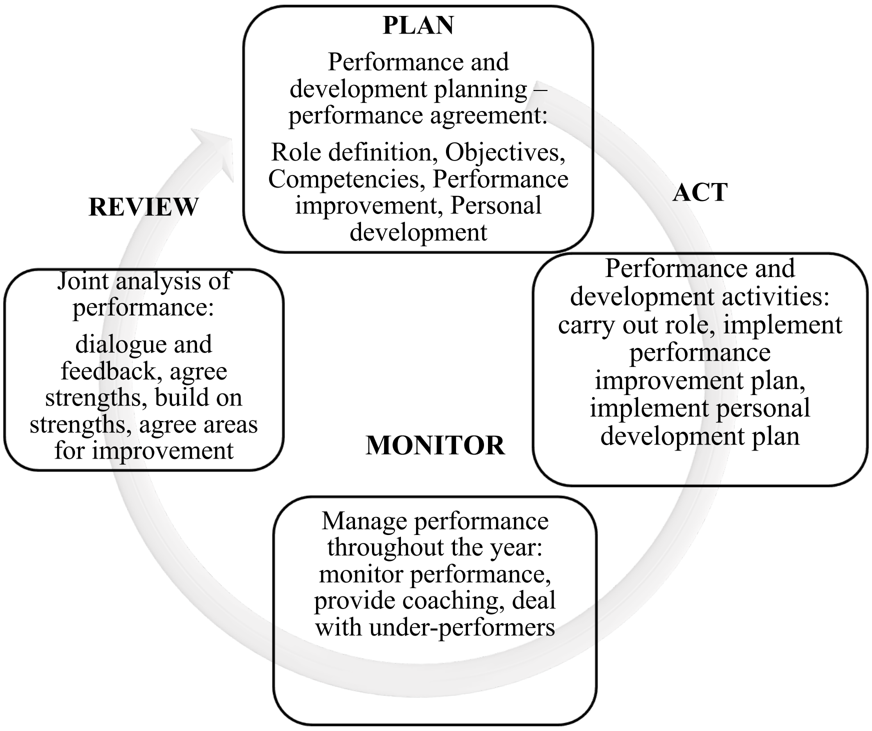


Figure 2.5. The performance management cycle. Adopted from Armstrong (2012, 333).

Along the same line, Sink and Tuttle (1990) indicated five dimensions to managing organisational performance: establishing a future vision for the organisation; planning; assessing the current position of the firm and mapping appropriate strategies for enhancement, designing and implementing enhancement interventions; designing evaluation measures; and rewarding through cultural support schemes.

Stage	Processes
Plan	Planning performance through setting and agreeing performance objectives (e.g. expectations), and personal development planning (i.e. competencies gaps), corresponding with goal theory that links goals to performance results. This theory underpins the emphasis in PM that entails mapping and agreeing on objectives in accordance with a gaugeable and assessable performance (Latham and Locke 1979). In associating goals with performance consequences, this theory comprises four areas. The first focus is an emphasis on priorities; the second is to stimulate potential; the third is to challenge employees to exert their best competences to assist in successful outcomes; and the fourth initiative is 'the more challenging the goal, the more people will draw on their full repertoire of skills.' Objectives can be drawn from SMART criteria 'Specific/stretching, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time framed' (Armstrong 2012, 323). The following research statement: PA2: 'The set performance targets are specific, realistic and challenging.'
Act	This stage is the actual implementation of the designed performance plan, including responses to the potential requirements that may arise.
Monitor	Check achievement progress against the set objectives and any potential demands. Deal with performance management as an ongoing process that is not merely exercised once yearly.

Stage	Processes
Review	'Stocktaking' is the assessment phase of performance achievement. That is, discussion of a set of required actions is conducted in the form of a review meeting, for the aim of developing performance. Feedback is essential and underpinned by control theory, which assigns considerable weight to feedback as a sufficient way to reform and guide behaviour, through detecting and considering any discrepancies between employees' achievements and expectations (Buchner 2007). The use of multiple sources of feedback has unique specificity, in performance appraisal practice, in predicting the individual's performance outcomes (Herold et al. 1987). As explained earlier with regard to the harmony between assessing performance and developing employees, managing performance is interwoven with retention strategies, in which providing informative feedback is instrumental in retaining the best performers in the organisation (Singh and Sharma 2015). Measurement items: PA1: 'Positive feedback and fair appraisals are being provided in my organisation.' PA3: 'Performance review meetings are conducted periodically.' PA4: 'Performance appraisal enables me to perform my job as a leader efficiently' (Armstrong 2008). PA9: 'I believe that I achieved my individual performance objectives.'

Table 2.2. Processes of Performance Management (plan, act, monitor, review), developed by the researcher.

2.15.2.2 Modelling performance management system

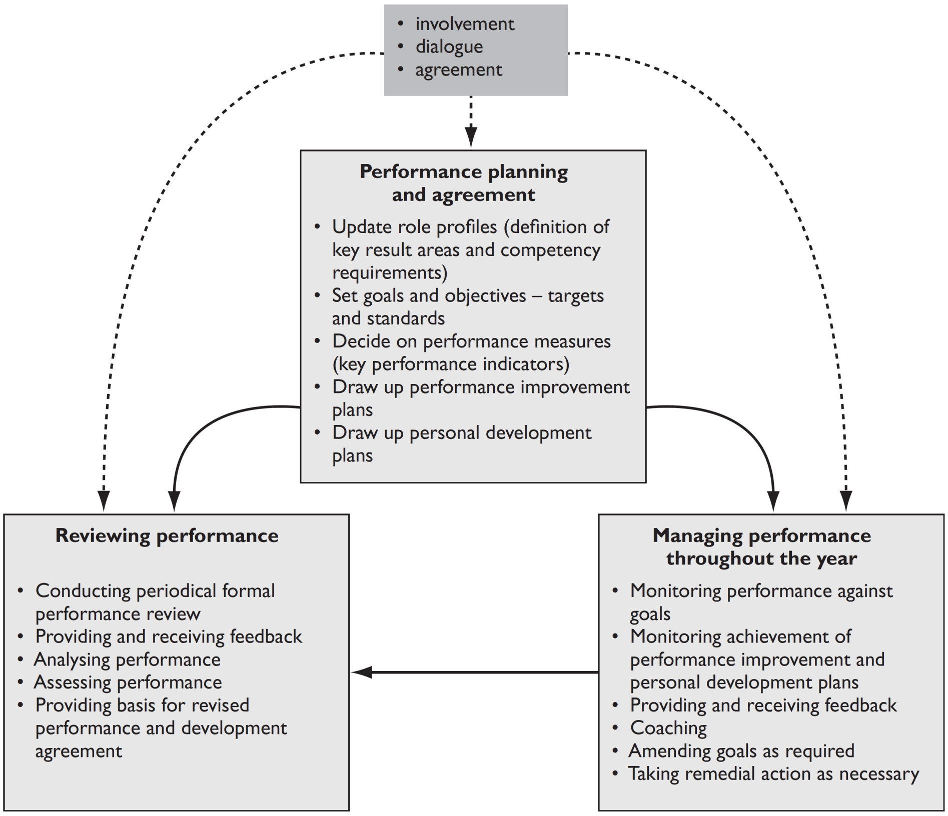


Figure 2.6. Model of Performance Mangement System, adopted from Armstrong (2009, 309).

2.15.2.3 Evaluating performance for developmental purposes

Research has demonstrated the role of developing leaders in gaining favourable behavioural outcomes through affecting commitment as a mediator to predict leaders' willingness to remain in the organisation (Chami-Malaeba and Garavan 2013). Hence, research linked the effectiveness of HR practices in this particular aspect (development of a talented leadership cohort), through the performance evaluation process of leaders' performance, which could include evaluation by peers, boss, employees, and oneself or customers. Such feedback, gained via multiple perspectives, is known as 360-degree feedback, which has its advantages in receiving various assessor subjectivity in lieu of one individual assessor (Grint 1995), in addition to an emphasis on competencies in terms of assessing behaviour and skills and obtaining broader points of view of how different individuals perceive the evaluated person;

however, this type of appraisal is disadvanatgous in its high dependency on technology, which makes completion of the exercise costly and time-consuming (Armstrong 2012).

2.15.2.4 Electronic performance monitoring system

Nevertheless, although the literature proposes many advantageous outcomes tied to performance appraisal, close and technocentric assessment of employees' performance could be overshadowed by inadvertent negative results, as demonstrated by employee perception and job attitude, which could ultimately lead to their dissatisfaction (Amick and Smith 1992; Aiello and Kolb 1995; Stanton and Julian 2002; Fincham and Rhodes 2005; Papini 2007; Jeske and Santuzzi 2015) and lowering of commitment as a result of reducing their perceived control, self-efficiency, and overall organisational citizenship behaviour. Such an effect might negatively stimulate talent behaviour, for example higher absenteeism and future turnover (Hulin 1991; Rafnsdottir and Gudmundsdottir 2011; Jeske and Santuzzi 2015). Most organisations in the contemporary workplace use electronic performance monitoring systems (EPMS) as a modern tool to capture, save, and analyse actions of staff and to report their performance (Nebeker and Tatum 1993) in terms of production, work pace, proficiency, and the way those individuals and teams perform their assigned tasks (Stanton and Julian 2002).

In this thesis, one feature of the monitoring technology investigated is the electronic attendance and access system, which employs the 'swiping of ID cards to gain access' to work, passwords to network login, and cameras installed on the registry, arrival, and exit points (Jeske and Santuzzi 2015, 67). As a composite of the performance appraisal scheme, along with call and emails monitoring, this is one of the increasing array of 'micromanagement trends' (Lyon 2001). Other forms of technology monitoring are not applicable or are not significant in this research context – the governmental public service departments – unlike other industries such as financial and health entities, where it is ideal to monitor access to sensitive data (Jeske and Santuzzi 2015). Therefore, this study explores perceptions by talented leaders of their attendance being monitored, and how this technique supports the performance appraisal exercise as a significant key performance indicator. Moreover, the research examines how this form of electronic monitoring system could potentially affect employee satisfaction and so impact on their decision to either stay or leave the organisation (Jeske and Santuzzi 2013). For instance, EPMS could affect the way employees prefer to prioritise and achieve work tasks (Schleifer et al 1995) such as the need to report to work before attending a business meeting in another city, which may inhibit leaders from 'organis[ing] work activities according to their own preference' (Jeske and Santuzzi 2015, 63) which might result in undermining autonomy, discretion (Carter et al. 2011), and control as perceived by the employee (Smith et al. 1981), while also lowering their sense of challenge, job competences, and meaningfulness (Smith et al. 1992). In addition, it might generate an intensified and stressful work atmosphere (Smith et al. 1981; Aiello and Kolb 1995), thereby causing employee defensiveness and resistance (Ellway 2013), encouraging employees to withhold the contribution of their competences in the workplace (Fincham and Rhodes 2005), and thus, decreasing employee conscientiousness, commitment, and engagement rates in organisational citizenship behaviours – and their interest in functioning within social embeddedness boundaries, beyond the job requirement of regular attendance and accomplishing job tasks (Hulin 1991; Korsgaard et al. 2010) which could shape the organisation's strategies and goals (Rafnsdottir and Gudmundsdottir 2011).

Other consequences could include adverse performance outcomes and negative psychological reactions (Aiello and Kolb 1995). However, Wells et al. (2007) reported results such as satisfaction and commitment. When an EPM instrument is also used to develop employee skills, appraisal may be positively perceived as 'fair'. There are several reasons to use the performance evaluation system: to appraise performance, establish performance standards for developmental purposes, or to develop incentives (Jeske and Santuzzi 2015). Whilst Gatewood et al. (2008) argue that a prerequisite to using data generated from this approach to support performance management is to ensure that employees are shown discretion in order to enable them to improve their performance in the workplace. Yet, research has found that monitoring performance within the boundary of an incentive pay scheme returned higher scores for employee satisfaction and the Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs), compared with other factors (Gatewood et al. 2008). Based on the purpose and characteristics of EPMS, it was revealed that electronic monitoring techniques have indirect positive consequences on job performance. In such work environments, excellent performance is predicted, owing to the surveillance practices employees are constantly exposed to (Iaffaldano and Muchinsky 1985; Judge et al. 2001), and it is possible that when an individual's performance is associated with a reward outcome, the workforce is inspired to exert their optimum potential (Jeske and Santuzzi 2015). Notwithstanding, data collected is decontextualised and the sample population for the above research predominantly represents part-time students in different industries; therefore, conclusions drawn from such investigations may not apply to the leadership population at local public workplace.

2.15.2.5 Performance internal measures and external benchmarks

Management may value other internal measures and external benchmarks that mirror the set targets and relevant key performance indicators. For instance, productivitiy and sales per employee, revenue, service quality, profit, succession, and retention of managers and employees, as well as performance review reports that reflect employee development according to the firm's strategic demands (Anderson 2007; Davins and Smith 2010).

- **The Return of Investment (ROI) Measures**

Nevertheless, Stewart and Rigg (2011) argue that measuring the return of investment (ROI) on learning and talent development initiatives is common practice to obtain a sense of the financial benefits. This is problematic, because gauging the effectiveness and impact on performance of such initiatives may take a relatively long time before results such as an increase in sales and revenue are seen.

- **The Return of Expectation (ROE) Measures**

In spite of the popularity of assessing ROI among HR professionals, it carries relatively little weight for managers. Senior management is more keen to prepare to occupy a strategic role, according to Anderson's (2007) research. Measuring ROE can be embodied in the overall enhanced performance by leaders, the fruitful management of leaders' succession, a new set of observed behavious that attest to limprovement, as well as the extent of the strategic capabilities development and the size of the talent population within the organisation. Therefore, in order to gain the anticipated results, communication and clarity of the predefined ROEs are essential to the design phase of such tailored interventions (Stewart and Rigg 2011). Kontoghiorghes and Bryant's (2004) study explored employees' attitudes as an outcome of training and found a positive link to organisational commitment – which leads to employee retention – in a service organisation in the health care insurance industry. Beynon et al. (2015) provide a novel contribution in exploring the implication of training on employees in SMEs, where they found a positive association between the provision of alternative training (such as e-learning, training held in the workplace or in a local college, and training intervention through a government programme) and employee retention, hence fewer employees lost to a competitor; contrary results emerged from the independent training delegation, which revealed less employee attachment to the employer and, therefore, a greater tendency to look for job opportunities elsewhere. Singh's (2017) research explored the effectiveness of a corporate training programme in Pune, India. Singh's study revealed the positive impact of the corporate education programme on the knowledge and skill level of employees, an increased set of competences, and higher retention rates.

- **Leadership development programme for leadership talent across public services in the UK**

The Public Services Leaders Scheme is a three-year developmental programme that targets middle managers from different services and consists of a 360-degree appraisal, a personal coach, and a mentor. In addition, action learning is organised for sets of eight to ten leaders, each of whom meets for one day six times a year with a training facilitator. Revans (1987) created and developed action learning; he argues that it is a challenging and rewarding method of education that addresses real organisational problems at work. It promotes the commitment to learn based on objectives and underpined by specific assumptions, where groups of nominated managers meet and learn from each other by questioning, i.e. 'asking fresh questions' and reflecting with the help of a training facilitator or a coach, rather than learning passively from an expert. In this way knowledge and learning are disseminated in a psychological setting characterised by trust (Rigg and Trehan 2004:7). Furthermore, the programme incorporates two to three 'network learning events' for the whole cohort where workshops, meetings, and master classes take place. In addition, this approach involves secondment 'interchange' through which high-potential managers work for three months in another public service sector (Mead 2007; Rigg and Richards 2006).

2.16 Impact of learning and talent development on talent retention

Previous research on talent development in the service industry reveals a strong correlation between talent learning and retention. Chami-Malaeba and Garavan's (2013) empirical study in the Lebanese context explored talent and leadership development practices, concluding that there is a positive relationship between talent and leadership development and both affective commitment and talent intention to stay. Moreover, Harel and Tzafrir's (1999) research corroborates the idea that the provision of career exposure opportunities motivates talent to remain at an organisation. Furthermore, Eisen et al.'s (2005) survey of the American manufacturing workforce revealed that learning and talent development is linked with a 70% raise in employee retention rates. Further, Isa et al.'s (2018) investigation in an Asian context has empirically confirmed this relationship with the positive outcomes of talent development on the Malaysian workforce, who have shown less intention to leave their employer. Likewise, Ohunakin et al. (2020) examined retention strategies and talent behavioural outcomes in Nigeria's hospitality industry, and proved a significant and positive link between talent development and talent commitment. The results were enhanced employer branding and increased talent retention.

2.17 Impact of performance appraisal on talent retention levels

Research has indicated the positive consequences of performance appraisal. Singh (2000) argues that the frequency and quality of performance appraisals conducted within the organization is correlated with employee attitudes to turnover. This argument is consistent with Poon's (2004) research, which suggested that performance appraisals influence job satisfaction, may avert conflicts, and can affect employee willingness to continue working for the employer. Moreover, Zhang et al.'s (2015) study concludes that performance management practices play a large part in talent retention, and empirically reported successful retention levels resulting from identifying talent through performance appraisals by task-focused managers. The research as a whole confirms an inevitable relationship between retention and the performance appraisal function, which intertwines employee development and evaluation with this retention. Moreover, Mbugua et al.'s (2015) empirical research, conducted on commercial banks in Kenya, revealed an identifiable, but not strong correlation between strategic performance management and the retention rates of workers through action planning, target setting, allocating reasonable budgets, prediction, performance measurements, performance review, and performance-based rewards. Furthermore, Singh and Sharma's (2015) investigation conducted on private industry in the UAE stressed that managing performance is a powerful tool to nurture and retain the best performers in an organisation, and thus concluded that it is closely linked with retention strategies owing to the provision of informative and fair feedback. Additionally, Johenness and Chou's (2017) research on Taiwanese companies found a significant relationship between employee appraisal and feedback and employee retention. Furthermore, Isa et al.'s (2018) investigation empirically proved the positive implications of organisational support on the behaviour of Malaysian workers, including their willingness to stay in their jobs, through mechanisms such as performance feedback by supervisors. Performance Appraisal has been identified as a major contributing factor to the grooming of talented executives.

2.18 Job satisfaction, talent retention, and turnover

Armstrong (2003, 239) defines job satisfaction as 'the attitudes and feelings people have about their work.' Job satisfaction is a measure employed to gauge talent satisfaction, which is an effective tool to predict talent retention and turnover intention in the organisation. Maslow (1954) adds that studying and considering rewarding talent, plus providing them with a meaningful job, will result in improving talent motivation and satisfaction level. Organisational commitment is a predictor for employee satisfaction, which refers to 'the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization' (Mowday et al. 1979, 226). According to Beechler and Woodward (2009) and DeConinck and Johnson (2009), when talents receive what they deserve in appreciation and recognition, they will demonstrate higher commitment and satisfaction (Herzberg et al. 2008). According to Kolb (1984), job satisfaction entails leveraging the quality of work; besides, employees acquire skills by experience, and so particular organisational skills and qualification levels will be maintained with longer talent tenures. Moreover, given that customer satisfaction is proportionate to the quality of work (Evans and Jack 2003) and commitment (Reichheld 1993), this strategy will enhance customer satisfaction. And, finally, since customer satisfaction and employee commitment are profit chain determinants, increased corporate profit is expected as a result (Reichheld 1993).

2.19 Management style as a retention tool

Studies have shown variance in HR-related practices between the Western contexts and other developing economies, which do not show equally positive results (Wood et al. 2011). In the same vein, research demonstrated that the way organisations manage their human capital is distinct by nation, sector, and contextual location (Brewster et al. 2006), as well as working style, corporate culture, and managerial system (Zhang et al. 2015). The management style of any specific nation will have consequences for talent loss, because strategic decisions stem from the management cohort. For instance, Hodges's (2008) study suggests that leadership is the primary contributing factor in talent departure. Likewise, Zhang et al.'s (2015) case study investigating the influence of leadership styles on talent retention strategies and talent retention, and on the effectiveness of post-merger and acquisition integration in the context of China, argues that the effective leadership styles which positively affect talent retention in China are arguably distinct from those in Western contexts. This study also supports the premise that leadership style may affect talent retention. However, the above study represents a single case only and therefore cannot necessarily be generalised (Drori et al. 2011). The study's sample population was drawn from leaders and key talent, and revealed a leadership style which did not involve negotiation in decision-making, which perhaps also addresses an important aspect of talent retention.

On the other hand, a key theme that emerged from Zhang et al.'s (2015) study was the positive role of a task-focused management style in retaining talent. Management learns to identify vital positions to be strategically retained, in line with Collings and Mellahi's (2009) proposition on the TM focus and its key initiatives, which serve the firm's competitive advantage. Moreover, positive results were also shown in retaining talent when their potentials and competence are valued as key business resources by relationship-focused leaders. Also, such managers incentivize talent by treating them as human beings (Zhang et al. 2015). Additionally, authoritative leaders influence talent retention when mutual communication is maintained with their talented subordinates to ensure their awareness of the firm's strategic goals and objects. Hence, this develops talent's sense of being valued by the employer. Stressing the firm's future development also imparts a sense of motivation in terms of talent personal career development, commensurate with the intended business progress (Hodges 2008). The coaching leadership style grants significance to talent development through incentives; this also demonstrates a positive influence on talent retention as learning and talent development make employees want to stay. It is recommended to commence the implementation of a personal development plan soon after announcing it as a reward to the employee, in order to foster the trust relationship (Zhang et al. 2015).

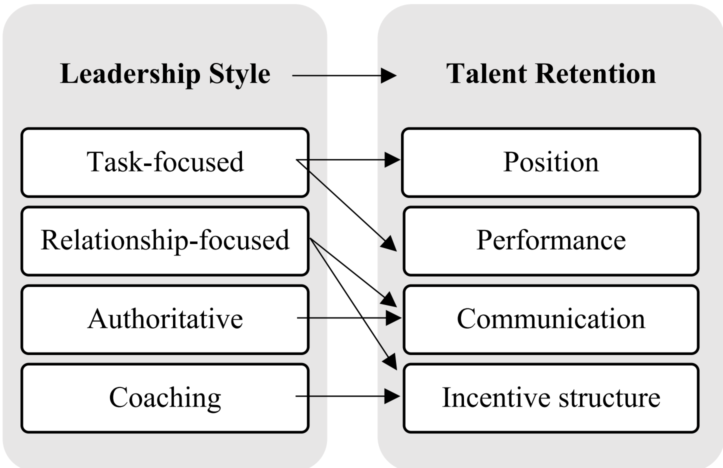


Figure 2.7. Conceptual framework. Adopted from Zhang *et al*. (2015, 1042).

2.20 Parameters influencing TM implementation

Proper design of a TM strategy facilitates its implementation, through planning and employing appropriate tools, tactics, practices, and facets of TM (Van Zyl et al. 2017). Johnson et al. (2011) view TM implementation as 'a plan to translate the formulated strategy into workable strategies and tactics filtering down through the organisation' (Van Zyl et al. 2017, 14). Hughes and Rog's (2008) research found that implementing an effective TM strategy results in better financial performance, improved recruitment, engagement, and employee retention rates. Hughes and Rog contend that numerous factors have a significant impact on the implementation of TM. Below are some of the leading factors that serve as drivers and constraints for TM and are key a successful TM strategy if properly addressed.

2.20.1 Drivers, challenges, and constraints of TM

- **Drivers of TM: CEO active participation in TM**

Hughes and Rog (2008, 751) contend that the active participation of the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) is a crucial aspect for TM success, besides the appropriate alignment of TM initiatives with corporate business objectives and ultimate goals, with some CEOs dealing with TM as a 'legacy issue' (Handfield-Jones et al. 1999). Thus, citing Morton (2005, 9), 'talent mindset ... must cascade from the top, with the CEO as the driver.' That is why some CEOs dedicate about 30–40% of their work time on matters related to managing talent (Morton 2005). Therefore, TM might perhaps be viewed as a pointless human resource fad without concrete commitment and collaboration coming from senior management. In the same vein, Schuler and Jackson (2014) argued that top management's dedication to TM initiatives sets a significant precedent, which may impede the execution phase of global TM.

- **Drivers of TM: alignment with strategic business goals, providing systems , and equipping HR with analytical skills**

As previously emphasised, it is essential to align TM practices with the overall business objectives of the organisation, and this can be achieved with potentially significant success through data flows from other integrated schemes such as systems designed to measure feedback or personnel planning. The aforementioned aspect was identified by Morton's (2005) investigation as a critical area that requires improvement. Her study has particularly revealed that HRM practitioners are not equipped with the appropriate planning and analysis skills, an issue that is compounded by the limitations of integrated systems for gathering and analysing the necessary data. To this effect, Lewis and Heckman (2006) call for developing HR analytical competencies built on statistics and research-based design throughout the organisation. Moreover, the use of such accessible data along with the appropriate and sufficient skills can be extended to gauge the organisational outputs of TM such as employee engagement, turnover, revenues, shared value, or profits. In turn, this is can justify an investment in TM and offer guidance for future pursuits related to managing talent.

- **Drivers of TM: an implementation plan, a clear TM structure, TM leadership responsibility**

With regard to the previously proposed factors that are vital to the success of TM in the organisation, Hughes and Rog (2008), Schuler et al. (2011) and Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) advocate for developing an implementation plan, which implies clear shared accountability of all line managers and is reinforced by an appropriate organisational structure. This factor is arguably the fourth essential internal determinant influencing the effective implementation of TM (Morton 2004). This is because leading organisations with rigorous TM schemes establishes a predefined organisational structure of TM, which is significantly important (Morton 2005). Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) argue that organisations' failure to grasp contextual structures is considered a serious hurdle in managing talents globally. Therefore, TM responsibility for TM integrity is steadily being shared with the leadership cohort, rated as 30% of an organisation's leadership. It has also been mentioned in Morton's (2004) research that

52% of organisations that embrace the strategy of ingraining their leadership segment with TM integration and accountability see profound results and effective TM implementation.

- **Drivers of TM: the organisation's HR approach, effective employer branding, employee value proposition (EVP) and non-traditional sourcing strategies**

As HR forms the core foundation to TM, it is logical to say that the efficiency of all traditional HR- related processes is highly likely to affect all aspects of the implementation of TM (Morton 2004). These aspects include selection, recruitment, performance management, compensation, succession planning, retention and more. Therefore, it is urged that an organisation conduct a review of its current practices surrounding HR in order to refine them in the quest for a successful implementation of TM. Other relatively novel HR areas have been extensively explored in the literature, such as the development of the employee value proposition, employer brand, and non-traditional employee sourcing. EVP 'is the unique arrangement of benefits an employee gets hence for the skills, capabilities, and experience they pass on to an organization.' Given the war for talent, developing an 'employer of brand' to effectively attract and sustain the scarce labour force (Morton 2004; Pawar 2020, 133), is as essential as the goods and services brand from the organisation perspective, especially in tan increasingly competitive market (Morton 2004; Pawar 2020, 133). Dell and Hickey's (2002, 24) study found that 40% of organisations commit to the development of a formalised employer brand. The considerable implications of developing an employer brand as revealed by the abovementioned research include acquiring external job nominees and helping to classify an organisation as the 'employer of choice.' Other positive results include assisting the workers to adopt the firm's identity so that they internalise the set mission, vision, and values of their employer. Specifically,

> [an] employer brand establishes the identify of a company as an employer. It encompasses the firm's values, systems, policies and behaviours toward the objectives of attracting, motivating, and retaining employees. Effective employer branding keeps current and potential employees constantly and actively aware of the company's employee value proposition and the benefits of committing to it.

Hence, as suggested earlier, employee value proposition is a crucial element implicit in employer brand, which explicitly portrays to workers' the current and future expectations that are derived from employer branding in an effort to supersede being usurped by competitors (ibid), for instance, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, existing opportunities, and recognition of their contribution (Morton 2005).

As far as considering non-traditional sourcing, citing Dell and Hickey (2002, 7), 'most organizations will need to attract and retain employees quite different from the people they replace, and they will need to adjust their targeting, their channels, and their over-all strategies accordingly.'. Other potential non-traditional targeting can be foreign candidates, as in the case of Canada, for example, where it is reported that an employment programme of sourcing from outside the country is deemed simpler. Moreover, another possible element can be job re-entrants from retirement, as this pool is constantly growing.

However, recent research showed that HR aspects and practices differ according to the firm's size and industry. For instance, 22% of small-sized firms adopt an ad hoc practice to recruitment, compared with 6% of larger firms (Morton 2005).

- **Challenges of TM implementation**

It has been excessively debated that a firm's ability to manage its talented human assets has a clear positive implication on its future prosperity and competitive advantage (Nilsson and

Ellstrom 2012). The argument below represents some challenges and factors influencing efficient implementation of TM practices:

- **Constraints of TM: socio-economic, cultural aspects**

Challenges to TM include socio-economic and cultural aspects. Socio-economic factors include aging manpower, lack of exhaustive immigration legislation, global security, outsourcing positions, and off-shoring of jobs. Cultural factors imply variance between countries in management style and the authority of labour unions (Frank et al. 2004). To explain further, culture could be defined as "a set of beliefs and behaviors, historically determined, and [is] characterized by a wide range of features embedded in the organization" (Al Murawwi 2014, 49; Hofstede et al. 1990). Tharp (2010) alluded to the universal study from the year 1938, which implied 79 core traits along with another 637 sub-traits connected to culture. There is large degree of support for the claim that cultural strength exerts a positive effect upon organisational success through performance (Deal and Kennedy 1982; DiTomaso 1987; Sathe 1983; Schall 1983; Weick 1985; Weiner 1988); however, considering the differentiated setting of the existing research, Ogbonna and Harris's (2000) study drew varied conclusions to point to the empirical limitations of cultural influence over a firm's success in the UK. In addition, Van Zyl et al. (2017) and Evans et al. (2020) note that culture is a crucial element in deriving an effective TM system or any other project. They explained that to gain the optimal impact from TM, support from the organisational culture is essential (Lewis and Heckman 2006).

Such cultural areas can be the organisation's values, norms, practices, and assumptions, which had been generated in the past and regulate the dominant behavioural and attitudinal actions across its members (Al Murawwi 2014). Therefore, Haid et al. (2010) propose aligning the assumptions and values of the way employees ought to behave and accomplish activities in work with the pursued organisational culture, in order to meet business goals and corroborate talent and HR practices.

- **Constraints of TM: the organisational culture and leadership attributes**

In line with linking the organisational environment (the organisation's culture, employee behaviour, mission statement and leadership styles) with managerial attributes, there is extensive debate in the literature associating culture and leadership (Bass and Avolio 1993; Nicholls 1988; Quick 1992; Schein 1992; Simms 1997). Hence, the literature elucidates two views describing the organisational culture phenomenon, of which the first classifies culture as a variable of the organisation, which can be affected by the leader's own competences – through a 'manipulation process' (Smircich 1983). The features of transformational leadership underline such manipulation (Nicholls 1988; Quick 1992; Simms 1997). Contrarily, the second approach deems culture a complementary element of the organisation; and so, culture shapes leaders' attitudes, as noted by Bass and Avolio (1993) and Schein (1992), who emphasized interweaving the organisational culture and leadership (Schein 1992). In this sense, the founder of the firm sets and feeds the values and beliefs that frame the cultural characteristics of the organisation (Ogbonna and Harris 2000). However, Bass and Avolio (1993) and Schein (1992) coincide on the suggestions of a two-sided relationship of both aspects; that is, the leader designs the culture and vice versa, as the formed culture impacts on the leader. In the same line, Hennessey (1998, 523) claims 'the most effective leaders foster, support, and sustain organizational cultures that facilitate the type of management reform envisioned by "reinventing government" and the attendant increases in effectiveness and efficiency.'

Ogbonna and Harris (2000) relabelled classifications of the organisational culture based on the work of Deshpandé et al. (1993), and the distinguished theoretical foundation of Campbell and Freeman (1991) and Quinn (1988). They set out four types of organisational culture; however, it is not the concern of this research to identify the dominant type of culture in ADG. We attempt to articulate the function of managerial attributes in supporting TM, which play a major role in carving the culture of the organisation, as the four concepts intertwine. Hence, in accordance with the above definitions, the categories of organisational culture are, an innovative, a competitive, a community, and a bureaucratic culture.

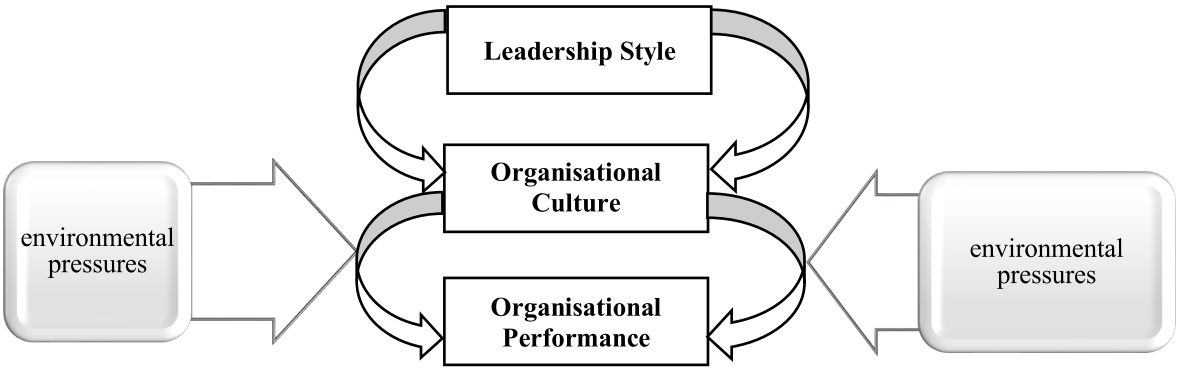


Figure 2.8. The links between leadership style, organisational culture and organisational performance. Adopted from Ogbonna and Harris (2000, 7).

In accordance with the type of leadership, the literature proposed various classifications. The set of leadership traits employed for this study is a succinct measure, since the measurement of leadership characteristics is not a focal dimension in this investigation, but a means to gain better understanding of the potential barriers to TM implementation. Three managerial categories were considered: participative, supportive, and instrumental leadership styles, based on Bass and Avolio (1993) and Schein (1992). The first style is participative leadership, which encourages and welcomes subordinates' involvement in decision-making, discussion, and suggestions related to work matters. The second style is supportive leadership, which emphasises subordinates' needs and welfare, and reinforces compassion and equality among them to further workplace satisfaction. The third style is instrumental or transactional leadership, in which leaders focus on assigning tasks, setting up procedures, and emphasising high levels of performance (Schein 1992; Ogbonna and Harris 2000). The constantly arising claim of ‘managing culture’, which refers to a view of organisational culture as manageable, could be unwise (Ogbonna 1993) or unlikely (Legge 1994), unless in certain situations such as recession or management loss, where the organisational culture can possibly be influenced (Martin and Meyerson 1988). However, it was empirically evident in accordance with Ogbonna and Harris’s (2000) research that both the participative and supportive leadership styles’ ability to contribute to changing organisational cultures was possible, whereas any instrumental/transactional leadership effect was not supported. In the quest for maintaining superior performance, a debate on the possible alternative leadership styles may be more pertinent than one on managing organisational culture (Fiedler 1996).

- **Constraints of TM: shortfall in line managers’ skills in small and medium-sized hotel and tourism enterprises**

Hughes and Rog’s (2008) research exploring TM strategy to improve its initiatives, particularly recruitment, retention and engagement, in hospitality organisations emphasises the role of line managers in the failure to deliver TM initiatives against expectations, owing to lack of information, authority restrictions, or budget limitations. Although incorporating the line managers’ broad-based responsibility in TM is pivotal as stressed by scholars and HR experts, Sheehan et al. (2018) point out the shortfall in managers’ competencies to address TM initiatives; in general they handle the day-to-day work issues while contributing on the side to the strategic role. This leads to a high probability of implementing informal approaches to TM activities as found by Young-Thelin and Boluk (2012), which is meantime a value-added point from a strategic focus, according to Verreynne et al. (2013). Therefore, constraints of line managers’ potential impedes effective implementation in small and medium sized enterprises within the service sector such as hotels and tourism. Moreover, ‘the lack of involvement by middle managers' was addressed by Schuler et al. (2011) as a significant hurdle to implementing global TM initiatives (Schuler and Jackson 2014, 216).

- **Constraints of TM: other forces impeding the recommended TM practices**

Competition in this knowledge-based era is another acknowledged factor affecting TM (Egerova 2014). Schuler et al. (2011; 2014, 215) argue for other forces that shape and affect TM, such as 'lack of willingness to acknowledge performance variances among employed workers, (5) lack of HR knowledge in how to properly address TM challenges, and (6) the discrepancy between knowledge and action that limits managerial ability to make the right TM decisions.'

- **Constraints of TM: communication breakdown**

Improving communication within teams results in enhancing employee attachment and consequently increasing retention rates (Apker et al. 2009). Khan et al. (2010) argue that absent or insufficient communication is deemed a key restraint to employee motivation, perhaps influencing talent intention to stay with their organisations. Therefore, Ongori (2007) points that in order to lower turnover, it is imperative that organisations ensure the dissemination of effective communication across its employees. Moreover, to Branham (2005a), the communication gap among management and its staff, and between its internal departments, is the main reason employees abandon their organisations. That is, the resulting low morale leads to high turnover, as identified by Branham (2005a). In the same vein, Quirke (2008) notes that it is highly recommended that awareness is raised of the fundamentals of establishing proper communication within firms and their entire staff.

In the UAE, a survey covering approximately 500 managers and employees in the GCC, by YouGov Siraj for the public relations firm Hill and Knowlton, a top communication consultant, found that ineffective communication between management and employees spurs employees to find the required information through unofficial means. The research emphasises that although managers are aware of the crucial role of implementing an effective communication across organisations, they fail to communicate with employees sufficiently, as reported by 49% of the respondents. Similarly, the survey unveiled that in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) 53% of employees said that they get the information related to their jobs via management, while the remainder acknowledged that they rely on their friends to obtain job-relevant details (Arabian Business Global 2020). Alshehri and Drew (2010) highlight the absence or lack of long-term strategies, quality of policies, mission and vision statements within organisations in the KSA, for instance. They also note that documentation procedures do not exist or are not duly followed in the majority of firms. Therefore, communication breakdown in the UAE is identified as a prime hindrance to talent retention.

- **Constraints of TM: other factors**

In terms of other factors impeding TM, Hughes and Rog (2008) point out those that tend to be more relevant to junior jobs, i.e. management tendency to reduce labour budget and expenditure (Hughes 2008), neglecting the emotional labour requirements of the distinct service sector posts (Lashley 2002); the scarcity of job security owing to selling instability and seasonality (Twinning-Ward and Baum1998); the lack of staff opportunity – from within the firm – to achieve promotion, according to Riley (1996); the low-level nature of work in service sector jobs such as hospitality (Guerrier 1999); and poor working conditions overall (i.e. antisocial working-hours, health and safety issues, poor work-life balance, harassment).

This section explored numerous challenges related to TM as encountered by the various public and private organisations across the diverse sectors. and drew inferences from the literature.

2.21 Impact of TM practices on talent retention

A handful of studies proposed models to ascertain the potential influence of selected TM and HRM strategies on talent retention (Lepak and Snell 2002; Ashton and Morton 2005; The CIPD Change Agenda 2006; Boudreau and Ramstad 2007; Collings and Mellahi 2009). However, numerous limitations of such models were noted; for instance, they were derived to conceptualise limited factors/ dimensions depending on the aim of the inquiry, in which they lack the comprehensive view that is necessary for a TM strategy, which considers all processes that represent strategic TM, together with some relevant aspects and the cultural context. A review of the extant theories was implemented, and the key theories and concepts have been used to inform the theoretical pattern of this inquiry. The systematic review of TM literature particularly served as the foundation for identifying factors pretested in past research related to TM strategies that were suitable for this study. Before employing these theories to examine TM strategies on talent retention, it is necessary to explain the source of this study's constructs and key variables in the following section.

2.22 Theoretical constructs/framework variables

2.22.1 Leadership development

Leadership development is the central strategy of HR TM practices. Talent development can be described as 'a social process for the purpose of sharing and acquiring information necessary to the developmental experience of talented individuals within the organization' (Isa et al. 2018, 690). Applying SET, employees who have been labeled as talent tend to be more committed to build their competencies according to organisation-specific competences and business needs. Moreover, this talent strives for career progression through new experiences, feedback, and mentoring (Bjorkman et al. 2013). In addition, talent is more likely to sustain the perception about the distinct knowledge and skills they possess (Firfiray 2009). Therefore, Bjorkman et al.

(2013) argue that the ideal strategy to achieve talent commitment to increasing their capabilities is via developing leadership and management competences practices such as the Leadership Development Programme (LDP). As well, in accordance with Lee et al. (2011), when the employer decides to provide long-term investment and develop the employees who are officially labelled as talent, these employees value their distinctiveness and perceive it as an announced appreciation of their efforts and their contribution to the organisation, as well as evidence of the employer's compliance with the obligations of the psychological contract.

Therefore, to fulfil the research objectives to identify the TM strategies adopted by ADG via exploring talent perspectives, it is necessary to investigate strategies of leadership development. The leadership development dimension measures two areas: first, ADG behaviour towards leadership talent development practices, which is adopted from Chami-Malaeba and Garavan's (2013, 4053, 4047) study on talent and talent leadership development in Lebanon. Second, talent perceptions regarding the effectiveness of attending leadership development programmes. The set of questions interrelated to talent leadership development were chosen specifically for the purpose of this case study. Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013, 4053, 4047) claim that 'Leadership development practices typically include coaching, multi-source feedback, stretch assignments, mentoring, international job assignments and formal development programmemes.' As also subscribed to by Garavan, Hogan and Cahir-O'Donnell (2009) and Benson's (2006) assertion of the anticipated positive outcomes of such practices, when implemented coherently, on improving leaders' potential. Including a bundle of activities in leaders' development is justified by Amagoh (2009), who argued that organisations, which adopt a multiplicity of practices in leadership development invest more in their leaders and thus obtain greater benefits, unlike those firms that deliver a single activity to develop talent from leaders. Such outcomes are supported by maintaining a talent pool; enhancing motivation, job performance, talent retention, and competitiveness; as well as reinforcing values and attitudes of the organisation (Collings and Mellahi 2009; De Meuse et al. 2009). In addition, promoting learning and development enriches the value of the organisational branding, in which talent development was found to be a critical element. Employer brand determines, to a high extent, the organisation's effectiveness in attracting prospective candidates, because it inspires the job seeker with their impression of the organisation (Highhouse et al. 1999; Fulmer et al. 2003; Lievens et al. 2005; Towers Perrin 2005; Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010). Eisen et al.'s (2005) survey of the American manufacturing workforce found learning and talent development is linked with 70% of increases in employee retention rates. However, the question pertaining to multi-source feedback is replaced here within the questionnaire construct of managing leadership talent performance, in order to make it explicit and maintain logical linkage of the questions across the questionnaire (question PA5, in performance appraisal construct). Therefore, the questions are:

LDP1: 'My organisation develops high potential employees to become leaders to ensure a strong talent pool.'

LDP2: 'Coaches and mentors assist managers to develop their skills.'

LDP3: 'Managers prepare development plans with each direct report.'

LDP4: 'Managers implement important projects in order to develop their skills.'

For the purpose of this study, talent and leadership development (LD) can be defined as a crucial practice in HRM, which nurtures the workforce labelled as 'talented,' plus those who occupy linchpin and crucial positions, i.e. strategic roles. Leadership development aims to equip the organisation with a well-developed pool of employees who respond to its needs and assist in sustaining its competitive advantage (Schuler et al. 2011; Chami-Malaeba and Garavan 2013; Ambrosius 2018).

2.22.2 Leadership development programmes' effectiveness

To fulfil the research objective to critically assess the effectiveness of TM programmes at ADG, the questionnaire measures talent attitude towards the effectiveness of the Leadership Development Programme, which was adopted and adapted from Stewart and Rigg (2011, 250). Those questions stemmed from the literature on developing leaders; where these dimensions are deemed problematic in the organisation and convey areas of concern. In addition, they measure the effectiveness of the programme. Moreover, those questions are suitable for national talents and are consistent with the organisational culture and the contextual factors in the UAE. Meanwhile, as the TM subject is still broad, few scholars tend to test TM practices, i.e. studies mainly focus on one dimension or explore the theoretical aspects. The researcher's choice is also supported (adopted and adapted) from Stewart and Rigg (2011), who are the leading scholars in this field. The proposed questions are consistent with proponents' work in the literature surrounding talent and talent leadership development, and are also inspired by Mead's (2007) collaborative inquiry on a public service leaders scheme (a development plan to foster talented leaders' capabilities across public service establishments), with its structured training model, and Harrison's (2009, 184) six stage training cycle, as well as Anderson's (2007, 31, 51, 52; 2009) research, which found that employers utilise the following measures to evaluate training practices:

- 'Learners' learning achievements,' articulated in question one.
- 'Changes in learners' behaviour within the job role,' articulated in question two.
- 'Efficiency measure of the learning and talent development function,' articulated in question three.
- 'Internal performance indicators and external benchmarks,', articulated in questions one, three and four.

- ‘Return of expectation (ROE),’ strategic readiness or leaders’ readiness, articulated in question five.
- ‘Return of investment (ROI),’ articulated in question six.

The questions are as follows:

LDE1: ‘I believe that I am achieving the intended learning outcomes of the LDP.’

LDP2: ‘I believe that I am ready to do a higher-grade job.’

LDE3: ‘I believe that I acquired the competencies required for my position.’

LDE4: ‘I believe that I am ready to occupy a strategic position.’

LDE5: ‘I believe that I am ready for job rotation.’

LDE6: ‘I believe investing in LDP enables achieving the strategic objectives.’

LDE7: ‘I believe the training allowances allocated for LDP are sufficient.’

Takeuchi et al.’s (2007) empirical research reveals that applying a resource-based perspective illustrates the positive outcomes of High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS) on employee performance via improved behaviour. For instance, question one, states: ‘I believe the leadership development programme (LDP) helps to identify the strength and weaknesses of talents.’ Hence question two, stating: ‘I believe that I am achieving the intended learning outcomes of the LDP,’ and question three, stating: ‘I believe that I am ready to do a higher-grade job.’ Nevertheless, it was noted that investment in HR activities does not return unconditional and direct results, as argued by Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013).

Moreover, questions four, five, six, and seven were chosen to assess the training and development outcomes, which are the ‘local purpose’ of the said intervention. Development outcomes can be the set of skills and behaviours gained on an individual level – see question 3: ‘I believe that I acquired the competencies required for my position.’ Leadership development programmes equip leaders with the necessary skills and competences, which help enhance their roles in leading the organisation (Younger and Ulrich 2004; Groves 2007); question 4, stating 'I believe that I am ready to occupy a strategic position'; whereas the objectives of the development intervention may comprise broader outcomes such as financial, so question 7, stating 'I believe the training allowances allocated for LDP are sufficient'; as well question 6, stating 'I believe investing in LDP enables achieving the strategic objectives', attempt to gauge the outcome of the intervention on an organisational and corporate level, to test if it contributes to the strategic objectives, as a performance indicator measure; as well as question 5, stating 'I believe that I am ready for job rotation.'

The following constructs proposed in this study are consistent with talent development to achieve the horizontal alignment with other HR and TM practices, as detailed in the next subsections.

2.22.3 Performance appraisal

The second core area of the questionnaire is performance appraisal (part of TM), which is adapted from Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013, 4053) and was administered to fulfil the aforementioned objective of this investigation: to measures talent's perception towards the TM strategies (in this case the actual performance management system) implemented at ADG, in order to explore and evaluate ADG's practices in managing their leaders, and explore talent perspectives, satisfaction with the implemented performance systems at ADG, and eventually to predict talent retention. The typical question: 'Evaluations of employees' performance include evaluation by peers, boss, employees and oneself,' is a loaded question, which was therefore split into three separate questions for the purpose of an accurate analysis.

The sub-construct of the questionnaire aims to explore the actual use and mechanism of performance appraisal by ADG; it is adapted from Singh and Sharma (2015, 339), Harper (2001), and Armstrong (2009, 311) and can be used as a pilot test questionnaire for managers in respect of performance management. The questions are:

PA1: ‘Positive feedback and fair appraisals are being provided in my organization.’

PA2: ‘The set performance targets are specific, realistic and challenging.’

PA3: ‘Performance review meetings are conducted periodically.’

PA4: ‘Performance appraisal enables me to perform my job as a leader efficiently.’

The question below, which is adopted/adapted from Chen and Ross (2007, 497) and Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 67) aims at evaluating the practices within the performance management system at ADG. Question PA5: ‘The data from the monitoring system is used to help improve my performance (e.g. for developmental purposes),’ examines the purpose of employing this instrument to support the developmental plans set for those talented leaders at the ADG sector, rather than for disciplinary purposes. This is in addition to question PA9: ‘I believe that I achieved my individual performance objectives,’ which is used as an evaluating measure of the return of investment, is adapted from Stewart and Rigg (2011, 250) to evaluate the efficiency of learning and talent development practice.

The last question of this bundle: ‘The data from the monitoring system is currently used to evaluate your performance,’ embodied a self evaluation tool in an attempt to depict performance appraisal for such leaders, adopted/adapted from Stewart and Rigg (2011, 250), and also the question aimed at establishing performance standards, which is adopted/adapted from Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 67). There is also the set of questions which explores whether incentives do exist and are interconnected with the performance appraisal, that are adopted/adapted from Carayon (1993, 389), Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 67), and Armstrong (2009, 311), respectively. Table no. 4.9 in the next chapter (questionnaire table) demonstrates each question and its corresponding aim, along with the grounded theory/theories.

The questions are also inspired by Sink and Tuttle's (1990) proposal of the five dimensions of the performance management system. In this, PA1, PA3, PA4, PA5, and PA9 represent the review phase of appraising performance, which encompasses assessing performance achievement. Additionally, PA2 corresponds to the planning stage: setting objectives and agreeing on performance expectations, as well as competencies gaps for personal development in compliance with goal theory, in which goals are aligned to performance results. For this study, performance management is an HRM practice aiming to gauge and enhance the performance at the organisational, team, and individual level, within a predefined framework of agreed performance indicators in terms of mutual expectations/achievements between the employer and the appraisee, the means to facilitate the targeted achievements, identifying employees' development needs, and setting appropriate plans (Chen and Ross 2007; Armstrong 2009; Jeske and Santuzzi 2015).

2.22.3.1 Performance appraisal as a retention tool

As pointed out earlier, performance appraisal is an essential HR practice. Beer et al. (1985) argue that the majority of organisations do not predominantly provide frank feedback in order to avoid any damage to appraisee self-esteem that may be caused as a result. For instance, Gopalakrishnan (2002) points that in the Arab context, it is common practice to employ a consultant to deliver feedback to employees in order to avert any potential conflict, as it was found that providing frank feedback may be viewed unfavourably by employees within UAE organisations. However, notable dissatisfaction was reported by 52% of the surveyed participants, according to the Bayt.com Middle East and North Africa Salary Survey (2019), suggesting that this performance appraisal technique would mainly benefit nonlocals and, therefore, would not be welcomed by KSA nationals, for instance (Idris 2009). Performance appraisal is a tool which sends an appreciation message to the employee for being an effective member of the team within the organisation (Levy and Williams 2004). Much research from the abundant literature (e.g. Nura and Osman 2013) argues that an effective performance management system is deemed the best HRM instrument to lower turnover to the barest minimum possible. Thunnissen et al. (2013) claim performance management is the core function of TM in the Middle East context. Singh (2000) notes that the frequency and quality of performance appraisals conducted within the organisation are correlated with employee turnover behaviour. It has been debated that discontent with performance appraisals influences job satisfaction, and consequently employee retention, according to Poon (2004). Mbugua et al.'s (2015) empirical research conducted on commercial banks in Kenya concluded that there is a significant, though weak, relationship and effect of strategic performance management on retention rates across bank workers, through action plans, target setting, allocating reasonable budget, prediction, performance measurements, performance review, and performance-based rewards. Therefore, organisations are urged to employ performance management to sustain their competitiveness over rivals by keeping strategic assets (i.e. their talented employees), as suggested by Abeysekera (2007). Moreover, Johenness and Chou's (2017) research on Taiwanese companies found a significant relationship between employee appraisal and feedback and employee retention. As well, Isa et al.'s (2018) investigation of the Asian context has empirically proven the positive relationship between organisational support, in terms of providing performance feedback on Malaysian workers' behaviour, and increased likelihood of retention.

2.22.4 Leadership behaviour

The leadership behaviour section was designed to fulfil the research questions to gauge the prevailing leadership style of the senior management at ADG Departments. Hence, this construct aims at measuring leadership style as perceived by talent and its impact on employee retention. This is underpinned by the use of social exchange theory (SET), advocated by Blau (1964), to assess the association. Emerson (1976) scrutinised SET on social behaviour and proposed that leadership and justice, status, conformity, and power elements within behaviour are crucial in illustrating SET. Moreover, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2007) found that the social exchange relationship at the workplace influences the recurring retention or termination of employment of any party. The aim to integrate this measure with the TM questionnaire is based on the suggestions of Aon Hewitt (2011) and Singh et al. (2012) to adapt distinct reward dynamics such as becoming 'an employer of choice,' and a differentiated broader psychological way to recognize GCC national potentials remote from monetary compensation. Gibbons (2006) identified leadership-related issues as a significant factor, based on twelve major studies exploring the main contributing factors to employee engagement, such as trust; integration; the extent to which leadership is felt to be caring by communicating with its staff, listening and reacting to their opinions; the level of employee autonomy and participation/involvement in decisions; as well as the nature of the job itself. In addition, the study sought to identity the prevailing leadership behaviour at ADG according to Al-Faleh's (1987) proposition, which claims that Arab culture has distinct leadership considerations that dominate its leaders' behaviour. Therefore, the study attempted to determine if there was an association between the dominant managerial characteristics and leadership behaviour and employees staying in the organisation. Leadership style and organisational culture were found to have a notable influence on workers' commitment and satisfaction with their job (Lok and Crawford 1999; 2004; Zeffane and Al Zarooni 2008). Since job satisfaction is highly correlated with an employee's retention, leadership should be emphasised within the organisational culture.

Similarly, rich evidence-based research exists exploring the association between leadership traits and the organisational culture, and has found that leadership style shapes and constitutes the essence of culture (Bass and Avolio 1993; Schein 1992); therefore, the main justification for including the dimension of leadership style is the complexity of the contextual culture of the current research, and how far good leadership traits are effective in reshaping the cascaded culture within an organisation (Hennessey 1998). Therefore, based on the numerous studies, Ogbonna and Harris (2000) suggest that a link exists between leadership characteristics and organisational performance, and the cultural factors mediating both variables (Hopfl et al. 1992; Lewis 1994; Lim 1995; Ray 1986; Willmott 1993).

To this effect, thirteen questions were derived from Ogbonna and Harris's (2000,766) empirical research, in which the leadership attributes used are relatively succinct compared to other scholars, to indicate which category (and associated traits) leaders represent. The questions are participant-friendly and are synthesised from the extant literature (for example Fleishman 1957; Stogdill 1963; Bowsers and Seashore 1966; Fiedler 1967; House 1971a; 1971b; House and Dessler 1974). The adapted scale, therefore, is deemed an appropriate, reliable, and valid instrument. Moreover, the measure used to assess leadership style for this study is widely adopted and was accepted and judged a good measure of leadership behaviour by various preceding scholars such as Teas (1981) and Kohli (1989). It is used here to outline the predominant leadership style or what is known as the 'personality traits,' according to trait theory, that UAE national leaders adopt, across the listed departments. The trait theory of leadership suggests that leader's effectiveness and organisational success is centrally ascribed to the leader's categorisation approach and behaviour (Argyris 1955; Mahoney et al. 1960).

2.22.4.1 Impact of participative leadership on talent retention

According to Social Exchange Theory, subordinates' behaviour is affected by the relative supportiveness of their superior. Therefore, the employees who receive tangible and intangible support from their leaders will reciprocate via their commitment and distinct behaviour at the individual level. Conversely, others who perceive inequality in their relationships with superiors react negatively (Blau 1964). Grissom's (2012) study demonstrated positive outcomes of managerial competences on teachers' turnover and retention across the public sector, which were ascribed to leadership traits that promote including employees in organisational decision making. However, the above-mentioned study pointed out that the effect is conditional on the successful implementation of such a participative approach by management, specifically in the area of the superior's role in facilitating employee participation and empowerment, so as to avoid deleterious effects such as ambiguity amongst workers. Such effects can result from ineffective management or a lack of related communication skills in sharing decision-making, as discussed in the earlier study. For instance, Smylie's (1992) research reported teachers' unwillingness to engage in organisational decision-making owing to their principals' leadership characteristics i.e. being unsupportive, controlling, and closed. Hence, a leader's role is important in assisting employee participation. Previous research, such as Clarke (2001), Jones and Skarlicki (2003) and Taplin and Winterton (2007) points to the strong negative association between employee satisfaction and turnover intentions, and positive results in respect of talent retention. Hence, all purport that leadership style can undoubtedly affect employee satisfaction and the prospect of retention, as well as overall performance. Nonetheless, Mulki et al.'s (2015) inquiry yielded a weak or insignificant relationship between subordinates' satisfaction with the level of participation from their supervisor and retention.

2.22.4.2 Impact of Supportive Leadership on Talent Retention

The supportive leader is defined as one who provides emotional, informational, instrumental, and appraisal support to followers (Rafferty and Griffin 2006, 39). House (1981) stresses that the core intuitive feature of the supportive leader is emotional support by means of sympathy, caring, and listening. Based on Bass and Avolio (1993) and Schein (1992), supportive leadership emphasises subordinates' needs and welfare, reinforcing compassion and equality amongst them to attain further satisfaction at the workplace. As well, supportive leadership exhibits a single sub-dimension in transformational leadership, as discussed by Rafferty and Griffin (2006). Moreover, the nature of transformational leadership is supportive (Bass and Avolio 1993), in that it ascertains subordinates' needs and stresses inspiring and motivating workers and awarding them the autonomy to improve their performance levels (Bass et al. 2003). Yukl (1999) purported that supportive leadership is strongly associated with satisfaction and is not ascribed to either motivation or organisational performance. Therefore, adopting such a leadership trait is healthy for keeping the best talent. Hence, transformational leadership 'remains the better known and most frequently studied leadership approach,' as contended by Lavoie-Tremblay et al. (2016, 583). Nonetheless, to date empirical evidence for the above argument is sparse, and additional research is needed (Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2020). However, measuring supportive leadership does not predict performance outcomes. Yaghoubipoor et al.'s (2013) research and Visvanathan et al.'s (2018) study found a significant and positive relationship between supportive/transformational leadership and job satisfaction amongst Iranian automobile industry and Malaysian manufacturing employees; hence, satisfaction is vital to attaining retention in such industries (Yaghoubipoor et al. 2013; Visvanathan et al. 2018). Ariyabuddhiphongs and Kahn's (2017) investigation demonstrated that transformational/supportive leadership is associated with negative predictions for turnover intentions of café employees in Thailand, which is dependent on their trust in their superiors and how they perceive their performance. Almaaitah et al.'s (2017) study on public health in Arab countries supported the argument underpinned by SET, and affirmed the association of management style (particularly transformational/supportive leadership traits) with enhanced employee retention.

2.22.4.3 Impact of instrumental leadership on talent retention

Instrumental leadership is manifested in leaders who focus on assigning tasks, setting up procedures, and emphasizing a high level of performance (Bass and Avolio 1993; Schein 1992; Ogbonna and Harris 2000). Iinstrumental leadership traits are generally assumed to be encompassed in the transactional style of leadership paradigm (Bass and Avolio 1993; Schein 1992; Ogbonna and Harris 2000). Even so, Dartey-Baah (2015) pointed out that the roots of transactional leadership belong to the old traditional leadership style, that ensures strict obedience to procedures and provides strict measures to manipulate potential work deviations and mistakes. Dartey-Baah (2015, 103) defined this leadership style as 'a leadership approach founded on a contractual agreement between a leader and his followers, where each side expects of the other a fulfilment of the agreed terms of transaction to ensure the survival of the relationship existing between them.' Rowold (2006) contends that the main traits of instrumental leadership are a prerequisite for supportive leadership, where skill in correcting mistakes is important. On the other hand, Bass et al.'s (2003) study revealed that the transformational/supportive leadership style did not provide extra merits over the transactional/instrumental leadership approach when it came to boosting organisational performance. Later, Chan and Chan's (2005) empirical research, conducted on construction industry professionals in the UK, China, Singapore, and Australia found the opposite, and demonstrated the augmentation effect of transactional/instrumental leadership characteristics over the transformational/ supportive leadership traits in areas such as satisfaction and performance. Therefore, after reviewing the leadership literature, it could be said that leadership traits may be intertwined, and different names for leadership attributes are distinctly coupled with leadership styles according to individual theorists and their arguments. Moreover, effective leaders need both types of leadership skill to manage subordinates properly, with an obvious advantage to the transformational/supportive leadership style's effectiveness; its attributes have been found by researchers to augment or surpass the instrumental/transactional characteristics of leadership. Plenty of research found a significant and positive relationship between transactional/instrumental leadership and job satisfaction; for instance, Visvanathan et al.'s (2018) study of Malaysian manufacturing employees, in which satisfaction is indeed vital to their retention in the sector. Contrarily, Wu (2009), Epitropaki and Martin (2005), recorded higher satisfaction rates among workers with transformational/supportive leaders, than for followers managed by the transactional/instrumental leadership style, and hence the outcome was attributed to the rewards usually provided by transactional/instrumental superiors, for fulfilling certain assigned job tasks. The necessary association between talent satisfaction and retention was extensively demonstrated empirically in the previous sections. Yet, Dartey-Baah's (2015) research in Ghana, showed that supportive/transformational leadership is preferred by subordinates over the instrumental/transactional traits of leadership, as employees tend to be more attached and have a sense of belonging with the supportive type of leadership.

Table 2.3 lists the relevant studies demonstrating the influence of leadership behaviour on talent intention to stay at the organisation:

Sr.	Study	Reference	Findings
1.	The influence of leadership styles on talent retention strategies and talent retention, and on its effectiveness on process change 'post-merger and acquisition integration' in the context of China.	Zhang *et al.* (2015)	The case study argues an effective leadership styles positively affecting talent retention in China is arguably distinct from those of the Western contexts. The study suggests that leadership style affects talent's retention in the organisations in China. Task-focused leadership obtained successful retention results when identifying talent by exercising the

Sr.	Study	Reference	Findings
			performance appraisals, then retaining them. Communication-focused leadership obtained successful retention results when staff competences are perceived as valued and deemed the key business resource. Relationship-focused leadership tends to appreciate talent's competence related to business resources, therefore exerts a positive impact on talent's retention.
2.	Revisiting the impact of participative decision -making on public employee retention	Grissom (2012)	Study demonstrated positive outcomes of managerial competences on teacher turnover and retention across the public sector, ascribed to leadership traits that promote engaging employees in the organisational decision making.
3.	Saratoga Institute qualitative study encompassing 20,000 interviews	Hodges (2008)	Study suggests that leadership is the main determinant/ contributor to talent's turnover.
4.	Leadership style, organizational culture and performance: empirical evidence from UK companies	Ogbonna and Harris (2000)	The claim of 'managing culture' could be unwise (Ogbonna 1993), unless in certain situations where the organisational culture was empirically evidenced and influenced by both the participatory and supportive leadership styles; whereas, the transactional leadership effect is not supported. Leadership style can influence performance, by the mediation of organizational culture.

Sr.	Study	Reference	Findings
5.	The Impact of Training & Development and Transformational Leadership over Organizational Commitment among Academic Staff in Public Tertiary Institutions.	Ahmad *et al.* (2017)	Study revealed positive impact of training and development and transformational leadership style on academic staff's commitment in Malaysian institutions, which is importance for workforce retention.

Table 2.3. Relevant studies explored the impact of leadership behaviour on talents' retention, developed by the researcher.

2.22.5 Job satisfaction

A job satisfaction section was included in the questionnaire to fulfil the research question regarding the effectiveness of TM programmes at ADG on talent satisfaction. Therefore, this section aims to measure talent attitude and predict their behaviour, as interpreted through their intention to stay in the organisation, which is an indicator of job satisfaction adopted from Brayfield and Rothe (1951, 309); Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 66). Here, turnover intentions are attributed to talents happiness at the workplace, in addition to the availability of substitute job opportunities, as proposed by Lee et al. (2004). Hence, in this study job satisfaction, affected commitment and other factors were inferred to entail employee retention or turnover, provided the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions was previously well established (Halbesleben and Wheeler 2008; Mulki et al. 2015). As well, studies have shown that supervisor behaviour with subordinates that causes employee dissatisfaction is a critical factor in talent leaving their jobs (Jones et al. 1996; Mulki and Jaramillo 2011; Mulki et al. 2006). This study attempts to gauge affective organisational commitment, based on Braun et al. (2013, 275), since this can be linked to turnover rates. Oehley and Theron (2010) argue that low turnover rates tend to result from affective commitment and satisfaction. Furthermore, Meyer and Allen's (1991) study revealed that consistent, ongoing organisational commitment has a positive impact on employee decisions to stay with an organisation. Further, Deery and Jago (2015) stress that the psychological contract, organisational behaviour, commitment, and level of fairness, and satisfaction are all determinants in talents intentions to go or stay. This construct also tries to assess Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) through 'conscientiousness.' This will be elucidated in the following section, and grounded by the work of Allen and Meyer (1990, 6), Meyer et al. (1993, 544) and Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 66). Typical questions represent this construct as listed below:

TS1: 'I feel enthusiastic about my work.'

TS2: 'I am satisfied with my working conditions.'

TS3: 'I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.'

TS4: 'I feel emotionally attached to this organisation.'

TS5: 'My attendance at work tends to be above my colleagues.' This question was adopted and adapted (ibid).

2.22.5.1 The impact of job satisfaction on retention

As was mentioned earlier, there are some workplace norms to improve talent retention and minimise counterproductive behaviours and turnover intention. These include the psychological contract, WLB, organisational behaviour, satisfaction, commitment, and level of fairness (Deery and Jago 2015). Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) refers to a class of individual behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation but it is not formally associated with the reward scheme (Organ 1988); OCB is manifested by one of Organ's five proposed dimensions, i.e. conscientiousness (examples of which could be attendance and following the set rules). Talent satisfaction is measured via the behavioural outcomes influenced by HRM practices (e.g. monitoring, incentive pay schemes), such as affective organisational commitment (Allen and Meyer 1991) and individually achievable OCB (Podsakoff et al. 1990;

Jeske and Santuzzi 2015) that represents their attitudinal commitment and guides their intention either to exert their efforts (as a result of enjoying the membership to the organization) or to quit. Much HRM research has established the significant positive impact of talent satisfaction about their jobs on employee retention and intent to stay (Podsakoff et al. 1990; Allen and Meyer 1991; Light 2004; Jeske and Santuzzi 2015; Baroda 2018). Prior research such as Light's (2004), where job satisfaction was explored and positively related to employee intent to remain, supports the influence of job satisfaction on talent intention to stay in the workplace. Allen and Meyer's (1991) study revealed that the consistency of organisational commitment has a positive impact on employee behavior, as anticipated, in binding the individual to the employer. Such an organisational psychological state would oblige talents to stay, making their intent to leave much less likely. In the same vein, various studies (Cotton and Tuttle 1986; Meyer and Tett 1993; Trevor 2001; Omar et al. 2013) have tested the relationship between employee satisfaction and turnover and concluded that there is a negative correlation. Allen and Griffeth (2001) demonstrate that job satisfaction is an effective and strong predictor of talent turnover intent. Several studies have found a direct negative relationship between talent satisfaction in their jobs and their intent to leave the organisation (Cotton and Tuttle 1986; Costen and Salazarb 2011; Trevor 2001). A Human Resources survey in 2008 found that staff who are not satisfied with their job would probably leave the organisation (Vandana 2017). Shah and Asad's (2018) investigation on banking sector staff in Lahore showed that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation exerts a significant influence on employee retention, and that motivation enhances employee satisfaction. This relationship is mediated by the POS, as described. The said empirical investigation contributes academically to SET.

2.23 Talent acquisition and retention strategies

In order to fulfil the set objectives for this study, this construct was designed to identify the Human Resources practices (incorporated in TM strategies) adopted by ADG by exploring talent perspectives on their organisation's process for acquiring and nurturing talented leaders. Specifically, the aim was to explore and measure talent perceptions of talent attraction and retention strategies at AGD, via two dimensions. (These dimensions are in addition to training and development implied in the Leadership Development Programme construct). The first dimension tests the enabling and psychological empowerment initiatives which affect employee impact, competence, meaning, self-determination, and creativity; this is underpinned by Pan et al.'s (2012, 440) study, which examines the implications of supervisory support on subordinates' creativity, via the effects of psychological empowerment and felt obligation in prompting them to exert their maximum effort, in compliance with their leaders' encouragement. Moreover, it has been found that talent attraction measures overlap with talent retention, with the two interwoven in variables such as work autonomy, which is encapsulated in the employer brand determinant for talent acquisition (Lievens et al. 2005; Towers Perrin 2005; Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010).

The second dimension within this construct explores talent perceptions of job incentives, work conditions and performance rewards, as adapted from Singh and Sharma (2015, 339). Similar to the first dimension within the same construct on talent attraction and retention (TA&R), 'career growth' corresponds to talent attraction and acquisition (Cable and Graham 2000; Highhouse et al. 1999; Lievens et al. 2005), which is also implicit in the employer brand determinant for talent acquisition (Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010). Moreover, TA&R strategies consider 'work conditions' – or 'people-orientedness' in Highhouse et al. (1999) – and 'reward strategy' (Lievens *et al.* 2005), as well as 'global exposure, all of which are embedded in the employer brand determinant for talent attraction, as identified in Srivastava and Bhatnagar's (2010) study, which used indices of employer brand to measure talent acquisition, as explained in Table 2.4:

Variable	Source of item	Sample of item
Financial Performance	Chun (2001)	(It) looks like a company with strong prospects for future growth
Product / Service Brand	Chun (2001), Fombrun (1998), Cable and Graham (2000)	It invests heavily in Research & Development. (Fombrun 1998)
Good Corporate Citizen	Chun (2001), Cable and Graham (2000)	It talks about integrity, which is high on my list. I don't want to work for a company that doesn't value integrity and morals (Cable and Graham 2000)
Word of Mouth	Cable and Graham (2000), Highhouse et al. (1999), Lievens et al. (2005)	I have heard good things about working here (Highhouse et al. 1999)
Industry / Sector Image	No relevant scale could be found	(Items developed were based on the qualitative study)
Autonomy	Lievens et al. (2005)	It is a good organisation to work if you like getting orders (Lievens et al. 2005)
People-orientedness	Highhouse et al. (1999)	I would imagine they have flexible hours (Highhouse et al. 1999)
Fun at Work	Karl et al. (2007), Lievens et al. (2005)	This is a fun place to work (Karl et al. 2007)
Learning and Development	Fulmer et. al. (2003), Highhouse et al. (1999), Lievens et al. (2005)	A job at this company may be a dead-end job (Cable and Graham 2000)
Career Growth	Cable and Graham (2000), Highhouse et al. (1999), Lievens et al. (2005)	Employees are offered training and development to further themselves professionally (Fulmer et al. 2003)
Reward Strategy	Lievens et al. (2005)	Working in ... (this organisation) provides you with a good salary (Lievens et al. 2005)

Table 2.4. Scales Identified from Literature, adopted from Srivastava and Bhatnagar (2010).

However, other sub-factors in the employer brand may be incompatible with the specific research context of Abu Dhabi service governmental establishments, and perhaps more consistent with private sector settings. Such variables are thought to be: 'Financial Performance,' 'Product/Service Brand,' 'Word of Mouth,' and 'Fun at Work.' Moreover, those factors were found less impactful on the strength of an employer brand, based on employee perspectives on existing managers. Much of the research in Srivastava and Bhatnagar's (2010) study employed students and graduates to examine the merits of the measures encapsulated in employer brand; that data was abandoned for the purposes of this investigation. Furthermore, the aforementioned study found that other factors embodying employer brand ('caring organisation,' 'enabling organisation,' 'career growth,' 'global exposure,' 'flexible and ethical,' 'credible and fair reward strategy') do represent the employer brand to its employees, and is inferred by prospective applicants (Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010).

Additionally, the research employs this particular bundle of questions in an attempt to critically assess the effectiveness of TM programmes at ADG on talent intention to stay, which exhibits the effect of existing HR practices on retaining unique talent. As regards Hom et al.'s (2009) suggestion, HRM interventions help sustain this pool of human capital, whose performance levels would be difficult to replicate, and assist in reducing the possibility of talent being attracted by other opportunities across the global market. Thus, it explores and measures talent intention to stay at the organisation; building on the work of Ng and Butts (2009, 298) and Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013, 4054), it has been established that HRM interventions are aligned with positive predictions for talent commitment and intention to stay. To this effect, talent commitment is argued by various scholars to be both an immediate outcome and a predictor for positive behaviour (or mediator between) the following HRM practices and behavioural results (Applebaum et al. 2000; Macky and Boxall 2007; Wright et al. 2013):

- ‘work ethic and attitudes to change’ (Yousef 2000a);
- ‘leadership behaviour and job satisfaction and job performance’ (Yousef 2000b);
- ‘mentoring and organisational citizenship behaviours’ (Ghosh et al. 2012)
- ‘HRM practices and intention to stay’ (Chew and Chan 2008).

Therefore, Masterson et al. (2000) argue that when organisations implement well-designed HRM practices, they are seen as willing to ‘go the extra mile,’ which has a positive impact on employee behaviour and commitment to staying at the organisation. Both measures of Talent Acquisition and Retention strategies, by Enabling and Empowering; and by Incentives, Work Conditions and Performance rewards, are built on organisational support theory, which implies three types of treatments by the organisation. These are, supervisor support, fairness, and organisational rewards, with work conditions as an additional element, according to Eisenberger *et al.* (1986).

SET is argued to be the main theoretical framework to assess workers’ behaviour within organisations (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). Costs vs. rewards, as elements of SET, may assist in understanding an employee’s emotional commitment to his/her employer, and can be used to evaluate relationships and social cohesion (Eisenberger et al. 1986). In this paradigm, profits (rewards minus incurred by employees in terms of time, stress, and commitment) are suggested to be equal to the rewards to be achieved in any form of social interaction, in which rewards are returned with respect, trust, value, acceptance, attraction, and love, and consideration is seen to exist between the social parties. SET emphasises self-satisfaction when the relationship is based on rewarding recurrent behaviour. In other words, SET emphasises the interdependent relationship between the employer and employee as influencing individual decisions to pursue or terminate the exchanges (Blau 1964; Redmond 2015). Genuine relationships induce effectual behaviours as well as more engaged staff (Saks 2006; Xanthopoulou et al. 2009). Moreover, SET is used to explicate the motivational foundation of workforce behaviour and employee attitude (Etzioni 1968; Levinson, 1965; March and Simon 1958), and argues that employees exert their efforts and show loyalty in line with the norm of reciprocal support (the exchange process) from employers (Mossholder et al. 2005). This response is deemed a clear indicator of their intention to stay in their current job (Mustapha et al. 2010).

Building on SET's logic, which comprises two main parts: perceived organisational support (POS) and leader-member exchange (Ko and Hur 2014), Parzefall and Salin (2010) propose that POS implies HRM practices that appreciate the value of human capital (Allen et al. 2003), fair treatment (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002), and multiple kinds of support (Eisenberger et al. 2002). Such support can include organisational fairness and employee benefits. The relationship between POS and employee intention to stay has not been extensively researched; nevertheless, existing research does consider its affirmative effect (Nargotra and Sarangal 2021; Prakosa et al. 2019; Ghazali et al. 2018). As well, Iqbal and Hashmi (2015) found an association between POS and employee retention in higher educational institutions in Pakistan, as mediated by psychological empowerment. To Godfrey (2010), employees show more commitment and are judged to be an effective part of the firm when they sense that their employer recognises their efforts and fosters their welfare and comfort. These findings are supported by Allen et al. (2003), indicating that more POS corresponds with lower turnover intentions. In contrast to earlier findings, however, no evidence of employee retention was detected in Saudi workers in the educational industry after they had obtained employer support (Bohassan and Muhammad 2021).

2.23.1 Attraction and retention strategies by enabling and empowering

Empowerment can be defined by Johenness and Chou (2017, 49) as 'entrusting the power of decisions, thereby allocating more power, responsibility and ability to employees in order to complete their duties.' Empowerment practices involve facilitating decision-making for employees so they can carry out their job tasks independently, which results in higher loyalty, stimulates talent to enhance their capabilities, increases self-confidence, and encourages them to go the extra mile (ibid). Typical questions representing this construct are as listed below:

EMP1: ‘I make a significant impact in my department.’

EMP2: ‘I possess the skills necessary for my job.’

EMP3: ‘My job activities are personally meaningful to me.’

EMP4: ‘I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.’

EMP5: ‘My organisation enables me to generate creative ideas.’

Retention based on monetary compensation is vulnerable to talent loss to competitors with higher offers. Paying well is not enough to attain affective organisational commitment from top potentials (Vandana 2017), who may still leave their jobs owing to feeling unappreciated. Empowerment, however, is significant to talent retention (Birt et al. 2004). Birt et al.’s (2004) study tested the influence of empowering talent via integrating them, ensuring their involvement, and assigning new responsibilities and challenges. Based on employee perceptions, these determinants were found to be critical to retention of South African talent. In their research on the Malaysian manufacturing sector, Wahab et al.’s (2014) findings evidenced a negative correlation between perceived organisational support, which implies management support such as employee empowerment, and turnover intention. In other words, the higher the rate of perceived organisational support, the lower the talent intentions to leave their employers. Johenness and Chou’s (2017) research on Taiwan, which targeted critical HRM practices including employee empowerment, argued that these significantly and positively impacted on employee retention.

2.23.2 Attraction and retention strategies by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards

Incentives such as financial rewards were extensively cited to be a strong factor in keeping talent happy and engaged in the organisation. In the meantime, numerous studies conclude that non-monetary compensation, alongside the quality of the working environment, exhibits great influence in nurturing employees and subsequently mitigating employee turnover rates (Rynes et al. 2004). Typical questions corresponding to this construct are shown as follows:

IR1: 'My organisation provides onsite opportunities and a global exposure for talent.'

IR2: 'My organisation provides clear career path and opportunities to progress.'

IR3: 'My organisation provides strong social security and employee welfare.'

IR4: 'My organisation offers salaries that are above the market rate.'

IR5: 'My organisation improves work conditions to increase organizational identity.'

IR6: 'My organisation offers performance-driven rewards.'

Encouraging and retaining employees by rewards has been much emphasised in the literature, which indicates numerous TM practices and their implications on employee's retention, such as incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards (Rynes et al. 2004; Singh and Sharma 2015). Overwhelming evidence has demonstrated that incentives are one of the top factors in the ability to poach and retain talents. In the meantime, numerous studies conclude that non-monetary compensation, alongside the quality of the working environment, contributes significantly to nurturing employees and subsequently mitigating their turnover rates and enhancing retention (Rynes et al. 2004). Hytter's (2007) study explored retention strategies in France and Sweden and highlighted some workplace factors that exerted indirect impact on employee retention, such as physical working conditions, career opportunities, balance between professional and personal life, rewards, provision of training and skills development. Scott et al. (2010) studied social support, flexibility, and work-life balance and concluded that they have a direct effect on employee retention. Singh and Sharma (2015) whose research was held in the UAE, shed great emphasis on employee stock option schemes (ESOS) which were shown to be effective in attracting and retaining talent. This retention strategy encompasses granting employees the privileged 'option' to buy shares at a certain price for long-term retention; nurturing, e.g. promoting the organisational identity; it overlaps with other factors, including employee welfare; providing a suitable and friendly work environment; establishing social security, which can add to and supplement other measures such as gathering feedback; providing mentoring and coaching interventions, off-the-job training and on-site/external career development programmes. To Kong et al. (2012), this measure involves career development which emphasises improving career's core competencies of the employee so, it focuses on career motivation, identification, personal meaning, networks and communication in addition to career's related skill and knowledge. Similarly, Almaaitah et al.'s (2017) empirical research on the public health sector of Arab countries is consistent with the foundation of SET in finding that compensation and career development are positively related to employee retention.

2.24 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is 'the behavioural intentions illuminating an individual's intention to leave or stay and is considered to be the primary antecedent or actual turnover behaviour' (Hellman 1997). Turnover intention is a sub-factor under 'Talent Attraction and Retention,' and it is separated here to examine whether there is a significant relationship between it and all other factors and sub-factors. The focal tenet of TM is to sustain the flow of human capital with unique competences in the most pivotal roles, in order to respond to organisational competitiveness, as implied in Collings and Mellahi's (2009) definition of STM (Bjorkman et al. 2013). Research has found that talent tend not to leave the organisation when they perceive their employer as offering support (Zhao et al. 2007). In the same way, Rhoades and Eisenberger's (2002) study revealed a correlation between perceived organisational support and employee intention to stay or leave the organisation. However, both Lazarova and Caligiuri (2001) and Stahl et al. (2009) argue that employee turnover is dependent on subjective perceptions of whether the support received by the employer is worthwhile or not; this is regardless of an objective assessment of labour retention practices undertaken by the organisation. This single-item scale could be criticised for having only one question; however, 'good reliability' can be returned from a one-item measure, in addition to 'good face validity' (Bergkvist and Rossiter, 2007). Besides, one-item scales are widely employed in studies predicting turnover behaviour (Cho et al. 2009), as follows:

TI: 'I intend to work for the long-term in my organisation.' Adopted/adapted from Ng and Butts (2009, 298) and Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013, 4054).

Existing literature has stressed the robust relationship between employee perception of STM practices and retention, as interpreted through employee turnover intention. This is in addition to organisational outcomes such as lower turnover intention rates across the organisation (Meyers et al. 2014; Paul and Anantharaman 2003). The table below summarises studies conducted on employee/talent turnover intentions:

Sr.	Study	Reference	Findings
1	Impact of perceived organisational support on employee turnover	Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002)	The study found a mean corrected relationship between perceived organisational support and employee intention to stay or leave the organisation
2	TM Strategies Impact on Turnover intentions	Singh and Sharma (2015)	The need to address long term retention strategies among UAE organisations, i.e. supporting personal growth, succession

Sr.	Study	Reference	Findings
			planning and developing leadership related competences.
3	Retaining repatriates: The role of organisation support practices	Lazarova and Caligiuri (2001)	Negative relationship was found between the international assignee and his/her intention to stay or leave the employer
4	Predictors of turnover intentions in learning-driven and demand-driven international assignments: The role of repatriation concerns, satisfaction with company support, and perceived career advancement opportunities	Stahl et al. (2009)	
5	A three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment	Meyer and Allen (1991)	Ongoing organisational commitment discourages an employee from leaving the organisation.
6	Frequent Change and Turnover Intention: The Moderating Role of Ethical Leadership.	Babalola et al. (2016)	Results revealed that the leadership style elevates talent sustainability. Study demonstrated that ethical leadership behaviour can mitigate job change and turnover intentions via social learning and employee organisational belonging, which in turn reinforces employee self-esteem.
7	Leadership style, salesperson's work effort and job performance: the influence of power distance	Mulki et al. (2015)	Instrumental leadership has positive effects on employee performance such as making extra efforts. The relationship between satisfaction with participative/ instrumental supervisor and turnover intention is insignificant.

Sr.	Study	Reference	Findings
8	Talent and leadership development practices as drivers of intention to stay in Lebanese organisations: the mediating role of affective commitment	Chami-Malaeba, and Garavanb (2013)	Authors propose that there is a direct relationship between leadership development practices and affected commitment and intention to stay. Also, they propose that talent and leadership development acts as predictor for both affected commitment and intention to stay.
9	Strategic Talent Management in Emerging Markets and Its Impact on Employee Retention: Evidence from Brazilian MNC. Examining the various STM practices by MNC on employees' turnover	Ambrosius (2018:53)	Study revealed that organisational support and perceived career opportunity are negatively correlated to Brazilian employees' intention to leave, while training and development is positively related. Furthermore, it is found that perceived career opportunity moderates these relationships

Table 2.5. Studies investigating employee turnover intentions. Developed by the Researcher.

As applied to my study, the above theories indicate that I would expect my independent variables (IVs) to influence or explain the dependent variable (talent retention and intention to stay at ADG) based on the logic of each theory and the rationale offered below. My independent variables are: (Leadership Development Programme, Leadership Development Effectiveness, Performance Appraisal, Attraction and Retention by Empowerment, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions and Performance Rewards, Participative Leadership, Supportive Leadership, Talent Satisfaction).

2.25 Research conceptual model

The research was conceived and developed based on the theoretical foundation drawn from the extant literature, as described above. The researcher has adapted the most useful aspects and developed a working model for ADG as elaborated in Figure 2.9.

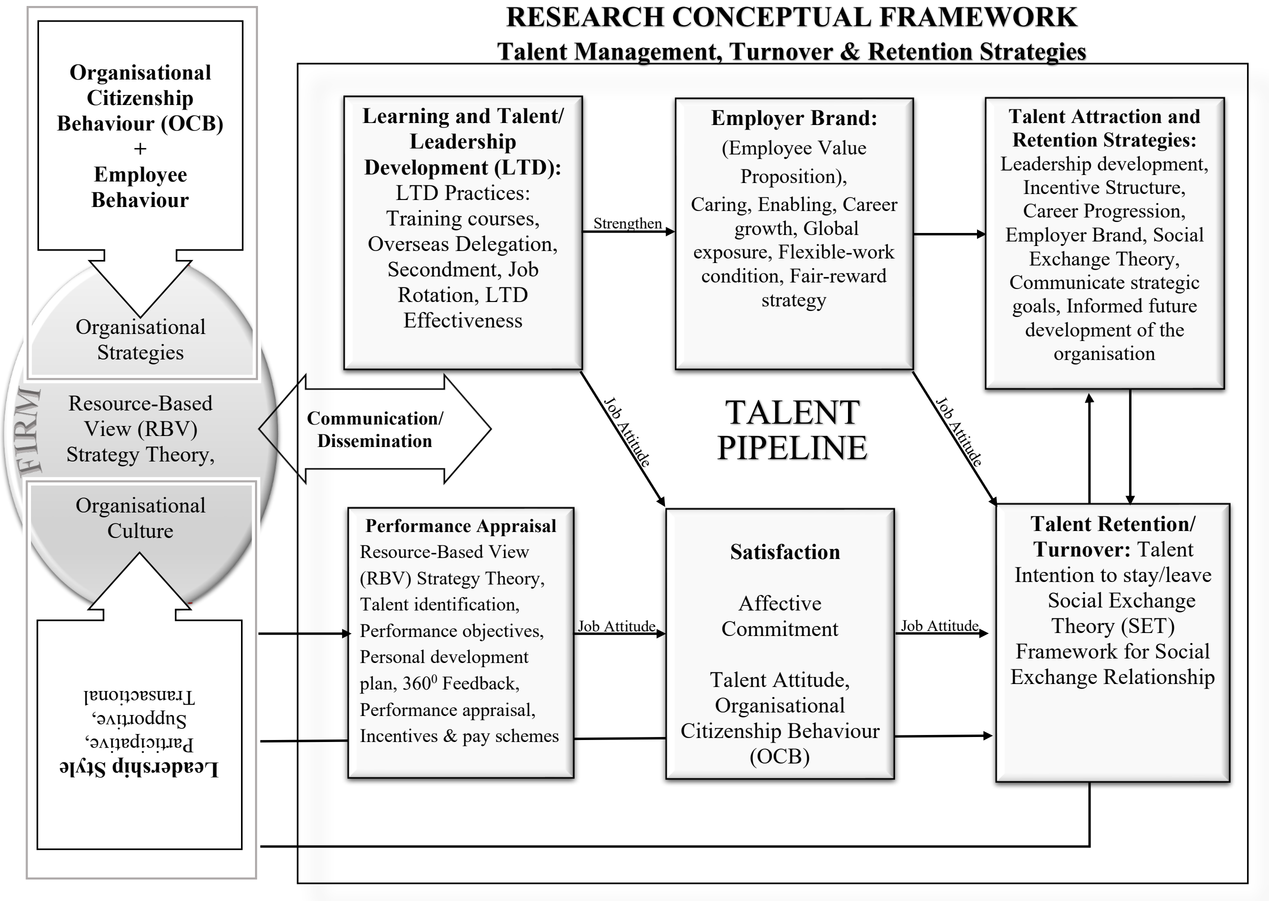


Figure 2.9. Detailed Research Model, developed by the researcher from the extant literature.

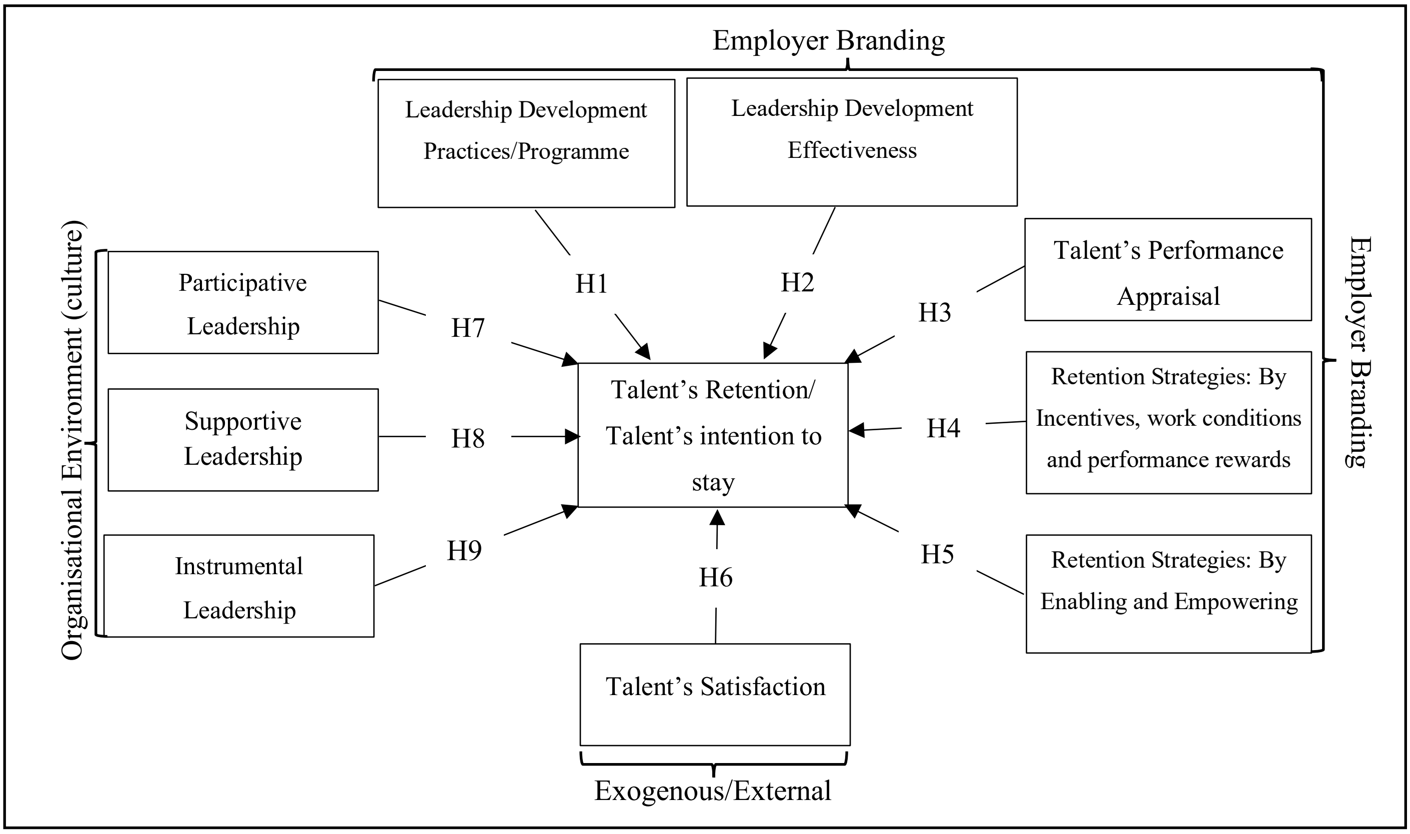


Figure 2.10. Summary of Conceptual Framework Relationships (Proposed Research Model).

2.26 Research questions, theoretical background, and hypotheses development

A research question is 'a question that provides an explicit statement of what it is the researcher wants to find out about' (Bryman, 2016, 7). The main research question is:

What is the impact of TM strategies on talent retention, on executives?

The research main questions are:

- What are the existing strategies and practices related to TM and its implementation at ADG departments?
- What is the impact of the individual factors of Talent Management Strategy on talent retention levels at ADG departments?
- What are the drivers, enablers and barriers for implementing long-term TM strategy at ADG? What is the influence of the other environmental/exogenous elements (employer

branding/institutional culture/leadership behaviour and job satisfaction) on talent remaining at ADG?

- Is the (Western) developed and tested model and conceptual framework effective in implementing TM and is it capturing the critical factors influencing talented leaders' intention to stay, in the Emirati public sector (ADG)?

First, the literature points to the scarcity of research on strategic TM, practices, effectiveness, components, strategies, and approaches in general; and research held on the Middle East region and the UAE in particular (Berger and Berger 2011; Vinod et al. 2014; Budhwar and Mellahi 2007; Collings and Scullion 2012; Cui et al. 2017; CIPD 2015a; Schuler and Tarique 2009; Hofmann 2010; Iles et al. 2010; Stewart and Rigg 2011; Singh et al. 2012; Tatoglu et al. 2016). Therefore, this study intends to address these issues by answering the first research question.

Second, the literature on Talent Management has revealed a range of conflicting views, resulting in confusion and a lack of clarity. Both academics and business experts tend to focus on definitions, approaches, and procedures – seeking one model or approach to fit TM broadly. The majority of TM models were proposed without being tested, as most are too abstract and lack practical implications (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014; Vinod et al. 2014; Singh et al. 2012; Lepak et al. 2007; Collings and Mellahi 2009; Tsui et al. 1997; Boxall et al. 2008; Wood 1999; Pfeffer 1994; 1998; Lepak and Snell 2002; Cappelli 2008a; Smilansky 2006; Sparrow 2007; Stahl et al. 2007; Becker and Gerhart 1996; Becker and Huselid 2006; Boudreau and Ramstad 2007; CIPD Change Agenda 2006; Ashton and Morton 2005). Therefore, developing an adequate strategy for TM could be achieved through responses to the second research question. However, to answer the above compound question number 2, the following hypotheses were formulated, consisting of: LDE – Leadership Development Effectiveness, PA – Performance Appraisal, EMP – Attraction and Retention by Empowerment, IWR – Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions and Performance Rewards, LDP – Leadership Development Programme, TS – Talent Satisfaction, PL – Participative Leadership, SL – Supportive Leadership, IL – Instrumental Leadership:

To assess the effectiveness of the implementation of TM programmes at ADG on talents' retention, the following sub-questions were identified in order to help map the analysis undertaken within this study with each of the main four research questions, respectively:

- What is the impact of implementing TM programmes at ADG on talent' retention and intention to stay at ADG?
- What is the impact of TM effectiveness on talent retention and intention to stay at ADG?
- What is the impact of management appraisal on talent retention and intention to stay at ADG?
- What is the impact of implementing attraction and retention strategies by empowerment on talent retention and intention to stay at ADG?
- What is the impact of implementing attraction and retention strategies through attraction and retention by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards on talent retention and intention to stay at ADG?
- What is the impact of talent satisfaction on his/her retention and intention to stay at ADG?
- What is the impact of employer branding/participative leadership behaviour on talent retention and intention to stay at ADG?
- What is the impact of employer branding/supportive leadership behaviour on talent' retention and intention to stay at ADG?
- What is the impact of employer branding/Instrumental leadership behaviour on talent retention and intention to stay at ADG?

Studies have revealed that talent development practices have positive implications for talent intention to stay in the organisation (Datta et al. 2005; Zacharatos et al. 2005). Similarly, Ng and Butts (2009) and Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013) found a positive influence on talent intention to stay when organisations implement retention practices, as a result of increased affective commitment.

The following hypotheses, therefore, emerged:

Null Hypothesis = H_0 = Leadership Development Programme has no influence on talent retention at ADG-affiliated organisations.

Alternative Hypothesis = H_1 = Leadership Development Programme has a positive influence on talent retention at ADG organisations.

Null Hypothesis = H_0 = Leadership Development Effectiveness has no influence on talent retention at ADG-affiliated organisations.

Alternative Hypothesis = H_2 = Leadership Development Effectiveness has a positive influence on talent retention at ADG organisations.

In addition, several studies highlighted the inevitable relationship between the performance appraisal function, which intertwines employee development, evaluation and retention. These studies found a strongly associated positive effect of adopting continuous and fair feedback and performance appraisal on enhancing talent turnover intent and retention rates at the organisation. A handful of research have empirically confirmed the above argument, such as, but not limited to, Singh (2000), Poon (2004), Zhang et al. (2015), Mbugua et al. (2015), Singh and Sharma (2015), Johenness and Chou (2017), and Isa et al. (2018). Therefore, the conforming hypotheses were educed as follows:

Null Hypothesis = H_0 = Performance Appraisal has no influence on talent retention at ADG-affiliated organisations.

Alternative Hypothesis = H_3 = Performance Appraisal has a positive influence on talent retention at ADG organisations.

The literature indicated numerous TM practices and their effects on employee retention, such as enabling and empowering talent (Pan et al. 2012), incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards (Singh and Sharma 2015). Similarly, Bethke-Langenegger et al.'s (2011) study exploring TM strategies reported the positive impact of TM initiatives on leader satisfaction, commitment, motivation, trust, and retention. Accordingly, this investigation was conducted in order to find out the relationship between implementing the said practices and their effect on talent retention at the ADG. The corresponding hypotheses below were formulated in order to fulfil this objective:

Null Hypothesis = H_0 = Implementing attraction and retention strategies by Attraction and Retention by Empowering has no influence on talent retention at ADG-affiliated organisation.

Alternative Hypothesis = H_4 = Implementing attraction and retention strategies by Attraction and Retention by Empowering has a positive influence on talent retention at ADG organisation.

Null Hypothesis = H_0 = Implementing attraction and retention strategies by Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards has no influence on talent retention at ADG-affiliated organisation.

Alternative Hypothesis = H_5 = Implementing attraction and retention strategies by Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards has a positive influence on talent retention at ADG organisation.

Likewise, Hughes and Rog (2008) emphasise the key elements of TM preferred practice that will elevate the initiatives of Human Resources Management, with the support of the culture, and line manager and supervisor accountability. The literature identified several barriers to the implementation of TM in various contexts, and in the Middle East region and the GCC countries (Singh et al. 2012). For instance, demographic capabilities, predominant leadership style (Collings and Scullion 2011; WorldPopulationReview 2019), the culture of local management across the UAE (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014), turnover intentions (Singh and Sharma 2015), drain in managerial competences (Palframan 2008; Weir 2008; Abdullah et al. 2010; Vinod et al. 2014) and the high demand for national labour (Branham 2005a; 2005b; Brewster et al. 2005; Singh et al. 2012). Consequently, this investigation was devoted to highlighting those inhibitors, notably in the ADG sector in the UAE. The associated sub research questions are as follows:

- What is the prevailing leadership behaviour of management at ADG-affiliated departments?

(Described/other tests will address the above question).

- What is the impact of the prevailing leadership behaviour on talent retention at ADG-affiliated departments?

The hypotheses below were formulated to fulfil the research objective and respond to the above research question:

Null Hypothesis = H_0 = The participative leadership style for the management has no influence on talents' retention at ADG-affiliated organisations.

Alternative Hypothesis = H_7 = The participative leadership style for the management has a positive influence on talent retention at ADG organisations.

Null Hypothesis = H_0 = The supportive leadership style for the management has no influence on talent retention at ADG-affiliated organisations.

Alternative Hypothesis = H_8 = The supportive leadership style for the management has a positive influence on talent retention at ADG organisations.

Null Hypothesis = H_0 = The instrumental leadership style for the management has no influence on talent satisfaction levels, performance, and retention at ADG-affiliated organisations.

Alternative Hypothesis = H_9 = The instrumental leadership style for the management has a positive influence on talent retention at ADG organisations.

Finally, the last research question will be answered by Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis, which tests the theoretical models (the measurement and the structural models).

2.27 Summary of Research Hypotheses

Sr.	HN	Statement
H: Leadership Development LD has a positive effect on dependent variable DV.		
1.	H1	Leadership Development Programme has a positive effect on talent retention/intention to stay at the organisation.
2.	H2	Effectiveness of Leadership development has a positive effect on talent retention/intention to stay at the organisation.
3.	H3	Managing talent performance has a positive effect on talent retention/ intention to stay at the organisation.
H: Retention Strategies RS have a significant relationship with dependent variable DV.		
4.	H4	Talent Retention: Incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards have a positive effect on talent retention/intention to stay at the organisation.
5.	H5	Talent Retention: Enabling and Empowerment has a positive effect on talent retention/intention to stay at the organisation.
6.	H6	Talent satisfaction has a positive effect on talent retention/intention to stay at the organisation.
H: Leadership Behaviour LB has a positive effect on dependent variable DV.		
7.	H7	Participative Leadership has a positive effect on talent retention/intention to stay at the organisation.
8.	H8	Supportive Leadership has a positive effect on talent retention/intention to stay at the organisation.
9.	H9	Instrumental Leadership has a positive effect on talent retention/intention to stay at the organisation.

Table 2.6. Summary of Research Hypotheses, developed by the researcher.

2.28 Research framework and hypotheses model

In statistics parlance, the nine identified factors associated with STM are analysed in terms of their impact (in either positive or negative direction) and their contribution to predictive capabilities in terms of the level of retention (which is defined as the outcome or dependent variable); in addition, the contribution of other internal organisational/cultural and external factors is examined. The hypotheses (H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8, and H9) were tested accordingly. Hence, Figure 2.11 represents the study's conceptual model of strategic TM implementation and its effectiveness on talent's retention and intention to stay, along with the associated research hypotheses.

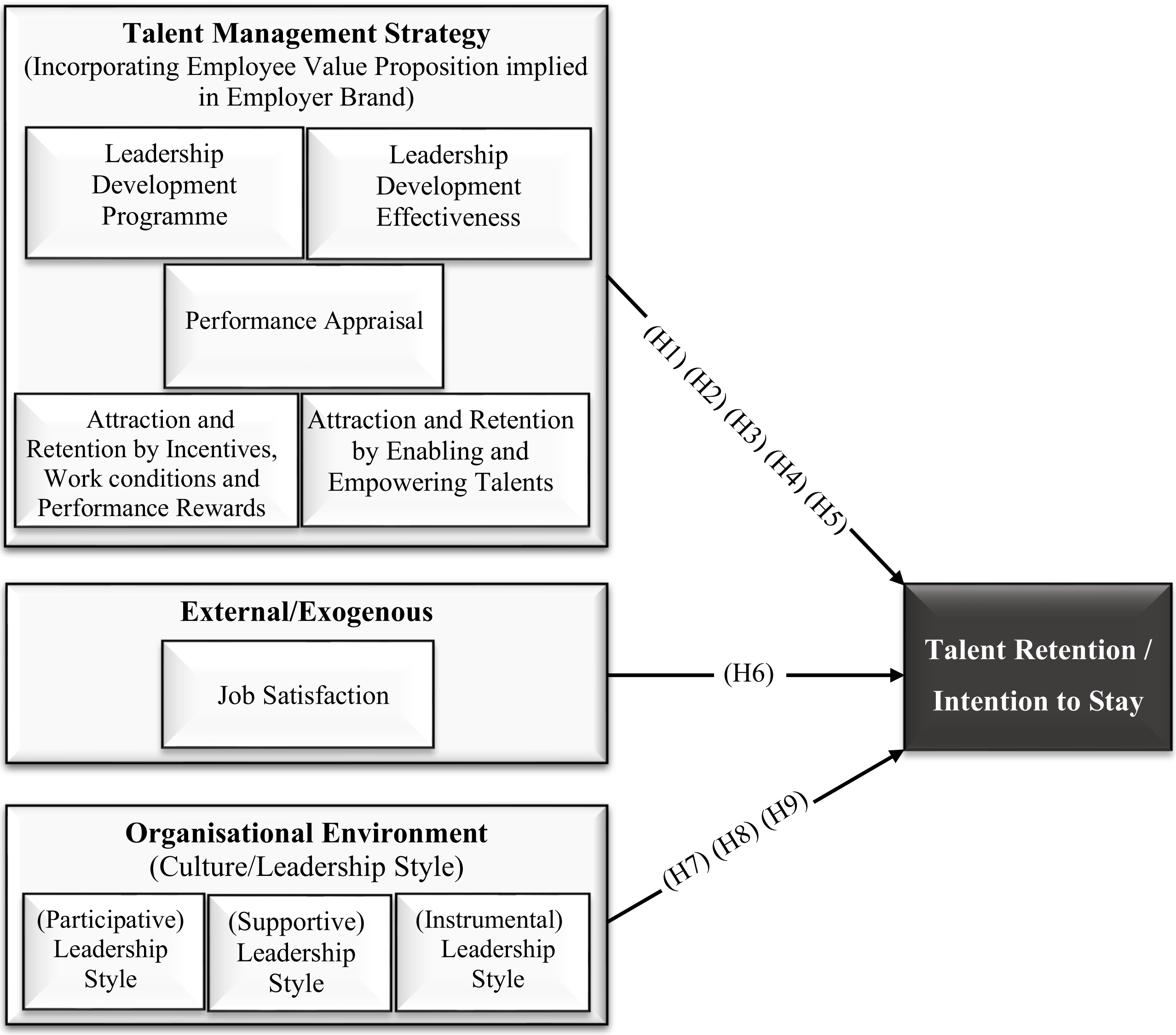


Figure 2.11. Research framework and hypotheses, developed by the researcher.

2.29 Chapter summary

The above debate focused on STM and addressed it within the context of the Arab Gulf Region. It highlighted the institutional and cultural forces constraining implementation of STM in that setting, including the 'burden' laws embodied in nationalisation. Three pressures and propositions of the way organisations adapt to nationalisation were discussed, including how they balance its constraints as they strive to sustain global legitimacy through STM competitiveness, while remaining consistent with legal legitimacy, such as the GCC's localisation programmes, in the national context.

The scarce research into the GCC regional context shows that while organisations tend to exhibit understanding of TM and its processes, they do not adopt formal programmes to manage their talent. Nevertheless, TM processes are implemented in select GCC organisations, but along two discrete channels for locals and foreign talent. As well, the literature explained typologies of the retention strategies adopted by organisations that are 'assumed' to be firmly interrelated with overall organisational strategy, long-term goals, and sustainability. There is some evidence that the best practices of effective STM may be incompatible with the Arab identity. This makes it crucial to design differentiated STM plans that focus on the prevalent culture of talent, and what motivates that talent to compete for national leadership roles. Other regulatory changes need to happen in order for the region's labour market to function more efficiently.

The literature also discussed the embodiment of employer brand, and how this can attract prospective talent to an organisation.

Employee value proposition is a part of formal employee branding. Refining this proposition has a significant effect on attracting and retaining talent. That drivers that arguably support an effective TM strategy were discussed, followed by the relevant challenges of TM from the perspective of academia and HR practitioners.

TM design is a strategically-driven process that requires coupling its initiatives with business priorities. The literature has also proven that management's emotional labour is effective in implementing a successful TM strategy, by clearly aligning the organisational objectives with career development and incentives. There are external and internal factors impeding effective implementation of a TM strategy, such as a lack of line manager proficiency. The lack of common definition to TM is a disadvantage, and every failure to address the contextual forces serves as a challenge to the global TM practice. The chapter concluded by constructing the research hypotheses, along with addressing and justifying their underlying theories. In the chapter that follows, a critical review of the theoretical perspective will be argued.

CHAPTER THREE: STRATEGIC TALENT MANAGEMENT IN ABU DHABI

This chapter discusses TM matters in the GCC region, then in the UAE, and finally in Abu Dhabi, more specifically within the Abu Dhabi public sector. It introduces the context under study, explains the understanding and practice of TM in this context, and highlights why this particular context should be examined.

3.1 Why cite the GCC region in this research?

The GCC region is cited in this research because the UAE lies in the Arab Gulf Region, and there is little research in this context. Moreover, Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2020) argue that the published studies on TM have underappreciated the settings (country and organisation) in which TM development was described as disappointing. The analytical focus on TM research was more on the meso (organisational) level, while the macro (country/national) and micro (individual) levels were marginalised (Sparrow 2019). Hence, the institutional literature indicates that organisations within the same setting tend to adopt similar strategies and practices, as indicated by the isomorphism theory (DiMaggio and Powell 1983).

3.2 Strategic TM and importance in the GCC region context

In spite of the popularity of TM research over the past decade, there is a noticeable lack of pertinent evidence on TM implementation and practices by organisations in the MENA and GCC region (Biygautane and Al-Yahya 2014); instead, the focus has been on strategic TM and effectiveness, separate from context and its relevant determinants (Thunnissen et al. 2013). Similarly, in the handful of research that contextualised TM, limitations were related to the significance of the identified context-specific factors, with lesser interest on the implementation and behavioural aspects, as stated by Thunnissen and Gallardo-Gallardo (2017). Employee retention is a strategic initiative to sustain organisational competitiveness. Organisations are also concerned with how to tailor TM strategy commensurate to the national context (El Dahshan et al. 2018). Hence, it has been emphasised in the current TM literature that understanding TM is context-bound (within a single organisation), and there is no one-size-fits-all version (Gallardo-Gallardo et al. 2020).

Within the GCC context, TM is defined as 'the local government policies, tools, processes, HR practices, and mechanisms put in place to educate, attract, retain, and develop talent' (Biygautane and Al Yahya 2014, 22). AlMannai et al.'s (2017) quantitative study on Bahrain Post found that TM strategies returned positive outcomes in sustaining a competitive advantage, by 62.2%. Moreover, the results indicated that the talent development measure was ranked the most impactful strategy on competitive advantage, followed by the attraction strategy and the preservation strategy; succession was the least influential strategy. In terms of the TM dimensions that enhanced competitive advantage, the aforementioned study ranked quality, then creativity, followed by excellence, responsiveness, and eventually, efficiency. Such findings show the need to support subordinates' creative ideas through providing incentives and rewards. This also implies incorporating workers into leadership and managerial aspects.

3.2.1 Geographic and economic situation

This section refers to the case of the UAE as studied within the bounds of this research. The extracted literature refers to the TM strategies adopted in the non-Western context of the GCC, which is closest to the research region. This region is significant owing to its economic prosperity since the discovery of oil and gas. After the dramatic drop in oil prices during 2014, the importance of economic diversification to prevent future serious fiscal deficits was made clear. The GCC realised the need to reduce over-reliance on oil resources so as to sustain its political stability and economic success, particularly in light of its incompetent entrepreneurial culture; thus, the need to develop local talent arose (Biygautane and Al Yahya 2014). This setting is characterised by its well-developed infrastructure, its natural resources, and economic advantages, which have made it attractive to multinational corporations. In addition, this particular context has been attempting to adapt its stance to the universal position of TM, as part of an effort to manage talent and advance its practices in this specific field. However, this has led locals to quit their jobs; thus, the recruitment of foreigners has dominated in order to sustain competitive advantage and legitimacy, while abiding by the imposed localisation policies, described as 'Emiratisation.' 'Established in 1981, the GCC countries are historically, geographically, and culturally linked' (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014, 216). All are Arab countries located in the Arabian Peninsula of Southwest Asia close to each other, and Islam is the prevalent religion; all were subjected to a colonial history, and they share the benefit of producing oil and gas. The oil and gas revolution led workers from the neighbouring countries (known among the context of GCC as expatriates) to occupy an unprecedented three quarters of jobs, while Emiratis continue to leave their positions as a result of attractive economic prosperity, as well as government reliance on this non-local segment (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014, 216; Najjar 2013).

3.2.2 Implications for the ratio of expatriates versus locals in the workforce

The above has caused social problems within organisations and created unemployment across the local pool, owing to the lower capabilities of domestic talent compared to inbound talent, and their inability to fulfil the needs of organisations. This has played a major role in local unemployment and has inspired organisations to hire expatriate managers. Saudi unemployment hit over 30% of its population in 2010, a figure constituted by young and female labour (Shediac and Samman 2010). Between the year 1990 and 2013 the number of expatriates in the UAE increased from 9 million in 1990 (rated at 48%) to approximately 21–24 million (rated at 73% of the entire workforce) in 2013 (Dito 2008; Hyslop 2012; Najjar 2013). In addition, non-local workers exceeded 90% of the entire working pool in the UAE, Kuwait, and Qatar, while the percentage of expatriates remained slightly lower in Oman, Bahrain, and Saudi Arabia. Moreover, the Economic Intelligence Unit (EIU 2009) forecast an increased demand for human resources, coupled with a limited supply, which would not subside until 2020. It was predicted that the continuous need for such inbound manpower would not be filled, especially with the huge investments and development in educational reforms across the region, as claimed by Naithani and Jha (2010). Hence, the government in this region responded to the huge disparity between expatriate/local workers by enforcing localisation initiatives/plans to hire Emirati labour in lieu of foreign counterparts (Ebrasu and Al Ariss 2012; Forstenlechner and Mellahi 2011). Compliance with nationalisation plans is monitored by the government; however, nationalisation ratios vary between public and private sectors and across GCC countries as well. For example, 'in 2011, nationalization rates in the private sector varied between 1% in Qatar to 20% in Bahrain. At 59%, Saudi Arabia had the highest increase in nationalisation during the same year, compared with 15% for Qatar' (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014, 216).

Inevitably, the contemporary localisation rules are problematic for employers in managing talent; the process of attracting, developing, and retaining the required talent (both local and foreign) has become a 'dilemma' with a multitude of hurdles, and is under investigation by TM practitioners and academics. Furthermore, from this situation the necessity of implementing TM has evolved in order to grow a reservoir of talent and sustain the flow of a distinct cadre of talent in governmental establishments.

3.2.3 The pressures of TM in the context of the GCC region

Organisations are likely to imitate the practices of others owing to three main sources of pressure: coercive, mimetic, and normative. Coercive reasons refer to the distinction in power between various actors; for instance, regulations imposed by government, such as the localisation initiative. Nationalisation policies insist that any organisation must hire a percentage of its workforce from the local pool, which constitutes a significant impediment to rational TM processes (Schuler et al. 2011; see table 2.3). The mimetic pressure stems from institutions' motivation to imitate TM practices that are adopted by successful, mature organisations (Boxenbaum and Jonsson 2008; Haveman 1993). In other words, these pressures issue from the push for a competitive advantage, which requires the employer to acquire, develop, and nurture the best existing talent in the job market, skirting nationalisation regulations. The coercive and mimetic pressures in the context of the GCC are assumed to be of concern, as they function in direct opposition to an effective TM process. On the one hand, there are localisation restrictions, while the mimetic pressures inspire employers to embrace and implement the best practices of TM. The third pressure is normative, and emanates from certain actions and decisions that are perceived to be more common, hence more attractive, thus implemented by companies (Suchman 1995). There are different reasons why companies wish to follow the norm. Sometimes, adopting a specific system or configuration might be perceived as the 'morally' right decision (Boxenbaum and Jonsson 2008). Sidani and Al Ariss (2014, 222) argue that normative pressures function along two lines, based on the power of the contextual elements and senior management perception of such factors, which is guided by organisational behaviour and implicit beliefs and values – for instance, when management perspective leans towards implementing nationalisation, i.e. locals' right to be hired and developed. Yet, localisation restrictions may constitute a 'moral burden' when managers prefer to adopt global equity. This is in addition to other internal and external factors pointed to in earlier studies, as outlined by Farndale and Paauwe (2007) and Schuler et al. (2011). Some studies outlined the diverse challenges employers face in attracting and retaining national talent in the private sector, while the situation is more optimistic in the public sector. Meanwhile, the private sector possesses certain advantages as depicted in the psychological contract between GCC national talent and line managers in private corporations, which reported a relatively high level of engagement and satisfaction compared to public sector settings, according to a study by Singh et al. (2012). Therefore, there is evidence that a broader set of factors apart from pay propositions, which are superior in the public zone, are being prioritised as more significant to a long-term strategy to retain talents from GCC nationals. Table 3.1 captures the global talent challenges. However, Global TM is a separate area of study, which is why the author did not include a more thorough review of that literature.

Forces and Shapers	Global Talent Challenges	HR Policies and Practices	Results
• Globalisation • Demographics • Demand and Supply of workers	• Right numbers • Right location • Right competencies and motivation • Right price	• HR planning • Staffing • Training and Development • Performance Appraisal • Compensation	• Talent positioning • Competitive advantage • Employer branding

Table 3.1. Talent Challenges and Global Talent Management Initiatives – with minor adjustments, adopted from Schuler et al. (2011).

Boxenbaum and Jonsson (2008) argue that organisations resort to two kinds of behaviour in the quest to confront and balance the abovementioned opposing and competing forces, by 'decoupling,' which is translated by their 'facade' or 'symbolic' adherence to the regulatory restrictions – that may run contrary to the organisation's competence – so as to improve their prospects. Deephouse (1999) explains how organisations can react strategically to these opposing pressures – conformity and differentiation – according to the strategic balance theory; thus, firms attempt to be similar and distinctive at the same time. Conformity promotes legitimacy (such as adhering to the imposed nationalisation rules), whereas differentiation fosters their legal legitimacy and sustains their economic survival globally, while shrinking the competition (through adopting the recommended global TM practices). Referring to Edelman's (1992) investigation on Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO), Sidani and Al Ariss (2014, 218) conclude that organisations can 'adapt and grow' ceremonial localisation or 'internalisation,' as introduced by Kostova and Roth (2002), to recruit from the local pool even without conviction in its merits, in order to abide by the legal constraints, while implementing sufficient TM to survive in the global economy. This would lead to the symbolic implementation of TM, e.g., increasing the ratio of local workers in non-pivotal positions, which would never shape genuine TM. However, Rutledge et al.'s (2011) study found that localisation helped build indigenous talent and was successful in attracting indigenous female candidates in the GCC. Nevertheless, Edelman (1992) argues that even when organisations practice 'decoupling,' it does not speed up their progress in sustaining equal opportunities in employment.

3.3 TM practices and implementation in the GCC region

Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) conducted a qualitative study, on a number of different establishments, including multinational, regional, and local organisations across GCC countries: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the UAE. Below are the themes that emerged from the interviews:

3.3.1 Implementation of TM processes

Sidani and Al Ariss's (2014) research findings indicated that most research participants perceive the meaning and function of TM (see table 2.4). However, a divergence in TM processes adopted by organisations operating in the region was noticed with respect to the efficiency of TM processes compared to those adopted by Western contexts, which may affirm that, as Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) say, 'The region still lags in TM processes.' The situation excludes the multinational corporations (MNC) that embrace the best practices from their main branch outside the GCC, in order to keep their key talent, which in turn sustains their value globally. Moreover, the former investigation revealed that almost all local and regional firms, apart from MNC, pretend to espouse TM, while in reality employers struggle to institute efficient TM programmes with the relevant and appropriate processes. MNC's success is attributed to the culture imported from the main country as well as their ability to surmount the regulatory pressures, in contrast to local and regional firms. That is, the culture results in more engagement and retention rates among talent (Sidani and Al Ariss 220).

3.3.2 Leadership involvement in TM processes

Surprisingly, Sidani and Al Ariss's (2014) investigation revealed that various segments of employees, including leaders and line managers, share TM functions aside from the role of HR Division. This is also in line with the converged and advanced TM processes emphasised in the literature (Hughes and Rog 2008).

3.3.3 Two TM approaches in the GCC region

Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) found that organisations in the various GCC countries adopt different systems to manage their local and expatriate talent. They pointed out that organisations confront significant challenges while approaching the two classes of talent potential. The two-tier system will be elaborated later in subsections on the use of talent attraction, selection, and retention strategies in managing the two talent categories through performance, compensation, and training and development:

3.3.4 Attracting, selecting, and developing talent

In terms of identifying and managing foreign talent in GCC countries, talent is the non-local employee with the potential 'to respond to business needs immediately after employment,' also classified as 'hired talents' (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014, 219). The rationale behind recruiting foreign talent is that this cohort possesses the competences which can be utilised immediately, when paired with orientation and a short training and development path. However, organisations expect very little immediate return when attracting local talent; they plan for the long term in training and development and return of investment. Yet it is worth nothing that they spend large amounts of money and resources to attract talented expatriates, while not being ready to spend on their development. Organisations utilise outsourcing agreements to hire non-locals, while appointing locals in non-pivotal positions.

Another factor that inspires regional organisations to adopt such approaches stems from the expatriate attitude of working for a certain limited period of time before returning to their country of origin, e.g. when their children reach school age. Thus organisations tend to invest less in this segment and are willing to observe the local laws and accommodate the recruitment quota. However, it is reported that many employers do not classify locals as talents; rather, they are seen as workers to meet the regulatory localisation rules. To conclude, locals are embedded in the TM process without returning serious commitment, owing to not being offered development. This creates a real obstruction to achieving TM as based on the literature. The return of investment in domestic talent is not thought to be worthwhile. Nonetheless, the return of expectations may pay off in the long term. According to the EEO, the decoupling approach adopted in managing talents inhibits talented foreigners from being effectively included in TM and causes their disengagement from such TM initiatives.

3.3.5 Managing talent performance

Particularly in governmental organisations, attendance is monitored electronically and is used for performance appraisal. Table 3.2 displays a template that suggests difficulties with TM practices in the GCC setting:

1. The dynamics are different for local talent versus expatriate talent	Different motivational points, expatriates want financial compensation
	Different evaluation criteria
	Low willingness to develop foreign talent. They invest in ‘ready’ foreign talent

	Entitlement culture for locals
	Perceptions of inequality among expatriates
	Large turnover of local talent
	Lots of competition for foreign talent
	Compensation is not the key driver for local talent
2. The region lags behind in terms of TM	Only multinationals, for the most part, are able to manage a true TM process
	Most rated their companies as average or below average in terms of the TM process
	Divergence of practices between local companies and multinationals
3. Female talent has picked up but still lagging behind	Many inter-country differences
	Women have come a long way, but things are changing
	Saudi Arabia seems to be making slower developments
4. Traditional management styles pose an impediment to the development of a TM process	In terms of improving TM processes, the Arab Spring will not spill over to the corporate world
	Stereotyping talent
	The transition will be slow
	The General Manager as a Sheik in a sheikhocracy
	The Arab spring negatively impacted business operations in some Arab countries
	The link between TM and competitive advantage is not clear
	Nepotism and '*Wasta*' still pose a problem

Table 3.2. Sidani and Al Ariss's (2014) Research Template. Adapted from Sidani and Al Ariss (2014, 219)

3.4 Retention strategies in the GCC region

3.4.1 High performance work systems

High Performance Work Systems (HPWS) are integrated HR strategies that help to elevate organisational performance and contribute to employee retention, via reinforcing employee wellbeing (Qureshi 2019). Such practices include training, performance appraisal, promotions, recruitment, compensations, employee participation programmes (Huselid 1995; Boxall and Macky 2007), and employee autonomy. As encapsulated by Hartog and Verburg (2004) these practices were significantly related with talent retention through the employee commitment pathway – which is considered a retention-related concept – in select oil and gas companies across the GCC region. The ultimate results achieved were competitiveness and sustainability (Qureshi 2019). The following sections explicate how HPWS are employed to keep the best performers across organisations in the GCC region, and expose other critical aspects:

3.4.2 Incentives

Employers adopt different strategies to retain two-tier talent from the local and foreign workers pools, which poses a serious challenge to organisations in the region of GCC countries, as uncovered by Sidani and Al Ariss's (2014) study. Similarly, retaining talent involves short- and long-term strategies, in which nurturing high-potential talent, especially in the private service industry across the UAE, is attempted by offering competitive salaries over rivals, which can be called a short-term plan (Singh and Sharma 2015). Hence, while financial reward is a key factor in attracting both local and foreign workers, financial compensation remains the best way to attract and retain foreigners, as employers offer massive compensation in comparison to their home countries. Another attraction is that this region is considered politically stable. Al Ali (n.d.) found that expatriates are more satisfied than locals in their work. There is also the prospect that foreigners may be attracted by other employers, especially in the case of the UAE, as it is more difficult to move between jobs in other countries in the region, such as Qatar, owing to regulatory pressures (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014). However, findings from the Bayt.com Middle East and North Africa Salary Survey (2019), indicated that 36% of respondents claim that their loyalty is not attributed to benefits.

To Singh et al. (2012), in the context of GCC countries it is a top government priority to maintain the pay level of nationals, thereby sustaining their inflow. Consequently, some countries such as Saudi Arabia resort to raising the price of oil, which was $100 per barrel in 2012, in order to fulfil pay obligations; oil prices are predicted to continue to inflate to reach $320 per barrel by 2030. However, the gradual supply of national talent is expected to influence the differential pay scheme for nationals versus expatriates by the end of 2022, when further pressures are expected on government to reduce the incentives of nationals who work in the private zone, as well as to tax expatriates, in order to address vast variations in salary and expenses. Moreover, according to the UNDP's (2010) statistics, the gross domestic product (GDP) of locals' wages within the public sector in the GCC region constitutes 10%, although this segment represents a minority of demographic workers.

3.4.3 Evaluation criteria

In the same vein, the provision of performance rewards is another short-term strategy adopted by organisations in the UAE private sector to retain the best talent (from both indigenous and foreign workers). Organisations expect consistent commitment in return for such financial investment, as they offer above market pay (Singh and Sharma 2015). However, in contrast to the earlier findings of Gopalakrishnan (2002) and Idris (2009), another obstacle to implementing effective TM processes is the variance in performance evaluation criteria for talented nationals and foreigners; contextual forces impose easier treatment on national 'talented' workers in terms of assessing performance, compared to the stricter assessment of expatriates, according to Sidani and Al Ariss (2014). Such discrimination develops obvious inequities and does not inspire national talent to exert their potential; it even prompts organisations to neglect the capabilities of national talent to the point of being underutilised or even completely unutilised (Sidani and Al Ariss (2014). This also raises a concern about productivity, as unveiled by the Hay Group's (2012) study on the national talent of Saudi Arabia. This is in addition to lower national talent confidence, capabilities, and expectations in the workplace, as pointed by Singh et al. (2012). Some expatriates accept this situation as their salaries satisfy them, or they endorse their entitlement as being privileged for locals only. Hence the perception is that what they get is because of their country, as it is not provided by non-locals' countries of origin. Nevertheless, a lot of foreigners, such as workers from the United States of America and Europe, do not mind such entitlement for nationals as long as they themselves receive attractive salaries. Moreover, in most cases in the GCC region, the pay scheme is structured by talent nationality.

3.4.4 Stereotyping talent

As the GCC region consists of diverse workers and only particular nationalities have the opportunity to be selected as 'identified talent' in certain expertise or business, non-domestic talents are categorised as talented according to their nationalities. For instance, Indians are identified as accounting talents, whereas Lebanese talented workers are recruited to fit positions in marketing and sales. This stereotyping according to nationality is a major impediment to TM acquisition and development (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014).

3.4.5 Female talent

Although 'the region's women represent the most obvious latent talent pool in the region. Forty-eight percent of the GCC national population is female, and yet the workforce participation rate is only 19.2% female on average (EIU 2009),' despite most females being educated (Singh et al. 2012, 97). Sidani and Al Ariss's (2014) investigation shows that some countries reported an acceptable ratio of female workers, and it is evident that the talented female classification is recognised and managed in the case of UAE and Bahrain, where the UAE is considered a pioneer, as women workers are being appreciated and given opportunities to expand and reinforce their skills to occupy managerial roles. They hold positions as chief executive officers, division managers, department managers, and section heads. Yet, in Saudi Arabia, for instance, which has witnessed recent expansions in female talent, progress still lags behind. Cultural stereotypes tend to be dominant, which prevents the proper development of the region's women;

this is in addition to the Arab identity, which impacts national attitudes and approaches in the workplace (Singh et al. 2012). In Bahrain, however, talents are developed irrespective of being male or female. Another issue tackling the instigation of genuine female talent development is the unwillingness of female talent to take part in overseas development when such a delegation is arranged by their employer. This is due to social and religious restrictions requiring women to be in the company of male relatives, limited to husband, brother, or son. Social stereotyping can also be seen in local male workers' perceptions that it is inconvenient or undesirable to be managed by a female worker. Women managers also find this difficult, which is indicative of an obstacle to managing the talent landscape of workers in that region. Moreover, Sidani and Al Ariss's (2014) study uncovers that talented women are not even listed in TM programmes in some organisations within this context, which perhaps proves a lack or absence of firms' strategic planning and engagement in promoting female talent in the context of the GCC region.

3.4.6 Challenges for locals in coping with the private sector work demands and GCC 'entitlement' culture with respect to jobs

Most local talents find it challenging to fulfil the requirements of the corporate job market, as easier jobs are available and accessible in the governmental departments, with enhanced incentives and fewer working hours. Besides, the benefits offered by the social welfare system adopted by organisations for locals in the GCC region leads to substantial complications for firms operating in the private sector. There is a great deal of competition to acquire and retain national talent, and some private firms may offer equal or lesser packages for more difficult jobs. This trend (as seen in Saudi Arabia) makes it easier for locals to choose to work in public sector establishments. This is congruent to the view of Jones (2010) about locals being less engaged and less satisfied with jobs in the private sector and also converges with Singh et al.'s (2012) results, which revealed expatriates to be highly engaged, compared to national talent.

Some attribute this to a culture of local entitlement, which perhaps is another obstacle to developing a genuine TM process in the GCC region.

3.4.7 Leadership styles in the context of the GCC

Traditional management practices in this region, specifically in Arab business settings such as the GCC, constitute a barrier to the institution of a real TM process aimed at attracting, developing, and retaining the best talent (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014). The management style in this context incorporates what is known as '*wasta*,' which describes illegitimate use of authority and connections to attain personal or organisational goals, consistent with the findings of former studies by Cunningham and Sarayrah (1993), Hutchings and Weir (2006), and Sidani and Thornberry (2010; 2013). In addition, previous research emphasises the incompatible management attributes of the typical Arab leader, best depicted by a 'sheikh' metaphor (sheikhocracy) which describes the leader of a tribe – here as the general manager – (Ayubi 1990; Finlay et al. 2005) who 'expects absolute obedience and is not willing to be questioned' (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014, 221), which in turn undermines employers in developing a genuine framework for managing high potential talents. The above research illustrates this segment of employers, who are mainly the first generation of managers, whose fathers and grandparents worked as pearl hunters, fishermen, merchants, or in planting. Singh and Sharma (2015) affirm the above results in the UAE private service sector, and attribute retaining competent talent to the quality of leadership offered within the organisation. The same also mirrors a report by Ernst & Young's Office of Workforce Retention that pointed to ineffective supervisors or the 'bad bosses,' whose impact is the most significant driver to employee turnover (Singh and Sharma 2015). In line with the former argument, the following framework is proposed by Sidani and Al Ariss (2014).

Institutional Pressures	Organisational Challenges	HR Policies & Practices	TM Outcomes
• Coercive (–) • Mimetic (+) • Normative (–), (+) • Other pressures	Balance between legal legitimacy and economic legitimacy	• Decoupling: - e.g., creating shell companies - Hire locals in non-key positions - Two-tier HR systems • Strategic balance in TM practices	• Successful - Efficient and effective TM process - Employee engagement • Unsuccessful - Less effective TM process - Employee disengagement and high turnover

Table 3.3. A Framework for TM in the GCC Context. Adopted from Sidani and Al Ariss (2014:217)

3.5 National talent satisfaction in the context of the GCC

One theme from Aon Hewitt's (2011) study on the Middle East is that designations and job titles, as well as the hierarchical power of authority, are a statistically significant factor in motivating local talent. Therefore, organisations attempt to consider nurturing GCC national potentials via reward and recognition schemes. An efficient way to attract and keep them is the 'early mid-career' crisis which is a tendency among the middle leadership roles. On the other hand, the Qudurat report (Aon Hewitt 2011) shows that employee engagement rates have recently risen in the GCC region, compared to the Western context. The aforementioned study also reported that 'career progression' and 'training and development' are the top factors in driving nationals' engagement, also identified as long-term retention strategies in Singh and Sharma (2015), owing to their positive impact on attracting local talent, for example, through delegating them to higher educational institutions. Such talents are researchers, learners, and practitioners, as shown in companies in Asia, reported in Mok and Chan (2020). 'Pay and financial rewards' are classified as short-term retention strategies (Singh and Sharma 2015). China, for instance, adopts such strategies to climb the rigid developmental paths through inspiring learners' mobility and delegating its local talent to the Western institutions for internship. However, despite countries advocating and supporting the internationalisation of learning, it has been revealed that the above strategy was unsuccessful owing to 'cultural variance,' as experienced by Chinese expatriates. There were other critical social security issues, e.g. job placements and unemployment predictions in the local competitive market, as indicated in Mok and Chan (2020). Consequently, China could be pushed into playing catch-up with the mature system of education in the West.

In the GCC, pressures on the public sector may occur owing to excessive cash compensations, regarding which organisations ought to adapt distinct reward dynamics such as becoming 'an employer of choice' – a differentiated and broader psychological way to recognise GCC national potentials, remote from monetary reliance, especially in the private zone where wages are predicted to shrink to moderate levels in accordance with the evolving demographics in the region (Aon Hewitt 2011; Singh et al. 2012). For instance, evidence from selected establishments in the UAE private service zone, drawn from managerial male and female respondents, shows that strategies for 'employee value propositions' are not in place, in spite of the country's highly competitive market (Singh and Sharma 2015). Minchington (2006) defines an Employee Value Proposition (EVP) as the set of offerings and associations provided by an employer for certain candidates in return for their special skills, experiences and capabilities.

3.6 Research context: Abu Dhabi – the UAE (an overview)

Emerging strategic TM and empirical research reflects the need to consider the complexity of the contextual macro environment (regional level), in which firms develop TM strategies and take career decisions, according to Khilji et al. (2015) and Vaiman et al. (2018).

The UAE is a federation that was established by president Sheikh Zayed Bin Sultan Al Nahyan on 2 December 1971, after gaining independence from Britain. It is a constitutional federation located on the Arabian Peninsula and consists of seven states (emirates): Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Umm Al-Qaiwain, Ras Al-Khaima, and Fujairah. The political scheme is based on sheikdoms, yet it is a blend of Arab traditions with modern systems (Al-Oraimi 2004). There is a local government in each emirate, which encompasses its own municipalities and departments that possess financial autonomy (Abubakr 2006). The UAE is experiencing rapid development in infrastructure and growth in financial wealth (Dirani et al. 2018).

3.7 Strategic TM in the UAE

Despite the surge in research exploring practices in TM and talent development in various regions within the UAE, TM performance is based on the published reports of firms and HR practitioners. The UAE is passing through a noteworthy period of prosperity and growth. Firms operate in a distinct environment created by an intelligent government strategy and policies which classify the UAE as a TM destination. TM activities tend to be affected by a two-tier approach, one for UAE nationals and another for non-Emiratis, who are labelled as expatriates. This makes TM in the UAE a complex initiative in light of the policies which govern the implantation of TM processes (Dirani et al. 2018).

Of the ninety-three countries within the Global Talent Competitiveness Index (GTCI), the UAE is ranked twenty-second, and is first among MENA countries. The GTCI considers the country to be a ‘high income economy’ (GTCI) and its competitiveness lies in its strengths in attracting foreign talent (Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030, 2021). Drawbacks reside in the challenges to implanting and retaining Emirati talent (Dirani et al. 2018). In the meantime, Ulrichsen (2017) reported that the UAE devoted considerable attention to locals' training and education. For example, (Dirani et al. 2018, 483) the provision of coaching and mentorship was prioritised for Emirati workers within the primary Emiratisation scheme, 'a workforce nationalization program' (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner 2010), in compliance with Abu Dhabi government's Vision 2030. Emiratisation embodied urging employers in the private sector to consider Emirati candidates for positions, plus providing government-funded training and supports for nationals to help them perform in the private sector (Al-Waqfi and Forstenlechner 2014). Moreover, the UAE places emphasis on nationals' career development through education at elite business schools, such as Harvard, McGill, and Wharton. In turn, according to Daleure (2017), the state has markedly outperformed and progressed in education during the last decade. According to Haladay et al. (2016), the traditional functional paradigm of TM is embraced by the majority of organisations, while the UAE has been shifting to the strategic approach of TM. Inconsistencies between TM policies and implementation were attributable to the extreme rapidly transition of businesses, during the past five decades (de Waal and Frijns 2016), as well as the transient mood of employee populations in the country, in terms of worker mobility. Haladay and colleagues (2016, 123) revealed that all private and semi-governmental companies that participated in their study employ performance appraisals. The prevailing appraisal instrument is the 'traditional supervisor subordinate evaluation process,' in which high subjectivity can be integrated owing to '*wasta*,' as explained earlier, whilst some respondents disclosed their intention to use the multi-rater (360 degree) feedback in their plans. The UAE 'is not [a] typical Arab context' (de Waal and Frijns 2016, 236) and its operational approaches to TM almost correspond to the classification of Mondy's international model (IHRM), in which placement, recruitment, and staffing comply with IHRM's strategic resourcing activities. Moreover, although training functions as well as compensation and benefits are in alignment with IHRM's HR Development system, training and development – together with performance appraisal – are not analogous to the organisational succession plan, nor to the strategic TM development programme (IHRM). It was noted by Dirani et al. (2018) that the organisations studied tend to implement the best practices and West-based models from Singapore, USA, and Germany, except for fully achieving gender equality. In respect of the UAE practices to motivate employees, (Dirani et al. 2018) respondents reported delegating tasks, empowering, developing competence, facilitating working environment features of achievement and enrichment. However, Al Naqbi's (2011) exploratory study on HR practices and its relationship with employee retention within the UAE public sector organisations in Dubai and Sharjah, placed emphasis on decentralisation, accountability and empowerment, and the urgent need to reduce hierarchy. In addition, the study proposed the need to perform job redesign and equip employees with job descriptions to help them grasp the required tasks and how they are to be accomplished. In the same vein, Haladay et al. (2016) proposed that the main challenges confronted by HR managers in the Emirati setting are low retention and high turnover, cultural practices impacting on HR policies (Dirani et al. 2018), regulations and procedures, as well as the economic nature of the UAE, which operates across diverse economic sectors; in turn, this manifests a multiplicity of legal schemes (labour laws) so that HR and TM policies should be set and implemented subsequently. UAE organisations consist of two main types among the various sectors, as they recruit expatriates via acquisition and appointment with the organisation-specific skills, with the provision of minimal development avenues (external approach of resourcing), whilst recruiting Emiratis who are provided with extensive development (internal succession planning) (Dirani et al. 2018).

Based on the findings of GulfTalent (2016), reputable brand, interesting work, competitive salary and benefits, as well as training and development are the core dominant criteria for Emirati graduates to select an employer. Al Ali (n.d.) reported important strategies to increase the proportion of UAE nationals by 20% of total staff, such as emphasising motivation, empowerment and trust, career development, and implementing the 360-degree performance appraisal. Moreover, the aforementioned study reveals the need to apply and implement employment quotas for UAE candidates and inform cultural awareness across employees in the workplace, so as to increase retention of UAE nationals. In addition, it was reported that HR managers in the UAE and GCC region need to function more strategically, in line with fulfilling their special needs and attaining a competitive advantage (Gernal et al. 2012; Gernal et al. 2013; Haladay et al. 2016).

In the case of national workers' satisfaction within the private sector, Al Ali's (n.d., 14) study shows that Emirati talent at the private sector organisations is very satisfied (17%) with 'the annual leave entitlement,' 'amount of pay compared to other organisations,' 'strategy for achieving their career goal,' 'opportunity for promotion,' and 'chance to have their ideas listened to.' This is in addition to their satisfaction (16%) with 'the sense of achievement they get from the work' and 'the amount of hours worked in a week.'

3.7.1 Strategic TM within Abu Dhabi public sector

In spite of practitioners' and academics' efforts to highlight retention strategies, scant attention was seen towards employee retention within the Abu Dhabi public sector (Al Mheiri et al. 2021). The UAE public sector adopts several award schemes to promote a culture of excellence within UAE government by emphasising best practices. Examples are the Abu Dhabi Award for Excellence Performance Programme (ADAEP), and the Shaikh Khalifa Excellence Award Programme (SKEA). Such models are built on the European Foundation for Quality Management model in the quest to reverberate through employee retention and attain superior performance, as a result of inviting robust engagement, employee commitment, and high job satisfaction (EFQM). Therefore, STM is significant to the Abu Dhabi Vision 2030 goal of ‘becoming one of the best governments in the world,’ as talent retention contributes to leveraging the country’s economy, organisational performance, and competitiveness (Al Mheiri et al. 2021, 76; Kassem et al. 2016). Similarly, the UAE Strategy for Talent Attraction and Retention is: ‘positioning the UAE among the top ten countries in the global talent competitiveness indices; ensuring the availability of talents across all strategic sectors; cementing the UAE’s image as an ideal destination for living and working’ (The UAE Government Portal for Living, Working, Visiting and Investing 2022). Moreover, ‘Embedded within Vision 2021 was a plan to develop a knowledge-based economy in which growth is driven by research, development, and innovation and the creation of internationally competitive high value-added economic sectors’ (Ulrichsen 2017, 125), whereby knowledge-sharing is a crucial determinant in employee retention and leads to positive workforce attitude (Jabeen and Al Dar 2020). Knowledge-sharing constitutes strategies for effective communication, policies, and approaches aimed at sustaining the firm’s competitive edge. Knowledge management is therefore a strategic tool employed by employers to enhance teams’ motivation levels (Surbakti and Ta’a 2016). Al Mehrzi and Singh’s (2016) conceptual study demonstrated the significant impact of engaging employees in enhancing retention levels in UAE public sector, where knowledge management and the organisational culture affect employee engagement and consequently the rate of retention (Al Mheiri et al. 2021).

Al-Ali (n.d.) introduced the obstacle to expatriates passing on their knowledge to UAE nationals, along with some suggested strategies offered by study participants; for instance, tying reward schemes for expatriate employees to their involvement in training the Emirati workforce. This could be augmented by applying extra benefits to expatriates for successful training after measuring the UAE nationals’ obtained knowledge. Furthermore, the study encouraged promoting the education of UAE nationals in media or newspapers, as well as stimulating expatriates' commitment and role towards their organisation, and increasing the knowledge of the UAE society contractually with commensurate rewards. Furthermore, the study emphasised implementing an agreed career development plan for UAE locals to support their learning at work. This is in addition to building trust and reinforcing communication with expatriates to motivate them to pass on their knowledge.

Employment in the public sector is seen as preferable for workers in the UAE, with Emirati graduates in particular selecting government organisations (63%) according to GulfTalent (2016). However, according to Al-Ali (n.d.), Yang and Samiha (2001) and Freek (2004), Emirati candidates lack skills and experience, have limited English language skills and qualifications, lack motivation and the relevant attitudinal and behavioural traits. For these reasons they do not prefer workplaces in which competences play a critical role, such as many in the private sector. Employability of national female workers faces impediments because of their commitment to family, societal norms, family formation, and challenges to maintaining modesty (Marmenout and Lirio 2014). Nationals dominate the public sector in the UAE, while migrant workers control the private zone (Dirani et al. 2018). However, the UAE government started to engage Emirati workers in the private sector by allocating grants to support locals' education, development, and integration within that sector (Sidani and Thornberry 2013). GulfTalent (2016) reported that Emiratis choose government establishments as their first working option for work-life balance, job security, and for being an Islamic environment. Also, salaries differ between expatriates and Emiratis, in that Emirati graduates get triple the salary received by their expatriate counterparts. These findings provide a clearer picture of the war for Emirati talent in the UAE, from which it is clear that retaining talented employees is harder than hiring them (Deo 2014). According to Al Saleh (2014), the UAE needs executives within the public sector to expand employee retention.

In respect of ranking the determinants and strategies for retention, Ibrahim (2015) explored the effectiveness of the retention approaches in place for UAE nationals across three Islamic banks within the UAE: Dubai Islamic Bank, Noor Islamic Bank, and Sharjah Islamic Bank, all of which follow the government regulations. The above study assessed monetary benefits as being the most effective retention strategy, followed by the work environment, and friendly managers and team. The least preferred strategies were respondents' satisfaction towards performance appraisal, the organisational commitment, and the arrangement of social and community events. Al Mheiri et al.'s (2021) model was generated from a qualitative study on the UAE Public Healthcare Sector (PHS). This study utilised the Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) model employed for decision-making of predetermined multi-criteria (Saaty 2012), to rank the selected variables and emphasise the most influential criteria for talent decisions to remain in the organisation. The study concluded both corresponding and diverse results towards the following three similarly employed factors. That is, their study yielded differentiating motivating factors based on the various specialisms (e.g. researchers, medical staff, administrators). For instance, recognition in terms of financial and non-financial rewards were the top priority factor in retention for non-clinical staff at UAE PHS. Career development was ranked the most important variable for clinical staff to work for the long term at PHS, whilst empowerment was found the most influential strategy to nurture and retain medical researchers at PHS. However, performance management, organisational culture, and job satisfaction factors were not included in Al Mheiri et al.'s (2021) study.

As far as national workers' satisfaction is concerned, Al-Ali (n.d., 14) reported UAE nationals' satisfaction within the public sector. The study shows that Emirati talent at public sector organisations is very satisfied with 'the annual leave entitlement' at (43%), followed by 'the amount of hours worked in a week' at (28%), then 'the opportunity for promotion' at (14%). However, it has been demonstrated that other factors do not elicit the satisfaction of local talent; for example, ‘Chance to have their ideas listened [to],’ ‘the amount of pay compared to other Organisations,’ as well as ‘the strategy for achieving their career goal.’

3.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed strategic TM within the GCC public sector, in the UAE and finally, in ADG. It was apparent that the strategic TM discipline is limited in the above settings by a number of factors. These include the fact that it is Western-designed and its concepts have not yet accounted for the cultural contexts of other regions. The GCC and the UAE have specific characteristics that affect their approach to business, strategic TM, and the attraction and retention of talent.

The UAE is moving towards strategic TM while most organisations in the region still take a more traditional TM or HR approach. The UAE has a two-tier employment system, consisting of locals and foreigners, referred to as expatriates. The economy in the region is thriving, but has gone through considerable changes over five decades, and Emiratis need to be encouraged to stay in their jobs and thrive in a knowledge-based environment in order for organisations to grow and gain a competitive advantage. A nationalisations scheme was put into place for this reason, to encourage the hiring, development and retention of local talent.

There is a perceived need in the UAE to adopt strategic TM in order to gain a competitive advantage, but at times management may pretend to espouse TM while struggling to implement it. Nonetheless, both traditional HR and strategic TM are used to attract and retain talent. Different approaches are taken to domestic and expatriate talent, however. Expatriate talent has been found to be more motivated by financial rewards, whereas national talent responds to other kinds of rewards, including recognition and development opportunities, such as education. The UAE has invested in international education for its national talent. Its goal is to educate, attract, retain, and develop. The approach to national talent is long-term, as they are perceived as having a lower capacity, especially in the private sector. Women are a growing part of the workforce, including in management roles, but owing to cultural norms, some male employees resist being supervised by a woman. Some overseas development opportunities may also be less available (or less appealing) to women owing to religious and family concerns.

Expatriates are offered fewer development opportunities than local talent. They are seen as more skilled to begin with, and to be primarily motivated by monetary compensation. In addition, they are likely to change jobs more often.

In Abu Dhabi, award schemes and knowledge investment are strategic tools to attract and develop talent. Hence the stress on education. It has proved difficult to motivate expatriates to pass on their knowledge to local talent, as they tend to have less affective attachment to the organisation. Performance evaluations are a common HR tool used in organisations and can be used to increase employee engagement. The structure of most organisations tends to be hierarchical, with a traditional performance evaluation, but some organisations say they intend to use the 360˚ approach in line with a more strategic TM orientation. There is a need to reduce hierarchy and increase accountability.

Abu Dhabi local talent finds the public sector more appealing, with good salaries, shorter hours, and less stress. It has been observed that there is a culture of entitlement that discourages Emiratis from working in the private sector, but as the economy changes there is an increasing need to be competitive in the private sector as well as the public. Knowledge-sharing has been found to be a strategic tool that increases employee commitment, and is increasingly important in the UAE, as exemplified by ADG Vision 2030. All the above factors were discussed in relation to shaping strategic TM and implementation to yield effective results for the region, and ADG.

CHAPTER FOUR: THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR THE RESEARCH

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present the theoretical grounds established to propose a conceptual model for the context of the public service sector in the UAE. It first recapitulates the theories and models that have been adopted from the existing body of knowledge and the contemporary discipline on strategic TM. This is in order to identify the relevant variables, translate and develop them into study constructs, then derive consistent hypotheses for the purpose of examining the significant factors influencing talent retention and their intentions to leave.

4.2 Theories and model adoption for this study

There are different theories on the topic of strategic TM. Building on Collings and Mellahi's (2009) TM framework, SET theory, RBV framework, and the talent pipeline (CIPD 2007; Tarique and Schuler 2010; Anlesinya et al. 2019), and acknowledging that all theories have limitations, this research is using an integrated theories notion to add strength and robustness to its proposed investigative model, in order to reach a balanced approach to TM, in Greenwood and Miller (2010)'s terms, and to employ multiple theoretical lenses. Therefore, the researcher has adapted the most salient aspects and developed a working model for the ADG.

4.2.1 Theoretical model – Collings and Mellahi's (2009) TM framework

As anticipated from the literature, different TM dimensions connect in order to form an appropriate TM strategy. After revising the literature, and owing to the lack of robust theoretical models for TM, the proposed research framework is inspired by Collings and Mellahi's (2009) theoretical development for TM. Alongside Armstrong (2009), Collings and Mellahi's (2009) model emphasises identifying key positions. Their developed model (Figure 2.2, in chapter 2) also attempted to fill the gap of Ashton and Morton's (2005) model, which was criticised for its lack of focus on HR practices such as recruitment, succession planning, and leadership development. The model shown below was also inspired by Boudreau and Ramstad (2007), to emphasise positioning TM as a new science of HRM, by differentiating it from traditional HR strategies. Hence, the model draws wide attention to 'pivotal positions' and imparts strategy sense, to focus on those high performers, and those who contribute to sustaining the firm's competitive advantage. This model explains the differentiated HR role in attaining optimum outcomes such as work motivation, organisational commitment, and exerting the extra-role behaviour, which in turn leads to fulfil targeted organisational performance through work competence (Becker and Huselid 2006).

4.2.2 CIPD talent pipeline

In addition to Collings and Mellahi's (2009) model elaborated above, the theoretical foundation of this research involves the CIPD (2007) talent pipeline, Tarique and Schuler (2010) and Anlesinya et al. (2019), which comprises TM interventions, e.g. TM planning and resourcing, the leadership development programme, appraising and retaining executive talent. Because Collings and Mellahi's (2009) model lacks the activities involved in human resource management, in order to demonstrate HR practices to nurture and retain executive talents, the components of TM included in the talent pipeline were chosen as the most relevant dimensions for this strand of research. These dimensions allow for an exploration of talent retention and engagement rates, and foreseeing turnover intentions within public organisations, in the current context of Abu Dhabi (the UAE), which has scarce executive talent supply and inefficient leadership development. Therefore, some TM tools have a special focus on the talent pool as the source of sustainable competitive advantage, according to Latukha's (2016) findings on recruiting, rewarding, deploying, developing, engaging, retaining, and appraising talents – the core functions implemented by human resource management. This is together with leadership development and succession planning, which are the more powerful instruments, according to Contractor (2013). Yet talent recruiting, tracking, and exiting talent activities were not investigated in this study owing to them being less relevant and relatively complex axes; in addition, they would require access to sensitive information in the sophisticated context of the UAE.

Figure 4.1. The Talent Pipeline. Adopted from CIPD (2007).

4.2.3 Social exchange theory – Blau's (1964) framework for the social exchange relationship

This research is underpinned by Social Exchange Theory (SET), as the most cited conceptual framework to analyse behaviour in the workplace since the 1920s; it refers to the relationship between the rewards offered by corporates internalised by employees, and 'normative' obligations, or the way employees perceive these incentives, which is also known as the psychological contract (Mauss 1925). The theory proposes that when employers invest in their workforce, the employees are most likely to react positively to reciprocate the given investments – 'employers' good deeds' – and to meet employers' expectations (Blau 1964; Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). In other words, how talents respond to TM practices as cited in Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) could be deemed the focal notion of this thesis, having the implied mediating role of the social exchange relationship (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). That is, when an employer cares about its staff and supports their contribution through future development, employees are more willing to appreciate their employers' goodness, and this will be reflected in their behaviour and attitude immediately. Moreover, empirical research revealed a significant relationship between the organisational incentives and personnel contribution (Rousseau 1990; Shaw et al. 2009).

As to SET, the identification of who is talent has a positive association with attitudinal outcomes, such as accepting increased performance demands, supporting the organisational strategic initiatives and commitment to acquire essential competencies, as well as lowering turnover intentions (Bjorkman et al. 2013). Similarly, Eisenberger et al.'s (1997) research was built on perceived organisational support theory (POS) to test employees' behaviour in regard to their perceptions on how the organisation values their role and supports their well-being. On the other hand, this classification will negatively influence those who do not possess talent status, in terms of their behaviour and performance level as claimed by Boxall and Macky (2009), because they perceive it as a breach of the psychological contract by the organisation (Zhao et al. 2007). Individuals who are formally ranked as the high potential or singled out 'talents' react with rare and exceptional performance and play a pivotal role in hitting the organisational performance targets (Bjorkman et al. 2013), in accordance with SET and Riggle et al.'s (2009) study, which found a relationship between the employer's support (as perceived by the employee) and the individual's performance. According to Collings and Mellahi (2009), talent performance is stressed and perceived as a top priority by corporations. Collings (2014) asserts that talent contributions are valued by their employer and returned back as 'Employee Value Proposition' (EVP). Bell (2005) perceives that developing competitive an Employee Value Proposition would be reciprocal, in directing talent expectations towards their valuable efforts.

Thus, this study argues that nurturing leadership talent (by means of inducements: extrinsic and intrinsic rewards such as career progression and developmental support; engaging employees; and compensations (tangible/ financial) tends to lead to talent staying in the organisation as an illustration of loyalty. Similarly, this research discusses the fact that employers' initiation in returning the best performers' contribution - through the development of reasonable and credible EVP - can be valued by talents.

4.2.4 Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory

Vroom's (1964) motivational theory, which is classed as process theory, focuses on behaviour, and is recognised for its attention to decision-making and leadership. In this sense, an employer fulfilling its promises will have an impact on increasing talent motivation, satisfaction, and performance, provided that talents gain what they were promised. 'Valences' are the appeals of proposed remuneration, sequences or motivations, which employees can expect to receive for the distinct contribution they believe they are capable in delivering. This belief is known as 'expectancy,' and the promise itself is 'instrumentality.' This theory intends to prove the notion that workers will decide to exert additional efforts in their working behaviour based on their motivation and beliefs about having a positive outcome in the form of valued rewards. So, TM requires thoughtful planning, in which immense emphasis is attributed to the significance of motivational factors (the catalyst) in developing a sustainable talent pipeline, as concluded by Benoy and Gracias's (2015) descriptive study on reforming the process of STM in the real estate sector, through identifying the relevant strategies to TM that were addressed in the specific array of suitable competences. Motivation is essential to organisations, particularly their managers. Seiler et al. (2011) developed a Motivational Factor Inventory model (MFI) in which motivation was found to be influential in retaining project managers. Factors identified as primary motivators were: working within a goal-oriented team, job meaningfulness, the availability of essential information, HR and budget, and the prospect of getting involved in decisions. Researchers note that monetary benefits were ranked the least influential motivator for project managers. Moreover, it was stated that talent development via providing training programmes that 'emphasize and activate a goal oriented performance motivation strategies act as the catalyst to the relationship between talent development and talent implementation for project management.' As such, these motivational programmes help attain the anticipated organisational pertinent objectives (Benoy and Gracias 2015, 73). Motivation is a key element which is harnessed by firms to foster the abilities of talents who were identified within the organisation; in addition, it helps manage organisational competitiveness (AlMannai et al. 2017)

4.2.5 Resource-based view (RBV) theory – Coff (1997)

According to Coff (1997), RBV theory depicts talents (the specialised individuals with unique abilities) as a strategic (Dries 2013), resource-based advantage to the organisation. The core tenet of RBV framework is to demonstrate that the inclusion of this special human asset contributes to, or is the core player in (Dries 2013) sustaining the competitive advantage (Wright et al. 1994; Dries 2013) and therefore organisations adopt TM to hunt, leverage, and assure such valued resources (Sparrow and Makram 2015). In this sense, it is imperative to consider voluntary talent turnover with the assistance of the strategic TM (Hatch and Dyer 2004). RBV was extensively supported by previously held studies on HRM and TM practices associated with individual behaviour and organisational outcomes, as in Cook et al.'s (2008) meta-analysis (Luna-Arocas et al. 2020). Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2015) examined TM publications and found RBV the predominantly used theoretical underpinning. Thunnissen and Gallardo-Gallardo (2017) hold that an effective TM exhibits a crucial role in maintaining long-term organisational sustainability, achieving a competitive edge, and improving business prosperity. Ambrosius's (2018) research urges that an effective STM be set up for turnover management of its valuable human assets (those with unique, inimitable abilities), in order to achieve the targeted advantage. Therefore, this can be achieved when those distinctive individuals are labelled by the employer with '*specificity, social complexity, and causal ambiguity*' (Ambrosius 2018, 55).

With regard to Riordan and Williamson's (1985) theory of *firm specificity*, Coff and Kryscynski (2011) find this to be the higher level of an individual's necessity to the organisation than to other competitors, which makes them less valuable in the view of those other businesses. In turn, it is envisaged that tailoring human assets to the particular firm will more likely lower their mobility since they will possess specific requirements aligned to the particular business. Moreover, as regards the RBV perspective, performance-driven rewards will increase firm specificity by linking employee performance to labour retention. This is because those individuals whose work is recognised by means of financial compensation are more willing to acquire business-specific competencies (Ambrosius 2018). *Social complexity* implies the level to which human assets are combined with the current business's complex systems that are difficult to imitate and, therefore, limit talents' mobility by weakening their value to other competitors (Ambrosius 2018). *Causal ambiguity*, however, is the extent to which a human asset is associated with the firm's performance (Lippman and Rumelt 1982). It is considered that rival companies will find it challenging to approach skilled employees who possess the esoteric knowledge valued by the organisation, because theses competencies are embedded and ambiguous for both the employer as well as competitors (Coff and Kryscynski 2011). Likewise, positive results were seen in retaining talent when employee capabilities were recognised by their leaders as key business resources (Zhang et al. 2015).

Therefore, this research argues that the inclusion of human capital in STM practices is the focal point in leveraging talent retention, to proactively manage and mitigate talent mobility or departure. This is to examine the efficiency of STM instruments in achieving business strategic goals and objectives. The section below is a succinct summary of relevant TM theories employed for the purpose of the study:

Sr.	Theory/Model/ Framework	Merits	Shortfalls
1.	Collings and Mellahi's (2009) TM philosophies/ framework	• Theoretical development model for TM. • TM is distinct from the traditional HR strategies. • Emphasis on motivators for excellent performance: work motivation, commitment, and the extra-role behaviour	Lacks HR practices to retain executive talents.
2.	CIPD Talent Pipeline (2007)	• HR bundle of practices implied in talent pipeline supports talent retention and engagement and assist in predicting turnover. • Comprising leadership development and succession planning to be found as the more powerful instruments, as per Contractor (2013).	No shortfalls identified by proponents
3.	Social Exchange Theory (SET) – Blau's (1964) Framework for Social Exchange Relationship	• Considering employee behaviour in light of their perceptions on how the organisation values their role and supports their wellbeing. • Emphasis on the variables intervening in the relationship between the employer and talent. • The psychological contract (Mauss 1925). • The returned talent's expectation by 'Employee Value Proposition (EVP)' (Collings 2014).	• The theory demonstrates the return of talent expectation when he/she performs beyond expectations, then are labelled 'talent.' However, this classification will negatively impact on others' 'non-talent' behaviour and performance (Boxall and Macky 2009). • 'Non-talent' may perceive this as discrimination and a breach of the psychological contract (Zhao et al. 2007).

Sr.	Theory/Model/ Framework	Merits	Shortfalls
		• The organisational support theory (Eisenberger et al. 1997) • This research employs the social exchange as a mediator to sustain talent's retention.	
4.	Resource-Based View (RBV) Strategy Theory – Coff (1997)	• The role of strategy to identify, locate and utilise the valuable internal resources to minimise voluntary turnover. • Knowledge as resources centres the strategic position (Grant 1996). • Gaining competitive advantage and superior performance by means of STM criteria: "specificity, social complexity, and causal ambiguity" approaches. • The inclusion of human capital in STM who are retained by organisations for their organisation-specific skills and capabilities; they are non-substitutable. • According to RBV, the competitive advantage is sustained only when diversity in the resources arise. • Recognising competences possessed by talent as the key business resources reported positive results in retaining talent (Zhang et al. 2015).	• Although prominently disseminated in strategic management research it limits relevant resources from managers (Penrose 1959). • The definition of 'resource' is unfeasible here, and it implicitly means the organisational resources that aids the business's competitive advantage, rather than the normal resources in this sense. • Such resources are costly, but the investment is worthy as they are scarce, highly immobile, unique and inimitable (Barney 1991).

Table 4.1. STM Relevant Theories, developed by the researcher.

4.3 Rationale for the integrated constructs/model

The constructs were selected according to the research perspectives that the factors being explored are highly effective and are positioned as core stimuli offered by organisations to mitigate talent turnover intentions, to support talents and leverage their retention rates, and sustain the flow of such a corporate pool, in alignment with the essential competencies required for the business. Van et al. (2009) found that firms can assist the strategically aligned behaviour of talent within teams through implementing practices such as supporting their competencies development (via leadership development), informing them (via employee performance appraisal) and stimulating their motivation (via satisfaction activities). In addition, Bjorkman et al. (2013) argue that positive results are most likely yielded in organisational identification/membership, pertaining to employee loyalty and belonging, and the way in which employees identify with their employers (Mael and Ashforth 1992), having been identified themselves as talents. Such results can include increasing talent motivation and self-esteem, as indicated by Ashforth et al. (2008). Hence, a talent satisfaction construct was employed in this study for its coherence and association with talent turnover. Furthermore, the main players in this thesis are talents, and as cited by Van Riel et al. (2009); talent identification underlies their attention to the terms implied in their psychological contract (Rousseau and Greller, 1994) and shapes their behaviours to support business strategic goals in return for the desired rewards (via the *retention* strategies construct), as also reported by Bowen and Ostroff (2004). Furthermore, according to Zhang et al. (2015), *leadership behaviour* affects talent retention strategies, in addition to its impact on talent satisfaction as claimed by Yousef (2000a). Babalola et al.'s (2016) study revealed that the leadership style elevates talent flow and mitigates their mobility and turnover intentions, via social learning and employee organisational belonging which, in turn, reinforces employee self-esteem. In addition, managers' approaches to leadership were reported as the primary predictor in measuring employee turnover in organisations, owing to trust in a direct manager and perceived individual performance (Ariyabuddhiphongs and Kahn 2017; Dimaculangan and Aguiling 2012). The inclusion of a leadership behaviour construct is vital [in addition to cultural sensitivities or UAE local cultural idiosyncrasies to be integrated within the emerging Arab Middle Eastern HR Model (Afiouni et al., 2013)] in its impact on employee turnover in emerging economies such as the context of the study. As argued by Mulki et al. (2015) it may hinder the STM function supporting organisational strategic priorities.

4.4 Constructs' relationships

As regards D'Amato and Herzfeldt's (2008) research exploring the relationship between management development, organisational commitment, and retention strategies among executives of various generations in Europe, the findings revealed that *organisation commitment and managers' development orientation* have a positive influence on managers' attitudes towards staying in the organisation. In contrast, younger executives were less likely to stay owing to their low rates of commitment compared to the old generations. The inferred results were related to their orientation for skills acquisition, career development, and progression (Klein et al. 2006). Bethke-Langenegger et al.'s (2011) study found significant relationships and a positive influence on retaining talents and job satisfaction. Poorhosseinzadeh and Subramaniam (2012) reported a positive and significant relationship of all the independent variables inclusive in TM, such as attracting, deploying, developing and retaining talents, and succession planning, as determinants of a successful TM system in Malaysia, with the dependent variable being successful TM.

4.5 Chapter summary

This research is about TM strategies, which stimulate talents to stay in the organisation and maintain a distinct pool of talent competences, in order to assist and achieve the desired organisational outcomes in terms of competitive advantage and merit performance. The theoretical framework is the basis of the research, which is a theory-driven structure of how the researcher conceptualises the research topic, including the fundamental concepts which provide a guide for the whole study. The conceptual framework is a mixture of key concepts and core principles implied in the best practices, including protocols and procedures which have guided the researcher in carrying out the investigation. The conceptual framework is the structure underlying the main tenets of the research such as its components, constructs, factors, and variables according to the researcher's endeavours in exploring a particular phenomenon. The theoretical framework of this thesis is built on Social Exchange Theory (SET), Collings and Mellahi's (2009) model and the talent pipeline by the CIPD (2007), Tarique and Schuler (2010) and Anlesinya et al. (2019). RBV emphasises embedding human assets in TM practices to achieve and sustain the desired competitive advantage, where the combination of the TM model, SET, RBV theories, talent pipeline, and others produces a proposed theoretical model that attempts to add the strength of each aspect and to overcome the related limitations.

CHAPTER FIVE: METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, a contextualised framework was presented to conceptualise the impact of TM practices and other extraneous variables on talent's retention at ADG departments. In this section, the research methodology and methods, embraced by this study, will be outlined, discussed and justified. Therefore, it explains the research methodological perspectives and the adoption of an appropriate research philosophy, which influences the researcher's choice of philosophical approach, design, sampling adaptations, and structured methods for the research itself.

A combination of survey and correlational design of quantitative research is then critically explained and justified for this study, based on its principal aims, with objectives set accordingly. In addition, this section outlines epistemological and ontological considerations. Eventually, ethical issues and relevant principles followed by the researcher are involved and demonstrated. A summary is offered at the end of this chapter.

5.2 Research components

Social science is the interaction of inquirer and phenomenon (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, 107). The research approach comprises three main components: (1) the research's philosophical assumptions, (2) the research's distinct design, and (3) the applied methods, according to Creswell (2014). Each element will be explained discretely.

5.2.1 Research philosophy

The research philosophy is the paradigm or the basic belief foundation that guides the inquiry and influences the inquirer's conceptions of acts within the society where the investigation is undertaken. Knowledge in research philosophy is a crucial aid in determining the research identified design (Denzin and Lincoln 2018).

To fulfil the research objectives, philosophies were explored and highlighted to identify the most appropriate underpinning philosophy for the research in question. Making the research philosophy explicit is essential because it informs the research paradigm (Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). Philosophy is also known by proponents as a paradigm that varies in terminology, definition, content, or inclusion, with no assertion or merits pertaining to one over the other counterpart, since they are all constructed by the human mind and are, hence, error-prone (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Nevertheless, to advocate the adoption of a philosophy, the choice should be based on persuasiveness as well as on the appropriateness for the utility of a paradigm (Guba and Lincoln 1994). A paradigm is the fundamental set of beliefs that directs actions, developed by humans to determine the worldview of inquirers (Guba 1990, 17; Denzin and Lincoln 2018). A research paradigm is a way of studying social phenomena to gain specific understanding and explanations (Creswell 2003; Anderson 2004; Easterby-Smith et al. 2008; Collis and Hussey 2009; Johnson and Gill 2010). Similarly, research philosophy involves the adopted strategy that frames the choices of philosophical posture and the related approach that lead and guide the researcher to address the issue being investigated (Gray 2014; Saunders et al. 2009). Research philosophy is also consequential to the social science phenomenon (Holden and Lynch 2004). However, according to Hughes and Sharrock (1997), a research philosophy can be perceived as epistemology, ontology, and axiology. Blumberg et al. (2011) assert that research philosophy is a term related to knowledge development and the nature of this knowledge (Cunliffe 2011), together with data collection methods that are employed to investigate certain phenomena, with the purpose of acquiring knowledge (ibid). Complementary to this, as derived from the literature, TM is viewed as a phenomenon-driven topic. Creswell (2014) calls the research philosophy the 'worldview', which is also termed 'paradigm,' as pointed out earlier (Lincoln et al. 2011), or epistemologies and ontologies in Crotty (1998). This is also referred to as 'foundationalism' in Hughes and Sharrock (1997), and even more broadly evolved as 'research methodologies' according to Neuman (2009). A paradigm is all the intrinsically encompassed dimensions of any research, i.e. the pattern, convenient framework/model, system, or structure of research venture, which denotes a broader belief or assumptions about reality and acquiring knowledge and philosophy referred to a narrower belief (Guba and Lincoln 1998). Research philosophy implies important assumptions about the way in which the researcher views the world. In turn, research philosophy stems from the beliefs the investigator espouses, which lead and guide the researcher in how the research should be undertaken (Saunders et al. 2009). In summation, it has been substantiated that the philosophical stance considerably varies in definition between authors and may also differentiate in the distinct disciplines (Khothari 2004). It is worth mentioning that no consensus has been reached pertaining to the meanings, definitions, or sequences of the philosophical postures among research devotees, except for the positivism stance, based on Guba and Lincoln (1994), because philosophies are regarded as in their formative phases.

Epistemology, ontology, and methodology are the three main paradigms used by proponents in defining positions of the inquiries (Guba and Lincoln 1994), and in which they influence the investigator about the chosen process of the inquiry, according to Saunders et al. (2009). Other assumptions discussed by researchers are the inquirer's axiological posture, which illustrates the role of the values the inquirer possesses in influencing their choices and decisions pertaining to the way the research is being undertaken (Bryman and Bell 2007; Dawson 2009; Denzin and Lincoln 2018; Saunders et al. 2009).

5.2.1.1 Themes of knowledge and basic beliefs of alternative inquiry paradigms

The basic belief system guides the inquiry in terms of the primary ontological and epistemological and methodological choices. Table 5.1, in addition to Table 4.1, will be the central reference and will be illustrated in the following sections that debate the assumptions of an inquiry philosophy.

Item	Positivism	Post-positivism	Critical Theory et al.	Constructivism
Ontology	Naive realism – 'real' reality	Critical realism – 'real' reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible.	Historical realism – virtual reality shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, and gender values; crystallised over time	Relativism-local and specific constructed realities
Epistemology	Dualist/objectivism; findings true	Modified dualist/ objectivist; critical tradition/ community; findings probably true	transactional/ subjectivist; value-mediated findings	Transactional/ subjectivist; created findings
Methodology	Experimental/ manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly quantitative methods	Modified experimental/ manipulative; critical multiplism; falsification of hypotheses; may include qualitative methods	Dialogic/ dialectical	Hermeneutical/ dialectical

Table 5.1. Basic Beliefs (Metaphysics) of Alternative Inquiry Paradigms. Adapted from Guba and Lincoln (1994:109).

5.2.1.1.1 Ontological consideration

(Two main paradigms: objectivism and interpretivism)

Ontology tackles the nature of reality (Creswell 2007; Denzin and Lincoln 2018). It considers issues relating to 'how things really are' (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 108), the way in which the world functions (Saunders et al. 2009), and the approach in which the inquirer operates in the process of seeking knowledge (Schwandt 2007); put simply, it asks ‘what exists or what is reality?’ together, with the study of reality that exists (Denzin and Lincoln 2018). Two dominant aspects of the ontological standpoint and the debate among authors are objectivism and subjectivism (Saunders et al. 2009; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). They are both credible generators of valid knowledge in the view of many inquirers (Saunders et al. 2009; Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). ‘Objectivism is an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors. It implies that social phenomena and the categories that we use in everyday discourse have an existence that is independent or separate from actors’ (Bryman and Bell 2011, 21). Therefore, the focal point of the ontological position is whether, in reality, the tangible objects are viewed external to the social performers. As this consideration is labelled as objectivism, the assumption purports that reality is independent and is available outside the inquiry, where the researcher attempts to uncover truth or phenomena without influencing or cramping the reality being sought (Denzin and Lincoln 2011). For instance, when we say reality is independent from actors in that reality, so in the pursuit of conceptualising the organisation and personnel (management itself with the external stakeholders), the organisation tends to be an objective entity of reality and the employees are regarded as the social actors inhabiting that organisation. However, the organisation constrains its staff's actions by its formal policies, rules, procedures, organisational structure, values, etc., and thus it is the sole role of the workers to abide by those regulations without participation or influence. In contrast, subjectivism’s ontological position can be called ‘interpretivism,’ which ‘asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors. It implies that social phenomena and categories are not only produced through social interaction but that they are in a constant state of revision’ (Bryman and Bell, 2011, 22).

Contrary to the perspective of subjectivism, objectivism does not regard the organisation as an external reality with a considerable degree of constraint. There is a general emphasis with regard to subjectivism here on ‘the active role of individuals in the social construction of social reality’ (Bryman and Bell 2011). Therefore, objective reality or social phenomena are socially created and continually constructed as a result of perspectives and actions taken by the social actors who are associated with their presence (Saunders et al. 2009; Bryman and Bell 2011). Table 5.2 explains the extent of objectivism and subjectivism classification of ontology under four different type.

	- Objectivism +		- Subjectivism +	
Ontology	**Realism**	**Internal Realism**	**Relativism**	**Nominalism**
Truth	Single truth	Truth exists, but is obscure	There are many truths	There is no truth
Fact	Facts exist and can be revealed	Facts are concrete, but cannot be accessed directly	Facts depend on viewpoint of observer	Facts are all human creation

Table 5.2. Four different ontologies. Adopted from (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012, 19).

Building on such discussions and the information now contained in Table 5.2, Burrell and Morgan (1979) associated the above two classifications of ontology introduced by Saunders et al. (2009) and Easterby-Smith et al. (2012), so the definition of objectivism consideration is interwoven with realism and internal realism (depending on the degree +/– i.e. strong objectivist, etc.). Similarly, subjectivism is embodied with nominalism and relativism (depending on the degree +/–, i.e. strong subjectivist, etc.).

With regard to the main two research paradigms (Positivism and Interpretivism), when linking them with an ontological stance, positivism is associated with objectivism and interpretivism is associated with subjectivism, as elaborated in Table 5.3:

Positivism	Interpretivism
Single reality is presumed to exist.	There is no reality.
Reality is assumed and generalising knowledge is achieved time- and context-free. Taken to seek for relationship between two concepts (cause–effect form).	Reality varies according to the context. Reality is constructed within a particular context.
Objectivism: The inquirer is distant from reality; in other words, reality is outside the knower's mind.	Subjectivism: The inquirer ought to involve themselves with the context to enable them to interpret reality.

Table 5.3. Differences between two research paradigms (positivism and Interpretivism). Developed by the author.

5.2.1.1.2 Epistemological consideration

Epistemology is a branch of philosophy concerned with what comprises 'acceptable' or valid knowledge in certain disciplines, 'what is it required to know,' 'what method is applied to know the reality?' (Bougie and Sekar 2009; Saunders et al. 2009). Epistemology is the criteria set by the researcher to identify the trusted sources of knowledge involved in the study, consisting of 'how to test reality' or 'how to validate knowledge?' (Denzin and Lincoln 2018). Epistemology is the exercise of thinking about things and the relationship between the inquirer's knowledge and the known – what his/her views and beliefs are about the sought truths (Bernal 2002; Guba and Lincoln 2005; Lynham and Webb-Johnson 2008; Pallas 2001) or the nature of postulated relationship between the researchers and what they are investigating (Creswell 2007).

Referring to Denzin and Lincoln (2018), positivism philosophy proponents (objectivism) contend that knowledge can solely be obtained from performing the relevant tests of the inquiry, as the researchers seek clarifications and forecasts pertaining to phenomena within society by means of ‘searching for regularities and causal relationships between the events being investigated,’ which is undertaken via developing and testing hypotheses. On the other hand, anti-positivism proponents (subjectivists) argue about knowledge acquired solely by personal experience, contradicting the notion of inquirer’s independence and the creation of ‘objective knowledge,’ in addition to the concept of understanding ‘from the inside rather than the outside’ which is achieved by the actors’ involvement in the observation (Burrell and Morgan 1979, 5).

5.2.1.1.3 Methodology

Methodology is concerned with ‘How do we know the world or gain knowledge of it?’ (Guba 1990, 18; Denzin and Lincoln 2018; Lincoln and Guba 1985, 14–15); it is the theoretical position of the logical assumptions of investigation the researcher employs for the research procedural focus (the procedure taken by knower in undertaking the inquiry), beginning with data-gathering, then interpretation of the acquired datasets, and analysing the research-generated results (McNeill 2006). Following Guba and Lincoln (1994, 109) and Denzin and Lincoln (2018, 114–117), the four undergirding research-contested paradigms, are Positivism, Post-positivism, Critical Theory et al. and Constructivism/Interpretivism (as a postmodern or emergent position). The corresponding features of each philosophical posture are elaborated in Table 5.1 and, building on this, Table 5.4 describes the themes of knowledge and inquiry paradigms.

Item	Positivism Realists, 'hard science' researchers	Post-positivism A modified form of positivism	Critical Theory et al. (+ Feminism + Race) Create change, to the benefit of those oppressed by power	Constructivism (or Interpretivist) Gain understanding by interpreting subject perceptions
Ontology	Belief in a single identifiable reality. There is a single truth that can be measured and studied. The purpose of research is to predict and control nature (Guba and Lincoln 2005; Merriam 1991; Merriam et al. 2007).	Recognise that nature can never fully be understood. There is a single reality, but we may not be able to fully understand what it is or how to get to it because of the hidden variables and a lack of absolutes in nature (Guba and Lincoln 2005; Merriam 1991; Merriam et al. 2007).	Human nature operates in a world that is based on a struggle for power. This leads to interactions of privilege and oppression that can be based on race or ethnicity, socioeconomic class, gender, mental or physical abilities, or sexual preference (Bernal 2002; Giroux 1982; Kilgore 2001).	Relativist: Realities exist in the form of multiple mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific, dependent for their form and content on the persons who hold them (Guba 1990, 27). -Relativism: local and specific constructed and co-constructed realities (Guba and Lincoln 2005,193). -'Our individual personal reality-the way we think life is and the part we are to play in it- is self-created. We put together our own personal reality' (Guba and Lincoln 1985:73). -Multiple realities exist and are dependent on the individual (Guba 1996). -'Metaphysics that embraces relativity' (Josselson 1995, 29). -'We practice inquiries that make sense to the public and to those we study' (Preissle 2006, 636). Assumes that reality as we know it is constructed intersubjectively through the meanings and understandings developed socially and experientially (Guba and Lincoln 1994). To me this means that we construct knowledge throughout lived experiences and through our interactions with other member of society. As such, as researchers, we must participate in the research process with our subjects to ensure we are producing knowledge that is reflective of their reality.

Item	**Positivism** **Realists, 'hard science' researchers**	**Post-positivism** **A modified form of positivism**	**Critical Theory et al.** **(+ Feminism + Race)** **Create change, to the benefit of those oppressed by power**	**Constructivism** **(or Interpretivist)** **Gain understanding by interpreting subject perceptions**
Epistemology	Belief in total objectivity. There is no reason to interact with who or what researchers study. Researchers should value only the scientific rigour and not its impact on society or research subjects (Guba and Lincoln 2005; Merriam 1991; Merriam et al. 2007).	Assume we can only approximate nature. Research and the statistics produced provide a way to make a decision using incomplete data. Interaction with research subjects should be kept to a minimum. The validity of research comes from peers (the researcher community), not from the subjects being studied (Guba and Lincoln 2005; Merriam 1991; Merriam et al. 2007).	Researcher is driven by the study of social structures, freedom and oppression, and power and control. Researchers believe that the knowledge that is produced can change existing oppressive structures and remove oppression through empowerment (Merriam 1991).	Subjectivist: Inquirer and inquired are fused into a single entity. Findings are literally the creation of the process of interaction between the two (Guba 1990, 27). Transactional/subjectivist: co-created findings (Guba and Lincoln 2005, 195). The philosophical belief that people conduct their own understanding of reality; we construct meaning based on our interactions with our surroundings (Guba and Lincoln 1985). 'Social reality is a construction based upon the actor's frame of reference within the setting' (Guba and Lincoln 1985, 85). Findings are due to the interaction between the researcher and the subject (Guba 1996). 'We cannot know the real without recognizing our own role as knowers' (Flax 1990). 'Simultaneously empirical, intersubjective, and process-oriented' (Flax 1990). 'We are studying ourselves and others' (Preissle 2006, 691). Assumes that we cannot separate ourselves from what we know. The investigator and the object of investigation are linked such that who are and how we understand the world is a central part of how we understand ourselves, others, and the world (Guba and Lincoln 1994). This means we are shaped by our lived experiences and these will always come out in the knowledge we generate as researchers and in the data generated by our subjects.

Methodology	Belief in the scientific method. Value a 'gold standard' for making decisions. Grounded in the conventional hard sciences. Belief in the falsification principle (results and findings are true until disproved). Value data produced by studies that can be replicated. (Merriam 1991; Preissle 2006)	Researchers should attempt to approximate reality. Use of statistics is important to visually interpret our findings. Belief in the scientific method. Research is the effort to create new knowledge, seek scientific discovery. There is an attempt to ask more questions than positivists because of the unknown variables involved in research. There is a unifying method. Distance the researcher to gain objectivity. Use the hypothetical deductive method – hypothesize, deduce, and generalize (Guba and Lincoln 2005; Merriam 1991; Merriam et al. 2007)	Dialogic/Dialectical (Guba and Lincoln 2005) Search for participatory research, which empowers the oppressed and supports social transformation and revolution (Merriam, 1991:56)	Hermeneutic, dialectic: Individual constructions are elicited and refined hermeneutically, and compared and contrasted dialectically, with the aim of generating one or a few constructions on which there is substantial consensus (Guba 1990:27). Hermeneutical; dialectical (Guba and Lincoln 1985, 195). Hermeneutical discussion (Geertz 1973) Hermeneutics (interpretation, i.e. recognition and explanation of metaphors) and comparing and contrasting dialectics (resolving disagreements through rational discussion) (Guba 1996). 'Everyday consciousness of reality and its chameleonlike quality pervade politics, the media and literature' (Guba and Lincoln 1985, 70). 'The construction of realities must depend on some form of consensual language' (Guba and Lincoln 1985, 71). 'Stock taking and speculations regarding the future nevertheless help us comprehend the past and the present and aid our choices for the futures we desire' (Preissle 2006, 686). Interpretive approaches rely heavily on naturalistic methods (interviewing and observation and analysis of existing texts (Angen 2000). These methods ensure an adequate dialogue between the researchers and those with whom they interact in order to collaboratively construct a meaningful reality (Angen 2000). Generally, meaning is emergent from the research process (Angen 2000). Typically, qualitative methods are used (Angen 2000). Hermeneutic Cycle: Actions lead to collection of data, which leads to interpretation of data which spurs actions based on data.

Table 5.4. the themes of knowledge and inquiry paradigms. Adopted from Denzin and Lincoln (2018, 114–17).

5.2.1.1.3.1 Positivism

The ontological position associated to positivism is realism, which is commonly named 'naïve realism.' Therefore, the positivism assumption accepts that reality exists; it is single and is reachable, identifiable, or apprehensible. Generalisation of knowledge is obtained in an independent manner from time and context, and the inquirer is distinct from influencing decisions (disinterested researchers in effect, as data is to speak consistently with outcomes generated). Such knowledge can be derived to explain cause and effect, the prediction and control of concepts or relationship among phenomena, in which the knower basically concentrates on the 'true' form of affairs, where hypotheses are verified to be facts, citing Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Denzin and Lincoln (2018). As regards Hesse (1980), the prime stance of positivism is considered to be reductionist and deterministic, in which the inquirer is granted special merit to occupy 'the role of expert' in the investigation (Guba and Lincoln 2014, 113).

In respect to positivism's interweaved epistemological stance, it is *Dualist and objectivist* where the knower and intended knowledge 'objects' are postulated to be independent (dualist: reality exists outside the mind of the inquirer), with clear 'limited or eliminated' interaction, influence, bias, or convergence to society or context in order to avoid impact on research participants, maintain objectivity, and increase validity. Therefore, confidence in the outcome of the inquiry is high because results can be replicated and 'true' (Merriam 1991), and findings can be assumed to be 'true,' and in turn robust (Guba and Lincoln 2005; Merriam et al. 2007; ibid). Hence, the associated methodology is the scientific method, 'experimental and manipulative,' that is upheld by the falsification principle, to test and verify the proposed hypotheses, with the ability for such findings to be proven false, that would result in validity of the outcomes. Positivists are overwhelmingly quantitative inquirers (Merriam 1991; Guba and Lincoln 2005).

5.2.1.1.3.2 Post-positivism

Referring to Guba and Lincoln (1994,110), Denzin and Lincoln (2018, 120), and Cook and Campbell (1979), the ontological posture associated with post-positivism is critical realism. Therefore, post-positivism assumptions claim that reality exists and is a single entity, but it is 'imperfectly apprehensible,'; in other words, knowledge is not able to be fully understood. This is due to defective human intellectual technique and the complexity of phenomena (it may also refer to the 'multiple hidden values and variables' hindering fully attainable knowledge); therefore, proponents advocate the best possible investigation to be carried out in order to assist in apprehending the closest reality ever, which is impossible to address perfectly.

Moreover, the epistemological stance is the *Modified dualist/objectivist* (Guba and Lincoln 1994); post-positivism is 'a modified form of positivism' (Denzin and Lincoln 1998, 114), where dualism is widely neglected for being not able to be maintained. However, the inquirer is distinct from the process of the inquiry but is in charge of it (Guba and Lincoln 2005), and objectivity in the produced data is ideal (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Reality is approximate and can never be entirely attained, but better understanding and useful data are generated, and contact with objects of the inquiry kept to the absolute minimum. Findings are mainly true and constantly tested for falsification (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 110), while the knower endeavours to seek accuracy, uncover emic perspectives, and obtain the most correct/closest possible truth by means of statistics without influencing the research population or allowing any participants' impact, so as to maintain objectivity (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). To this effect, validity is accomplished in data that was tested and analysed statistically. In addition, validity is derived from the knower's critical community, such as peers, editors, and referees, separated from research participants so that validity is not produced from objects (Denzin and Lincoln 1998).

The methodology for this paradigm is the modified experimental/manipulative, where 'critical mutiplism,' which is another refurbished method for 'falsifying rather than verifying hypotheses,' is stressed. Correspondingly, there is an emphasis on the harmony of the findings with pre-existing results, which increases the validity of the produced findings (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 110). Post-positivists are overwhelmingly quantitative inquirers and possess the potential to undertake mixed methods research (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 110; Guba and Lincoln 2005; Merriam 1991; Merriam et al. 2007). Simulating a positivism stance, the central position of post-positivism is also debated to be reductionist and deterministic, in which the inquirer is granted special merit to occupy 'the role of expert' in the investigation (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 113).

5.2.1.1.3.3 Critical theory

The ontological posture of the critical philosophy (and related ideological positions: Feminism + Race) is 'historical realism,' built on the assumption that reality is presumed to be obtainable but transformable over time by some factors, as reality re-emerged (reified) into new (inappropriate) forms of social structures accepted as natural and unalterable as 'real,' or 'a virtual or historical reality,' or 'socially constructed knowledge.' Such factors can be associated with economic, political, social, cultural, ethnic, and gender grounds (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 110; Denzin and Lincoln 1998, 120). The epistemological position for critical philosophy is the *transactional and subjectivist*. This position assumes the inquirer's interaction with the probed objects, together with the inquirer's values, thus imparting the subject's views, but the inquirer is primarily keen to reflect truth throughout his/her paradigm, while considering others' voices concurrently (Bernal 2002). This intention leads inevitably to an impact on the inquiry. Consequently, findings generated are *value mediated*. Critical inquirers believe that the attained knowledge can alter current oppressive structures and fight oppression via empowering social transformation and revolution and granting them voice and control

(Merriam 1991; Denzin and Lincoln 1998). In this form of philosophical posture, ontology and epistemology are inextricable, according to Guba and Lincoln (1994) and this is reflected in Table 5.1, depicted by the unfilled line.

The methodology for the abovementioned paradigm is the *Dialogic/Dialectical* process. Accordingly, the inquiry entails a dialogue between the inquirer and the subjects involved with that inquiry (who are the collective and oppressed), in which the dialogue is dialectical to alter neglect and misapprehension into extra illuminated awareness, in terms of modified structures, change in policy and practice (Creswell 2007), and grasping the requisite actions for the intended change, aiming at improving their lives entirely (Fay 1987; Guba and Lincoln 1994; 2005). Another view is proposed by Giroux (1988, 213) 'as transformative intellectuals […] to uncover and excavate those forms of historical and subjugated knowledges that point to experiences of suffering, conflict, and collective struggle, to link the notion of historical understanding to elements of critique and hope.' Transformational investigators are attributed to 'transformational leadership' (Burns 1978). Transformative inquirers seek transformative knowledge that is effective in establishing justice (Giroux 1982). As regards the Frankfurt School of thought, the ethical consideration of such investigations is accompanied with liberation, empowerment, and promoting a fair society free from injustice (Giroux 1982; Guba and Lincoln 2005). Critical researchers employ both quantitative and qualitative approaches to address aspects pertaining to privilege and oppression, interrelated to social variables such as mental ability, age, class etc (Giroux 1982; Guba and Lincoln 2005). The validity of critical inquiries is addressed 'when research recreates actions (or action research) or participatory research,' which serves the community by advancing enhanced social change, with its positive initiative to develop emancipatory society action (Denzin and Lincoln 1998, 129).

5.2.1.1.3.4 Constructivism

The ontological posture of the constructivist or interpretivist, philosophy is relativity (Joss Elson 1995). Proponents of this position assume the existence of multiple realities which are 'apprehendable in the form of multiple, intangible mental constructions, socially and experientially based (built on lived experiences), local and specific, and co-constructed realities' (Guba and Lincoln 2005, 193), dependent for their form and content on the persons who hold them (Guba 1990, 27). However, Reese (1980) argued that this posture is differentiated from nominalism and idealism, in which nominalists assert the inexistence of reality for being inaccessible, while idealists believe that knowledge is mentally constructed and so irrelevant. Nevertheless, Guba and Lincoln (1994, 110) explained that interpretivists are 'not more or less true, in any absolute sense, but simply more or less informed and/or sophisticated.' Realities and knowledge are constructed (and alterable) from self and experience-developed explication and comprehending (Guba and Lincoln 1985; Guba and Lincoln 1994, 110). Hence, realities are reached by realising the individual/personal perception the inquirer embraces about life (Guba and Lincoln, 1985), together with explicating subjects' views and perceptions. Such constructivist inquiries are of interest to the public and the subjects being studied (Preissle 2006), to ensure that the obtained knowledge speaks accurately about their reality (Denzin and Lincoln 1998).

In view of the epistemological standpoint of constructivism's assumptions, its proponents offer it as the *Transactional and Subjectivist* theory of knowledge. This position assumes the inquirer's interaction with the probed objects into 'a single entity' (Guba 1990, 27) and thus knowledge is *literally created* progressively throughout the course of the 'process-oriented' inquiry (Flax 1990). Findings are constructed as comprehension of intersubjective self along with inseparable contact with respondents, and are shaped by experience-developed explication within the context (Guba and Lincoln 1985), with an emphasis on the investigator's perception and on how things work (Flax 1990). In this form of philosophical posture, ontology and epistemology are considered fused, (Guba and Lincoln, 1994:111), and this is reflected in table 4.1 by the unfilled line.

With respect to the methodological stance, constructivism asserts the *Hermeneutical and dialectical* process, suggesting that the constructed knowledge (constructions of realities) can be extracted only via interaction *between and among* the inquirer and participants, in which constructions are variable and explicated by the Hermeneutical technique and 'compared and contrasted through a dialectical interchange' in the pursuit of proposing an endorsed and rigid construction that is more addressed than the previously distilled constructions (Guba 1990, 27; Guba and Lincoln 1985; Guba and Lincoln 1998,111), as well as a meaningful reality (Angen 2000) by rationally debating to resolve disputes (Guba 1996). Interpretivists use qualitative methods and depend on naturalistic approaches manifested in conducting interviews, and observation, as well as analysing texts (Angen 2000).

5.2.1.1.3.5 The transformative approach

Other researchers hold a third philosophical view, witnessed in the 1980s, which is the transformative approach or 'critical theory' in Guba and Lincoln (1994), 'from individuals who felt that the post-positivist assumptions imposed structural laws and theories that did not fit marginalized individuals in our society or issues of power and social justice' (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 38); and thus this stance outlines social/suffering/conflict/collective struggles and issues and actions such as inequality, empowerment, domination, and suppression. This paradigm is concerned with justice and power, and is change-oriented (Mertens 2010); so, for example, it considers a politics change-agenda and supports a diverse cohort of society who claim to be oppressed and discriminated against. Hence, the researcher shines light on inequities manifested in ethnic and racial minorities (i.e. by race, gender, sexual orientation, disability, ethnicity, or socioeconomic class).

In this view, participants cannot be marginalised, assuring that researcher and human actors work collaboratively (in research stages such as formulating questionnaire statements/items, collecting and/or interpreting data) for the purpose of redressing and reforming their lives (Neuman 2009). Therefore, in the view of 'critical theory,' the ontological stance is 'historical relativism' (Cook and Campbell 1979), which claims that reality is apprehendable but 'virtual' and formed by social, cultural, political, gender, ethnic, and economic values which are progressively subject to change. Critical theory's corresponding epistemology is the 'transactional and subjectivist' where findings are created and are value-mediated (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 111).

5.2.1.1.4 Axiological position

Axiology is concerned with the values the researcher possesses which interpret and articulate the researcher's actions while carrying out his/her piece of research (Bryman and Bell 2007; Dawson 2009), the criterion of value, particularly in the field of ethics (Saunders et al. 2009; Denzin and Lincoln 2018), and its role influencing the relevant judgement and choices of the inquiry, such as the philosophical assumptions and data collection methods that mirror the researcher's axiological skills (i.e. the choice to conduct interviews in order to interact with participants rather than conveying their perceptions via a survey questionnaire) (Heron 1996; Creswell 2007; Saunders et al. 2009). Therefore, based on themes of knowledge, the axiological position of positivism is to stay remote from participants to avoid any influence on research population. Post-positivists should seek to acquire the best possible clear conception of reality and truth via employing statistics that best capture knowledge or reality (Guba and Lincoln 2005). However, proponents of critical theory (which includes feminist and race theory) attempt to alter social institutions' regulations (Bernal 2002) in their quest to enhance social justice and erase obstacles and other adverse factors connected with the social oppression (Giroux 1982). In comparison, in constructivism or interpretivism the axiological stance is described as such: ‘propositional, transactional knowing is instrumentally valuable as a means to social emancipation, which is an end in itself, is intrinsically valuable.’ A constructivist researcher may have great insights and spend more time to take issues carefully through the process of ‘intellectual digestion,’ in contrast to critical theory’s aim to reach immediate outcomes (Denzin and Lincoln 2018, 126). Saunders et al. (2009, 119) contend that when the researcher is neutral in his/her set of values – viewed as value-free, his/her orientation is more positivist, where ‘the researcher is independent of data and maintains an objective stance,’ and, hence, is interwoven with investigation that uses quantitative methods. However, when the inquiry is values-loaded, this perhaps entails bias for the inquirer related to his/her view of the surroundings (Creswell 1994; Collis and Hussey 2003). The investigator is, therefore, not independent but more likely an interpretivist, possessing a subjective posture as the research is bounded by values (Saunders et al. 2009).

5.3 Research approach

The prevalent process of reasoning in research is either Deductivism or Inductivism, which is usually consistent with the espoused research paradigm. The deductive approach of doing research (most often compatible with quantitative research in general, as it can be followed by qualitative investigators in practice e.g. specific instances) aims at verifying the introduced theory separate from developing theory (Creswell 2014). Citing Yin (1975), to engage in deductivism is to ‘hypothesize, deduce, and generalize’ theory in the commencement of the study (Denzin and Lincoln 1998, 118; Guba and Lincoln 2005; Merriam 1991; Merriam et al. 2007); this involves the process of attempting to approach truth and logical results by advancing true hypotheses or statements of premises, then taking multiple steps to conclude with logical inference a ‘syllogism,’ to assert the validity of the final argument (generalisation of theory). The process employs a quantitative technique which confirms the proposed speculated hypotheses throughout, considering the obtained results if they subscribe to previous findings, or disconfirm them (Creswell 2014). However, some conclusions are logically valid, yet deemed wrong in the sense of applying untrue argument/statement (see Figure 5.1).

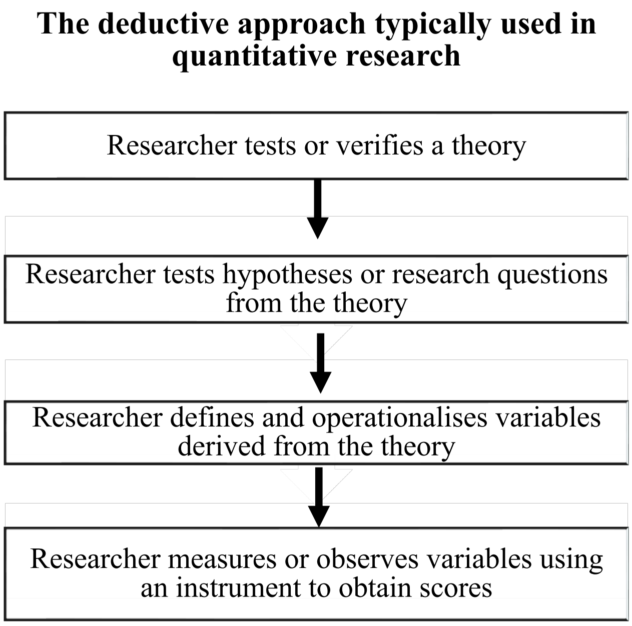


Figure 5.1. The deductive approach typically used in quantitative research. Adapted from Creswell (2014,93).

However, in qualitative studies the author poses the theory and envisages a varied end point. Hence, the inductive process incorporates ‘building from the data to broad themes to a generalized model or theory’ (Creswell 2014, 99). ‘Inductive reasoning is a theory building process, starting with observations of specific instances, and seeking to construct generalisations about the phenomenon under investigation’ (Hyde 2000, 83). Therefore, the investigator commences with gathering information from the sample and organises this information into themes or categories, which are broadened into developed theories, themes, generalisations, or patterns that are later compared to the existing literature on the topic (see Figure 5.2).

In the case study’s example, Stake (1995, 86) asserts that a propositional generalisation is the accumulative sum of explanations and declarations appended to the inquirer’s distinct experiences, referred as ‘naturalistic generalisations.’ Moreover, grounded theory offers a distinct end point too, where the researcher aims to reach a theory enriched and grounded by the information gained from participants (Strauss and Corbin 1998). To Lincoln and Guba (1985), ‘pattern theories’ refer to interpretations derived from naturalistic or qualitative inquiry. Therefore, those pattern theories and propositional generalisations are developed in interrelated explanations and claims or portions associated to a whole, that are differentiated from the deducted approach. To conclude, the literature showed that quantitative and qualitative inquiries practise both approaches of deductive and inductive reasoning, though perhaps informally (Hyde 2000).

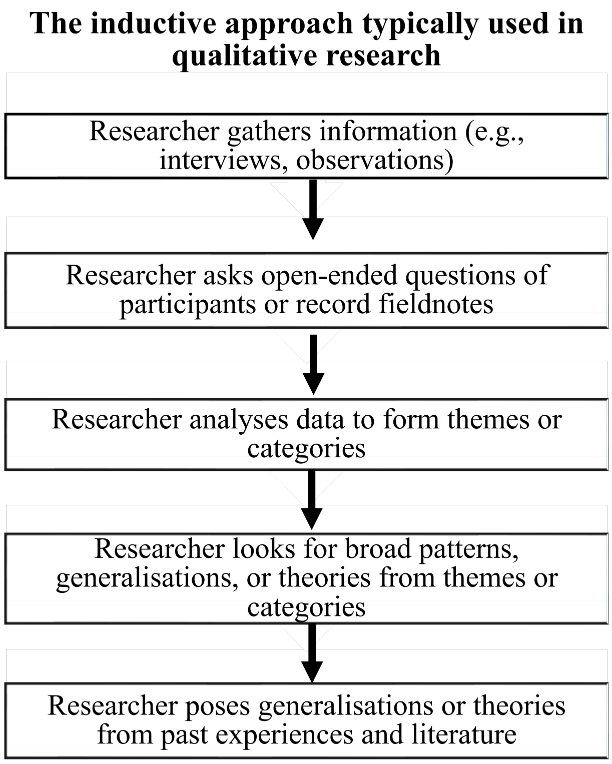


Figure 5.2. The inductive approach typically used in qualitative research. Adopted from Creswell (2014,100).

5.4 Research design

After demonstrating the philosophical views associated with research, the subsequent exposition will represent research design. As mentioned earlier, a distinct research design is one element in the research approach according to Creswell (2014). Research designs 'are types of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design,' also termed 'strategies of inquiry' (Denzin and Lincoln 2011, 41) or 'procedures of inquiry' required to answer research questions. Research design reflects the inquiry's main objectives, methods and analysis of the study datasets, in addition to study's ethical consideration (Creswell 2014, 6), that add validity to the research's conclusions.

To distinguish between the quantitative and qualitative approaches, quantification in science has been widely asserted; it is known as 'hard' research (e.g. physics and chemistry) that can be shaped in statistics and formulas articulating relationships. Quantification enhances the consistent benchmark (Bryman and Bell 2011). By contrast, in 'soft' research there is emphasis on the less-quantifiable fields (i.e. biology) and primarily the social sciences, indicating a lack of precision and absolute truth. Thus, generally, scientific rigour tends to ensure validity through quantification, given that the credibility of quantitative data is presumed. However, a strong argument (positivism and post-positivism) has recently emerged against quantification to undermine its putative superiority and the assumptions that quantitative data relies on, such as, but not limited to, 'exclusion of meaning and purpose,' while qualitative data can offer rich insights relevant to human behaviour. Moreover, it suggests the 'inapplicability of general data to individual cases' which lacks complete evidence through generalisation; yet qualitative data could help to prevent ambiguities (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 106). Furthermore, there is the 'disjunction of grand theories with local contexts:

the etic/emic dilemma'; so, validating theories entails qualitative grounding (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 106; Glaser and Strauss 1967; Strauss and Corbin 1990).

5.4.1 Research strategy

Research design can comprise quantitative study strategies (descriptive research, correlational research, causal comparative research), qualitative strategies (narrative research, phenomenological research, grounded theory, ethnography, case studies, action and archival research), or mixed methods strategies. Quantitative study strategies are for use in experimental and non-experimental research, in which the survey and experiments are predominant (Creswell 2014). The sub-sections below explain the types of research strategies.

5.4.1.1 Strategies of qualitative research

When the phenomenological position is governed by the inductive approach, it can help in constructing a new theory (Anderson 2004; Easterby-Smith et al. 2008; Saunders et al. 2009). The qualitative research method underpins inquiries with the aim of gathering various responses (Yin 2010), 'for deeper understanding' (Johnson 1995, 4), especially with a small sample size. For example, the sample size of this study is only 620; hence, a secondary qualitative study could be useful in exploring the perceptions of talent who are leaders at ADG establishments (Kumar 2011). Those executives, drawn from talent, are extremely committed in their work, which restricts greater participation in the interviews (Bernard 2000). However, many issues can be gathered from a small pool via dialogical investigation (Berg and Lune 2011) and this sustains authenticity (Caldwell and Lestie 2010) in eliciting interviewees' experiences and feelings about TM programmes (Yin 1992). Unlike structured interviews, semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer to use a list of pre-set questions to investigate the participant's views towards a certain issue and to generate new questions during the interview according to what the interviewee says (Johnson and Gill 2010).

Therefore, in line with the research purpose and strategy, exploratory interviews (semi-structured-interviews) can be employed in future research; for example, to validate questionnaire findings and explain reasons behind the obtained results (Robson 2002). For instance, the sample in this study represents talented executives who prefer being interviewed rather than dealing with questionnaires (Healey and Rawlinson et al. 1993). Semi-structured interviews are predicted to give more information after establishing contact with talented managers who feel safe to express opinions rather than reporting them via questionnaires (Healey 1991). According to Saunders et al. (2009), the semi-structured interview is a widely used method because it is accessible to participants and gives managers the freedom and autonomy to express their views as they feel them (Cooper and Schindler 2006). In turn, semi-structured interviews can probably also return clear explanations on questionnaire answers, as well as essential insights about the potential barriers to implementing effective TM strategies (Kasi 2009). Various drawbacks are attached to semi-structured interviews, as they require advanced skills and extensive training, their arrangement consumes resources (Punch 2005), and they can be challenging to analyse (Dawson 2009). Nonetheless, despite these shortcomings, semi-structured interviews are still adopted in research to increase the reliability of data gathered by questionnaires (Bougie and Sekaran 2009).

5.4.1.2 Strategies of quantitative research

Quantitative research is either descriptive or experimental (Lowhorn 2007). Laboratory experiments involve the investigator applying treatment to one group only and withholding it from their counterpart group, then comparing the outcome between the groups (Creswell 2014). Non-experimental quantitative research, where the purpose is to establish possible causality, and there is invariably no control or manipulation over the independent and dependent variables, falls into three main broad classifications known as the research strategies, as outlined in Table 5.5.

Types of Non-experimental Research Design	**Descriptive Research**	**Descriptive Research** has two approaches: 1. Observational research studies certain human behaviour via quantified data, e.g. frequency/rating of behaviour occurrence (Leedy and Ormrod 2013) and; 2. Survey research: depicts traits/behaviour/opinions of particular subgroup of population (Fraenkel et al. 2012; McMillan 2012) or explores relationships between the proposed variables – a combination of survey and correlational design of quantitative research. Social survey research lies in three categories: *descriptive, cross-sectional, or longitudinal research* design. 2.1) D*escriptive* design – describe the traits of one cohort at one stage of a certain time, 2.2) *Cross-sectional* design – describes differences in certain groups of specific traits (usually more than one subject of researcher's interest) at one stage of a specific point of time. Denotes pattern of association only; in other words, variables are related and causality of the findings can barely be established, and so the internal validity of cross-sectional research is jeopardised, in comparison with experimental research, such as questionnaires and structured interviews, or 2.3) *Longitudinal* research (contexualist) – studies traits of the same groups at different levels, at least two stages and periods of time by conducting multiple surveys to map the anticipated change, where causal inferences can be drawn, unlike the cross-sectional research form of design (Bryman and Bell 2011)].

Types of Non-experimental Research Design	**Correlational Research**	Correlational Research, as well as *comparative* design research. Here the inquiry aims to measure the quantifiable data to depict the pattern related to the causal statistical relationship and strength between two meaningful variables or more. Such research investigates characteristics of variables that correlate with each other and that happened in the past (ex post facto design), where researchers have no control over the variables, whereby no independent variable is causing the other. Sophisticated techniques are used to indicate the magnitude/degree of the relationship or association among items, such as SEM (Structured Equation Modelling), logistic regression and hierarchical linear Modelling. Two types of correlational research are: 1. Explanatory correlational studies study and describe certain behaviours, events and conditions via measuring statistical strengths (the degree of variables' covary/co-relate). 2. Predictive correlational studies predict future behaviour of one variable from the condition of other variables that have already occurred previously. One variable is strongly apparent in causing the other or, more accurately, predicting the association rather than the causation. The relationship can be used to predict the value of other variable when the correlation coefficient has good magnitude (e.g. perfect correlation 'r' close to 1) (Black 1999).
	Causal comparative Research	Causal comparative Research observe potential reasons behind the differences occurring in conditions among two or more groups, where the preliminary condition and the resulting variance have already occurred. Used to identify possible causes in conditions variation e.g. behaviours, performance, etc. (Creswell 2014).

Table 5.5. Types of non-experimental research design. Developed by the researcher.

5.4.1.3 Strategies of mixed methods research

In social and behavioural research disciplines, mixed methods research, also called combined or hybrid studies, may include both quantitative and qualitative studies (Creswell and Plano Clark 2011). Creswell (2003) identified six strategies related to research design: the Sequential Explanatory, Sequential Exploratory, Sequential Transformative, Concurrent Triangulation, Concurrent Nested, and Concurrent Transformative. The sequence of the study phases determines the type of mixed methods study design, in which the sequential quantitative or qualitative study precedes the other according to its weight or priority, as judged by the researcher based on the purpose of the study and the problem being investigated.

5.4.1.3.1 Sequential exploratory mixed methods research design

In **Sequential Exploratory** mixed methods research, the sequencing varies where the researcher undertakes a qualitative study (conducts interviews and reaches analysis), then conducts a quantitative study.

The purpose of embracing the Sequential Explanatory mixed methods design is to assist the researcher in explaining any predictive relationships emerging from the findings of the statistical phase. The quantitative study is performed by collecting the numeric data, and the analysis is undertaken in one phase prior to commencing the secondary qualitative study. Afterwards, the qualitative study is embarked on when narrative data is gathered by means of the interviews. The analysis of both studies is then combined in the intermediate stage, which is the interpretation of the data sets as an entire analysis (Creswell 2003) to complement each other and entail better understanding of the research problem (Ivankova et al. 2006). The rationale behind this technique is that the quantitative data and its analysis propose general understanding, while the qualitative phase offers in-depth illustration through considering participants' perceptions on the investigated phenomenon. In such studies, the researcher develops hypotheses based on the extant literature to test the expected relationships among the research constructs' variables (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998; Blumberg et al. 2011; Creswell 2003).

Following the **Sequential Exploratory** mixed methods design can be justified to assist the researcher in interpreting the findings emerging from the quantitative phase, to explore a phenomenon, related to the research problem, with the intention of expanding on the findings obtained from the primary qualitative research (Creswell 2003). Likewise, this approach is appropriate to identify the distribution of a certain population for the investigated phenomenon (Mores 1991) or examine an instrument introduced by the researcher (Creswell 1999), in which the qualitative intervention is given priority to be undertaken first. Therefore, the textual data is collected, and then analysis is undertaken in one phase prior to implementing the secondary research of the numeric data. Afterwards, the quantitative aspect of the study is embarked on when numeric data is gathered by means of the survey questionnaire. The analysis of both studies is then combined in the interpretation phase of the entire analysis (Creswell 2003) to complement each other to entail better understanding of the research problem (Ivankova et al. 2006).

As regards the methodological strengths and weaknesses of the ***Sequential Explanatory and Exploratory designs***, both provide robust explanations, especially in the case of unanticipated results emerging from the leading quantitative or qualitative investigation (Mores 1991). However, the drawback of both approaches can be the considerable time and resources required, in order for the researcher to handle the procedures for data collection and analysis of both studies (Creswell 2003; Bowen et al. 2017). Yet, it may be problematic for the researcher to move from the qualitative investigation phase to the later quantitative data collection phase. Creswell (2003) noted the limitations of both models, particularly if both phases of the quantitative and qualitative studies have equal priority. In the main, both sequential study designs have their advantages, as they are straightforward, uncomplicated to implement, and simple to describe or report (Creswell 2003).

Sequential Transformative mixed methods design is most appropriate to understand a phenomenon, and combines two consecutive phases for data collection. Nevertheless, there is no priority or advantage for either to be implemented first. Both can be undertaken concurrently if the resources suffice to enable the researcher to embark on them simultaneously. As explained in the explanatory and exploratory mixed methods designs, the results of both phases, from the sequential transformative research design, are merged in the interpretation phase. The sequential transformative strategy implies a theoretical perspective on the part of the researcher that will guide the investigation. This strategy has limitations in building from the analysis of the first intervention to the data collection of the second intervention. There is a limited literature pertaining to this strategy of research design, especially on how to employ the transformative aspect to guide the research applied methods (Creswell 2003).

The **Concurrent Strategy of Mixed Methods Design** differs, so that both quantitative and qualitative phases are conducted simultaneously, and data analysis is merged for more clarified and refined conclusions. Examples of such an approach are the concurrent triangulation, concurrent nested, and concurrent transformative of research designs (Bowen et al. 2017).

According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003), **Concurrent Triangulation** mixed methods design is adopted when the investigator employs two distinct methods to collect data for one investigation in order to confirm, reinforce, and corroborate the deductive findings. The data collection happens concurrently in one phase. Theoretically, there is no priority of the methods because each method is handled separately; nevertheless, priority could be given to one method for either intervention in practice. Meanwhile, both can be undertaken concurrently and separately. The analysis of both studies is then integrated in the interpretation phase. This approach is the traditional one, and most popular across investigators among the six mixed methods designs. Consequently, the generated findings could be more validated and substantiated (Morgan 1998; Creswell 2003).

As pertaining to the methodological strengths and weaknesses of the **Concurrent Triangulation** mixed methods design, the merit of this approach is that the process of conducting both methods is shorter compared to the sequential approach of mixed methods research design. However, the cited limitations refer to the need for the researcher to possess certain competencies, in addition to the effort required to investigate a phenomenon using two distinct methods. Moreover, it is difficult for the investigator to deal with inconsistencies which arise in the findings obtained by the two methods. In addition there is method to guide the undertaken inquiry (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003).

The **Concurrent Nested** mixed methods design is similar to the concurrent triangulation mixed methods design in that the data collection phase is a single phase for both the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study. Yet here, one method (either qualitative or quantitative) dominates the research while the other method (either qualitative or quantitative) is nested, as it may answer another question apart from the main inquiry question. Thus, the priority of the nested method is usually lesser than the main inquiry. The analysis of both studies is then mixed in the interpretation phase (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003). This design, also called multilevel according to (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998), is appropriate when the researcher intends to investigate different segments of the research participants within the study using different aspects of methods for each group, e.g. a survey questionnaire for senior management, while employing interviews to seek information from the junior staff (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003).

Hence this approach, namely ***Concurrent Nested*** mixed methods design, has its methodological merits and drawbacks. The advantage is that the researcher acquires wider insights when employing the nested method rather than the predominant one alone (Mores 1991). Such an embedded method could be the quantitative phase, which can be employed to obtain rich description about the study participants, for instance. In addition, the qualitative method can enrich the findings when issues within the quantitative aspect are difficult to describe or report. In addition, this design encompasses conducting various methods within one phase, adding the strengths of each method together to foster the findings of the issues being studied. A drawback to the design in question was cited to be the lack of guidance available when discrepancies occur from the two distinct methods, which complicates how the researcher can merge and interpret the findings later. This can also weaken the evidence, as both methods have unequal priorities (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003).

Depending on the nature of the research, and particularly the research question of an inquiry, the ***Concurrent Transformative*** design is led by the researcher's worldview as well as the parallel data collection phase for both qualitative and quantitative methods, so no method takes priority over the other. This perspective best suits participatory investigation, advocacy, critical theory, or the use of a theoretical framework. For instance, research of one design may use the nested method to raise the voice of a diverse category in an organisational change process. The design may also include triangulation for two distinct methods to give a holistic picture and to cross-validate findings for the purpose of examining unequal policies at the workplace (Creswell 2003; 2009). The concurrent transformative mixed methods research design possesses the characteristics of the transformative or nested mixed methods research design, which entails sharing the same merits and limitations. However, the process of integrating the emerging findings may vary, unlike the transformative and nested designs that are combined in the interpretation phase (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003).

5.5 Justification for the research approach

As stated formerly, the research approach comprises three main components: the research philosophical assumptions, the research distinct design, and the applied methods (Creswell 2014). According to Guba and Lincoln (1994) the ontological, epistemological, axiological, and methodological standpoint of an investigation and inquirer are constrained and ought to fit each other (i.e. appropriate methods with predetermined methodology). The selection of research approach is dependent on the nature of the research and the questions the inquiry addresses (Yin 2010). Moreover, to argue the adoption of philosophy, the choice should be based on the persuasiveness as well as the appropriateness of the utility of such a paradigm (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Furthermore, reviewing the literature on the TM phenomenon shows that a handful of similar research has empirically tested the research integrated model applying a number of the research theories surrounding TM and talent retention, such as a TM model and its dimension inclusive in talent pipeline by the CIPD (2007), Tarique and Schuler (2010) and Anlesinya et al. (2019), SET, RBV theories, and additional discrete factors related to talent retention, such as talent satisfaction and employer branding/leadership behaviour. Therefore, there is a significant research gap in grasping the relationships between the constructs and relevant dependent variable. Identifying this gap, and noting that there have been few efforts devoted to bridge it in any context, has provided the foundation for this academic work.

Therefore, this causal study seeks to examine the impact and influence of the established relevant and emerging factors, on the corresponding dependent variable, as depicted in Figure 2.10. The research conceptual model was developed in a manner that may best describe aspects and constructs involved in the strategic TM phenomenon. Such a model was developed by adopting a number of the established theories applied to talent management research, and contemporary research surrounding HRM. The choice of the model's constructs was grounded according to their significance and empirical role in similar previous studies.

In light of the above, this research adopts a positivist (paradigm) philosophical stance and its associated objectivist and 'realist' ontological posture, which reflects the researcher's approach in tackling the nature of reality (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 110; Denzin and Lincoln 2018, 120; Cook and Campbell 1979). This is deemed an explanatory study, which attempts to investigate the integral adoption, practices, and processes of TM, in order to gain much understanding about the research problem and to study the focal factors in the process, as well as identifying any causal relationships between associated TM research variables.

In addition, this study aims at exploring the TM phenomenon cause and effect, entailing the prediction and winding up with a control of the field and examination of causal relationships among the individual TM dimensions, with dependent variables (Talent Retention). In other words, the purpose of research is to investigate the cause of the adoption and implementation of a TM strategy within ADG in the context of the UAE, and the effect on talents retention, in order to predict behaviour and willingness to stay in the organisation (Guba and Lincoln 1994; 2005; Merriam 1991; Merriam et al. 2007). Therefore, this approach also aligns with a positivist stance and research paradigm, as it tends to be more suitable than an interpretivist philosophical posture (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Thus, the research objective is met by investigating the expected relationships among constructs (TM factors), which is achieved via verifying hypotheses, by enhancing the predictive understanding of talent retention and the TM phenomenon. Therefore, as the research measures variables (TM components), the theoretical framework is a crucial part and key aspect in the design of the quantitative inquiries (Cavana et al. 2001).

Moreover, the interwoven epistemological stance for this investigation is the dualist/objectivist, with the independent researcher undertaking the research neutrally from the investigated objects (Guba and Lincoln 1994). The epistemological and axiological postures of positivism maintain obtaining results value-free, via employing the methodology of an objective verification of hypothetical generalisation of existing theories, as the main source of knowledge, based on a theoretical focus manifested through the researcher's developed framework (Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). As such, it implies testing the dependent construct of talent retention and the variables/factors that constitute the adoption and implementation of a TM strategy (Guba and Lincoln 1994; 2005; Merriam et al. 2007).

Hence, this means evaluating the current practices and attitudes associated with STM at ADG, foreseeing talents' retention/turnover and proposing a TM strategy, in order to address the research objectives (Creswell 2003; Kumar 2011). The above is intended to be accomplished by collecting, testing and analysing data statistically, distant from the research respondents, in the quest of fulfilling validity (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Meanwhile, this inquiry is explanatory in its nature because it tests the existing theories related to strategic TM, measures the effectiveness of strategic TM programmes through exploring the attitudes of ADG and its practices in the implementation processes of TM strategies, and develops a model to improve the strategic TM practice (Collis and Hussey 2009). The aim of this study, then, is explanation and understanding, allowing the investigator to 'predict and control' factors of the human phenomenon of strategic TM being practised by ADG – i.e. predict talent retention/turnover behaviour (Von Wright 1971; Guba and Lincoln 2005; Merriam 1991; Merriam et al. 2007). According to the research objectives, a set of relationships is to be tested in order to investigate the impact of TM strategies on talent retention and other influencing factors that act as drivers and barriers such as 'satisfaction' and 'leadership style,' that are statistically elaborated in interrelated causal relationships. Thus, the inquiry is entirely quantitative, as quantification is appealing and has been emphasised for its strengths in statistics and articulating relationships with attested precision and truthfulness, hence presumed credibility (Guba and Lincoln 1994). In addition, quantification 'provides broad coverage of the range of a situation. Can be economical and fast. Where statistics are aggregated from large samples, they can be of considerable relevance to policy decisions' (Amaratunga et al. 2002, 20). However, positivism is criticised for lacking interpretivism's strengths of in-depth explanation and forming theory/themes. That is, in addition to positivism's incapacity to reflect the human sense-related characteristics that interpretivism is predominantly associated with, it yields the cause without offering solutions, which does not help decision-makers in the organisation. Meanwhile, validating the obtained findings in positivist exhibited qualities leads to trusted and rigorous validity and reliability (Guba and Lincoln 1994; Cavana et al. 2001). The positivist paradigm and its associated features have been widely adopted by researchers undertaking similar studies.

The current positivist research embraces its consistent deductive approach, which is compatible with the nature of this research's key objective to establish the effects of the main implementation factors for Talent Retention at ADG, rather than the other philosophical positions, or phenomenology (Bryman and Bell 2007; Jonker and Pennink 2010). Correspondingly, this investigation uses a deductivism method of "hypothesize, deduce, and generalize" (Denzin and Lincoln 1998, 118; Guba and Lincoln 2005; Merriam 1991; Merriam et al. 2007) to approach true and logical findings, employing true hypotheses or statements of premises within a predefined theoretical framework, and taking multiple steps to conclude with a logical inference 'syllogism' to ensure conviction in the acquired knowledge (Hyde 2000) and assert the validity of the final argument. However, some conclusions are logically valid, yet they are regarded as wrong, in the case of applying untrue argument/statement. Given that the clearest possible conception of reality and truth is to be sought via employing statistics that best capture knowledge or reality, the aim of this inquiry can be achieved using a survey strategy for the collection of the primary dataset that matches the researcher's criteria for the sample population. In this, the self-completion questionnaire is a popular instrument used in the public sector (Yin 1975). Datasets are then to be subjected to statistical analysis, followed by generalisability of the findings to a wider (parent) population (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Strauss and Corbin 1990; Guba and Lincoln 2005; Lings and Lee 2008; Bryman and Bell 2011; Guba and Lincoln 1994, 110; Denzin and Lincoln 1998).

5.6 Justification for research design and strategy

This explanatory study is employed to address the research problem via reviewing the extant literature, then deriving an appropriate conceptual framework and developing related hypotheses (Bell et al. 2018; Crewell and Creswell2017). This study is a blend of survey and explanatory correlational design of quantitative research to obtain data from the investigated sample, to explain the existing (causal) relationships between variables, then generalise findings to the corresponding population of the study, in order to fulfil its aim (Black 1999; Fowler 2009; Fraenkel et al. 2012; McMillan 2012). Because quantitative research address reliability and validity more precisely (Johnson and Long 2000), a self-administered questionnaire was employed in this research, also being the most commonly used in research (Dawson 2009; Bryman 2016). Hence, this research employs a survey questionnaire to present attitudes, opinion, or trends of a targeted group of humans in numeric form via investigating a portion of the same population. In addition, since and when expected correlation exists between the studied variables, regression can be applied to foresee talent's retention/turnover from the presence of the variables (in this case, strategic TM dimensions i.e. LDP, LDE, PA, EMP, IWR, plus additional extraneous factors: TS, PL, SL and IL that are the explanatory/ independent variables) (Lowhorn 2007). Survey design has been adopted in empirical research as indicated in strategic HRM and TM literature (e.g. Tett and Meyer 1993; Trevor 2001; Baharin and Hanafi 2018; Birt et al. 2004; Cotton and Tuttle 1986; Rynes et al. 2004; Ugboro 2006; Hytter 2007; Scott et al. 2010; Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010; Bethke-Langenegger et al. 2011; Costen and Salazarb 2011; Grissom 2012; Chami-Malaeba and Garavan 2013; Omar et al. 2013; Wahab et al. 2014; Mulki et al. 2015; Singh and Sharma 2015; Mbugua et al. 2015;

Johenness and Chou 2017; Isa et al. 2018; Ogbonna and Harris 2000). Survey design can be used via various techniques, including paper-based, web-based, postal, telephone, fax or interviews (Anderson 2004). Thus, it allows for capturing and measuring beliefs, attitudes, behaviour and opinions, from a large number of talents and in a short time (Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). Moreover, the researcher does not need advanced competences to design and manage the quantitative study, and it minimises the possible occurrence of bias by the researcher (Cooper and Schindler 2006). Furthermore, it is easy to manage (Silverman 2000), cost-effective (Blumberg et al. 2011), simple to analyse (Lings and Lee 2008), and most familiar to participants (Dawson 2009). Yet adopting a questionnaire has some drawbacks (Kasi 2009). For instance, Bryman and Bell (2007) argue that a questionnaire is insufficient to understand changes in human behaviour. Likewise, it cannot tell how much thought a participant has put in, or to what extent the respondent was truthful (Bougie and Sekaran 2009). Additionally, participants may read and understand questions differently (Blumberg et al. 2011) from each other or from the researcher. Having the strengths and limitations of a web-based survey design, this design is deemed less costly, where its major limitation resides in the low response rate (50-75%). Among the advantages and limitations of the survey quantification design research, its merit lies in its simple design, yet the researcher should consider the quality of the limited data obtained for generalisability of the conclusions pertaining the investigated relationships. It would be sensible to employ both quantitative and qualitative designs for research, to further explore human resources practices, such as a case study's organisation, to address research objectives. Yet, such research has inherent shortcomings and restrictions, e.g. limited resources, expertise and time, as studies using more than one approach are considered time-consuming, given the competencies needed for gathering various types of datasets, along with their corresponding analysis techniques (Anderson 2004). This is in addition to the inquiry's axiological stance and independent from the subjects being studied, as articulated earlier (Denzin and Lincoln 2018).

Figure 5.3 portrays the research approach, including its design, which depicts the holistic plan of the research, thus further explaining the relationships that exist between the study's variables. The process commences with defining the research problem. Then, a critical review of the extant literature implies a thorough consideration and identification of previous gaps in research, which shape the research aim and assist in expanding the strategic TM and Talent Retention knowledge. Developing the research framework follows, and is derived from the literature. Afterwards, the research approach and consistent strategy are selected, compatible with the research identified objectives. Next, the primary data is collected through employing a survey strategy, followed by undertaking data analysis by an analytical aid set (to be explained in further sections). When obtaining the results, a detailed discussion is performed, leading to the research conclusions. Finally, a summary of the research, including research limitations, is outlined, together with the derived recommendations and directions for future research.

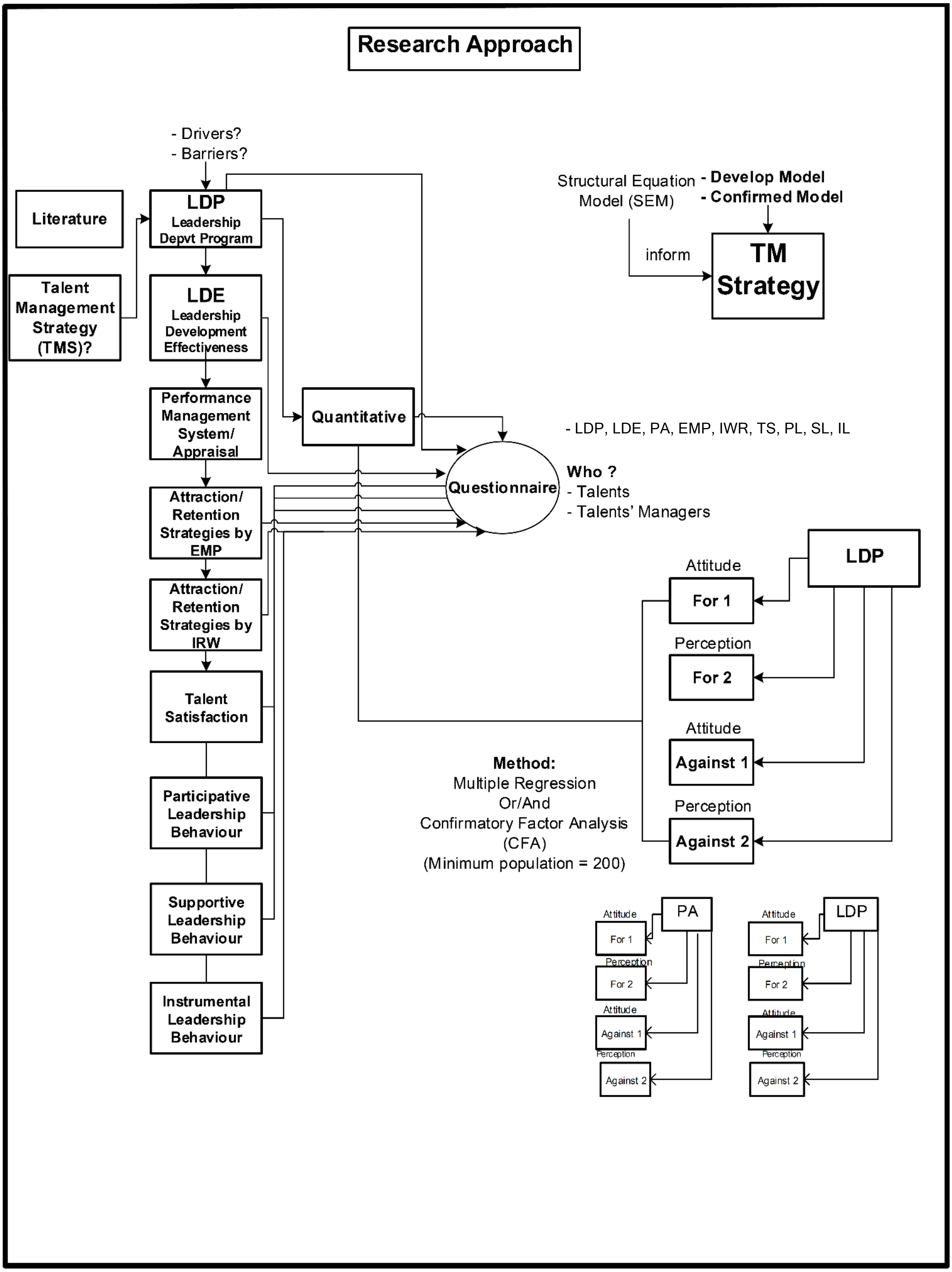


Figure 5.3. Research approach. Developed by the researcher.

5.7 Research Methods

The chief aim of this section is to address the tools employed and resources required for undertaking the research in the field of collecting and analysing data.

5.7.1 Data collection method

Data collection methods fall under two main classifications of quantitative or qualitative, by means of questionnaire, interviews, focus groups, and observations (Easterby-Smith et al. 2018). However, the sole anchor of the data collection method in this research is the quantitative method. Blumberg et al. (2008) categorised the mode for data collection into other broad groupings of either questioning or observation, where in the questioning (communication) approach, participants are the role player, while in an observation approach, respondents do not actively intervene in the investigation. As regards the communication method type of collecting data, surveys are a very common tool, followed by focus groups and in-depth interviews. A survey method also ranges between the applications of non-Internet survey methods (telephone interviews, ad hoc/mail channels, surveys, self-administered questionnaires, and door–to-door interviews) and Internet surveys (Blumberg et al. (2008). Based on Bell et al. (2018), a survey questionnaire is categorised into two clusters: the self-completion type (by the independent respondent), and structured interviews (researcher transcripts responses). Likewise, as defined by Sekaran and Bougie (2010), there are three types of questionnaires: personally administered, mail, or electronic questionnaires. Survey questionnaires have advantages and disadvantages, illustrated below:

- In the personally administered questionnaires, the researcher can support and motivate research participants, with fewer doubts arising; and there is a relatively high anonymity and response rate, which is a cost-effective means of collecting data when administered to a group instead of individuals. However, some firms may be hesitant to allow a group of employees time for such assembly.

- the merits of mail questionnaires can be described as the extra time given to respondents to complete the questionnaire at their convenience, which can be widely administered to reach all regions with high anonymity. Yet some critical drawbacks exist, e.g. a low response rate (30%), with follow-up actions being essential to chase up non-respondents; aside from this, it is not possible to offer clarifications of questions for respondents.
- electronic questionnaires are inexpensive, easy to administer, fast and able to reach afar, responses can be delivered rapidly, and participants can respond when convenient. On the other hand, to administer electronic/web questionnaire surveys, the researcher must be computer literate. In addition, participants need computer access and must be willing to fill in the survey electronically (Bell et al. 2018).

5.7.2 Justification for Data Collection Method

For Krathwohl (1997), the choice of method to be adopted is based on the research objectives, which are driven by aspects related to the researcher's environment. Moreover, according to Easterby-Smith et al. (2018), there are multiple considerations, such as the researcher's level of competence and expertise, research timeframe, degree of research accuracy required, as well as the costs associated with each individual method. For this research in this context, an Internet-mediated questionnaire design (Saunders et al. 2009) (in other words electronic/ web-based self-completed survey questionnaire) was employed as an appropriate data collection method, in compliance with the research's underlying philosophy paradigm as discussed in previous sections. This method was also used because of the survey questionnaires' strengths and efficiency in gathering data (facts, behaviours, attitudes, opinions, challenging knowledge, etc) from a relatively large sample size, bias-free, with the facility to perform comparisons straightforwardly owing to the consistency of the data obtained from questionnaires (Bryman and Bell 2011). Moreover, results acquired via survey questionnaires are representative of the entire population, and thus generalisation to the population as a whole is mostly likely secured (Creswell 2011). Other reasons underpinning the choice for this decision, are the fact that because of the culture of public organisations in the UAE, postal survey questionnaires may not be returned filled in; although permission to participate and disclose information by writing was gained, reluctance to respond to an unknown researcher is still common in such settings. However, the researcher is an insider researcher and her previous experience in ADG and familiarity with senior management made it more comfortable for the Emirati talented managers to complete the survey questionnaire. Moreover, the availability of the population domain via sharing their contact details within the broadcast group made it possible to use the web/electronic survey questionnaire as the prime mode for data collection. The shortcomings of web/electronic survey questionnaires are limited, the main disadvantage being the barrier to providing clarification in case of misunderstanding, as the researcher is not present while the respondent is completing the survey questionnaire via the online method (Bell et al. 2018). Nevertheless, no incompatibility issues were predicted (where respondents were not able to complete the survey) because all members of the population have configured devices and use smart phones. The trade-off, however, was that the researcher might need to constantly remind recipients to complete the online survey as the only method to enhance the response rate (Dillman 2000).

5.7.2.1 Components of survey research

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) and Collins (2010) argue that there are three main instruments necessary to produce an effective survey design; these are sampling technique, scale development, and datasets, which will be covered in the following sections, after introducing the target study population and sampling frame.

- **Target study population**

The researcher may employ either of the two main approaches to obtain data from the population: complete enumeration or partial enumeration, in which partial enumeration is known as the criterion sampling technique, as the researcher sets predefined criteria to inform the selection decisions of the representative sample from the wider population. The complete enumeration (known as census) is another strategy to receive more responses by involving the entire population 'oversample,' to overcome any anticipated nonresponse. However, the selection depends on the budget and available resources because, complete enumeration is considered costly (Gilbert 1986). Hence this research does not employ that sampling scheme, and the sample population comprises only 620 leaders, who are UAE national leaders (general managers, executive directors, division managers, and section heads), who served ADG for at least 4 years, to ensure they have the requisite and intimate knowledge of strategic TM practices at ADG departments, after being processed through the strategic TM pipeline, to increase the validity and robustness of the findings. The predetermined criteria for selecting key participants are related to seniority, nationality, and service length at public sector ≥ 4 years (Collins 2010). While having the potential to reach the entire population of this research, for the purpose of other research, and in order to build trust relationship with participants of this study and get the most appropriate and representative sample from the research population (Saunders et al. 2009), researchers can follow the systematic random sampling to determine the interval (k) the i^{th}. position (population/sample size) (k= 620/243=2.5); by picking every third position (3^{rd}.) name order after an initial list is identified at random, to ensure that each person has the probability of being selected at least once (Bernard 2000 150; Kumar 2014).

Likewise, the sample will be inclusive; it will involve talented leaders and their managers (who are also talented leaders) from sixty-five (65) different establishments within ADG. The sample members in this study incorporate minor variations in their education (PhD., MA. and BSc.), which can introduce uncertainty. However, deviation in age, gender, and seniority is very limited, which secures trust. The population and the representative sample constitute 20% general managers, 30% executive directors, 20% division managers and 30% section heads (Lyon et al. 2012).

- **Sampling Frame**

Deciding on the sampling frame is a critical task due to its essential contribution to accomplishing the purpose of research. That is, too small a sample size will not achieve what is intended from the investigation; meanwhile, too large a sample perhaps incurs extra budget expenses and resources. Sample size may be dependent upon several factors, such as the nature of the inquiry, type of sampling approach, financial capacity, size of the population, level of accuracy and confidence, timeframe for study completion, as well as the planned data analysis techniques to be undertaken against the explored sampling frame (Malhotra 1999). In addition, there is the volume of missing data, size of the model, reliability of variables, and the strength of relationships among these variables and their distribution manner (Muthen and Muthen 2002).

Therefore, because the present research intends to employ Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), which is sensitive to sample size and deemed less stable with moderately small samples, it has been essential to use an appropriate sample size in order for the adopted analysis technique to be robust. Considering the dearth of knowledge in TM, the strategic TM and retention field, with very little extant research (Comrey and Lee 1992; Tabachnick and Fidell 2001), the assumed acceptable sample size is 300, 500 is presumed very good, and 1000 is considered perfect for the function of SEM analysis. According to Hair et al. (2018), it is comfortable to use a minimum sample size of 200 for SEM to be an effective analysis tool and it is sufficient with a sample size of 250, conditionally, when missing data is relatively low

(10%). Nevertheless, to guide the determination of the number of key informants for the study, Yamane's (1967, 886) formula is widely applied to calculate the minimum sample size gathered and number of responses to be valid for the aim of this study, which should not be less than = 243 participants, where (n) is the population and (e) is the margin of error $(0.05)^2$:

$$\text{Sample Size} = \frac{N}{1 + n\,(e)^2} = \frac{620}{1 + 620\,(0.05)^2} = \frac{620}{2.55} = 243$$

5.7.2.1.1 Sampling technique

Sampling design is the strategy the researcher follows to select the most appropriate participants qualified to answer the research question, which is also interrelated with predetermining the number of those participants (the sample size) (Collins 2010). Sampling is the process of drawing a group to represent a population of interest at large, in order to obtain credible data and fulfil the purpose of the study. Sampling strategies are categorised into two main branches: probabilistic and purposive (non-probabilistic) sampling methods, which vary depending on research paradigm (Maruster and Gijsenberg 2013). Moreover, the aim of the inquiry determines the most appropriate sampling method, such as when 'making statistical inferences' for quantitative-oriented research or to improve understanding of narrative cases for qualitative studies (Gray 2014, 225). For example, a single-method *quantitative* research would ideally need a large sample of the population throughout the probability sampling, whereas the purely *qualitative* studies typically make inferences from a smaller sample, via the purposive or non-probability sampling scheme. However, research that employs either solely one method or multiple methods can use a combination of both sampling strategies. Each method uses distinct rules to draw the sample accordingly (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003).

A) Probability sampling

Probability selection is a mechanism of forming a sample based on random inclusion of all subjects from the population and the application of a selection rule. When the researcher aims to generalise from the full population, while ensuring robustness of the investigation, then it is necessary to employ probability sampling (Tansey 2007; Maruster and Gijsenberg 2013). Although this sampling technique does not depict a perfect representation of the extracted subset to the larger group, it is the only technique that entails non-bias in the selection procedure (Epstein and King 2002). According to Teddlie and Yu (2007, 77) 'probability samples aim to achieve representativeness, which is the degree to which the sample accurately represents the entire population.' As stated by Kidder et al. (1991, 132) 'certain sampling strategies can guarantee that if we were to repeat a study on a number of different samples selected from a given population, our findings would not differ from the true population figures by more than a specified amount in more than a specified proportion of the samples.' This can be attained by forming a proportion of the population at large (a representative sample), which associates the sample with the population. Therefore, the known probability that each element in the population is given the chance by the gatekeeper to participate is determined by the use of a random selection technique. Thus, the researcher can then predict if the inferences obtained from the sample would vary from the findings generated in the final analysis of the entire population, if all elements in the population have been able to take part in the study (Kidder et al. 1991, 132).

Types of probability sampling strategies are described below:

- Simple random sampling, where all elements of the targeted population are included in a list of random order and members have equal chance to be selected in a random manner (Tansey 2007). Subsequently, this results in leveraging the research credibility and minimising the chance of false correlations among variables occurring in the quantitative oriented research (Luborsky and Rubenstein 1995; Collins 2010). However, this sampling scheme has a disadvantage due to the possibility of generating a sample which is deemed very challenging to reach (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003).

- Systematic random sampling, where each n^{th}. ordered subject is selected from a predefined population that was drawn randomly (for example, picking every third person of the list). The researcher ought to be certain that selecting the n^{th}. unit will not repeatedly result in similar units (for instance if each 5^{th}. ordered person within the sample list is an executive director), which entails generating a diverse sample from the wider population (Maruster and Gijsenberg 2013). Hence, if this occurs, it is urged to reorder the list or adopt simple random sampling. As regards the advantages of systematic random sampling, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) claim that this technique is easier than simple random sampling. A drawback, however, is that the accumulated sample is not formed independently, as a result of not choosing the first subject individually and so the rest of subjects would have been determined in the same manner.

- Stratified random sampling (proportional and non-proportional)**,** in which the sample is a blend of random and deliberately selected subjects. This is to emphasize that certain important members of the population are unlikely to be excluded in the sample 'by chance,' e.g. melding two important strata of the population, then selecting the remaining balance of both subcategories or strata of the population randomly (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003; Tansey 2007).

- Cluster random sampling, which can be employed when sampling involves groups or clusters but not units or individuals, as they are available naturally (geographically) in populations such as schools, neighbourhoods, or hospitals. Researchers tend to use this scheme to save resources in terms of money and time (Teddlie and Yu 2007).

- Multi-stage sampling, (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003; Collins 2010; Maruster and Gijsenberg 2013), in which the sample is drawn from the population of interest by employing random methods, but the process is implemented in two different stages, such as when determining the sample is complicated or the population is so large. Teddlie and Yu (2007) explain that in multistage sampling, several probability-sampling schemes can be implemented within a single study.

- Multiple probability technique, in which researchers often sample employing the probability, purposive, and convenience sampling schemes simultaneously to draw relatively more sophisticated samples. For instance, multiple cluster sampling can be implemented in multiple stages, beginning with selecting random categories, then sampling the desired subjects that exist in those clusters (Teddlie and Yu 2007).

Having mentioned the advantages of selecting the sample at random, the risk attached to the probability sampling technique is the chance of excluding important participants unintentionally (Tansey 2007).

B) Purposive (non-probability) sampling

Unlike probability sampling, the tendency of the non-probability sampling is that the selection is subjectively dependent upon the researcher's judgement to include key informants, so the researcher draws the sample from the entire population without exercising random sampling. Methods of the non-probability sampling are:

- Convenience sampling (Burgess 1984), also known as availability or accidental sampling (Tansey 2007), or opportunistic sampling in Maruster and Gijsenberg (2013). In this method, the researcher includes the cheap and current accessible cases, who are volunteers or the respondents who are willing to participate (Teddlie and Yu 2007), until the complete sample representation of the people sought is drawn (Tansey 2007). Although convenience sampling is dominant among qualitative researchers, it has been criticised for the absence of a predefined scheme or an applied rule for selection. Maruster and Gijsenberg (2013) cited convenience sampling as the least preferred sampling technique, as it entails false findings because the available subjects are unlikely able to address the research questions.

- Quota sampling, which has been identified to overcome the drawbacks of convenience sampling, as there is no guarantee or knowledge that the derived proportion of the chosen sample possesses features of the broader population deemed necessary by the researcher for the sake of the study. Here, the researcher is certain that the selected sample involves characteristics of the population at large. However, some limitations arise, such as the impossibility that the researcher can ensure that extra important features (e.g. seniority and experience) exist in the representative sample, apart from a particularly established criterion. Nevertheless, when specific proportions are included and guaranteed in the sample, 'the selection rules or the interviewers' inadvertent biases may lead to the over-representation of subjects with other particular characteristics' (Kidder et al. 1991; Tansey 2007, 770).

- Snowball/chain-referral sampling, which is mostly appropriate for sociological studies, where subjects are hidden or when compiling a proportion of interviewees creates a problem for the investigator (examples are studies on drugs or prostitution). Thus, the researcher reaches the sample by nominating participants, who will also suggest other subjects relevant to the study, of similar characteristics (Seldon and Pappworth 1983), and so will do the second proportion to supply distinct potential subgroups (Biernacki and Waldord 1981). The researcher then judges at which subset to stop when he/she realizes that no additional referrals would have disclosed further significant information about the studied phenomenon.

As regards the associated risks to the snowballing approach, the researcher is urged to develop a sufficient list of the initial interviewees' list of diverse elements. In addition, it is pivotal to ensure that the emerged chain of referrals is constantly within the edges of the study, to prevent the sample from overly deviating in any certain direction (Tansey 2007).

- Criterion-based or purposive sampling, which is a selection strategy adopted based on the research purpose as well as their familiarity with the population. The process framed by the investigator's needs can be fulfilled by interviewing purposefully selected actors according to the predefined criteria. Predetermining the selection criteria helps improve the 'informational representativeness' (Sandelowski 2000, 250). Thus, the application of selection rules judges the development of the desired sample; hence, some subjects the researcher is not interested in can be neglected by chance (Tansey 2007).

Henry (1990, 32) articulated unequivocally that 'only in the cases where probability samples cannot be used are nonprobability samples viable.' Some disadvantages are introduced because the investigator controls the inclusion of certain respondents in the selection stage, so this method entails selection bias (Tansey 2007); therefore, reaching robustness is compromised here and cannot be attained, according to

Henry (1990) and Maruster and Gijsenberg (2013). Consequently, the argument that probability sampling has superiority over the non-probability method of sampling would be valid, and it is advisable to use the latter only in limited situations. Such situations could include when there is a shortage in resources or when the investigator aims to generalise about an enormous sample of elites while not generalising the sample to other population or contexts. The goal of the non-probability method is to get depth of information about certain processes or events of interest (Tansey 2007), according to the researcher's perception pertaining to the quality of data obtained from the chosen cases (Collins 2010). Moreover, it is employed to formulate new theories based on the new views yielded pertaining to the phenomenon studied (Miles and Huberman 1994). However, implementing random selection to the specifically selected key cases can enhance credibility by minimising key case bias (Maxwell 1996). Table 5.6 lists the advantages and disadvantages of the probability and non-probability sampling approaches:

Sr.	Advantages	Disadvantages
Probability Sampling	• Avoids selection bias. • Enables generalisations from the sample to the wider population.	• Risks omitting important respondents through chance.
Non-probability Sampling	• Control over selection process. • Inclusion of important political actors.	• Greater scope for selection bias. • Limited potential to generalise from the sample to the wider population.

Table 5.6. Advantages and disadvantages of probability and non-probability sampling, adopted from Tansey (2007, 769).

C) Mixed methods sampling

Mixed methods (MM) sampling encompasses selecting subjects and cases using quantitative and qualitative sampling techniques, in an appropriate manner, in order to offer an appropriate answer to the research question that is raised by the employed research design. Sampling using MM strategies is a blend of probability (to reinforce external validity) and purposive (to increase credibility of findings to enable transferability) sampling techniques. Thus, the limitations which arise when adopting quantitative or qualitative oriented investigations separately are bridged via complementing each other (Collins et. al 2006). Teddlie and Yu (2007) provide five examples of MM sampling: basic MM sampling strategies, sequential MM sampling, concurrent MM sampling, multilevel MM sampling, or a combination of MM sampling schemes, as shown in Table 5.7:

Dimension	**Mixed method sampling**
Overall purpose of sampling	To generate a sample that will address all research question
Intended outcomes	For some strands/research questions intended outcome is external validity; for other strands intended outcome is transferability
Rationale for selecting cases/units	For some strands the focus is on representativeness, for other strands the focus is on information-rich cases
Sample size	For some strands there will be a large number of cases/units; for other strands, there may be one case or a few cases
Depth/breadth of information per case/unit	Focus on both breadth and depth of information across all research strands

Dimension	Mixed method sampling
When the sample is selected	For quantitative-type strands, the sample is selected prior to the study; for more qualitative strands, sampling can occur both before and during the study
Sampling frame	Both formal and informal are used
Form of data generated	Both numeric and narrative data are generated

Table 5.7. Characteristics of mixed methods sampling. Adopted from Teddlie and Yu (2007).

Mixing sampling methods can be conducted simultaneously (concurrent) or consecutively, where one follows the other (sequential). In the concurrent design, the quantitative and qualitative sampling methods are undertaken individually on two different stages, then data is merged in the data analysis phase. However, in sequential mixed method sampling, qualitative methods can follow quantitative or vice versa. Collins et al. (2006) identified four types of relationships between the concurrent and sequential sampling designs: identical, parallel, nested, and multilevel, as detailed in the following Table 5.8.

Sampling Design	**Characteristics**
Identical sampling design	In an identical sampling design, typical cases participate in both quantitative and qualitative studies. Either one comes before the other (sequential) or at the same time (concurrent). In this case, same subjects of the sample take part in the survey questionnaire and interview stages and at the same time (Gray 2014).

Sampling Design	Characteristics
Parallel sampling design	In a parallel sampling design, members of the sample who take part in each method are not the same, but both were extracted from the primary population. Sampling can be done in two forms, either pairwise design or sub-group design, according to Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007). In the pairwise design, subjects are compiled as one set 'voice' and compared to the individual cases. Similarly, in the sub-group sampling design, comparison is performed across distinct sub-sets, in order for the researcher to generalise findings over all sub-categories in qualitative research based on Collins et al. (2006) 'The commitment to generalize across all groups is often too dominant in the researcher's focus' (Gray 2014, 227).
Nested sampling design	In a nested sampling design, sample members of one study belong to the same sub-set sample of the other component of the research which is drawn from the desired population. Hence, a number of informants who will be interviewed are part of the sub-group who participated in the survey and vice versa. Thus, the sample is nested, but sampling is not deemed sequential because sampling one method does not address the second. This approach does not require extra sample size as subsets of the sample are nested in the same sample (Collins et al. 2006; Gray 2014).
Multilevel sampling design	In a multilevel sampling design, subsets are drawn from distinct populations. Samples can be students as well as teachers for a concurrently designed study, exploring their perception of new educational software (Collins et al. 2006; Onwuegbuzie and Leech 2007; Gray 2014).

Table 5.8. Types of relationships between concurrent and sequential sampling designs. Developed by the researcher.

5.7.2.1.2 Justification for chosen research sampling technique:

The complete enumeration (census) sampling technique was employed for this study (Gilbert 1986) because it is suggested that survey questionnaires elicit a low level of response rates (50%-75%), whilst the web-based survey arguably tends to return an even lower rate of only 30% completed online questionnaires. In addition, sampling technique is bounded according to the nature of the inquiry and sample size (here only 243), as well as the data analysis technique (Blumberg et al. 2011). Hence, the researcher employed the entire population in order to increase the chance of subjects' participation and obtain rigorous analysis from the SEM analysis tool, which requires minimum informants of 250 based on Hair et al. (2018).Thus, the researcher advertised the questionnaire across the entire population, who are the leaders at Abu Dhabi public departments, via email and the WhatsApp application for smart phones (Saunders et al. 2009). Reaching all participants in the population was facilitated by the Abu Dhabi School of Government, as they have access to all the leaders in government, who were managed in the past by the HR authority and currently by the above-mentioned newly established department (ADSG 2019). Regarding the governmental establishments, the researcher maintained the list and sought help from ADSG to make sure that all departments were included in the list. This is because in the UAE some departments are not managed by the government sector, and so the researcher affirmed that no department was excluded by mistake. Moreover, the list of leaders (the study population) was determined by the government.

5.7.2.1.3 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire design contributes to the response rate, as suitable research design establishes the reliability and validity of the collected data, in addition to deriving unbiased estimates of inferences, conclusions, and interpretation of results (Collis and Hussey 2013). Essential considerations should therefore be made before embarking on the design phase, by ascertaining that it is presented appropriately and exhibits an effective respondents' interface, with the provision of clear and short instructions on how to respond, including important information for the respondent about the study being surveyed. This in order to construct a clear design for the questionnaire, prior to launching the web-based self-completion survey questionnaire to the respondents (Bradburn et al. 1979; Dillman 2007; Bell et al. 2018; Bryman and Bell 2011). However, in some cases, when a desired method is preferable, designing the questionnaire can be framed to fulfil the researcher's preference, although this approach is not recommended (White 2009). It is also recommended to access sites of repositories, involving existing questions by researchers, which allows the researcher to find desired questions that are available online free of charge (e.g. the UK archive, retrieved from: surveynet.ac.uk/sqb/questionnaires.asp).

Hence, the initial design of the survey questionnaire was shaped with the aim of meeting the criteria of good practice. As noted earlier, the method employed is the web-based survey design via initial contact by the internet, where the web (in this research SurveyMonkey, retrieved from www.surveymonkey.com) hosts the survey and publishes it, and responses were returned and stored online via the internet through WhatsApp. The questionnaire was designed using the SurveyMonkey tool, which generated a hyperlink (Hewson et al. 2003) and published the survey for completion. The researcher then undertook a pre-survey contact via email; the researcher furbished the hyperlink, which was emailed by the mediating entity to distribute the questionnaire across ADG Departments (Saunders et al. 2009). Additionally, the participants were invited to access the questionnaire via the hyperlink which was deployed online via a popular social media application (WhatsApp) to the entire population. Thus, respondents were requested to read carefully the related statement of questions and indicate their degree of agreement by selecting one answer which was the most appropriate option to best convey their opinion on each item. The definition of strategic TM was demonstrated on the front page or interface of the online survey. Moreover, owing to the variance in participant perspectives, the author had to determine that the study would target leaders of talents only, to ensure the correct meaning was sought via participants. Furthermore, the researcher utilised various designing options and features within the web-based questionnaire, such as supplementary responses for the respondent in order to add additional information for each section of the questionnaire dimensions, that were expected to enrich data collected with value added aspects which can help in discussing the research results (Bell et al. 2018; Creswell 2011; Crotty, 1998). Therefore, the questionnaire concludes with an open-format-question, prompting the respondent to add his/her comments e.g. tips for future possible changes requested or for improvement purposes. In order to allow all potential answers, the design of questions incorporated multiple choice questions, in addition to offering the option: 'other, please specify:' (Little 2013).

5.7.2.1.4 Scale development

Measurement instruments in research can be defined as 'the rules for assigning of numbers to objects in such a way as to represent quantities of attribute' (Churchill and Iacobucci 2009, 145). There are four broad brands of measurement, which are: nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio. It is challenging to choose the most appropriate one. However, the empirical evidence highlighted no superiority for one scaling technique over others to measure the intended characteristics, for all patterns of the inquiries; hence, the decision of the choice is influenced by the nature of the problem, participants' traits, the intended administration approach, for the particular instance and upon the characteristics the scale possesses (Churchill and Iacobucci, 2009, 145). Scaling the questionnaire is the aid employed to measure elusive phenomena, which are impossible to examine directly or observe straightforwardly (DeVellis 2003). For this research, a mixture of nominal, ordinal, and interval (scale) variables were employed, as they are the commonly used measures for the corresponding variables in such attitudinal research (Bryman and Bell 2011). Development of the questionnaire constructs was subject to several stages and is set out below.

5.7.2.1.4.1 Questionnaire measures

The questionnaire was developed by the underpinning literature and adapted as a result of reviewing prior studies which employed a similar/validated instrument for the data collection phase. Constructs are the building segments of the theories in the literature. The questionnaire consists of five main areas: 1. Leadership Development, 2. Performance Appraisal, 3. Attraction and Retention Strategies, 4. Job Satisfaction and 5. Leadership Behaviour. The nature of questions varies between nominal and interval scale to capture respondents' profiles, and measures data by a set of managerial questions. The questionnaire involves two categories of questions explained below, to answer the research questions, under the main constructs that relate to established theories which illuminated how to approach the relevant questions, and according to the argument provided in the previous chapter, which illustrated the research-underpinned conceptual framework that guides the investigation (Kothari 2004; Bryman and Bell 2011; Crewell and Creswell 2017). The first category consists of six questions which aim to capture respondents' demographic characteristics, including position, age group, gender, qualification, the governmental department the respondent is currently working in, and tenure of work at the organisation. The second batch of constructs contains 54 questions based on the research conceptual framework, which is developed for the purpose of this study, and was discussed in the prior chapters.

1. Obtain demographic data;
2. A) The adoption of a TM strategy at ADG. Long-term strategy determinants (Leadership Development LD, Performance Appraisal PA and Attraction and Retention Strategies by empowerment EMP and short-term strategies IWR (incentives);

B) Evaluation of TM strategies from executives' perspectives, in line with ADG objectives, including the current obstacles to implementing an effective strategic TM programme (Leadership behaviour, talent satisfaction, talent intention to stay or quit).

5.7.2.1.4.2 Adaptation of the research instrument

Scales developed by previous authors were largely used for this inquiry, and were identified in the literature review phase of this project (Please refer to Table 5.9 on page 249 which precisely maps each sub-scale with the study's variable it measures). The questionnaire's subscales were previously validated, and adapted from the contemporary literature on human resources management and strategic TM. The use of pre-measured constructs yields a smooth, easy and efficient procedure, which appear to have more suitable questions as indicated by notable academics such as Saunders et al. (2009); Bryman and Bell (2011); Little (2013) and Bell et al. (2018). Likewise, to optimise the validity of the questionnaire, the author considered the cultural relevance of the questions; therefore, a cross-cultural adaptation of the questionnaire was processed, in which questions were carefully adopted and adapted from pre-validated scales and the literature to fit the context of the research (Little 2013).

5.7.2.1.4.3 Formulating measurement items

Generating scale items is crucial as they act as the window for the returned replies (datasets); therefore, the researcher was aware of some characteristics the questionnaire ought to exhibit. For instance, items of the questionnaire should guide the comprehensive research in terms of the embedded decisions surrounding literature review, the employed research design, data to be collected, respondent criteria, and data analysis (Marx 1997). Moreover, items of the study questionnaire are meant to ascertain a potential contribution to the existing knowledge in the field (Bryman and Bell 2011). Therefore, the author immersed herself thoroughly whilst formulating survey questions, and devoted considerable time and effort, especially as the related literature of the topic under study was scarcely addressed. Nonetheless, the evaluative measures of the 'what' HR perception on HR bundles tend to be dominant in the literature, as pointed out by Beijer et al. (2021). The inclusion of the evaluation measure implied both approaches, the observation-based and the experience-based strategic TM measures, similar to Wang et al. (2020) on measuring employee HR perceptions, which resulted in distinct empirical results. The observation-based strategic TM measures extract talent's perception of the strategic TM practice adoption via spotting each evaluator as a third person observer, such as asking talent if they observe the prominence of performance appraising at their departments. Take, for example, PA3: 'Performance review meetings are conducted periodically' (Kehoe and Wright 2013). The experience-based strategic TM measures depict talent ratings as stemming directly from their experience, (Conway et al. 2016), such as asking participants if they receive a formal assessment of their performance e.g. PA10: 'The data from the monitoring system is currently used to evaluate your performance.' PA7: 'I am satisfied with my organisation's practice of including the boss in the evaluation of employee performance,' and so on. Thus, this doctoral thesis intends to make a reasonably noteworthy contribution to knowledge in employee TM attribution by using a diverse array of strategic TM evaluated measures, a composite of employing evaluative measures and experience measures, rather than the descriptive counterparts, and others based on observation; such a methodological approch appears to depict robust associations with employee outcomes (Wang et al. 2020).

Questionnaire items were determined along with establishing a key linkage with the research aims in order to fulfil research objectives to identify TM strategies adapted by ADG and explore perceptions and perspectives of executive talent regarding the use of strategic TM to forecast their retention, as guided by their attitude. In order to ensure clear and precise communication with the questionnaire audience, the researcher made efforts to avoid complex and ambiguous statements, or extremely abstract terms, questions, or constructs, to make it easy for the participant to understand and measure the constructs. Statements preceding the constructs were located to explicitly explain the meaning of the subsequent construct; for instance, some constructs possibly have more than one meaning. University academics were also engaged in the development of the questionnaire, including a director of studies, research supervisors, and other experts. In addition, in the process of improving the research questionnaire, a soft copy of the questionnaire was distributed among peers (via email and WhatsApp) to provide feedback on the statements included in the study, in terms of their clarity or ambiguity, based on their viewpoints. Therefore, feedback was obtained, and the investigator applied the required amendments accordingly, such as avoiding the absolute statement of the scale items. A peer review process was performed, including some lecturers from Liverpool John Moores University; the proposed statement of questions was discussed with four Senior Lecturers who have a long experience at the university and supervise many doctoral students, to gain their opinion on the clarity of the questions and any possible enhancement that could be made to improve the quality of the questionnaire (Kothari 2004; Bryman and Bell 2011; Creswell and Creswell 2017; Creswell and Clark 2018).

There are two broad categories of questionnaire questions, open-ended and closed-ended. Open-ended questions can be used for both quantitative and qualitative research and could be more associated with a qualitative research approach, with potential risks of confusion for the researcher due to the expected masses of data. However, the closed-ended approach of questionnaire questions advocates a tighter focus and form of questions. Closed questions are more suitable for surveys, to get appropriate and large datasets and ease recording and coding responses, and are compatible with the analysis software, particularly in self-completion questionnaires (Bryman and Bell 2011; Bell et al. 2018). Closed-ended questions have the strength of acquiring sensitive data more flexibily than is the case with the open-ended questions.

For this doctoral project, constructs are interrelated to each other and are measurable, so they can be tested. The questionnaire consists of fifty-three coherent sets of scale items, closely connected to each other within the related construct, in addition to six questions formulated to capture the demographic attributes of the participants of this investigation. Items of measurement used for this survey questionnaire are the closed-ended questions, for better validity and consistency across the scale measurement (Easterby-Smith et al. 2018).

5.7.2.1.4.4 Scaling the questionnaire

Churchill Jr and Peter (1984) and Barnes et al. (1994) argue that the commonly used seven-point scale has a positive influence on the reliability of answers, as well as overall answering rates (Malhotra 1999), in addition to more rigorous t-test outcomes in terms of correlation, as reported by Lewis (1993). However, considering the contextual adaptation, in such situations it is preferable to employ fewer numbers on the Likert scale, including neutral choice, as claimed by Cox (1980). Therefore, a five-point Likert scale was adopted for scoring and used for all statements of the inquiry, in order to gain more responses and reduce the respondents' chances of being frustrated and confused (Babakus and Mangold 1992; Devlin et al. 1993; Hayes 1992). To Gallardo-Gallardo et al. (2020) context matters, so realising the characteristics of participants is important in the design stage, the execution of the research, and the intended inferential analysis. Therefore, the scale determined, based on the seniority of the research sample, to be appropriate, because senior leaders are engaged in executive role activities i.e. meetings, delegations, and the like. According to Marton-Williams (1986), research-based evidence has revealed that a five-point scale is a comprehensive tool through which respondents can convey their opinions. Further, the choice is shaped by imitating the majority of studies gauging perceptions by the adoption of a five-point Likert scale rather than a seven-point Likert scale for additudinal research. A Likert scale was employed for statements exploring the opinions, perceptions, and beliefs of respondents in order to assess the extent of the TM strategies' effectiveness. The five-point Likert scoring-scale employed for the purpose of this research was: 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= neutral, 4= disagree and 5= strongly disagree (Bell et al. 2018).

The anonymity and confidentiality of respondents were preserved so that their answers would not refer to their identity or be traced back in any way when results were reported or dismantled, as the survey contains a couple of questions which directly ask the participants to indicate their potential dissatisfaction or intention to leave their current jobs (Bryman and Bell 2011; Creswell and Clark 2018; Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). In order to explore the strategies related to the above dimensions, a scale was developed as delineated in Table 5.9, which lists the interrelated constructs of the study, the corresponding 54 questions against the contemporary source of the underpinning theories and literature surrounding strategic TM and human resources management.

5.7.2.1.4.5 Research Questionnaire

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
1.	Leadership Development	ADG Behaviour towards Leadership Talent development practices	01. LDP1: 'My organisation develops high potential employees to become leaders to ensure a strong talent pool.'	-To identify the TM strategies adopted by ADG by exploring talent perspectives.	Armstrong (2012); Chami-Malaeba and Garavanb (2013,4053); Deloitte (2005); Highhouse et

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
			02. LDP2: 'Coaches and mentors assist managers to develop their skills.' 03. LDP3: 'Managers prepare development plans with each direct report.' 04. LDP4: 'Managers implement important projects in order to develop their skills.'		al. (1999); Fulmer et al. (2003); Lievens et al. (2005);
		Talent attitudes towards the effectiveness of the Leadership Development Programme	05. LDE1: 'I believe the leadership development programme (LDP) helps to identify the strength and weaknesses of talents.' 06. LDE2: 'I believe that I am achieving the	- To, critically, assess the effectiveness of the implementation of talent management programmes at ADG.	Anderson (2007); Mead (2007); Stewart and Rigg (2011, 250)

Sr	Construct	Dimension / Measures	Question Code and Statement	Research Objective	Underpinning theories / Studies
			intended learning outcomes of the LDP.' 07. LDE3: 'I believe that I am ready to do a higher-grade job.' 08. LDE4: 'I believe that I acquired the competencies required for my position.' 09. LDE5: 'I believe that I am ready to occupy a strategic position.' 10. LDE6: 'I believe that I am ready for job rotation.' 11. LDE7: 'I believe investing in LDP enables achieving the strategic objectives.'		

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
			12. LDE8: 'I believe the training allowance allocated for LDP is sufficient.' 13. LDE9: 'Overall, my evaluation of LDP tends to be as an effective programme.'		
2.	Performance Appraisal	Talent perception towards: The use of information for performance feedback	14. PA1: 'Positive feedback and fair appraisals are being provided in my organisation.'	-To identify the adopted TM strategies by ADG by exploring talents' perspectives.	Armstrong (2012); Singh and Sharma (2015, 339)
		The use of Performance Appraisal to:	15. PA2: 'The set performance targets are specific, realistic, and challenging.'	- To, critically, assess the effectiveness of the implementation of talent management	(Harper 2001)
			16. PA3: 'Performance review meetings are conducted periodically.'		Armstrong (2009, 311)

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
			17. PA4: 'Performance appraisal enables me to perform my job as a leader efficiently.'	programmes at ADG.	Armstrong (2009, 311)
		a) evaluate performance,	18. PA5: 'The data from the monitoring system is used to help improve my performance (e.g. for developmental purposes).'		Chen and Ross (2007, 497); Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 67)
			19. PA6: 'I am satisfied with my organisation's practice to include peers in the evaluation of employee's performance.'		Chami-Malaeba and Garavanb (2013, 4053)
			20. PA7: 'I am satisfied with my organisation's practice to include		

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
			boss in the evaluation of employee's performance.'		
			21. PA8: 'I am satisfied with my organisation's practice to include oneself in the evaluation of employee's performance.'		
			22. PA9: 'I believe that I achieved my individual performance objectives.'		Latham and Locke (1979); Stewart and Rigg (2011, 250)
		a) establish performance, standards	23. PA10: 'The data from the monitoring system is currently used to evaluate your performance.'		Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 67)

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
		b) develop incentives.	24. PA11: 'The data from the monitoring system is being used to develop an incentive pay system.'		Carayon (1993, 389); Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 67)
			25. PA12: 'Performance appraisal distracts managers from the core functions.'		Armstrong (2009, 311)
3.	Job Satisfaction	Talent attitude as indicator for their job satisfaction	26. JS1: 'I feel enthusiastic about my work.'	-To critically assess the effect of the implementation of talent management programmes at ADG on talent satisfaction.	Brayfield and Rothe (1951, 309); Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 66)
			27. JS2: 'I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.'	- To identify the main drivers and enablers of implementing effective Talent	Braun et al. (2013, 275)

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
		The affective organisational commitment	28. JS3: ‘I am satisfied with my working conditions.’	Management Strategy at ADG departments.	Allen and Meyer (1990, 6); Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 66); Hussain *et al.* (2018)
			29. JS4: ‘I feel emotionally attached to this organisation.’		Meyer et al. (1993, 544); Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 66); Hussain *et al.* (2018)
		Talent behaviour ‘conscientiousness’ as determinant for engaging with Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)	30. JS5: ‘My attendance at work tends to be above my colleagues.’		Podsakoff et al. (1990, 121); Jeske and Santuzzi (2015, 66)
4.	Talent attraction, Acquisition, and Retention Strategies	Talent perceptions towards retention strategies at AGD: - Enabling and Empowering talents	31. RS1: ‘I make a significant impact in my department.’	-To identify the adopted TM strategies by ADG by exploring talent perspectives.	Pan et al. (2012, 440)

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
		a) impact		- To critically assess the effect of the implementation of talent management programmes at ADG on talent retention.	
		b) competence	32. RS2: 'I possess the skills necessary for my job.'		Pan et al. (2012, 440)
		c) meaning	33. RS3: 'My job activities are personally meaningful to me.'		Pan et al. (2012, 440); Lee et al. (2018);
		d) self-determination	34. RS4: 'I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.'		Pan et al. (2012, 440); Lievens et al. (2005); Towers Perrin (2005); Srivastava and Bhatnagar (2010)
		e) creativity	35. RS5: 'My organisation enables me to generate creative ideas.'		Pan *et al*. (2012, 440)
		Talent perceptions towards retention strategies at AGD:	36. RS6: 'My organisation provides on-site opportunities		Cable and Graham (2000), Highhouse et al.

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
		- Incentives, work conditions and performance rewards	and a global exposure for talent.' 37. RS7: 'My organisation provides clear career path and opportunities to progress.' 38. RS8: 'My organisation provides strong social security and employee welfare.' 39. RS9: 'My organisation offers salaries that are above the market rate.' 40. RS10: 'My organisation improves work conditions to increase organisational identity.'		(1999), Lievens et al. (2005); Towers Perrin (2005, 17); Srivastava and Bhatnagar (2010); Singh and Sharma (2015, 339)

Sr	Construct	Dimension / Measures	Question Code and Statement	Research Objective	Underpinning theories / Studies
			41. RS11: 'My organisation offers performance-driven rewards.'		
		Intention to stay	42. RS12: 'I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.'		Ng and Butts (2009, 298); Chami-Malaeba and Garavanb (2013, 4054)
5.	Leadership Behaviour	**Participative Leadership**	43. PL1: 'Before making decisions, my manager considers what their subordinates have to say.' 44. PL2: 'Before taking action my manager consults with subordinates.' 45. PL3: 'When faced with a problem, my	- To identify the leadership style predominantly adopted by the management at ADG departments, which shapes employed retention strategies.	Fleishman (1957); Stogdill (1963); Bowsers and Seashore (1966); Fiedler (1967); House (1971a;b); House and Dessler (1974); Ogbonna and Harris (2000, 777)

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
			manager consults with subordinates.' 46. PL4: 'My manager asks subordinates for their suggestions.'	- To identify the main challenges and barriers to implementing Talent Management Strategy at ADG departments.	
		Supportive Leadership	47. SL1: 'My manager creates a working environment in which subordinates feel free to offer advice.' 48. SL2: 'My manager values the advice given by subordinates.' 49. SL3: 'My manager helps people to make working on their tasks more pleasant.' 50. SL4: 'My manager looks out for the		Fleishman (1957); Stogdill (1963); Bowsers and Seashore (1966); Fiedler (1967); House (1971a;1971b); House and Dessler (1974); Ogbonna and Harris (2000, 777)

Sr	*Construct*	*Dimension / Measures*	*Question Code and Statement*	*Research Objective*	*Underpinning theories / Studies*
			personal welfare of group members.' 51. SL5: 'My manager treats all group members as equals.'		
		Instrumental Leadership	52. IL1: 'My manager decides what and how things shall be done.' 53. IL2: 'My manager explains the way tasks should be carried out.' 54. IL3: 'My manager maintains definite standards of performance.' 55. IL4: 'My manager schedules the work to be done.'		Fleishman (1957); Stogdill (1963); Bowsers and Seashore (1966); Fiedler (1967); House (1971a; 1971 b); House and Dessler (1974); Ogbonna and Harris (2000, 777)

Table 5.9. Research questionnaire. Developed by the researcher.

5.8 Survey piloting

Pre-testing the survey instrument (statements of the study) prior to commencing the formal stage of administering it for data collection is a pivotal phase, in which any defects in the design could be identified and manipulated accordingly; it is a way for an appropriate and efficient stratification planning (Kothary 2004; Saunders *et al*. 2009). The pilot study aimed at examining the questionnaire in terms of its reliability and validity, to check if the formulated questions were effective in gathering the relevant data, together with the adopted measures and the applied tool being sufficient to implement the formal data collection of the whole scale. This is to ensure the possible replication of the instrument applied for data collection and generalisation to other contexts. It is, however, not necessary to generalise to countries where the scale may not have an appropriate internal consistency (Bell *et al*. 2018). A pilot study was conducted by taking small (though large enough or reasonable) numbers of the proposed strata representing the targeted population and undertaking a preliminary survey handing small sets of scale items to be examined and statistically analysed. This is in order to generate internally reliable and consistent scale, before accomplishing the actual survey on the whole scale items, in order to stand by the primary results obtained herewith, by which more data will often be generated later to provide evidence on the construct's validity (Bryman and Bell 2011). This important step may clear up pitfalls associated with question formulation, which is particularly essential for research employing a self-completion questionnaire, where the researcher is not present to eliminate potential confusion pertaining to the questions. Moreover, with the self-completion questionnaire it is good to address problems before they become explicitly apparent for all respondents (Creswell and Creswell 2017).

Hence, a pilot study was conducted upon review with reasonable confidence, where the questionnaire was deployed via email to a number of executive talents in multiple establishments, with a brief about the project, its objectives and importance to their government, and with sufficient definitions and instructions in order to get their feedback on the statements' length, flow, content, clarity, or any weaknesses that may have existed in the questionnaire (Bryman and Bell 2011; Creswell and Clark 2018). The participants were granted online access to the questionnaire through publishing the hyperlink among their group sets, from which they could retrieve and complete the questionnaire online.

5.8.1 Results of the preliminary pilot study

Table 5.10 displays the results produced from the preliminary pilot study.

Test	**Result**
Reliability Statistics	Cronbach's alpha test examines the internal consistency of the scores derived from scale questions to insure reliability. The Cronbach's alpha test result scored .975 for 54 statements and 30 responses, in which we can assume that the questionnaire constructs are fairly good (Little 2013).
Descriptive Statistics	Categories of the respondents varied based on diverse classifications: seniority level, age group, gender, qualifications, name of governmental department, and tenure. It was previously noted that the survey was shared online to a pilot study sample of 37 talented leaders by email. Thirty completed records were returned, where the majority were male (94.3%), while females formed the minority, rated at (5.7%). Regarding the seniority level, the majority of respondents (70.3%) were section heads, (20.4%) were division managers and (9.3%) executive directors. Pertaining to the age group, the vast majority of the pilot respondents were in the 45–54 age group (n=18), with seven participants aged 35–44 years, and five aged 23–34 years. In respect of respondents' qualifications, 19 respondents held a degree or equivalent, 8 held a Master's degree or equivalent, and only 3 held a PhD or equivalent degree. As for tenure, only 5 leaders had 4–7 years of tenure at ADG departments (ADG) at percentage (16.6%); 7 leaders had 8–12 years of tenure experience in ADG, rated at (23.3%); 4 leaders had 13–17 years of experience in ADG, rated at (13.3%); 10 leaders had 18–24 years of tenure in ADG, and these were the greatest proportion of

Test	Result
	respondents (33.3%); and 9 leaders had the longest tenure, of 25 years and above working in ADG, at percentage (30%). Relating to the adoption and implementation of TM strategies, 98.6% of the initiatives for TM were implemented, with a remainder of 1.4% strategies being not adopted.
t-test	Independent t-test was conducted to establish if significant variance occurs, by comparing the mean in answers between two independent variables from the sample. The test looked into respondents' rating according to their gender, where males' responses are defined as value 1 for male, while female were given value 2. Independent t-test indicated that the ratings presented a statistically significant result as they are different between male and female because 'Sig. (2-tailed)' or 'p' values are less than or equal the alpha level of 0.05, which means that the equality of variances occurs between the two groups. The sample size in this case is N= 30, (Male= 18, Female= 12) (Urdan 2016).
Levene's Test	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was employed to find out where the variance in answers resides. The significant variance lies within talent satisfaction dimension, the question: 'I feel enthusiastic about my work' reported a slight difference between male and female (M=4.00, 3.17). The standard deviation difference in dispersion of distribution (in this case talent satisfaction) between male and female showed a notable difference (SD=.767, 1.403). This could be evidence that a notable variance in the distribution of gender satisfaction exists, which can be interpreted as that male talented leaders are less satisfied than female talented leaders at ADG. Leven's test scored non-significance (Sig.= .003 < .05) so equal variances are not assumed [P=Sig. (2-tailed) =.045 < .05] (Field 2009).

Test	Result
One-Way ANOVA	One-way ANOVA test is conducted to demonstrate analysis of variance in the means scored for more than two independent groups. The purpose is to realise the difference in perceptions among the groups but without telling in which region the difference actually lies. Therefore, One-way ANOVA was carried out to compare the views and gauge the satisfaction among the different age groups of talents, about TM practices at ADG-affiliated departments. Four groups were involved in the study according to their age (Group 1: 23–34 years old, Group 2: 35–44 years old, Group 3: 35–44 years old and Group 4: 55–60 years old). The one-way ANOVA test showed significant results in certain regions i.e. (sig. .002 < .05; .003 < .05; .021 < .05, etc.) (Urdan 2016).
Post Hoc Tests	Only once the ANOVA result is significant, Post Hoc Tests are run to confirm where the differences occurred between those groups, hence they are employed to divide the groups into subcategories. - Consequently, a Tukey's Post Hoc test was employed for this purpose and interrupted the result gained by ANOVA, where, for instance, the section heads at ADG Department are slightly less satisfied about talent development compared to executive directors, who scored a higher level of satisfaction, followed by division managers. However, Tukey's Post Hoc test indicated that the difference is not statistically significant for the same element in the talent development dimension regarding the question 'My organisation develops high potential employees to become leaders to ensure a strong talent pool' (Sig= .304 > .05). Meanwhile, Duncan's Post Hoc test showed relatively the same result as Tukey's but indicated that General Managers are relatively highly satisfied than both executive directors and section heads.

Test	Result
Post Hoc Tests	- Duncan [a,b] tends to be the more powerful test because it statistically gives consistent analysis of the results. Although Duncan's MRT (multiple range test) is widely used in research, Tukey's HSD (honestly significant difference) test is more powerful and used when group sizes are unequal. It is more conservative than Duncan's test, especially when the group of means is not large, otherwise it is considered less powerful.

Post Hoc Tests

Homogeneous Subsets

My organisation develops high potential employees to become leaders to ensure a strong talent pool

	Position	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
			1	2
Tukey B[a,b]	Head Section	55	2.40	
	Division Manager	34	2.85	2.85
	General Manager	5	3.40	3.40
	Executive Director	15		3.60
Duncan[a,b]	Head Section	55	2.40	
	Division Manager	34	2.85	2.85
	General Manager	5		3.40
	Executive Director	15		3.60
	Sig.		.304	.110

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 12.728.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

Post Hoc Tests for Pilot Study

Table 5.10. Results of the preliminary pilot study. Developed by the researcher.

5.9 Measurement validity

Validity of the scale 'refers to the extent to which a test measures what we actually wish to measure. Reliability has to do with the accuracy and precision of a measurement procedure [...] Practicality is concerned with a wide range of factors of economy, convenience, and interpretability...' (Kothari 2004, 73). It reflects whether the employed measure (variables) is actually gauging what it is supposed to gauge. In other words, the scale can be recognised as valid if it is able to accurately depict the common attributes of respondents that the construct/question/scale has been designed and used to measure. Measurement validity can be subject to errors occurring in the implementation phase of the questionnaire (Bryman and Bell 2011). Several tests can achieve this verification process to examine the external validity of the scale employed, such as content validity, predictive validity, and concurrent validity. Content/face validity is the most commonly employed validity test for business research (Hair et al. 2010); it offers a subjective assessment of the instrument's appropriateness, that is particularly required to be established when a new measure is developed, to ensure it appears of reasonable logic in measuring what it ought to (Bell et al. 2018). For this doctoral research, content/face validity was applied. Hence, the content validity was ensured through an extensive review of the literature on all facets related to the TM phenomenon and perspectives concerning its implementation and surrounding concepts in the talent pipeline. This is in terms of key measures of inclusivity, and appeared effective in former research, in addition to other external factors influencing talent behaviour towards retention or turnover intentions. All the above contributed in deriving a reasonable and solid framework (Creswell 2014). This comprehensive review helped the researcher to get acquainted with the research area, and reflects good content validity. This was provided the employed measures were considered reliable for being previously developed and tested in similar and other contexts. Therefore, it was required to validate small elements of the instrument specifically related to measuring performance appraisal (Kothari 2004). Moreover, content validity was maintained via supervisors, graduate students, HR academics, and experts belonging to the research domain at Liverpool John Moores University, who were involved to check if the research measurement was closely relevant to the research subject and enabled the achievement of its aim and objectives. In addition, there was another review undertaken by a number of talented managers and PhD holders from ADG, to ascertain that respondents could grasp the research statements and provide agreement and feedback on the questionnaire layout and how it was structured and worded. Moreover, consideration of how people use language was maintained whilst designing the questions, relating individuals to the setting of their work, to suit the research setting and its respondents, so a translation was provided, following the technique of back-translation (from English to Arabic as well as from Arabic to English for respondents) (Bryman and Bell 2011; Creswell and Clark 2018). Translation was guided by Arabic language experts and a cohort of PhD linguistic researchers, who were deeply involved checking the clarity of the translated questions. Therefore, the questionnaire was accessible in terms of the supported language, in both Arabic and English versions, in which each question was presented in both languages to make it easy for respondents to pick and understand the most appropriate (Appendix 2). Further, a preliminary survey study was held which inevitably strengthened the validity of the instrument. Generally, excellent judgement/feedback was attained from the panel which participated in this process, and who pointed out the clarity and adequacy of the measurement. Feedback provided was used in the final administering of the study questionnaire to retain/eliminate certain elements of the measurement.

5.10 Measurement Reliability

Instrument reliability enriches the interpretation of research results to be a meaningful form (Creswell 2014). To Winter (2000, 7), 'Reliability and validity are tools of an essentially positivist epistemology.' Reliability is secured through repeatable results by another research of the same methodology (Creswell and Clark, 2010). In order to underpin the reliability of the questionnaire's 'Likert' measurement scale, Cronbach's (1951) alpha test was conducted via the statistical software package for social sciences (SPSS). This was to make sure that the results were reliable and measures were accurate in terms of desired measured variables. The SPSS output of average correlation lies between values (0) and (1) on the scale, where internal consistency of data should be ≥0.7; otherwise, heterogeneity is highly expected to occur (Gliem and Gliem 2003). Cronbach's Alpha test scored 0.975 for the pilot survey and 0.78 for the final version of the scale for this study. Therefore, no question caused inconsistency, hence none of the questions were dropped by the researcher. More details about the internal consistency of data of this research project and the assessment undertaken using SPSS are presented in chapter 6, section 6.2.

5.11 Questionnaire Management

Gatekeeper M/s. Human Resources Authority was approached as per letter in Appendix 3 dated 21/09/2016. The questionnaire was shared electronically among the governmental departments and data was collected between July 2017 and January 2020. Two hundred and eighty-seven responses were returned from the national talented leaders, who belonged to the 65 governmental departments randomly selected for this study, under the government of Abu Dhabi. This was performed with the help of the facilitator, Eng. Aysha Mohammed Al Hammadi, Director for Integrated Government Services, who shared the online questionnaire among the population, following up with the leader cohort and sending reminders across the various governmental departments via WhatsApp. The questionnaire went through several stages: survey planning, design, questionnaire piloting, pre and post-survey notification, and follow up reminders (minimum of 2 reminders each fortnight), which were derived from the recommendations of Dillman (1978). No participants were compelled to respond to the survey under any circumstances. After conducting several follow-up reminders, 412 (66%) responses were received, with a number of ineligible answers rejected for this research, as the completed survey records were judged inappropriate based on the survey instrument. Answers were automatically saved into the SurveyMonkey application as records, and the researcher was able to monitor and view entries online and generate reports and graphs at any point in time. The collected questionnaires were coded and entered into the SPSS 26 to conduct the required procedures and tests (T-test, ANOVA and Factor Analysis) in order to generate the results (Bryman and Bell 2007). The researcher tested hypotheses for scale data surrounding attitudes, perceptions, effectiveness of Leadership Development, Performance Appraisal and Attraction and Retention Strategies, Satisfaction and Leadership Behaviour for demographics (t-test and ANOVA) as well as a variety of multivariable methods to test the impact of the current TM strategy on talent retention (Multiple Regression and Structural Equation Modelling). This enabled identification of trends and determined the answers relevant to the research questions (Blumberg et al. 2011).

5.12 Analysis of quantitative data

Before embarking on the analytical testing phase, data screening procedure was primarily and necessarily undertaken to deal with valid and reliable datasets before testing the proposed theories. It aimed at identifying problems that would potentially contaminate findings of the multivariate analysis (Hair et al. 2014). Data screening procedure is set out in section 6.4 of chapter 6. In addition, checks for data normality are an element in data screening procedure, achieved via a range of tests which were performed to ascertain whether parametric or non-parametric tests are more suitable for analysis purposes. Therefore, when performing data analysis, assumptions should be made to guide the researcher to apply either of two streams of tests i.e. parametric or non-parametric. It is important to spot some assumption checks in order to take steps regarding the most appropriate test for analysis. Parametric assumption is established, taking into account that the variances among the groups of participants are approximately equal. If such parametric conditions are violated, for example, if data is not normally distributed, or wherever variances in two different samples arise, then it becomes difficult to interpret results and could be somewhat messy and meaningless, although, simultaneously, not invalid (Urdan 2010). Therefore, the researcher can perform other statistical procedures that can generate fair results too, as it is not extensively recommended to attempt transforming data. Such tests are referred to as non-parametric tests, as shown in Table 5.11 (Field 2009).

Non-parametric tests are guided by the ranking principle, so the lowest value is ranked 1 and so on, the next greater through the maximum value. The common non-parametric tests are the Wilcoxon signed-rank test (Wilcoxon 1945), Mann-Whitney test (Mann and Whitney 1947), the Kruskal-Wallis test, and Friedman's test, as well as Chi square test of independencies or goodness of fit statistic (Field, 2009; Urdan et al. 2010).

Sr.	Purpose	Parametric Test	Equivalent Non-parametric Test
1.	**Test variances between two groups (the means)**	*Independent t-test:* is employed to look for variances of values/scores of conditions among two different groups of participants. Levene's test to investigate homogeneity of variances, in other words equality of variances, is used to check if differences in the groups are approximately equal (the difference between the variances is eliminated – zero value – in order for the assumption of equal variances to be met, otherwise if the test is significant i.e. $p \leq 0.05$, variances in different groups is tenable or variance in equality is not assumed). Dependent *t* test: is employed to investigate variances of conditions between pairs of values/scores belong to the same sample so individual variances among such conditions were cleared by dividing the mean of the	*Mann Whitney U and Wilcoxon signed-rank:* These two tests are adopted to test variances in two different/unequal samples to check condition. Both tests are typically the same, substituted to t test, though Mann–Whitney *U*-test is more popular. When unequal samples occur, Wilcoxon signed-rank test ranks then yields the test statistic as the sum of the ranks representing the fewest samples, e.g. if the sum of ranks is 50 for the first sample and 115 for the second counterpart, then W_s= 50. However, the Mann–Whitney test is presumed the same as the earlier test. U can be calculated from a particular equation. Significant relationship between the two groups is presumed when the sum of the ranked values is greater than 1.69 (Field 2009; Mann and Whitney 1947; Wilcoxon 1945).

Sr.	Purpose	Parametric Test	Equivalent Non-parametric Test
		two groups' scores by the standard deviation of the variances across the different groups (Field 2009).	
2.	**Analysis of variances of several independent groups (compare means of independent variables on the dependent variable for two or more**	*One-way Analysis of Variances (ANOVA)* test is similar to *t* test and suitable when the assumption of heterogeneity of variance is met; however, its feature lies in minimising the inflated errors of performing, i.e. rejecting the null hypothesis, for instance, while it is true. It is conducted to demonstrate analysis of variance in the means scored for two or more independent groups. The purpose is to depict the difference in perceptions among the groups but without portraying in which region the difference actually lies (Urdan 2016).	*Kruskal–Wallis Test (H) and Jonckheere Trend Test: Kruskal–Wallis Test (H)* can be a nearly analogous test of one-way ANOVA /Levene's test to analyse differences among constantly ranked data – scale variables – (Kruskal and Wallis 1952; Urdan 2016). The median test is similar to the Kruskal-Wallis test, in which a produced probability table splits the values to two sets above and below the observed median value. H test merit, compared to ANOVA, is its confidence in depicting the significant influence and ability to determine where the variance resides, based on the observed median value. The result of this test may label it as Chi squared while it is H. *Chi-squared test of independencies* is the non-parametric counterpart's test. It determines difference in the representation of the categories

Sr.	Purpose	Parametric Test	Equivalent Non-parametric Test
	different groups)		within the sample (i.e. male/female) and if they depend or are independent (statistically significant) on other variables, compared to the researcher's expected frequencies based on the sample size and its proportions (Field 2009). This test is sensitive to sample size (too small/large) so it is not ideal to make conclusions solely from the significance of this test (Hair et al. 2014).
3.	**Analysis of variances of several independent groups (compare means of independent**	*Pearson's correlation coefficient* is adopted to measure the significant difference of means between multiple variables when homogeneity of variances is assumed. In other words, investigating if the measurable continuous variables link to each other. In general, the strength between the variables is either positive or negative; so, for example, the relation can flow in the same direction (both variables' values increase or decrease) or	*Spearman's rank correlation coefficient* is the non-parametric version of Pearson's correlation coefficient. It is performed to measure the significant difference of means between multiple variables when homogeneity of variances is violated.

Sr.	Purpose	Parametric Test	Equivalent Non-parametric Test
	variables on the dependent variable for two or more different groups)	opposite direction (if one's value increases the other decreases) (Urdan 2010).	
4.	**Normality tests**		**Kolmogorov–Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro–Wilk test**: Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk are other tests which are undertaken to check normality for parametric statistics, where (*p*-value) must lie below the value of 0.05, in order for data (all independent variables) to be assumed approximately and significantly normal; however, when Shapiro–Wilk test reports sig. $p = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$. Therefore, when ($p \leq \alpha$) it is to reject or fail to retain the null hypothesis, while ($p > \alpha$) leads to retaining the null hypothesis. Hence, for all measures we can reject the null

Sr.	Purpose	Parametric Test	Equivalent Non-parametric Test
			hypothesis to conclude that statistically, groups significantly differ among the groups. Consequently, measures by male and female (for example) (Shapiro–Wilk, $p < 0.05$). For instance, the report also indicated no significant variance in the responses of those surveyed aged 55—60 years in terms of their intention to stay in the organisation, were $p > 0.6$, as well as the groups of respondents with tenure ranging between 4–7 years, in which the test showed non-significant difference in their ratings, as $p = 0.15 > \alpha = 0.05$. (Shapiro and Wilk 1965). Yet analysis of variances among the groups (ANOVA test) will be undertaken and illustrated in detail in the following sections, in which more analysis can be shown. On the other hand, both Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk value ($p < 0.05$) is presumed significantly normal in its distribution (Field, 2009; Razali and Wah 2011), since K–S solely refers to

Sr.	Purpose	Parametric Test	Equivalent Non-parametric Test
			non-parametric tests. After checking nominal factors against the dependent variable (in this case gender, position, qualification, age, tenure), an indication for assumptions pertaining data normality are roughly met for most categories. Therefore, parametric methods can be employed, since all Kolmogorov–Smirnov values for all groups in the tables below (in appendix 4), $p \leq 0.05$, and thus failing to retain the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis; therefore, there is acceptable consideration for normal data distribution, thus reflecting significance (Field 2009). The tables below represent the results returned from the normality test for all nominal data.

Table 5.11. Parametric vs. non-parametric tests. Developed by the researcher.

There is a debate about the consideration referred to by the non-parametric data, as some claim that non-parametric data are distribution-free and others argue the existence of distribution but with slightly restricted distribution. However, in order to test the homogeneity of variances for non-normally distributed data or non-parametric data, Leven's non-parametric test can be employed to check equality of variances. Moreover, Friedman's 2-way ANOVA rank is executed for the purpose of testing whether homogenous variances exist among all scores of different variables (Field 2009). Hence, normality checks are offered within sections 6.4.3 of chapter 6.

5.13 Statistics employed to achieve research objectives

Many analysis tools exist which the researcher can select as the most suitable to achieve the research's intended objectives, also based on the nature of the gathered datasets (Saunders et al. 2009). This is an explanatory study of survey-based design of quantitative research (Fraenkel et al. 2012; McMillan 2012). Two main statistical software packages were employed to accomplish analysis for the quantitative dataset collected via the survey questionnaire; these were, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 26.0) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS version 26.0), of which details are provided in the following chapter.

5.13.1 Multiple regression analysis

Multiple regression is a statistical test employed to measure and explain the relationship between constructs (variables) (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2010) and to foresee if the outcome value of a single criterion variable is functional according to two or a set of predicting variables. Multiple regression is a powerful analytical aid which is widely used in business to forecast a model, or assess the factors of a programme's effectiveness, such as determinants of the effectiveness of the strategic TM programme (Hair et al. 2014). In other words, it can fit an appropriate model based on the observed data (Field 2009) and predict the outcome of talent attraction and retention based on other determinants i.e. leadership development, performance appraisal, satisfaction, leadership style, and attraction and retention strategies, which are the predictors. Moreover, this analytical tool can also determine the overall merit of the model, while explaining variance degree of the contribution of each predictor on the criterion (dependent) variable; that is why the independent variable is referred to as an explanatory variable (Bryman and Bell 2007).

5.13.1.1 Assumptions underlying multiple regression

The larger the value of the standardised regression coefficients, referred to as beta, the greater the impact of the predictor on the criterion variable, which can be either positive or negative. Beta weight decomposes the influence of each contributing independent variable on the dependent counterpart and proposes the most influential or higher predictor across the set of the explanatory variables (which is a good predictor). R square (R^2), coefficient of multiple determination, and the significance of the equation are determinants. R^2_y 'represents the proportion of variance in the i*th* independent variable that is associated with the other independent variables in the model' (O'Brien 2007, 673). It is also worth pointing out that simple regression is adopted to predict an outcome based on one predictor.

The basic formula for regression is Y_1 (predicted) = $X_1 + X_2 + . . . + X_n$ (determinants) (Hair *et al*. 2014). Deviation in regression is known as residuals, which is the difference between the observed values and the predicted ones. The line of squared difference (denoted as SS), called the regression line, informs the goodness-of-fit, in which the line of lowest SS is selected and represents the line of best fit towards the collected data. The equation [Deviation = $\sum$ (observed - model)^2] is used to predict the outcome by calculating the mean of the model, which is the difference between the collected data and values predicted by the model, and the sum of squares tells the strength of the mean of the model. However, this method is deemed inaccurate, and so a regression model can be significantly powerful in terms of prediction degree and the level of accuracy according to Field (2009). The sum of the above difference is the total sum of squares (SS_T), squared residual sum of squares (SS_R), and when the above differences is performed, model sum of squares is generated (SS_M) for possible improvement to the prediction. R^2 is a percentage that explains the variation of the outcome model, which in turn indicates the degree of variance in the outcome model (SS_M) against the total variance of the original datasets (SS_T). R^2 imparts a good measure in gauging the robustness of the genuine relationship (Field 2009).

$$R^2 = \frac{SS_M}{SS_T}$$

However, simple regression can be calculated which is equalled to the square root of R^2. *F*-test is also the ratio of improvement used to assess the model against potential error.

5.13.1.2 Problems emerge from multiple regression

Multicollinearity tends to be the most potential problematic issue in undertaking multiple regression, which arises when two independent variables highly correlate and influence the variance of explanation and hence the predictive accuracy. Multicollinearity varies from perfect collinearity, when explanatory variables regress based on other independent measures (strongly intercorrelated), where R^2 reflects a precise value of 1.00, to less excessive multicollinearity, when predictors relate to one another based on the regression equation but not perfectly (Bryman and Bell 2007).

This dilemma can be manipulated adopting various approaches. According to Hair et al. (2010) multicollinearity can be abandoned, when it is perhaps merely presented in a subset of the predictors, wherever this proportion does not highly account for the variance in the observed data. However, the second alternative approach is to drop one or more of the strongly correlated explanatory variables. This technique is urged when two predictors are distinctly gauging the same thing. Yet, another approach can be to combine or transform the highly intercorrelated variables to show unrelated predictors adopting explanatory factor analysis. Nevertheless, multicollinearity can be overcome simply by enlarging the sample size (Bryman and Bell 2007). This research did not detect multicollinearity issues.

5.13.1.3 Method and justification of employing regression analysis

In this study, regression analysis techniques (Enter and Stepwise Regression Methods) were adopted as they fulfilled the study objectives (4 and 6) presented in the table. The primary underlying sub-objectives employing this technique are:

5. To statistically depict if an association exists between the five measures underlying the strategic TM at ADG Departments, namely: leadership development programme, leadership development effectiveness, performance appraisal, enabling and empowering talents, attraction and retention strategies by incentives, work conditions and performance rewards, and the dependent variable retention (intention to stay).
6. To conclude if the above strategic talent management measures are highly relevant to the level of retention across talents.
7. To find out the degree of adoption of TM strategies and practices (to test their integration and then to be considered individually). This is to conclude with the level

of implementation according to the fundamental practices implied in the strategic TM.

8. To test whether other cultural and motivational measures (leadership style and satisfaction) would exert influence, in turn offering a better explanation towards the level of talent retention at leadership level.
9. To indicate the most influential predictor in explaining the variation of the projected variable.

5.13.2 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

Factor analysis aids provide techniques to reduce and summate gathered datasets into small groups of factors. Factor analysis form, integrated in the multivariate technique of statistics, denotes the relationships between variables by the feature of a bundle of commonly defined factors. In other words, factor analysis implies the identification of representative factors/variables belonging to all possible variable groups; the development of entirely new groups of variables which are minimised in their number, or the exchange of the initial variable group (Brown 2006). Kline (2015). Hair et al. (2018), however, point out a crucial drawback of factor analysis that can be explained by the acknowledged items to be eliminated and deleted, which should not be erased, since they depict a proportion of certain constructs exerting a focal representation of the study variables. The two broad types of factor analysis are Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) approach and its exploratory counterpart (Hair et al. 2018). Second, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is a strategy controlled by the researcher to identify multicollinearity among a large number of variables to explain them in factors (basically, the target of EFA is to condense the information of the constructs to generate a summated scale for analysis), which assists in forming relatively large number of relationships, across normally-scaled variables, which can be straightforward (Hair et al. 2018; 2019; Tabachnick and Fidell 2019). In addition, EFA is employed in particular circumstances, whereas the links between the latent and observed factors are ambiguous or unknown (Byrne 2016). Hence, this method is for exploring data, whilst giving the researcher information surrounding the number of latent variables essential to form a reasonable representation of datasets (Brown 2006; Hair et al. 2018). Likewise, the analysis is undertaken in an explanatory manner so that it can specify how and to what extent the observed variables are linked to the primary latent factors (Kline 2015; Byrne 2016).

However, CFA's fundamental advantages over EFA are its ability in controlling all aspects relevant to the model's conditions, such as determining correlated errors, adjusting cross loadings to zero, or fixing parameters of the model to equality. Such features of CFA allow the achievement of research objectives, of which EFA is incapable. Examples can be: EFA's suitability to compare factor models among groups; '(measurement invariance of tests), the analysis of multitrait-multimethod data in construct validation and the analysis of mean structures, scale reliability evaluation and the inclusion of covariates in the factor model' (Brown 2006, 88). CFA comprises multivariate techniques to test a pre-speculated relationship. Moreover, CFA assists in underlying the representativeness of the measured variables in a smaller number of constructs. CFA is appropriate if the investigator possesses appropriate knowledge of the structure of the latent variable (Brown 2006; Hair et al. 2010). It is also necessary to have prior knowledge of the predicted relationships among the multi-items and within the factors before embarking on CFA, from which the use of the term 'confirmatory' stems (Urdan 2010; Argyrous 2011). Additionally, CFA is an effective tool for SEM, as it performs confirmatory verifications for the measurements of the employed theory, and thus it is perhaps inapplicable in the absence of theoretical measurement (Hair et al.

2018). In addition, a blend of construct validity, tested together with the techniques intertwined in CFA, possibly yields a wide understanding of measurement (Tabachnick and Fidell 2019). Therefore, this study comprises the deduction of the observed variables that are theoretically underpinned from previous empirical research, with underlying relationships that were pre-supposed from the literature. It was argued by various statisticians that, there is not a true strategy to conduct the analysis (Gaskin 2012), CFA was appropriately undertaken as the investigator determined the number of existing multi-item constructs representing the analysed datasets, along with the predetermined measures/items that theoretically belong to the individual construct. On the contrary, EFA is performed with no prior realisation of either of those issues, where all variables are applied without classification, in the form of one set. However, it is inappropriate for this research because measures of each subscale were formerly categorised from previous validated scales from the published literature, taking into consideration the preliminary support to study scale measurements, in which the classification mirrors the defined constructs against their facets of TM strategies that were depicted from the discrete literature, based on priori theory (a conceptual understanding of the variables' relationships). Unlike EFA, which operates without the critical assumption of theory pertaining to the relationship among variables, and can perhaps be regarded a merit to another sort of research. As EFA is deemed a dimensional reduction technique, one constraint of its applicability is the expectation to remove certain variables; thus may it not be able to retain critical measures representing key study theory – while the number of the current study subjects is limited to nine variables – opposite to the expected number of constructs whenever constructs do not load as expected. Thus, EFA pitfalls can be attributed to the outcome of too limited or too wide a factor list. In the meantime, another drawback of EFA is that it allows items to load to unexpected constructs depending on components' scores as appearing from the regression of the variables; the resultant model will end up somewhat peculiar, permitting statistics to drive theory. Therefore, researchers most often cede the control of such essential determination of the analyses. Likewise, an emphasis attributed to EFA is the composite examination of the underlying structure (properties) of the complete variables as a whole unit, rather than the individual effect of the highly interrelated variables themselves, which the researcher ought to consider at the analysis. Hence, the outcome of EFA is a collectively denoted dimension, in which an example of the extracted component can be, for instance, the employer brand composite dimension that comprises LDP, EMP, and IWR constructs. Hence, depending on the nature of the study, TM strategies related constructs need to be measured separately. This is in order to evaluate each individual TM strategy to precisely address the sort of the problem and to fulfil the research objectives. In addition, EFA does not evaluate the goodness of fit to the observed datasets, which CFA does, according to Hair et al.'s (2019) argument distinguishing EFA analysis and CFA analysis. However, CFA could be reconciled with EFA through running it in a later stage of CFA to foster the reliability and validity of the scale (Gaskin 2012; 2016; Hair et al (2019). To conclude, there is continuing argument on EFA applicability, which is mainly limited to reaching a structure for the study variables or reducing the number of study variables. Overall, the structure of the study subjects determines which technique to follow, either EFA or CFA (Hair *et al*. 2019). 'For example, the researcher may wish to test hypotheses involving issues such as which variables should be grouped together on a factor (i.e. multiple items were specifically collected to represent store image) or the precise number of factors. In these instances, the researcher requires that factor analysis take a confirmatory approach – that is, assesses the degree to which the data meet the expected theoretical structure' (Hair et al. 2019, 126). Therefore, CFA was adopted to create the measurement model of the study and validate the underpinned hypothetical structure of the study's primary theoretical constructs within the research model. In other words, it was chosen to examine and confirm the proposed relationships among the observed variables and the model factors or latent variables, through the utilisation of AMOS (26.0). CFA is applied in two phases in the assessment of the measurement model process, which are the indices of goodness of fit, as well as construct validity (Hair et al. 2018).

5.13.3 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

SEM is a technique widely applied by marketing and business researchers 'to assess empirically new theoretical proposals articulated by means of complex models' (Martinez-Lopez et al. 2013, 115). It is a framework of a broad modelling environment involving diverse disciplines i.e. measurement theory, factor analysis, path analysis, and regression. SEM is a technique which manipulates the individual relationships among each of a bundle of dependent variables. It is the most efficient kit which allows estimation of various sets of multiple regression equations predictable concurrently. Two main traits of SEM are: the structural model and the measurement model. The structural model is the path model that associates the independent with the dependent variables, based on theory and experience, and speculates on which independent variables forecast each of the dependent variables. Whilst SEM has its distinct grounding, its measurement model allows multiple indicators of each independent and dependent variable (i.e. the concept of talent retention presented in a summated scale), unlike other statistical techniques, which identify a single relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Thus, using confirmatory factor analysis, it enables examining the contribution of the items presented in each individual construct/indicator/factor/predictor of the dependent variable (or in statistical terms, a multi-item scale). In addition, it incorporates the multi-scales to account for the measurement error (scale reliability), by which assessing the extent of the scale's strength in measuring the concept, in this case talent retention and intention to stay at AGD (Hair et al. 2010). Therefore, since this research involved the prediction of interrelated relationships between the concept constructs, as pointed out earlier, the decision to adopt SEM was prioritised over other multivariate analysis techniques for assessing the theoretical model and proposed hypotheses. The approach employed incorporates path analysis, factor analysis, and multivariate techniques, which could possibly conclude explanations in respect of the hypothesised correlations within the variables/constructs integrated in the theoretical model. SEM is the process of developing a model underlying theory and constitutes a path diagram explaining the causal relationships, that can be converted into a structural model, together with measurement set, which has the ability to explain and alter a theoretically underpinned model. These procedures were considered in developing a final model to portray the significant relationships between the proposed variables, wherein the research presumed hypotheses could be, hence, verified.

Therefore, the justification for the selection of SEM for data analysis refers to its promotion by multiple academics for use in HR research (see Becker and Gerhart 1996 and Fey et al. 2000) so as to provide empirical data and concrete evidence to the 'so-called black box' among HR systems such as performance management (Wright et al. 2003; Luna-Arocas et al. 2020). This is in addition to SEM applicability and popularity in explaining how TM/HRM practices impact on employee attitudes via measuring TM/HRM-related domains and testing TM/HRM-associated hypotheses such as, but not limited to, Bhanugopan et al.'s (2013) study, measuring HRM practices in Jordanian organisations. Other studies include those of Alferaih et al. (2018), Luna-Arocas *et al.* (2020) and Boonbumroongsuk and Rungruang (2021), who measured TM practices against talent turnover and retention in Saudi tourism sector organisations, as well as organisations which implement the exclusive approach of TM in Thailand, and workers of the public and private sector in Spain, respectively. Another applicable study is Al Aina and Atan's (2020) empirical evaluation of TM practices on sustaining organisational performance in the UAE. Similarly, Younas and Bari's (2020) inquiry analysed the causal relationship between TM practices (in terms of knowledge-sharing, strategic leadership, social media, and mentoring) and retaining millennial employees in Pakistan. Moreover, the adoption of SEM can be because of its characteristics of offering correction for measurement errors while performing the estimation of structural model parameters, as a means of systematic validation of the relationships existing among the concept indicators and constructs, whilst assessing the relationships within the constructs of the same model (Urdan 2010). Moreover, SEM provides full control of the concept and reinforces the analytical understanding of the inquirer, as well as offering a powerful statistical tool that counts complex models (Byrne 2016; Hair et al. 2018; Tabachnick and Fidell 2019). Consequently, the SEM technique was the most suitable analysis kit for this study, because it incorporates multiple hypothesised relationships within the proposed model's dependent and independent constructs, as outlined in chapter 3 for the theoretical model and hypotheses development. Furthermore, as denoted formerly, SEM encompasses two segments: the measurement which links the latent factors with the observed variables via means of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), as well as the structural model which associates the latent factors to one another through simultaneous equation systems (Hair *et al*. 2010; Urdan 2010). Thus, this research project adopted the 2-step SEM process, a measurement model, and another structural model, so that it could add appropriate empirical testing to the models-based theory (Hair et al. 2018). The said measurement and structural models were assessed through estimation techniques, that are utilisable from AMOS software (Hair et al. 2018; Tabachnick and Fidell 2019). This technique of estimation specifies the value of unknown parameters, along with the error aligned with the rated value. Approaches of estimation vary and the selection of the most appropriate one is conditioned by the sample size, the level of normality, and assumptions of independence. Instances of the estimation methods are the maximum likelihood estimation, generalised least square, ordinary least square, unweighted and weighted least square and asymptomatically distribution-free (Urdan 2010; Gefen et al. 2011). Within this investigation, the maximum likelihood approach was employed within SEM analysis for assessing the measurement model (Byrne 2016; Hair et al. 2018; Tabachnick and Fidell 2019), which enables the estimation of values for potential missing data, and leads to enhanced estimates of the model parameters, as a result of minimising the function of the determined model fit (Hair et al. 2018). Subsequently, the maximum likelihood mode of estimation was selection, based on the recommendations raised by several researchers, for its capacity to allow large sample size, test the validity of the speculated hypotheses and its traits in dealing with multivariate normality for the sample's distribution (Hu and Bentler 1999; Byrne 2016; Hair et al. 2018; Tabachnick and Fidell 2019). This method of estimation has features that include a larger sample size, multivariate normality for the distribution of the sample, and the ability to test the validity of hypotheses (Barrett 2007; Kline 2015; Hair et al. 2018; Tabachnick and Fidell 2019).

5.14 Ethics considerations

Ethics is about managing 'the creation and expansion of legal and professional rules for the protection of research subjects and society against unethical research' (Little 2013, 32). Research ethics review is related to the ethics scrutiny, which ought to regulate the research conduct, when research involves human participation, so that it reflects certain standards, principles, and issues of ethics to be addressed or faced by the researcher during the process, e.g. accessing data, data protection and other ethical considerations

(Saunders et al. 2009). Paying attention to ethical issues is very important, as they strengthen research credibility as well as the reliability of the findings. Ethics comprises project details, potential risks/benefits, participants' background, criteria for participation and how participants are to be approached, behavioural actions which can be judged to be acceptable or prohibited, and reporting manner of findings. It is essential to realise research associated ethics, which offer a means to protect voluntary respondents from harm. Ethics are a depiction of the research design and a record of all steps to be taken during the study. Moreover, ethics imply anonymity of participants, whose identity should be kept concealed, and confidentiality of data, which must be carefully addressed, by limiting access to such datasets and ensuring safe and private storage of research documents (Bell et al. 2018). Hence, research-associated ethical principles were maintained in advance of commencing the study, particularly prior to the data collection phase, to be followed throughout the holistic design of the study. An application for ethical consideration was submitted for perusal by Liverpool John Moores University committee for Research Ethics (REC), which underlies the declaration of Helsinki and LJMU's REC regulations and guidelines and meets the code of research ethics at LJMU. Approval for the said proposal was granted on 21 December 2016 (Ref. 16/LBS/021) (Appendix five). Furthermore, research participants were recruited expense-free by informed consent, and they were free to withdraw at any time. The participant letter accompanying the questionnaire was provided on the first page of the questionnaire, stating the researcher's and university's mailing address to add a sense of confidence to participants engaged in the study (Bell et al. 2018). The researcher kept the gathered data confidential on the university network drive, with sole privileged access by the researcher. The questionnaire does not, naturally, enable identification of any participant during storage or within the findings of this thesis. The researcher is not aware of the participants' identities anyway, since the questionnaire is answered online and without face-to-face interaction. Further, data were gathered and utilised exclusively for the purpose of fulfilling the requirements for an academic PhD degree, and were not shared with any entity outside the supervisory team.

5.15 Chapter summary

This chapter intended to probe research paradigms, their exhibited aspects, similarities and confluences, as well as where they exhibit contradictions. It addresses paradigms engaged for the purpose of this research and their associated assumptions and the justification behind the selection. This study is underpinned by a positivist research philosophical paradigm with a deductive approach. Consequently, this approach was associated with the utilisation of a quantitative data collection method, in order to enable testing the hypotheses speculated within the proposed conceptual framework of this research project. This chapter depicts the research strategy of a web-based survey, measurement scales, and represented and explicated some indicators for the social researcher while identifying and assessing his/her determinations pertinent to sampling techniques and their interrelated features and implications. Hence, the study offered justifications underlying the choice of the complete enumeration (census), recruitment of the entire population as a means to enhance the response rate and due to the characteristics and seniority of respondents of this research. Alike, the data collection method via the self-completed web-based questionnaires was explained, since data was required from a large number of talented leaders (decision-makers) in ADG departments (UAE public sector). Multiple regression was adopted to project talent's intention to stay based on other groups of predictors, in addition to explaining which measure has the highest influence on the outcome (talent retention). In order to build a deeper explanation of the result derived from multiple regression tools of analysis, SEM was developed for this doctoral thesis in pursuit of identifying the relationships among items of testing for each individual factor in a more accurate and efficient way, with the facility to correct measurement errors (as compared to multiple regression technique), between the dependent and independent variables. Likewise, SPSS and AMOS were utilised correspondingly to help undertake the required analysis for the quantitative data, gathered via advertising the online questionnaire. In the same vein, reasonable consideration was given to avoid the occurrence of common methods bias, as well as to maintain standards of research ethics. The subsequent chapter 5 portrays findings of the preliminary analysis, along with the results which stemmed from adopting regression and SEM analysis techniques, respectively.

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a presentation of data collected by means of questionnaire is exposed and analysed using the appropriate instruments. For the primary data collected for the study, Statistical Package for Social Sciences SPSS 26.0 and AMOS 26.0 were utilised. CFA and then SEM were employed to generate a model that applied to the observed datasets.

Moreover, this chapter constitutes a thorough explanation of the procedures that were duly undertaken to screen data and deal with any detected problems. The questionnaire aimed at exploring talent perspectives (from leaders) pertaining to the strategic TM initiatives in ADG-affiliated departments. The questionnaire encompassed various areas, including leadership development, performance management, and attraction and retention strategies as the main determinants for TM level of implementation. This is in addition to testing the potential contribution of two other dimensions, satisfaction and leadership style, in the effective implementation of the strategic TM. The questionnaire measured the aforementioned topics using a five-point Likert scale [1-5], where 1 represents ‘strongly agree,’ while five represents ‘strongly disagree,’ as the respondent’s chosen answer.

This sub-section aims to explore the strategies and practices pertaining to TM through talent perspectives, and the effectiveness of TM as shown in satisfaction results inferred by the questionnaire. A few statistical tests were run to represent the information about response rates, participants’ demographic profiles, and analysis of the obtained data based on the scores. Such tests included, but were not limited to CFA and SEM in order to gauge the success of the main patterns of the strategic TM activities, through talent assessment and exploration of their views. Summary of the content is represented at the end of this chapter.

6.2 Reliability analysis

The reliability statistical test called coefficient alpha, or Cronbach's Alpha (1951), was employed to assess the reliability or the internal consistency of the measurement variables (scale variables), to indicate how well variables loaded/correlated with each other. The result of the test composite score was 0.76 > Nunnally's (1978) criterion set of 0.70, which indicated that the scale variables (of 54 items representing the questionnaire constructs) were reliable to assess what the research intended, since α > 0.70. In contrast, Peterson (1994) and Slater (1995) cite 0.6 as the minimum criterion value. However, no authors suggest that coefficient alpha lies between 0.00 and 1.0 where 1.0 is perfect reflection of reliability and 0 tells no reliability. Coefficient alpha was calculated by SPSS; it is the ratio of number of indicators and correlation of means where k = number of measuring items, r = mean – correlation (Urdan 2010).

The standard deviation of the tested measures is approximately similar for all the scale items; In addition, the mean of responses is also roughly close. Moreover, the correlation test supports the result, as all the measures are intercorrelated positively. This, in turn, could interpret the result, which seems consistent with the coefficient alpha equation below that would reveal no problem assumed around the internal consistency of the questionnaire measures.

$$a = \frac{k\bar{r}}{(1 + (k-1)\bar{r})}$$ k = number of measuring items r = mean – correlation

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	No of Items
0.78	0.76	54

Table 6.1. Reliability test. Developed by the researcher.

6.3 Reliability of constructs

The overall reliability among the different constructs is acceptable. However, to reinforce the gained result, reliability of the variables for the individual construct was computed, revealing that each factor formed a reliable scale. The reliability ranges between 0 and 1, so based on Nunnally (1978), 0.7 is deemed to reflect good reliability, as the lowest acceptable level is between 0.6 and 0.7, according also to Hair *et al*. (2014). To Hinton *et al*. (2004), however, the scale reflected a high level of reliability where (α= 0.9 represents excellent reliability; α= 0.7 to 0.9 indicates high reliability, α= 0.5 to 0.7 depicts moderate reliability, while α≤ 0.5 is low reliability).

6.4 Data screening

Data screening is the process of employing diagnostic measures to clean data to ensure it is valid, usable, and reliable before subjecting it to examination under the causal theory. It is essential to detect if there are problems in data, as skipping this procedure would potentially result in unwanted implications, such as introducing bias or a fatal problem in the pattern of the results of the multivariate analysis (Hair *et al*. 2014). Screening data includes ensuring that no data is missing to enable running certain statistical tests such as CFA and SEM. Screening data detects missing data, outliers, multi-collinearity, and linearity.

6.4.1 Missing data

Missing data may lead to bias problems in mean and standard deviation, such as response rate across males and females. The problematic respondents are implied in the procedure of cleaning data, in which research participants deliberately leave some variables with missing values. Therefore, one recommendation is to carry out data transformation to replace the missing data with the mean values, or with medians in the case of Likert-type data. However, the population includes respondents who had not been through the entire strategic TM processes through the talent pipeline, and so the researcher detected some records with missing data, for instance in assessing leadership development. Hence, the researcher had to exclude those responses and make assumptions about participants' non-participation in the leadership development programme, which does not qualify them to be suitable samples for this inquiry. Additional missing data across the various records were identified; therefore, as the ratio of missing data is only below 10%, the researcher eliminated the problematic respondents from analysis (Lynch 2003).

6.4.2 Outliers

Outlier is an observation which is distinct from the majority of others, classified as univariate and multivariate, representing notably inconsistent and extreme scores in the dataset observation (Field 2009). Outliers are also another indicator for unengaged respondents whose participation is urged to be removed and noted as a missing record, especially with a relatively large sample size. Outliers are problematic to generation of a valid model, as they form a negative effect on the indices attributed to the goodness-of-fit of the SEM model introduced to elicit the criterion variable – in this case talent retention (Bryman and Bell 2007). Outliers can be graphically displayed by the Boxplot to denote the extreme characteristics (extreme points) among the distribution between all variables or groups/constructs (Hoaglin and Iglewicz 1987), or perhaps inclusively across the dependent variables alone (Hair *et al.* 2014). The treatment of outliers differs according to the specific instance. First, outliers can occur as a procedural, entry, or coding error; second, they can emerge as an extraordinary event which can arise depending on the nature of the research, so that these values may be retained for later analysis whenever consistent with the research objectives; otherwise, they ought to be eliminated. A third type of outlier are extraordinary observations, or values that cannot be explained by the researcher; it is the researcher's choice in such a case to dictate their retention/exclusion depending on 'if the researcher feels they represent a valid element of the population.' The last type of outlier is when the observation lies within the range of possible values for the existing variables, but is still unique among the variables' stream. The researcher is to retain such an outlier unless proof discounts its validity as a potential member in the population that underlies its deletion (Hair et al. 2014, 63). To this effect, the researcher employed appropriate checks to spot and deal with such outliers, which were detected and duly addressed to eliminate skewing the distribution of scores in the variables. However, owing to the fairly large population size ($n = 620$) and the acceptable respondent rate (68%), the researcher avoided transforming unrepresentative scores (i.e. applying *convert back from a z-score* equation to replace existing outliers' values, according to Field's benchmarks below, or *the mean plus two standard deviations*), and merely erased the respondents' outliers to avoid contaminating the observations, where appropriate (Field 2009, 135):

> *X = (z × s) + X-, where (X-) = mean, (s) standard deviation, z is 3 (or 3.29 for exact recoding of the created and replaced outlier's score).*

Outliers can be explored with a Stem and Leaf Plot test, which is also an essential test prior to conducting the multiple regression test. When extreme values are reported, i.e. ($p \geq 5.0$), they are marked by a square shape. To this effect, it has been noted that the researcher did not interface outliers, in order to make the appropriate decision about their retention/deletion.

6.4.3 Normality assessment

Before performing statistical parametric tests, including t-tests, correlation, regression, and analysis of variance, it is vital to check normality of the gathered data (in this case, error/residuals), as this is a prerequisite to undertaking multiple regression, in order to infer reliable and accurate predictors according to the set of explanatory variables. Moreover, the theoretical normal distribution is a crucial criterion, as inferential statistics rely on the assumption that normal distribution is attained. Statistical tests were performed in order to assess if the gathered data are approximately normally distributed or not. Breaking the normality consideration across data distribution may indicates inadequacy in the selected sample in regard to the entire population. For instance, when sample characteristics are higher or lower than the average, in other words '*distance from the sample mean.'* Inadequacy is not necessarily the case, as the skewed distribution would still be presumed normal by nature of its belonging to the entire group the sample is extracted from (Urdan 2010, 34). Hence, distribution of scores can be 'positively skewed when a tail of a distribution of scores extends toward the upper end of the distribution,' or might be 'negatively skewed when a tail of a distribution of scores extends toward the lower end of the distribution' (Urdan 2010, 35). Even if the normality assumption is not acceptable, nonparametric methods can be employed, as it is not recommended to transform values to represent normality, according to Pallant (2013). The tests include the following:

6.4.3.1 Skewness and kurtosis characteristics

In a skewness and kurtosis test, 'skewness' gauges if datasets are symmetrically distributed and 'kurtosis' measures peaked-ness, normality, or flatness-top of the curve shape. Skewness and kurtosis values vary among authors, who debate whether z-values must lie in the span of -1.96 to 1.96 (Doane and Seward 2011) for a small sample (n > 50), or ought to be between -1 and 1 (Hair *et al*. 2014). The best skewness and kurtosis coefficient value of zero indicates perfect symmetry of data distribution, when equal sides of the shape are attained and indicate that kurtosis is mesokurtic. West *et al*. (1995) specify value for skewness = n > 2 and kurtosis = n > 7, to judge the genuine departure from the normality range. However, according to other authors the thresholds for normality are set between (±1), ±1.69, and may lie more liberally within the range (±2). Yet skewness and kurtosis values greater than ±3.29 are cause for concern, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). The error is minimised with a large sample size such as the current research, where n=287. In this case, all categories of the dependent and independent variables reported z-values within the range (±2), which indicates that datasets are skewed and kurtotic equally, and normal distribution of datasets is assumed according to this specific test (West *et al*. 1995).

Sr.	**Item code**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**	**Sr.**	**Item code**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
01.	LDP1	− 0.38	− 0.63	27.	SL1	− 0.48	− 0.63
02.	LDP2	− 0.69	0.19	28.	SL2	− 0.63	− 0.56
03.	LDP3	− 1.19	1.13	29.	SL3	− 0.42	− 0.74
04.	LDP4	− 1.42	1.46	30.	SL4	− 0.42	− 0.69
05.	LDE1	− 0.31	− 1.08	31.	SL5	0.63	0.47
06.	LDE2	− 0.03	− 0.91	32.	IL1	0.81	0.12
07.	LDE3	0.69	− 1.32	33.	IL2	0.58	− 0.16
08.	LDE4	− 0.08	− 0.73	34.	IL3	0.55	− 0.54
09.	LDE5	− 0.45	− 0.18	35.	IL4	0.89	0.32
10.	LDE6	− 1.22	0.38	36.	TS1	− 0.95	0.59
11.	LDE7	0.21	− 1.04	37.	TS2	0.64	− 0.76
12.	LDE8	− 0.57	− 0.62	38.	TS3	− 0.39	− 0.98
13.	PA1	− 0.86	0.13	39.	TS4	− 0.27	− 0.65
14.	PA2	− 0.37	− 0.48	40.	TS5	− 0.05	− 0.65
15.	PA3	− 0.94	− 0.04	41.	EMP1	0.22	− 0.17
16.	PA4	− 0.98	0.18	42.	EMP2	− 0.39	− 0.69

Sr.	Item code	Skewness	Kurtosis	Sr.	Item code	Skewness	Kurtosis
17.	PA5	− 0.59	− 0.59	43.	EMP3	− 0.39	− 0.81
18.	PA6	0.66	− 0.79	44.	EMP4	0.38	− 0.52
19.	PA7	0.01	− 1.44	45.	EMP5	− 0.19	− 0.61
20.	PA8	0.17	− 1.46	46.	IR1	− 0.92	− 0.06
21.	PA9	− 0.83	0.44	47.	IR2	− 0.77	0.14
22.	PA10	− 1.00	0	48.	IR3	− 0.54	− 0.76
23.	PL1	0.54	0.38	49.	IR4	− 0.63	− 0.54
24.	PL2	− 0.06	− 1.15	50.	IR5	− 0.86	0.48
25.	PL3	− 0.12	− 0.98	51.	IR6	0.29	− 0.32
26.	PL4	0.12	− 0.78	52.	IS	− 0.10	− 0.29

Table 6.2. Normality assessment results. Developed by the researcher.

6.4.3.2 Kolmogorov–Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro–Wilk test

Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk are other tests that are undertaken to check normality for parametric statistics, where (*p*-value) must lie below the value of 0.05, in order for data (all independent variables) to be assumed approximately and significantly normal; Shapiro–Wilk test reported sig. $p = 0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$. When ($p \leq \alpha$) it is indicated to reject or fail to retain the null hypothesis, while ($p > \alpha$) leads to retain the null hypothesis]. Hence, for all measures we can reject the null hypothesis to conclude that statistically, groups significantly differ among the groups. Consequently, in measures by male and female (for example) (Shapiro–Wilk, $p < 0.05$). The report also indicated no significant variance in the responses of those surveyed aged 55–60 in terms of their intention to stay in the organisation, which was $p > 0.5$, as well as the groups of respondents with tenure ranging between 4 and 7 years, in which the test showed non-significant difference in their ratings, as $p = 0.15 > \alpha = 0.05$ (Table 1 of Appendix 4).

(Shapiro and Wilk 1965). Analysis of variances among the groups (ANOVA test) will be undertaken and illustrated in detail in the following sections, in which more analysis can be shown.

For both Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk values, ($p < 0.05$) is presumed significantly normal in its distribution (Field 2009; Razali and Wah 2011), since K-S solely refers to non-parametric test. After checking nominal factors against the dependent variable (in this case gender, position, qualification, age, and tenure), an indication for assumed data normality is roughly met for most categories. Therefore, parametric methods can be employed, since all Kolmogorov–Smirnov values for all groups (Table 1 in appendix 4 represents the results returned from the normality test for all nominal data), $p \leq 0.05$, and thus failing to retain the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis; therefore, there is acceptable consideration for normal data distribution and thus reflecting significance (Field 2009).

Having analysed the complementary Shapiro–Wilk test for normality determination, it is also arguable that performing visual assessment can be more beneficial when a bell-shaped curved figure is drawn from the distribution (Trowler 2014). The visual inspection is done according to the Normal Q–Q Plots, the box plots, and Descriptive Histogram (Cramer 1998; Shapiro and Wilk 1965). Hence, the distribution of scores is normal as depicted below in the bell-shaped Figure 6.1.

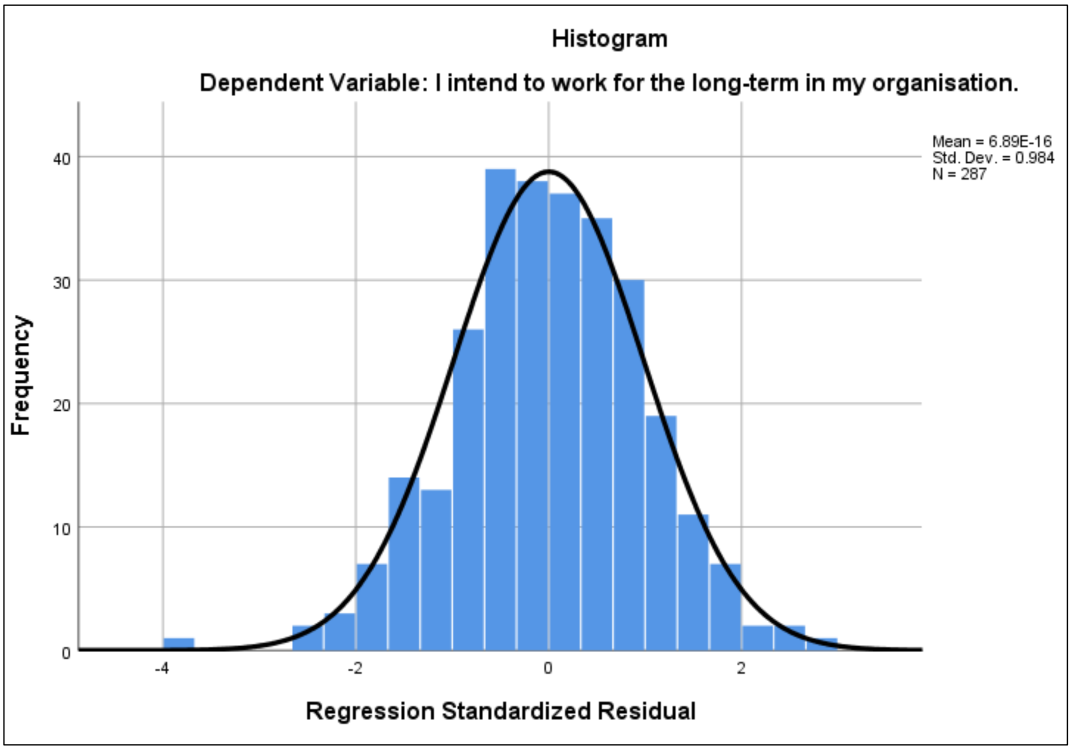


Figure 6.1. Descriptive Histogram chart of data normality.

Moreover, Q–Q Plot chart, another representation that mirrors data normality, can be run for any particular variable. The dots lying on exactly or along the straight line reflect a normal distribution of data, whilst deviation from the line indicates violation from normality. In the following chart, the expected values are depicted by the straight diagonal line, whereas the actual data is drawn as dots spotted on or around the diagonal line. Hence, when the dots substantially depart either above or below the diagonal, this would indicate a problem in the kurtosis. Also, a depiction of the dots taking the 'S' shape would inform a skewness. In Figure 6.2, the observation entails a slight deviation above and underneath the diagonal line, which affirms tolerable normality in data distribution and corresponds to prior tests (Field 2009). In addition, the P–P Plot of Regression Standardised Residual was performed, and the result (Figure 6.2) shows the majority of the scores are close to the line. Similarly, the visual pattern of scatterplot reflects that the data is roughly normally distributed (Figure 6.4), keeping in mind that a slight break of normality assumptions may not be problematic for a large sample i.e. sample size = 200 (Field 2009).

Visual Normality Indicators for Dependent Variable: Intent to stay

Normal Q-Q Plot

Dependent Variable: I intend to work for the long-term in my organisation.

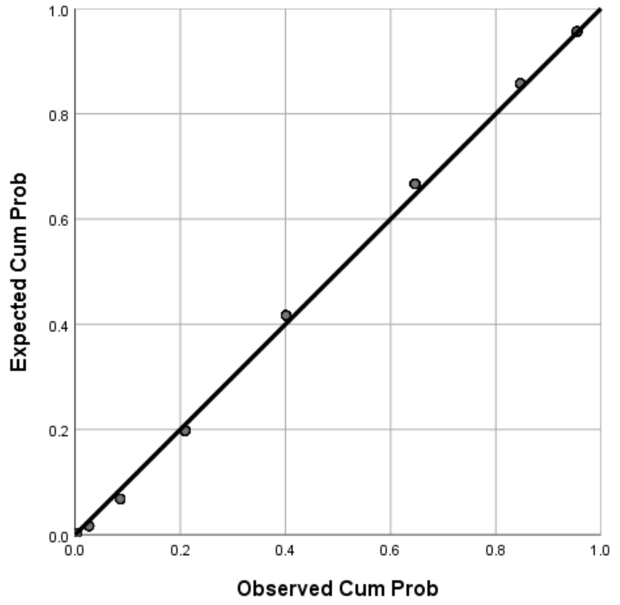


Figure 6.2. Normal Q–Q Plot chart for data normality.

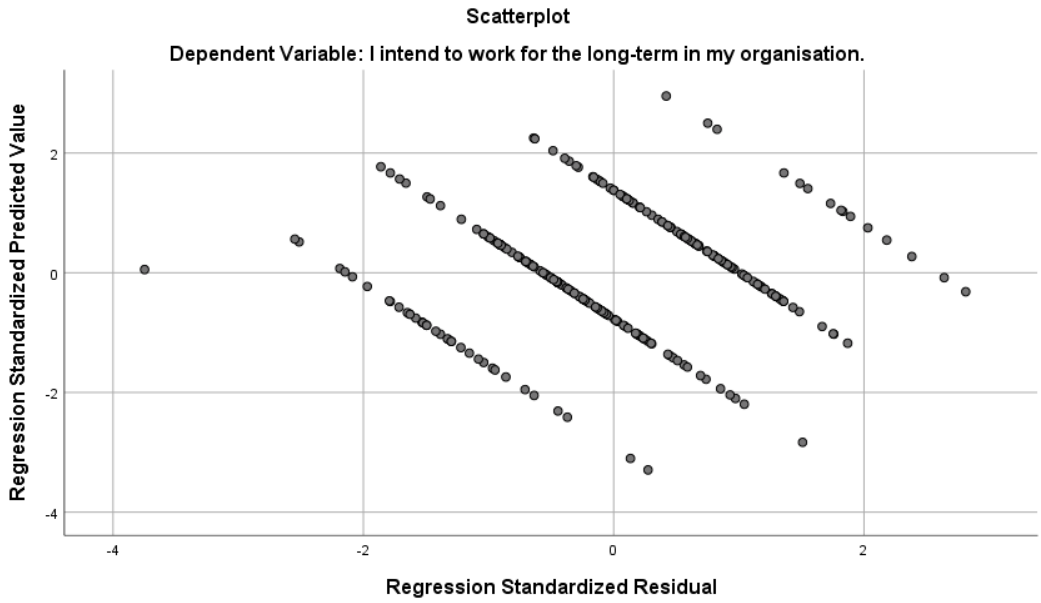


Figure 6.3. Regression Standardised Predicted Value Residual.

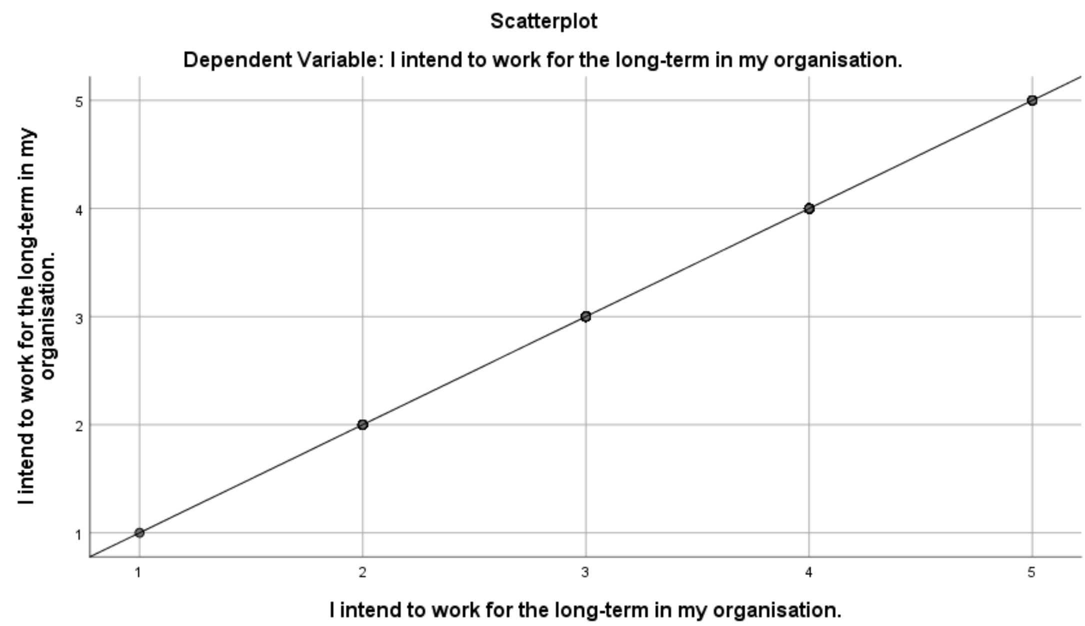


Figure 6.4. Scatterplot of dependent variable.

6.4.4 Linearity

Linearity refers to the consistency in the deviation of change. Linearity is used to 'express the concept that the model possesses the properties of additivity and homogeneity. In a simple sense, linear models predict values that fall in a straight line by having a constant unit change (slope) of the dependent variable for a constant unit change of the independent variable' (Hair et al. 2014, 33). Linearity can be determined from various SPSS tests option such as means or correlation. Moreover, linearity problems can be treated by eliminating outliers or transforming data. A linearity test was performed and the output ANOVA table noted *Deviation from Linearity* values > 0.05 (significant value), which is evidence of sufficient linearity assumed between the independent variables (Leadership Development Programme, Leadership Development Effectiveness, Performance Appraisal, Attraction and Retention Strategies by Enabling and Empowering talents, Attraction and Retention Strategies by Incentives, work conditions and performance rewards, Satisfaction, Participative Leadership, and

Supportive Leadership) and the dependent variable (Retention: intention to stay item) (Hair et al. 2010).

ANOVA Table	
Between Groups (dependent with independent)	Significance of deviation from linearity
Retention * Leadership Development Programme	.763
Retention * Leadership Development Effectiveness	.502
Retention * Performance Appraisal	.642
Retention * Satisfaction	.149
Retention * Participative Leadership	.371
Retention * Supportive Leadership	.092
Retention * Instrumental Leadership	.138
Retention * Attraction and Retention Strategies by Enabling and Empowering talents	.253
Retention * Attraction and Retention Strategies by Incentives, work conditions and performance rewards	.411

Table 6.3. Linearity test for research constructs.

6.4.5 Multi-collinearity

Multicollinearity issues refer to a high correlation of two independent variables. Multicollinearity can be inferred by the Variable Inflation Factor (VIF) and degree of tolerance, used to measure the level of multicollinearity among the dependent variables and each independent variable in the regression model, and how those factors influence the projected variance in explanation of the regression coefficients. Moreover, multicollinearity shows the level of strong correlation between two predictors, (independent) variables (threshold value > 0.7); where the threshold values of the VIF depicts potential multicollinearity. Problems arguably arise when the calculated VIF value is greater than 3 employing the rule of 10 (VIF < 3: not a problem; VIF > 3: potential problem; VIF > 5; very likely problem; VIF > 10: definitely problem – also 5 can be the cut-off point). Correspondingly, while tolerance is strongly associated with VIF, values of tolerance less than 0.10 or 0.25 constitute excessive multicollinearity issues. Hence, when multicollinearity violation is identified, the researcher may resort to eliminating impediment independent variables, or merge two in one index to cure multicollinearity problems. However, in this research the test of collinearity statistics reports all independent variables (predictors) VIF < 3 along with all corresponding tolerance values > 0.10 or 0.25; therefore, no multicollinearity problems have been addressed, as VIF and tolerance does not exceed the criteria of the threshold stated above, so all the reported results are acceptable and there is no need to drop any of the predicting variables, taking into consideration no significant strong correlations between each two independent variables were generated, as all values < 3, as presented in table 6.4 below (O'Brien 2007).

Coefficients[a]						
		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
Model		Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)					
	Leadership Development Programme	.268	.199	.163	.811	1.232
	Leadership Development Effectiveness	.253	.183	.149	.805	1.242
	Performance Appraisal	.178	.173	.141	.955	1.048
	Attraction and Retention Strategies by Enabling and Empowering talents	.100	.148	.120	.938	1.066
	Attraction and Retention Strategies by Incentives, work conditions and performance rewards	.067	.132	.107	.940	1.064
	(Participative) Leadership Style	.296	.208	.171	.910	1.099
	(Supportive) Leadership Style	.253	.303	.255	.964	1.038
	(Instrumental) Leadership Style	–.024	–.027	–.022	.967	1.034
	Satisfaction	.320	.357	.307	.951	1.052

a. Dependent Variable: I intend to work for the long-term in my organisation.

Table 6.4. Collinearity diagnostics report.

6.5 Sample characteristics

6.5.1 Descriptive tests

A descriptive statistical method is an instrument to represent a description about the characteristics of the research sample. In addition, descriptive technique is employed to generate the mean, standard deviation, frequency distribution, and other features (Hakim 1982). For this study, the descriptive technique was executed for description of the research sample's characteristics, for instance the position of respondents, age group, gender, qualifications, the name of the governmental department the talented leader works at, and lastly, tenure.

6.5.2 Responses by governmental department

A sample size of 287 responses was included in the analysis of this study. A response rate of 68% was attained for talent participation in the questionnaire, while a ratio of 100% of responses was received from the governmental departments of Abu Dhabi (N= 65) that are included in the study. The response completion rate may refer to talents' interest in the subject being investigated and the valuable assistance of the survey facilitator.

The highest participation was achieved by the Western Region Municipality (9.02%), then Abu Dhabi National Oil Company (4.92%). A response rate of (3.69%) was accomplished by leaders who work at the Department of Municipal Affairs and Abu Dhabi Health Services, followed by the Municipality of Abu Dhabi City (3.28%). A relatively lower response rate of (2.46%) was reported by participants from Emirates Palace, Abu Dhabi Ports Company, Abu Dhabi General Services, and Abu Dhabi Education Council. After that, the response rate of (1.64%) by the Western Region Development Council, then by Abu Dhabi Water and Electricity Authority. Tourism Development and Investment Company with an average rate below (1%), as depicted in the pie chart below.

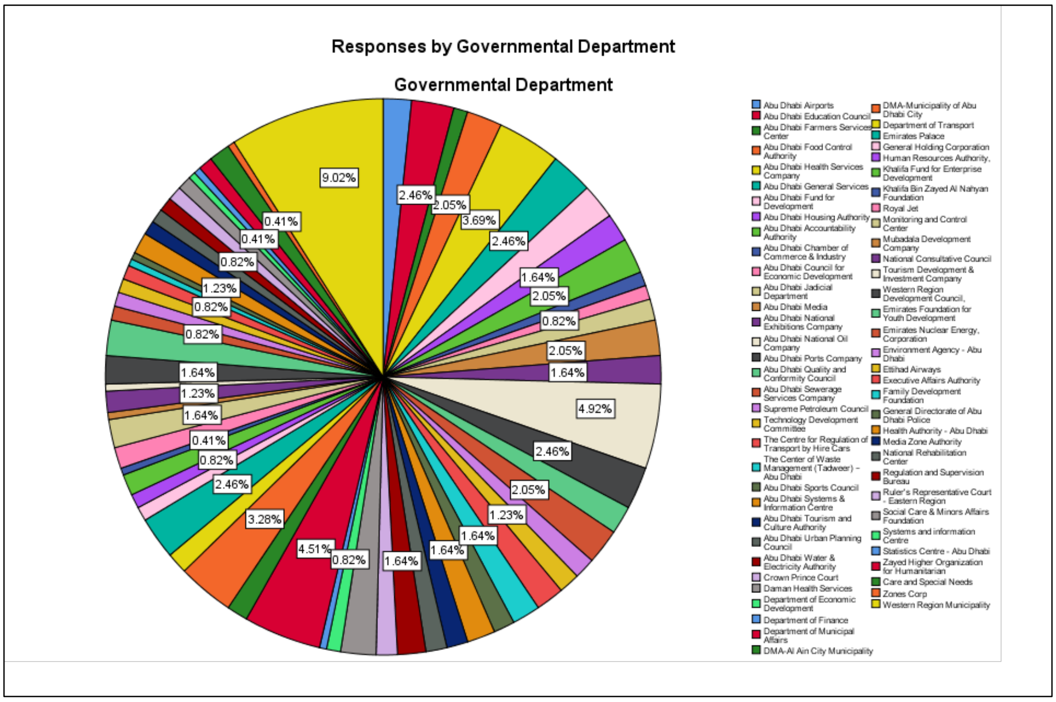


Figure 6.5. Respondent rate by governmental department.

6.5.2.1 Seniority of respondents

The majority of respondents were section heads N=96 (33.4%), followed by division managers N=92 (32.1%), executive directors N=63 (22%), then general managers N=36 (12.5%). Participation was dominated by section heads, whilst general managers were the smallest group expressing their views via the online questionnaire. This could be due to their commitments in managerial functions and meetings, etc.

Position					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	General Manager	36	12.5	12.5	12.5
	Executive Director	63	22.0	22.0	34.5
	Division Manager	96	32.1	32.1	100.0
	Section Head	92	33.4	33.4	67.9
	Total	287	100.0	100.0	

Table 6.5. Response rates by seniority.

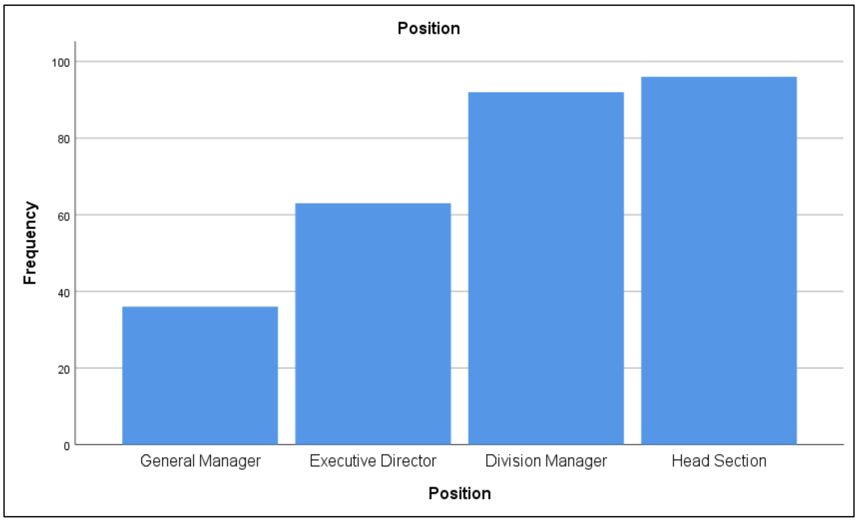


Figure 6.6. Respondent rate by seniority

6.5.2.2 Age group of respondents

Among the 287 participants in this study, the age of 164 respondents lies between 35–44 years old (57%); 79 respondents belong to the age group of 45–54 (27.5%); while 30 respondents are aged between 23–34 years old (10.5%) and merely 14 respondents are 55 - 60 years old (4.9%).

Age Group						
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	23–34	30	10.5	10.5	10.5
	35–44	164	57.1	57.1	67.6
	45–54	79	27.5	27.5	95.1
	55– 60	14	4.9	4.9	100.0
	Total	287	100.0	100.0	

Table 6.6. Respondent rate by age.

6.5.2.3 Gender of respondents

Male respondents dominated participation in this study, scoring 215 (75%), with only 72 females (25%), which may represent the wider population. The majority of respondents were male because the leadership category is dominated by males and this gender is preferred for leadership roles in the UAE and similar contexts. Additionally, female workers are naturally led and managed by males in such a religious region (Randeree 2006); although the most recent statistics show that their employment ratios are slightly above males in the UAE (Statista 2020); therefore, gender bias is inevitable.

Gender					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	214	74.6	74.6	74.6
	Female	73	25.4	25.4	100.0
	Total	287	100.0	100.0	

Table 6.7. Respondent rate by gender.

6.5.2.4 Qualification of respondents

In terms of education, 121 leaders are holders of a Master's degree or equivalent (42%) and 23% represents PhD or equivalent, with a higher ratio for degree or equivalent holders at 30%. That high result could be justified according to the criterion set by ADG to carefully select the most qualified national candidates to occupy senior roles. This could reflect the prosperity associated with higher education and abundance of local and private universities in the UAE as shown by checking a higher education website. This is in addition to the emphasis from ADG on continued education and the provision of leadership development opportunities. Moreover, most of the employees in the public sector are well educated. The UAE promotes higher education, encourages international scholarships, and sends UAE students abroad, mostly to the United States, and offers attractive bursaries and fully paid study leave. It has also become the tendency to complete higher education for promotion purposes in the public sector, and attain Master's and PhD degrees in order to be offered a leadership position in the government. The respondents with general certificate qualification may be limited to Section Head incumbents who have been slowly promoted over decades of years to hold managerial positions.

Qualifications

	Frequency	Percent
Degree or equivalent	86	30.0
Master's or equivalent	121	42.2
PhD or equivalent	66	23.0
High School	4	1.4
Diploma	10	3.5
Total	287	100.0

Table 6.8. Respondent rate by qualification.

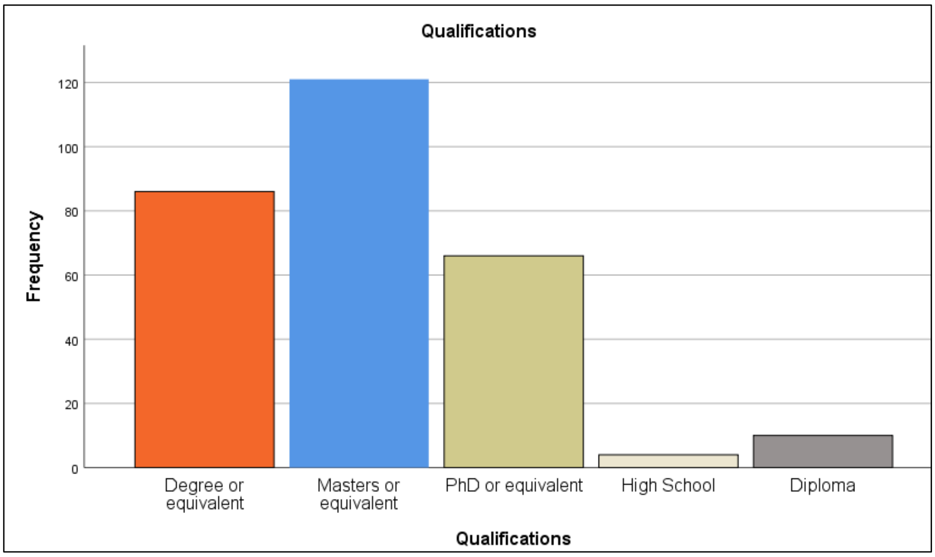


Figure 6.7. Respondent rate by qualification.

6.5.2.5 Tenure of respondents

As regards years of experience, only 11 leaders had 4–7 years of experience in their organisations at 3.8%; 61 leaders had 8–12 years of experience in ADG departments at 21.3%; 82 leaders had 13–17 years of experience in ADG departments, rated at 28.6%; 93 leaders had 18–24 years of experience in ADG departments, with the greatest proportion of respondents at 32.4%; and 40 leaders had the longest tenure of 25+ years working in ADG departments, at 13.9%.

Tenure

	Frequency	Percent
4 - 7	11	3.8
8 - 12	61	21.3
13 - 17	82	28.6
18 - 24	93	32.4
25 and plus	40	13.9
Total	287	100.0

Table 6.9. Respondent rate by tenure.

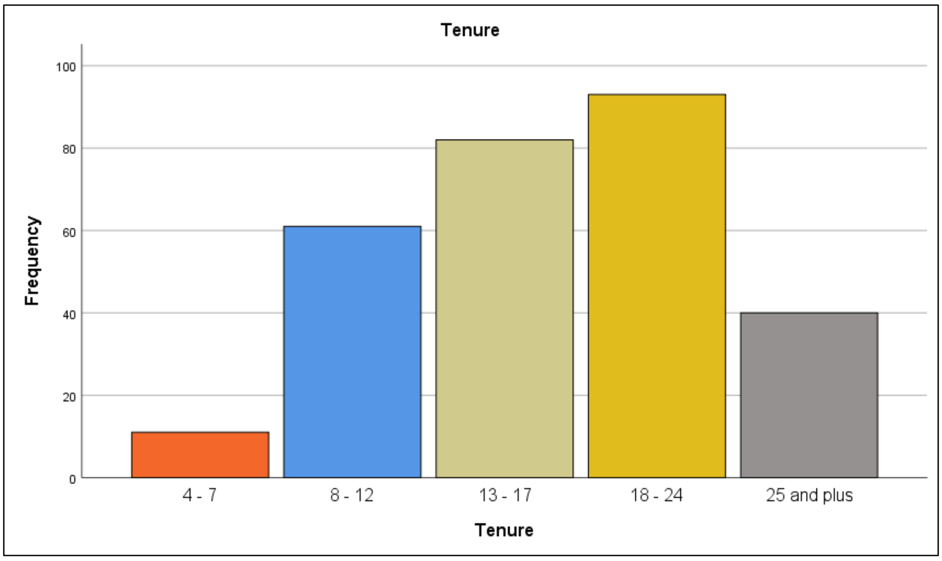


Figure 6.8. Respondent rate by tenure.

6.5.3 Descriptive analysis of sample responses

This sub-section displays data from respondents in line with the second research objective. The following sub-sections represent responses from the sample according to the integrated constructs constituting strategic TM Independent Variables (IDs) from the current study. Hence, two main categories were tested as the questionnaire implies 2 major constructs (strategic Talent Management and Drivers and Barriers), which were measured based on 54 various items (statements), using a five-point Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree.’ Respondents were asked about their agreement or disagreement on each individual statement. Afterwards, obtained responses were coded using SPSS where score 5 indicated that they strongly agreed with the statement, score 4 reflects agreed, score 3 is equivalent to neutral, number 2 disagree, and score 1 strongly disagree with the statement. In addition, score 3 was determined as the cut-off point on the scale that distinguishes respondent’s choice of agreement (over 3) or disagreement (below 3). Table 6.10 indicates that the average standard deviation for the performance management measure and attraction and retention strategies by empowering and enabling is S.D. = .55 for both constructs, which notably indicates low dispersion of the scores around the mean scores of the study’s individual measures compared. The adoption and implementation refer to the extent to which the bundle of effective TM strategies is being adopted and practised by individual departments under ADG.

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.	3.36	.78	287
LDP_AVG	3.70	.73	287
LDE_AVG	3.29	.81	287
PA_AVG	3.59	.73	287
ATT_RET_BY_EMP_AVG	2.90	.74	287
ATT_RET_BY_IWR_AVG	3.82	.63	287
TS_AVG	3.35	.93	287
PL_AVG	3.00	.81	287
SL_AVG	3.55	.93	287
IL_AVG	2.44	.82	287

EMP, Attraction and Retention by Empowering; IL, Instrumental Leadership; IWR, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions and Performance Rewards; LDE, Leadership Development Effectiveness; LDP, Leadership Development Program; PA, Performance Appraisal; PL, Participated Leadership; SL, Supportive Leadership; TS, Talent Satisfaction.

Table 6.10. Means and standard deviations of study constructs.

6.5.3.1 Leadership development programme

Participants' perceptions were sought regarding leadership development in ADG organisations. The results indicate that the mean scores of the four items employed to measure leadership development are between 3.43 and 3.90 with standard deviation ranged from 0.801 to 1.124. Therefore, a conclusion can be drawn that most of respondents (as mean score = 3.70 is greater than the cut-off point of 3) were in agreement about the adoption and implementation of the leadership development programme as a crucial pattern of TM. Moreover, the highest agreement average (3.90) was scored via the statement ‘Coaches and mentors assist managers to develop their skills’ (LDP2), while ‘My organisation develops high-potential employees to become leaders to ensure a strong talent pool’ (LDP1) had the lowest endorsement average, scored at 3.43. Using an extra question for any additional comments, study participants reported that the leadership development programme has not been provided for several years by the government of Abu Dhabi.

6.5.3.2 Leadership development effectiveness

Participants were asked to reflect their perceptions towards the effectiveness of leadership development in ADG organisations. The results indicate that the mean scores of the eight items employed to measure the effectiveness of leadership development are between 2.68 and 3.98 with standard deviation ranged from .773 to 1.372, resulting in apparently dispersing the reviewed ratings around the mean scores of the individual measured items. Therefore, a conclusion can be drawn that the majority of respondents (as mean score = 3.29 is greater than the cut-off point of 3) were agreed about the effectiveness of the leadership development programme, as a crucial pattern of TM. However, respondents showed lower agreement concerning their readiness to occupy a strategic position (mean = 2.68), followed by sufficient training allowances allocated for LDP (mean = 2.97) which are key indicators of effectiveness for the leadership development programme. On the other hand, the report revealed roughly low agreement levels by respondents in respect to their possession of the competences required for their positions, which is near the midpoint (mean = 3.05). Meanwhile, the item ‘Overall, my evaluation of LDP tends to be an effective programme’ exhibited the highest mean rank at (3.98). It was also reported by the study participants, through employing an extra question to input the respondents’ additional comments, that section heads at the various governmental departments of Abu Dhabi were not being involved in the strategic aspects and were segregated from TM function, owing to the fact that some of the line managers are not fluent in the English language and so were excluded from participation in the national programme for leadership development.

6.5.3.3 Performance appraisal

The findings reveal that the mean ratio for the ten items used to measure performance appraisal system in ADG organisations are between 2.85 and 4, with standard deviation ranging from 0.761 to 1.275 conducing to more dispersed ratings across the mean score. The above result, therefore, reports a significant number of respondents who believe that the main processes of the performance appraisal system are adopted and implemented at ADG. The results match those found by Chen and Ross (2007), Armstrong (2009), Stewart and Rigg (2011), Singh and Sharma (2015) and Jeske and Santuzzi (2015), in which Thunnissen *et al*. (2013) argued that performance appraisal is the core function of TM in the Middle East context. The finding is assumed to leverage talents' retention and influence turnover rates positively across talented leaders accordingly. Moreover, the descriptive statistics for performance appraisal also uncovered respondents' low agreement as to the effectiveness of performance appraisal in terms of assisting leaders to perform their jobs as leaders efficiently (mean = 2.85). Furthermore, participants' low level of agreement pertaining to the use of the monitoring system to evaluate performance emerged from descriptive data generated, with a mean score of 3.06 (PA8). Furthermore, close to a majority of study respondents gave little endorsement to the statement 'Performance review meetings are conducted periodically' (mean = 3.27). However, the highest level of agreement was reflected regarding data from the monitoring system being used to develop an incentive pay system (PA10) at the average mean of 4.

6.5.3.4 Attraction and retention strategies by enabling and empowering talents

Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they perceive the strategies adopted by their employer to be successful in attracting and retaining talent from leaders. The results show the mean ratings of the five items used to measure Attraction and Retention Strategies by Enabling and Empowering talents are between 2.22 and 3.57 with standard deviation ranging from 0.743 to 1.239, underlying the high dispersion of ratings among the reviewed scores of the mean. Hence, it could be concluded that the majority of respondents were not agreed on the adoption of attraction and retention strategies by enabling and empowering talents, according to the mean score of the construct that partially reflects a roughly low level of agreement, as it is positioned under the midpoint = 2.89. This contradicts with Thunnissen *et al*. (2013) who claim performance management is the core function of TM in the Middle East context. The highest average ranking across this measure was (3.57), gained from the statement 'I make a significant impact in my department' (EMP3); whilst, the lowest level of agreement within this construct was associated with two items employed to gauge the autonomy talents possess in performing their jobs (EMP4) (mean = 2.22), and the next lowest item rated was measuring the extent to which job activities are meaningful to employees (EMP1) (mean = 2.33).

6.5.3.5 Attraction and retention strategies by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards

In respect of ADG's attitudes pertaining to the attraction and retention strategies by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards that were measured by six items, the average mean scores were 3.82 (between 2.93 and 4.17) on the five-point scale; therefore, the average scoring mean of 3.82 indicated respondents' agreement to some extent with the items involved in this construct. In addition, the average standard deviation of .63 (between .692 and 0.873) reflects approximately low to high dispersion from the above mean score. Additionally, the statement (IR5) ‘My organisation offers performance-driven rewards’ was reported to have the lowest level of agreement, conveying respondents’ discontent, with an average mean of (2.93). As mentioned, the extra question where respondents could input additional comments, revealed that there had not been an incentive programme in place at ADG-affiliated departments. Participants from the Western Region Municipality and the Medical Region acknowledged that the government implemented an initiative for rewarding employees based on their performance for the rates ‘very good’ and ‘distinction’ only once, in 2018. The highest level of agreement, however, was gained from the statement ‘My organisation provides on-site opportunities and a global exposure for talent’ (IR1) at average mean of 4.17.

6.5.3.6 The effectiveness of TMP implementation on talent retention at ADG departments

Based on the third research objective, respondents were asked to answer one question to indicate their intention to stay with their employer, using the statement ‘I intend to stay for the long-term in my organisation’ (IS). The mean of the scores yielded an average of 3.36, reflecting their willingness to remain at their organisations.

6.5.3.7 The effectiveness of TMP implementation on talent satisfaction at ADG departments

Regarding the talent satisfaction construct and the fourth research objective, respondents were asked to respond to five statements in order to measure the ranking level of their satisfaction in their current positions. The mean of the scores revealed an average of 3.35, indicating satisfaction among the respondents. The standard deviation of the ratings entails more dispersion across the scores from the average mean ranging from 0.917 to 1.307. The statement ‘I feel enthusiastic about my work’ (TS1) exerted the highest score of agreement, with mean scored at 3.91. Moreover, the statement ‘I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation’ (TS2) exerted the lowest score of agreement to indicate a slight disagreement, with mean scored at 2.64.

6.5.3.8 The employer branding manifested in the prevailing leadership behaviour at ADG-affiliated departments

In response to the set of questions to rate employer branding (the fifth research objective) by means of leadership behaviour (Sullivan 2002) (which comprised three distinct constructs: participative leadership, supported leadership, and instrumental leadership), a range of responses was elicited for each leadership style. The overall response to this cluster of three-construct questions was 2.99 (just approaching the midpoint), precisely: 3, 3.55 and 2.44, which can barely provide support for the question of the potential cultural influence on the implementation of successful TM strategy, as inferred by the survey of leaders at ADG. In addition, the standard deviation for the completed thirteen questions ranged between 0.91 and 1.307, which was 0.85 for the integrated questions that in turn explicitly pointed to a considerable dispersion in comparison to the overall mean score.

6.5.3.8.1 Participative leadership

The findings of five questions employed to measure the extent of agreement scored an average mean of 3, representing a midpoint between agreement and disagreement levels. The analysis mirrored a high level of agreement rated at 3.40 average mean obtained via respondents’ ratings of the statement PL3 ‘Before taking action my manager consults with subordinates’. Similarly, the mean of 2.53 was scored as the lowest average mean of the scored ranking to the first question, ‘My manager asks subordinates for their suggestions’. This reveals that participative leadership is not sufficiently adopted. Moreover, the descriptive statistics for PL also revealed that the respondents’ ratings were more dispersed around their mean scores for this item (standard deviations between 0.93 and 1.26).

6.5.3.8.2 Supportive leadership

The findings of four questions to gauge leaders’ behaviour at ADG with an average scores mean of 3.55 indicated a relatively high level of endorsement, thereby revealing that supportive leadership is adopted. The standard deviation was between 0.98 and 1.17, thus resulting in less dispersed ratings around the average mean. The highest mean of the scored ratings was 3.69 for the statement ‘My manager helps people to make working on their tasks more pleasant’ (SL3) while the lowest average mean of the scored ranking was at 3.38 for the statement ‘My manager creates a working environment in which subordinates feel free to offer advice’ (SL1).

6.5.3.8.3 Instrumental leadership

The IL construct, aiming at identifying leadership behaviour, was measured by four items on the five-point Likert scale where 2.44 falls below the cut-off point of 3. This shows disagreement on the way talents have been managed, referring to the instrumental leadership traits and hence non-adoption of instrumental leadership style by their leaders. Again, the average standard deviation mean (0.82) ranged from 1.065 to 1.149, indicating low dispersion among respondents’ scores around the average mean. Moreover, the first statement ‘My manager decides what and how things shall be done’ (IL1) exerted the highest level of disagreement, with average mean of 2.29. Whereas, the third statement

‘My manager explains the way tasks should be carried out’ (IL3) had the lowest level of disagreement at an average mean of 2.57.

6.5.4 Demographic characteristics of respondents and dependent variable

One dependent variable (DV) was employed for this investigation to measure the responses is (IS) the ‘intention to stay’. Respondents were asked one question to indicate their perception on a five-point scale, ‘I intend to stay for the long-term in my organisation’. The demographic variables, including gender, were analysed employing an Independent Samples Test. Age, position, organisation, level of education, and years of service were then analysed using ANOVA.

6.5.4.1 Gender of respondents and dependent variable

An Independent Samples Test was conducted to indicate the variance in respondents’ responses according to their gender.

Group Statistics						Independent Samples Test									
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
							F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
														Lower	Upper
	Male	215	3.30	0.806	0.055										
I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.	Female	72	3.54	0.670	0.079	Equal variances assumed	2.095	**0.149**	–2.315	285	.021	–0.244	.105	–0.451	–0.036
						Equal variances not assumed			–2.536	145.135	**0.012**	–0.244	0.096	–0.434	–0.054

Table 6.11. Independent samples test for dependent variable.

The report showed very significant variance among male and female respondents (p = 0.01). Levene's Test for Equality of Variances uncovered equal variances not assumed; that is, male leaders were found slightly less likely to stay at their organisations than female leaders. The average mean score for males was reported at 3.30 while the female scoring mean was 3.54 with an average standard deviation of 0.73, indicating less dispensed scorings against the mean value. However, it is worth noting that the surveyed female leaders constituted only 25% of the study sample.

6.5.4.2 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

A One-way Analysis of Variances (ANOVA) test was conducted to detect and demonstrate variance in the means scored for the five independent groups on the dependent variable. The purpose of running this test was to find out if a significant discrepancy in perceptions existed among the various groups according to age, position, qualification, governmental department, and tenure, of the dependent variable (IS), that is talent retention (intention to stay). The ANOVA test revealed that the dependent variable was significant in failing to accept the null hypothesis (pointing to at least single variance in means) as a function of the respondents' position, $F(3, 283) = 23.277$, p = 0.000 ($p < 0.05$), which reported high significance (Intention to stay) as shown in the descriptive reports (Figure 6.9). This could reinforce the view that leaders from senior management are more likely to stay in ADG (mean of 2.69) than their counterparts among leaders who belong to lower management (as revealed from the post hoc/multiple comparisons tests; Duncan's Multiple-Range test and Waller–Duncan's test, Table 6.14, highlighted where the variance lay among the included groupings between different levels of independent variables, general managers and executive directors had significantly higher mean intention to stay (below neutral for general managers and just slightly above neutral for executive directors), than division managers and head sections (all of which were below the neutral). Therefore, in other words, it could be concluded that general managers and executive directors are more likely to be retained than division managers and heads of sections at ADG, as can also be shown by Waller–Duncan's test below.

The inquiry then investigated the respondents' age; in which again it failed to accept the null hypothesis (indicating that at least single differentiation arose in the means) on the dependent variable. The leaders who belong to the third category of age group (from 45–54) tended to have statistically significant lower levels of intention to stay in the organisation, compared to leaders of the first and second and fourth category age groups (23–34) and (35–44); then the lowest level to stay was reported via the fourth age group (55–60), which indicated the highest level of turnover intention $F (3, 283) = 3.084$, $p = 0.028 < 0.05$ (intention to stay). For example, it has been unveiled from post hoc/multiple comparisons test (Duncan's test, 6.14) that respondents whose ages fall between (23–34, N = 30) and the category (35–44, N = 164) had significantly lower mean score of 3.43 (low intention to stay), than for the oldest leaders of ages 55–60 years (N = 14) whose mean score was 3.57 (had relatively lower intention to stay in comparison to other age groups) –notably, all means were above neutral. Having discussed the analysis by position and then by age, it was perhaps surprising to find that the respondents' qualifications, tenure, and governmental department retained the null hypotheses to reflect no variance among groups of respondents. For example, analysis for respondents by qualification reported no significance ($p = 0.26$) ($p > 0.05$), average means of included groups ranged between 3.22 and 3.70, along with roughly little dispersion in standard deviation, resulting in nearly close scores for their intention to stay in their organisations. Similarly, analysis of variances across different categories of respondents revealed that the various levels of experienced surveyed is not statistically significant, in respect to the ratings portraying their intention to stay in ADG departments (p = 0.69). Hence, the analysis of the respondents' departments based on the dependent variables was performed, yet the organisation of work did not illustrate the dependent variables (p = 0.18).

Tenure of Respondents

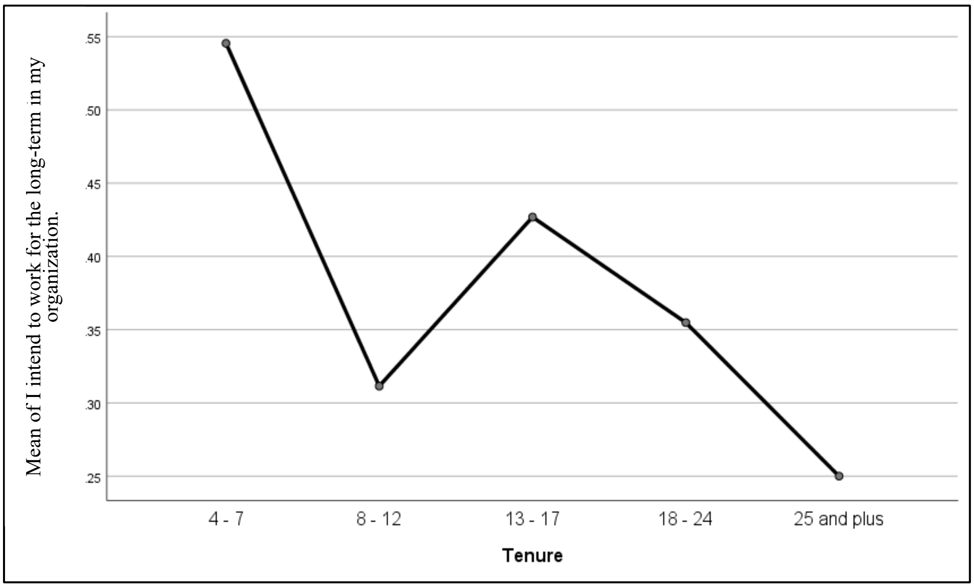


Figure 6.9. ANOVA result. Tenure of Respondents.

I intend to work for the long-term in my organisation.

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.374	4	.344	.561	**.691**
Within Groups	172.661	282	.612		
Total	174.035	286			

Table 6.12. ANOVA result for Respondents by their Tenure.

Position of Respondents

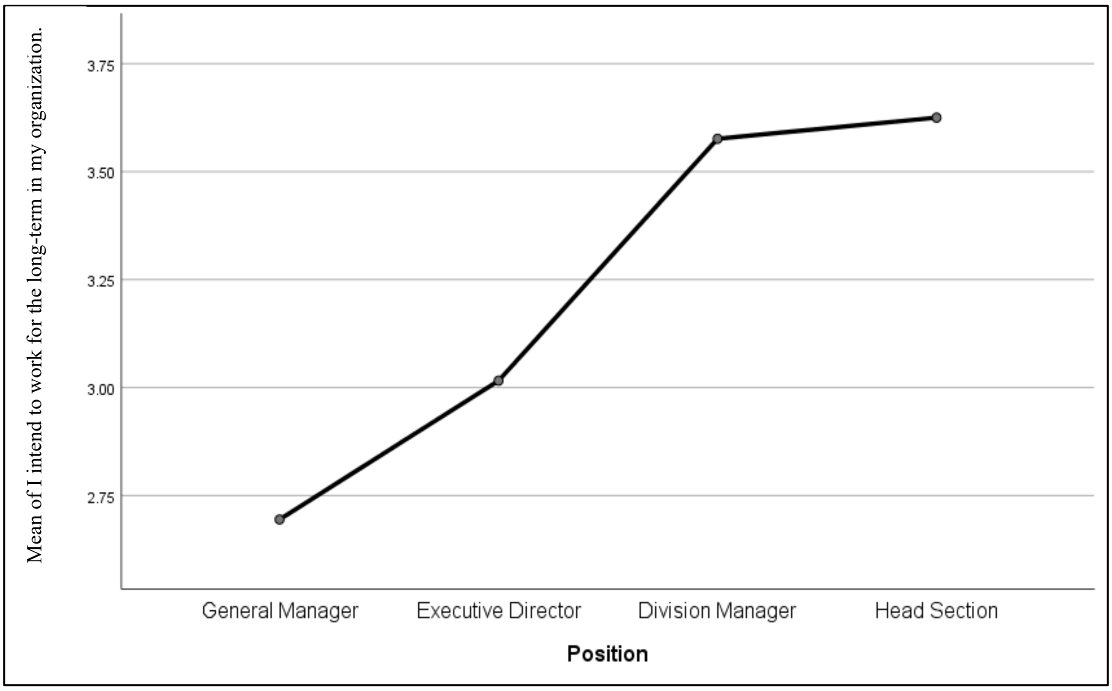


Figure 6.10. ANOVA result. Position of Respondents.

I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.					
ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	34.444	3	11.481	23.277	.000
Within Groups	139.590	283	.493		
Total	174.035	286			

Table 6.13. ANOVA result for respondents by position.

Position of Respondents I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.				
Duncan[a,b]				
Position	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05		
		1	2	3
General Manager	36	2.69		
Executive Director	63		3.02	
Division Manager	92			3.58
Section Head	96			3.63
Sig.		1.000	1.000	.699
Waller-Duncan[a,b,c]				
General Manager	36	2.69		
Executive Director	63	3.02		
Division Manager	92		3.58	
Section Head	96		3.63	

Table 6.14 Duncan Result for Table 6.12.

Age of Respondents

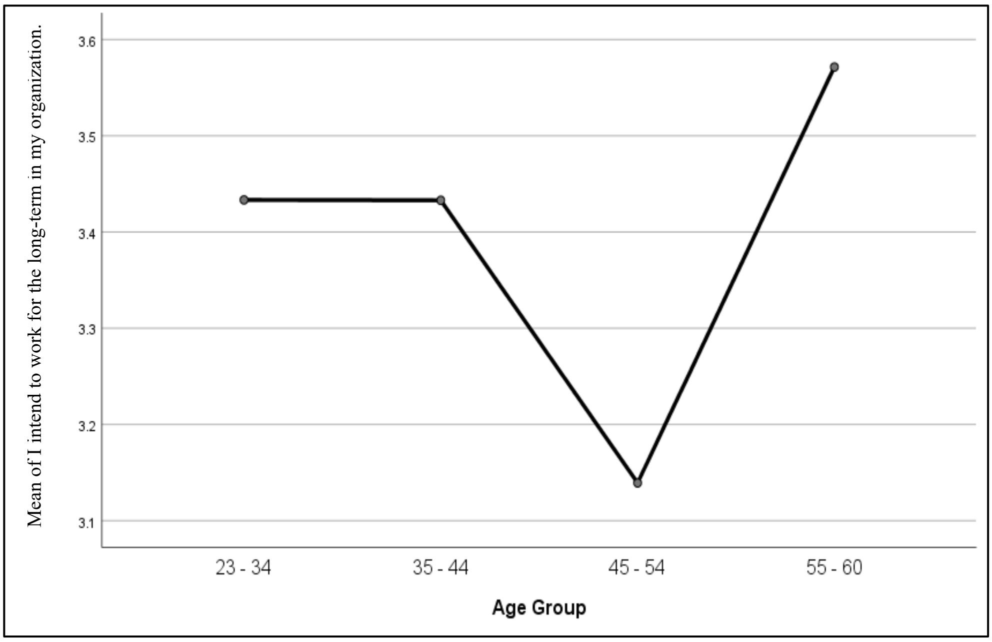


Figure 6.11. ANOVA result. Age of respondents.

Age of Respondents

I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.509	3	1.836	3.084	.028
Within Groups	168.526	283	.595		
Total	174.035	286			

Table 6.15. ANOVA result for respondents by age.

I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.			
Duncan[a,b]			
		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Age Group (Years)	N	1	2
45–54	79	3.14	
35–44	164	3.43	3.43
23–34	30	3.43	3.43
55–60	14		3.57
Sig.		.150	.501
Waller-Duncan[a,b,c]			
45–54	79	3.14	
35–44	164	3.43	
23–34	30	3.43	
55–60	14	3.57	

Table 6.16. Duncan Result for Table 6.13.

Qualification of Respondents

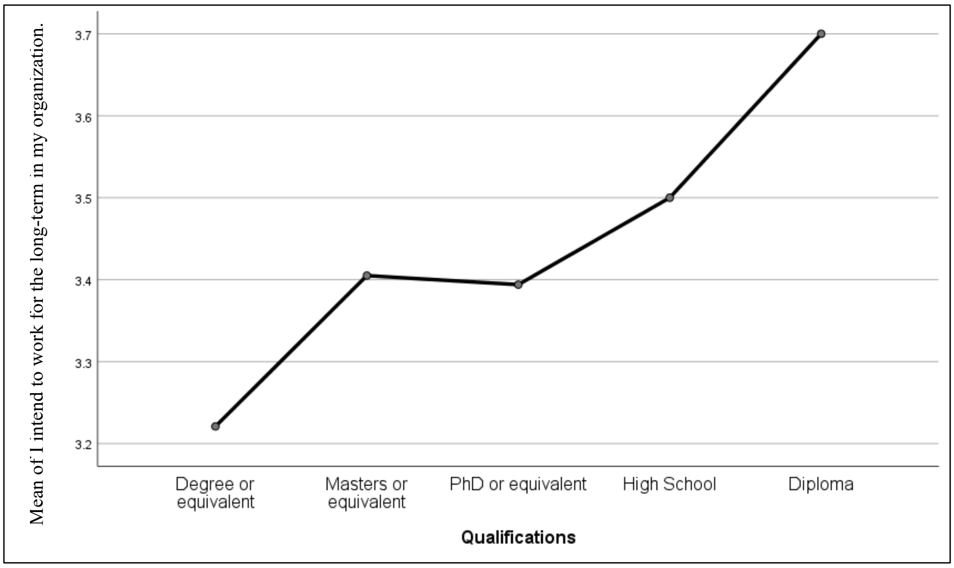


Figure 6.12: ANOVA result. Qualifications of Respondents

I intend to work for the long-term in my organisation.

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.218	4	.804	1.328	**.260**
Within Groups	170.817	283	.606		
Total	174.035	286			

Table 6.17: ANOVA result for Respondents by their Qualifications

Organisation of Respondents

I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	44.395	64	.694	1.188	**.182**
Within Groups	129.640	222	.584		
Total	174.035	286			

Table 6.18: ANOVA result for Respondents by Organisation.

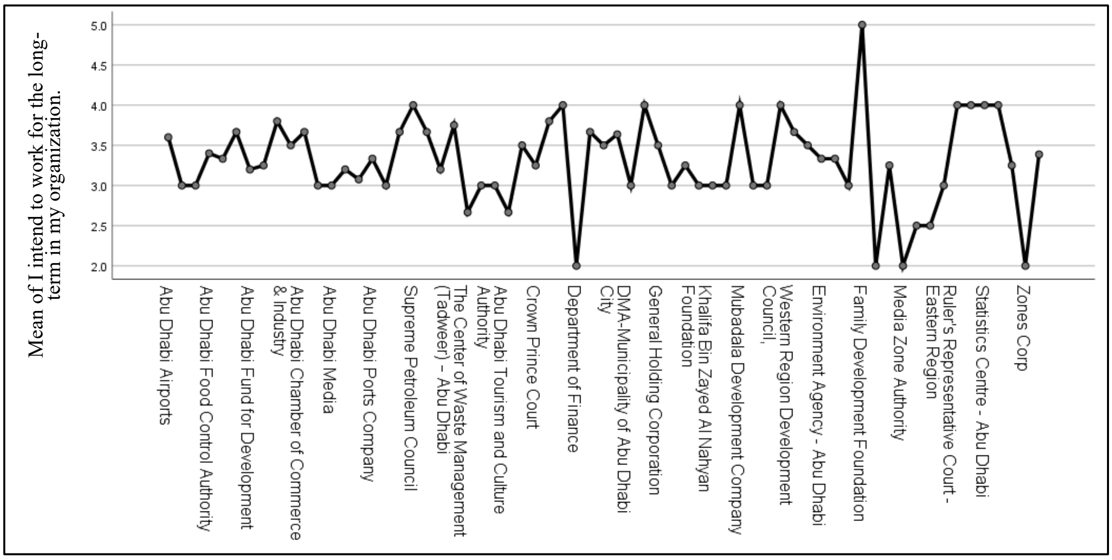


Figure 6.13. ANOVA result. Organisations of Respondents.

6.6 Inferential analysis

6.6.1 The bivariate correlations between factors

The Pearson correlation coefficient tests the association between variables without making assumptions on their interdependence. In order for Pearson's test to measure the linear relationship between variables accurately, data should be interval or scale. The coefficient close to one reflects perfect/strength of the relationship among variables (Bryman and Bell 2007). The direction of the relationship can be positive or negative (Hair *et al*. 2010). The aim of employing Pearson's correlation is to:

1. Identify the strength and direction of the relationship between each independent variable (individual factor) and the dependent variable (retention level of talented leaders).
2. Find out if an individual association between the independent variables and the retention level exists or is among the explanatory variables.

The correlation matrix reported the results for the nine constructs in the following table (5.18), where six factors (leadership development plan, leadership development effectiveness, performance appraisal, participative leadership, supported leadership, and satisfaction) were significantly positively correlated to talent intention to stay in ADG at significance value ($p < 0.01$). Three constructs did not show significant relationship with the dependent variables of the attraction and retention strategies by empowering and enabling (.100) ($p > 0.05$), attraction and retention strategies by incentives, work conditions and performance rewards (r = .067) ($p > 0.05$) as well as instrumental leadership (–0.024) ($p < 0.05$). However, the relationships (r) among the 6 aforementioned predictors and DV ranged between weak and moderate (r < 0.7). The highest correlation coefficients detected were between talent satisfaction and their intention to stay at ADG (r = 0.320). The next strongest significant association with DV was found to be the participative leadership (r = 0.296) followed by the leadership development programme (r = 0.268), then the leadership development effectiveness (r = 0.253). Furthermore, one factor, the instrumental leadership was found negatively associated with the dependent variable. Subsequently, the influence of the five constructs on talent's intention may not be expected as high as hypothesized.

Sr.	**Independent Factors** with DV (I intend to work for the long term in my organisation).	R
1	**Factors related to Talent Management Strategy**	
	Factor (1) LDP: Leadership Development Plan	.268**
	Factor (2) LDE: Leadership Development Effectiveness	.253**
	Factor (3) PA: Performance Appraisal	.178**
	Factor (4) ATT_RET_BY_EMP: Attraction and Retention	.100
	Factor (5) ATT_RET_BY_IWR_AVG: Attraction and Retention	.067
2	**Cultural Factors within Employer Branding**	
	Factor (1) PL_AVG	.296**
	Factor (2) SL_AVG	.253**
	Factor (3) IL_AVG	-.024
3	**Other Factors**	
	Factor (1) SAT_AVG	.320**
	**Correlation is significant at the level 0.01 where ** $p<0.01$. *Correlation is significant at the level 0.05 where * $p<0.05$.	

Table 6.19. Correlations between predictors and the dependent variable.

6.6.2 Multivariate analysis

The following section will explain the multivariate analysis undertaken to fulfil the research objective of explaining the influence of the individual factors of strategic TM (LDP, LDE, PA, EMP, IRW, including the effect of talent satisfaction TS and the leadership style: PL, SL, IL) and their impact on talent retention level at ADG departments.

1. To statistically determine if an association exists between the five measures underlying the Strategic Talent Management at ADG Departments, (namely: the leadership development programme, leadership development effectiveness, performance appraisal, attraction and retention strategies by enabling and empowering talents, and attraction and retention strategies by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards) and the dependent variable retention (intention to stay).
2. To statistically determine if an association exists between other measures such as satisfaction and leadership style and the dependent variable retention (intention to stay).
3. To conclude if the above strategic TM measures are highly relevant to the level of retention across talents.
4. To find out the degree of adoption of Talent Management strategies and practices (to test their integration and then to be considered individually). This is to conclude with the level of implementation according to the fundamental practices implied in Talent Management.
5. To indicate the most influential predictor in explaining the variation of the projected variable.

6. To conclude if the above strategic TM measures, plus other indicators (satisfaction and leadership style), are highly relevant to the level of retention across talents.
   - Sub Objective: to analyse the impact of the leadership development programme on talent retention: to test whether a leadership development programme would exert influence, and in turn offer a better explanation, of the level of talent retention at leadership level.
   - Sub Objective: to analyse the impact of leadership development effectiveness on talents retention: to test whether leadership development effectiveness would exert influence, and in turn offer a better explanation, of the level of talent retention at leadership level.
   - Sub Objective: to analyse the impact of performance appraisal on talent retention: to test whether performance appraisal would exert influence, and in turn offer a better explanation, of the level of talent retention at leadership level.
   - Sub Objective: to analyse the impact of attraction and retention by enabling and empowering on talent retention: to test whether attraction and retention by enabling and empowering would exert influence, and in offer a better explanation, of the level of talent retention at leadership level.
   - Sub Objective: to analyse the impact of attraction and retention by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards on talent retention: to test whether attraction and retention by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards would exert influence, and in turn offer a better explanation, of the level of talent retention at leadership level.
   - Sub Objective: to analyse the impact of talent satisfaction on talent retention: to test whether satisfaction would exert influence, and in turn offer a better explanation, of the level of talent retention at leadership level.

- Sub Objective: to analyse the impact of cultural influence (within the employer branding) manifested by the supportive leadership behaviour at ADG on talent retention: to test whether other cultural dimensions (supportive leadership style) would exert influence, and in turn offer a better explanation, of the level of talent retention at leadership level.
- Sub Objective: to analyse the impact of cultural influence (within the employer branding) manifested by the participative leadership behaviour at ADG on talent retention: to test whether other cultural dimensions (participative leadership style) would exert influence, and in turn offer a better explanation, of the level of talent retention at leadership level.
- Sub Objective: to analyse the impact of cultural influence (within the employer branding) manifested by instrumental leadership behaviour at ADG, on talent retention: to test whether other cultural dimensions (e.g. instrumental leadership style) would exert influence, and in turn offer a better explanation, of the level of talent retention at leadership level.

6.6.2.1 Multiple regression analysis

In order to fulfil the sixth research objective and its sub objectives stated above, multiple regression analysis was performed. Before performing multiple regression, various assumptions were considered to pass the test, including the dependent variable is scale; there are two or more independent variables to predict the outcome (retention); the Durbin–Watson statistic was employed to show the independence of observations such as residuals. Moreover, data normality tests (as discussed in the previous section) were undertaken to check multicollinearity and showed no issues arising, and finally scatterplots and partial regression plots were inspected, and indicate a fairly linear relationship (refer back to section 6.4, table 6.3 and table 6.4).

Model Summary[b]					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.597[a]	.356	.335	.636	1.618

a. Predictors: (Constant), IL_AVG, SL_AVG, ATT_RET_BY_EMP_AVG, ATT_RET_BY_IRW_AVG, LDP_AVG, SAT_AVG, PA_AVG, PL_AVG, LDE_AVG

b. Dependent Variable: I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.

Table 6.20. Model Summary

Multiple regression analysis revealed that according to R^2 value (.356), the emerging model is able to interpret 36% of the predictors; in other words, 36% of the predictors are accounted for in maintaining talent retention. While 64% of the variation in predictors, namely (the leadership development programme, leadership development effectiveness, performance appraisal, attraction and retention strategies by enabling and empowering talents, attraction and retention strategies by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards; satisfaction, supportive leadership, participative leadership and instrumental leadership), cannot be explained alone.

ANOVA[a]						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	61.9629	9	6.885	17.016	.000[b]
	Residual	112.073	277	.405		
	Total	174.035	286			

a. Dependent Variable: I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.

b. Predictors: (Constant), IL_AVG, SL_AVG, ATT_RET_BY_EMP_AVG, ATT_RET_BY_IWR_AVG, LDP_AVG, SAT_AVG, PA_AVG, PL_AVG, LDE_AVG

Table 6.21. Analysis of Variance

Table 6.22 explains the different sum of squares and degree of freedom, their mean and significance with cut-off point p <0.001 (sig. =.000). F ratio indicates (F= 17.016) that there is less 83% probability that the F ratio could happen in case the null hypothesis was accepted.

Coefficients[a]						
		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	–1.433	.469		–3.054	.002
	LDP_AVG	.193	.057	.181	3.376	.001
	LDE_AVG	.158	.051	.166	3.091	.002
	PA_AVG	.152	.052	.144	2.915	.004
	ATT_RET_EMP_AVG	.130	.052	.124	2.489	.013
	ATT_RET_IWR_AVG	.134	.061	.110	2.210	.028
	PL_AVG	.172	.049	.179	3.544	.000
	SL_AVG	.218	.041	.260	5.296	.000
	IL_AVG	–.021	.046	–.022	–.447	→.655
	TS_AVG	.262	.041	.314	6.360	.000
a. Dependent Variable: I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.						

Table 6.22. Regression Model Coefficients-1

Residuals Statistics[a]					
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.83	4.73	3.36	.465	287
Residual	–2.384	1.789	.000	.626	287
Std. Predicted Value	–3.295	2.952	.000	1.000	287
Std. Residual	–3.748	2.812	.000	.984	287

a. Dependent Variable: I intend to work for the long term in my organisation.

Table 6.23. Regression Model Coefficients-2.

From Table 6.22, representing the regression model, it emerged that eight (8) included measures exert positive significant influence upon retention, except for the IL (instrumental leadership) which did not show influence on the dependent variable (intention to stay). However, the nature and impact of each explanatory variable varies across the total variance (the overall fit). Therefore, instrumental leadership has no significant relationship to retention. Moreover, talent satisfaction (Unstandardised β = 0.314), noticeably exerts the greatest positive influence on talent retention, at ratios emerged based on retention determinant; the next highest predictor was found to be supportive leadership (β = 0.260), followed by the leadership development programme (β = 0.181), then the participative leadership (β = 0.179). Attraction and retention by incentives, work conditions, and performance reward exerted the weakest positive relationship (β = 0.110), then attraction and retention strategies by enabling and empowering talents (β = 0.124), followed by performance appraisal (β= 0.144), and then the leadership development effectiveness (β= 0.166). Therefore, the results subscribe to the suggestions defined earlier yielding support of the proposition that satisfactory empirical evidence exists of an association between leadership style, satisfaction, performance appraisal, leadership development effectiveness, and attraction and retention strategies with talent retention at ADG Departments.

In summary, the regression analysis inferred eight significant predictors. These are: leadership development plan, leadership development effectiveness, performance appraisal, attraction and retention strategies by enabling and empowering talents, attraction and retention strategies by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards; satisfaction, supportive leadership and participative leadership. These predictors that have positive relationship, as statistically significance at $p < 0.001$ for PL, SL and JS and $p < 0.005$ for LDP, LDE and PA; while $p < 0.05$ for 2 predictors ATT_RET_EMP_AVG and ATT_RET_IWR_AVG. The model predicted talent satisfaction as the highest predictor based on retention (intention to stay outcome). Meanwhile, the model also predicted one regressor variable to be instrumental leadership ($p = 0.655$) which was, surprisingly, found with no significant influence on retention.

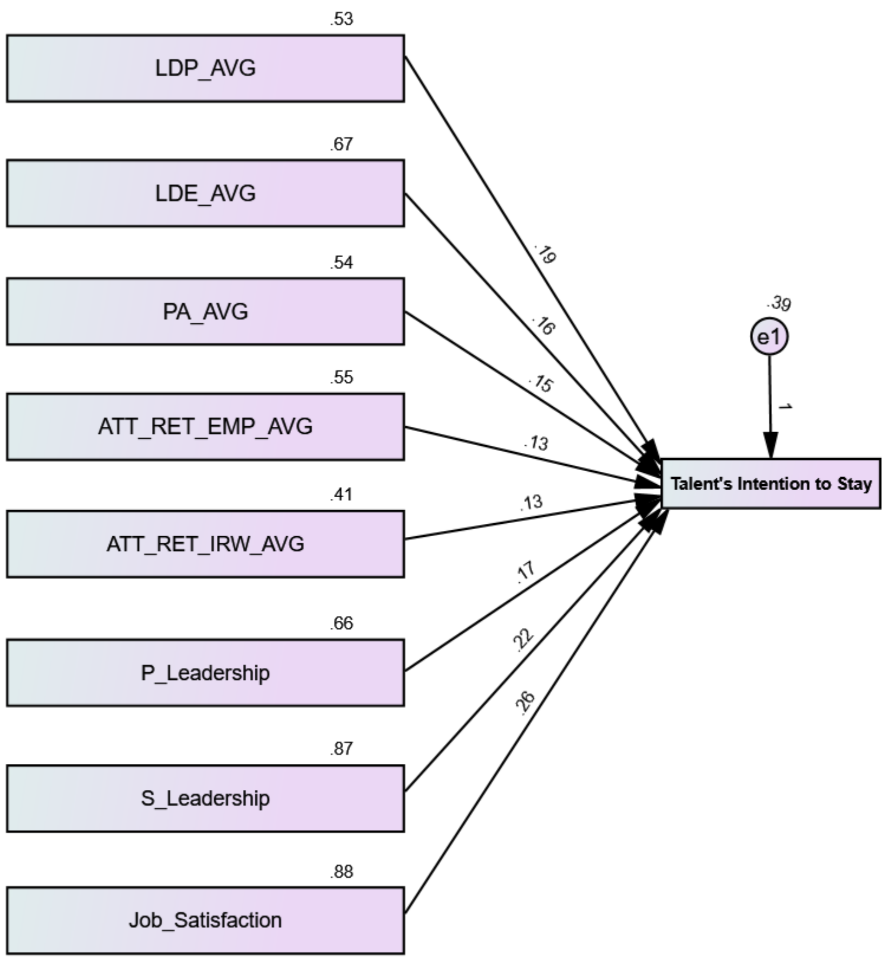


Figure 6.14. Multiple Regression Analysis in AMOS (DV: intention to stay).

IS (intention to stay at ADG) = -1.433 + (.13) ATT_RET_EMP_AVG + (.13) ATT_RET_IWR_AVG + (.26) JS + (.16) LDE_AVG + (.19) LDP_AVG + (.17) PL + (.15) PA_AVG + (.22) SL_AVG + (.390) e1 = .367 (37%) → Model prediction power obtained from the equation

Legend: EMP, Attraction and Retention by Empowering; IL, Instrumental Leadership; IWR, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards; LDE, Leadership Development Effectiveness; LDP, Leadership Development Programme; PA, Performance Appraisal; PL, Participative Leadership; SL, Supportive Leadership; TS, Talent Satisfaction.

6.6.2.2 Result of Stepwise Regression

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.320[a]	.103	.100	.740
2	.422[b]	.178	.172	.710
3	.489[c]	.239	.231	.684
4	.535[d]	.286	.276	.664
5	.562[e]	.315	.303	.651
6	.576[f]	.332	.317	.645
7	.587[g]	.344	.328	.640
8	.596[h]	.356	.337	.635

a. Predictors: (Constant), Job_Satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), Job_Satisfaction, S_Leadership

c. Predictors: (Constant), Job_Satisfaction, S_Leadership, P_Leadership

d. Predictors: (Constant), Job_Satisfaction, S_Leadership, P_Leadership, LDP_AVG

e. Predictors: (Constant), Job_Satisfaction, S_Leadership, P_Leadership, LDP_AVG, PA_AVG

f. Predictors: (Constant), Job_Satisfaction, S_Leadership, P_Leadership, LDP_AVG, PA_AVG, LDE_AVG

g. Predictors: (Constant), Job_Satisfaction, S_Leadership, P_Leadership, LDP_AVG, PA_AVG, LDE_AVG, ATT_RET_EMP_AVG

h. Predictors: (Constant), Job_Satisfaction, S_Leadership, P_Leadership, LDP_AVG, PA_AVG, LDE_AVG, ATT_RET_EMP_AVG, ATT_RET_IWR_AVG

Table 6.24. Regression Model Coefficients-3.

According to the above stepwise regression analysis, only the effective factors are reported. Therefore, the explanatory variable of the instrumental leadership was excluded, as it was found ineffective on the independent variable. This analysis also provides the rank of the predictors according to their importance of order to the dependent variable (retention: intention to stay), which are: 1) Job Satisfaction, 2) Supported

Leadership, 3) Leadership Development Programme, 4) Participative Leadership, 5) Leadership Development Effectiveness, 6) Performance Appraisal, 7) Attraction and Retention by Empowering, and 8) Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards.

After introducing the multiple regression model, the procedure in the section below provides an alternative representation of the empirical data embodied in a contemporary model, to assist in interpreting the observed dataset, via CFA and SEM that are thoroughly discussed in the following part.

6.6.2.3 Primary measurement model

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis was additionally performed to fulfil the sixth research objective. Regression and SEM are claimed to be equivalent (Bollen and Pearl 2013). SEM implies testing the theoretical models, which are the measurement and the structural models. Contrary to exploratory factor analysis (EFA), which has the survey items organised by the researcher based on robust theoretical rationale, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is another version of factor analysis which was employed to test the convergent and discriminant validity of the proposed survey questions/items (measurement theory), by inspecting the regression structure paths among the latent exogenous variables (predictors) and the observed variable – also called the path model (Hair *et al*. 2014). In other words, to examine if the used measures are consistent with what the researcher perceives in respect of the employed constructs and their nature (Afthanorhan *et al*. 2014). According to Field (2009), the function of CFA is to test specific hypotheses that mirror the structure and relationship between each factor (latent variables) and the empirical data. Secondly, SEM comprises examining the structural model, which involves testing the relationships and reasonable hypotheses between the latent variables to examine the scale ability to measure the intended concept (reliability). Moreover, the feature of multivariable analysis resides in its accounting for measurement error accompanying each particular scale. In other words, testing the proposed hypotheses fit to the observed dataset, via employing AMOS version 26. The research nine hypotheses' factors were established according to prior research and strong theory-based grounds, thus validating the structure of the proposed survey constructs, testing the reliability of the scale and assessing the quality of factor validity underlying the theoretical measurement. Hence, the model encompasses nine latent constructs (represented in circles) correlated with each by use of designated double-headed arrows. Moreover, the latent constructs were identified by the items of the study questionnaire and designated by square shapes as portrayed in the hypothesised factor model of Figure 6.15 (ibid).

The factor loading of each item included in the questionnaire is displayed based on its associated construct, namely: leadership development plan, leadership development effectiveness, performance appraisal, attraction and retention strategies by empowering and enabling, attraction and retention strategies by incentives, work conditions, and rewards; participative leadership, supportive leadership, instrumental leadership, and satisfaction, as portrayed in Figure 6.15, and in (table 1 of Appendix 4). The estimates of the items range between 0.3 and 0.9; the criteria for deleting the items from the measurement model according to their loading will be the cut-off point of 0.5 (Hair *et al*. 2010). Factor loading indicates the strength of the relationship between survey items. Therefore, items with factor loadings < 0.5 have been excluded from further analysis (items listed in Table 1 of Appendix 6). Moreover, measurement quality check includes two indicators, the composite reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted (AVE) proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Next, the full measurement model will be implemented accordingly.

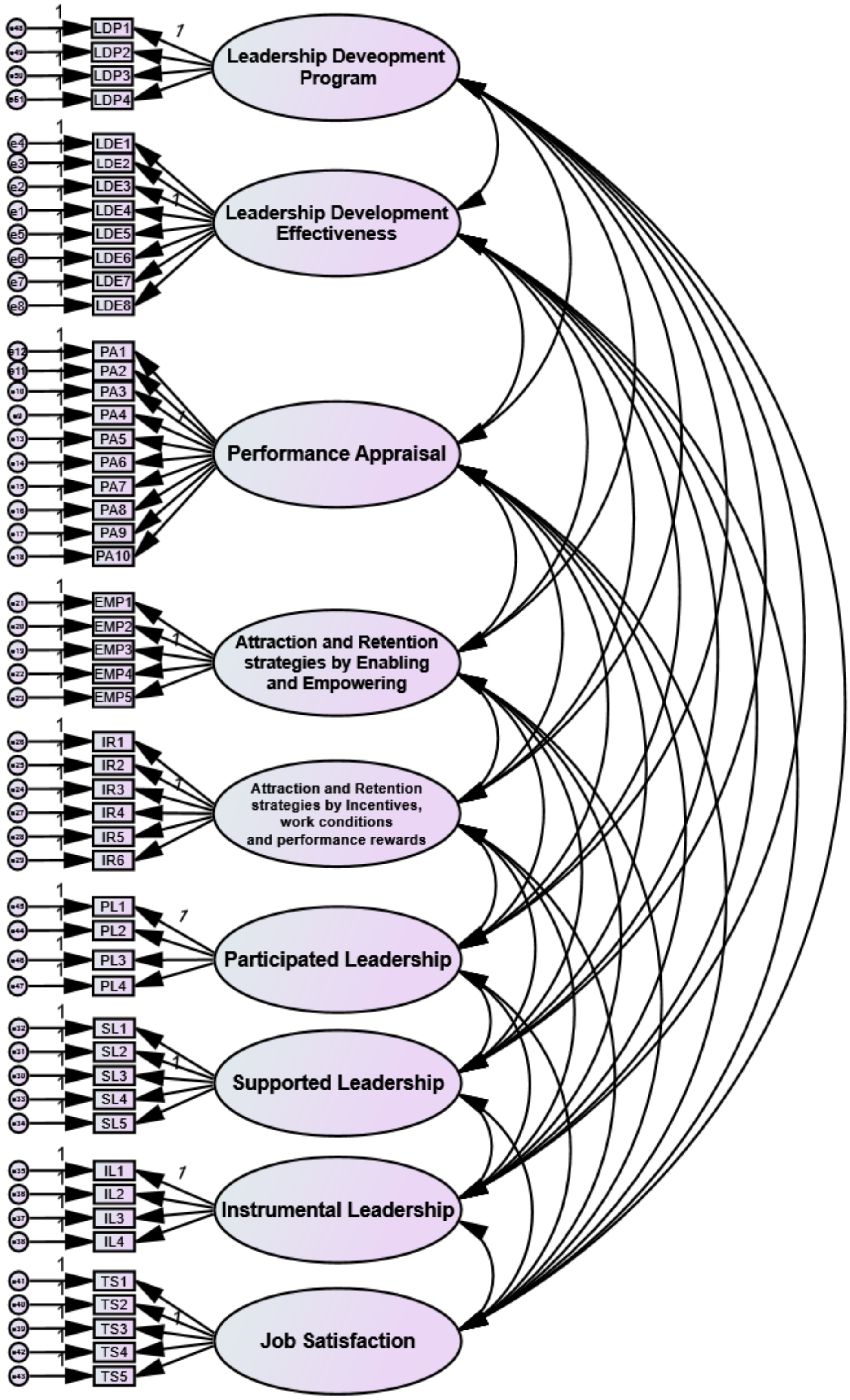


Figure 6.15 The Primary Measurement/theoretical Model (CFA Model).

6.6.2.3.1 Evaluating the measurement model (goodness-of-fit)

Goodness-of-fit model refers to its capability to produce identical estimated and observed matrices. This investigation adopts the two-step structural equation modelling scheme that implies confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) – referred to as the measurement model – as well as the structural model. This is to assure a valid measurement model prior to the structural model stage. In this phase, the entire measurement model is developed by assessing all individual multi-item scales that represent each measure (construct) and incorporating the estimates of the relationships among the predictors and the measured variable(s) into the structural model. Items coupled with low factor loadings are eliminated, while not departing the theoretical underpinning (Hair *et al*. 2014). Model fitness conveys how well the path model is representative of the observed data (*Hair et al*. 2014). In other words, how well the structural model can generate a rated covariance matrix close to the collected data (Hair *et al*. 2010). In the absence of endorsed guidelines to determine the GOF in consensus, it has been challenging to judge the acceptable values for an appropriate GOF model based on the multiple GOF indices introduced earlier. However, Kline (2015) proposed that three essential criteria ought to be followed by researchers for the assessment of the path model's solidity evidence, which are: X^2 Chi-squared / Degree of freedom and its significance level ($\chi 2$:df), (CFI) Comparative Fit Index and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and its confidence interval of 90%.

The Chi-squared (χ^2) criterion is the most commonly employed measure of structural equation model fit (Hair *et al*. 2010; Byrne 2013). Basically, the probability *p*-value accompanied with (χ^2) establishes a good model acceptability when χ^2 value is greater than 0.05. Thus, accepting the null hypothesis proposes that the estimated covariance matrix is identical to the covariance matrix of the indicator variables (data collected), means no variance exists among both matrices (*Hair et al*. 2010). However, considering the sample size, despite the merits of the Chi-squared (χ^2) test in assessing statistical significance, there are complexities associated to the model goodness-of-fit. For instance, it was reported that the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis emerges with large samples despite retaining equivalent covariance matrices between the model and the sample according to Hair *et al*. (2010). Moreover, it is shown that the Chi-squared (χ^2) test is also affected by the multivariate normality assumption, which is violated in the majority of research (Byrne 2013). Furthermore, this test has become unreliable with a large number of measures or constructs, and thus χ^2 cannot be the solely dependent test for model fit. Therefore, in order to bypass this problem and to prevent causing bias, the researchers may employ a relative test of (χ^2) test in lieu of the traditional Chi-squared (χ^2) significance test, based on Joreskog and Sorbom's (1986) claim. In order to achieve this, Joreskog and Sorbom examine comparing the χ^2 value with its associated degrees of freedom value. They suggest that the lower the generated ratio of (χ^2/df), the better the goodness-of-fit of the proposed model. Moreover, non-significance associated with (χ^2/df) is commonly reported with models of relatively small sample size, where (χ^2/df) related *p*-value is recommended to be > 0.05. However, owing to the research sample size, non-significant χ^2 bias is highly likely expected to arise and cause significance discrepancy between the estimated and observed models. Thus, even though it has been extremely tricky to distinguish between the good and bad model, other complementary specifications ought to be employed to assist the analysis in demonstrating model pass (GOF), even if one index was perfectly achieved i.e. R^2 in multiple regression analysis (Hair *et al*. 2014).

In the same vein, other goodness-of-fit measures were introduced to overcome the limitations escorted with Chi-squared (χ^2) test, such as, but not limited to, (RMSEA)

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, which attempts to avoid large sample sized models or models constituted of large number of observed variables. It can manipulate the complexity issues in the meantime (Hair *et al*. 2014). Moreover, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is the most frequently used index. It is classified as an incremental fit measure and its merits reside in its insensitivity to model complexity. This promotes its wide adoption as an upgraded form of the normed fit index (NFI). Its value normally lies in the rage of 0 to 1 where the higher the CFI value the more the model indicates its well-fit, where CFI values > 0.9 suggest better fit (Hair *et al*. 2014).

The developed indices lie in three main classifications and complement each other in assessing model's Goodness-of-fit, as listed below: (Hu and Bentler 1999; Hair *et al*. 2010; Kenny 2011; Byrne 2013).

Fit Indices category	Function of the Fit Index	Measurement Test	Reference
Overall model fit measures (the absolute fit indices)	- The absolute fit indices. - Assessing how well the structural model can generate the observed dataset. - RMR, SRMR and RMSEA are badness-of-fit indices as low values represent better fit and large values indicate worse fit.	- (RMR) Root Mean Square Residual; - (SRMR) Standardised Root Mean Square Residual; - (RMSEA) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation: (widely used measure); encouraged not to be computed for models with small degrees of freedom and small sample. - (GFI) Goodness-of-Fit Index: (recently less used measure);	Schermelleh-Engel *et al.* (2003); Hooper et al. (2008); Hair et al. (2010; 2014); Kenny *et al.* (2015)
Model comparisons indices	The incremental / comparative fit indices - compare two models' fit in which a particular model and the alternative is assumed null/no model (supposing null relationship across the	- (CFI) Comparative Fit Index (the most frequently used test for its insensitivity to complex models); - (NFI) Normed Fit Index (the least used among incremental fit indices);	Schermelleh-Engel *et al.* (2003); Kenny (2011); Byrne (2013).

Fit Indices category	Function of the Fit Index	Measurement Test	Reference
	multi-item constructs in the baseline model. Consequently, measuring variables are uncorrelated).	- (NNFI) Non-Normed Fit Index; - (TLI) Tucker-Lewis Index (widely reported test).	Schermelleh-Engel *et al.* (2003); Kenny (2011); Byrne (2013).
Model parsimony indices	- Complementary to the first two fit categories, these GOF indices assess the overall measurement model validity by attempting to correct model-overfitting estimates, by calculating the parsimony of the model compared to the GOF. - Point out the best model from alternative competing models. - Based similarly to the adjusted R^2 notion, model fit is associated with its complexity so more complex models are predicted to present better fit.	- (PNFI) Parsimony Normed Fit Index (mostly applied across the parsimony indices), - (AGFI) Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (prefers models with only limited paths. AGFI is not widely employed compared to other measures insensitive to model complexity and sample size). - (PGFI) Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index, - (AIC) Akaike Information Criterion, - (CAIC) Consistent AIC, - (ECVI) Expected Cross-Validation Index.	Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003); Hooper *et al.* (2008); Hair *et al.* (2010; 2014); Kenny (2011); Byrne (2013).

Table 6.25. Main Categories for Measurement and Structural Models Fit Indices. Developed by the researcher.

Hence, given the controversy among methodologists and the overwhelmingly and various inconsistent criteria and the lack of reliable cut-off rules for the most appropriate measures to pass CFA, the researcher had the choice of picking the most appropriate indices to add substantial evidence to a particular analysis, which might be inappropriate for other analyses. Moreover, according to Hooper *et al*. (2008), it is not mandatory to report all the above-mentioned measures in order to demonstrate the appropriateness of the proposed structural equation model. Hence, having discussed the series of goodness-of-fit specifications, and although the evaluation does not encompass selecting one best model among a series of alternative competing models, it has been decided not to abandon any of the complementary verifications, using at least one fitness index from each model category, including the parsimony indices, in the process of assessing both the measurement and structural models, based on the recommendation of Holmes-Smith (2006). This is because the researcher believes that integrating the properties of each model's assessment criteria from each classification indices, namely: the absolute, the incremental and the parsimony, would provide adequacy to the model validation, and would thereby be sufficient to evaluate model fit determination. This decision also stemmed from the notion that various indices portray diverse dimensions of GOF for the considered model. Therefore, below are the major indices of path model fit employed for this study:

Goodness-of-Fit (GOF) measure	Threshold Debatable Value(s)	Reference
X^2 Chi-squared / Degree of freedom	• Roughly small χ^2:df values are good fit indicator. • χ^2:df values ≤ 3	Hair *et al.* (2010)
	χ^2:df ratios on the order of 3:1 or less are associated with better-fitting models.	Hair *et al.* (2014, 579)
RMSEA and its associated confidence interval of 90%	≤ 0.80	Hair *et al.* (2010; 2014)
	• 0.5–0.8 (inadvisable with empirical research implies sample size less than 500) • 0.3–0.8 with level of confidence of 95%.	Hair *et al.* (2010)
CFI and its associated standardised root mean square residuals	> 0.8	Kline (2015); Lau (2011)
	• Values lie between 0 and 1. • Higher values suggest better fit. • Values > .90 suggest well-fit model.	Hair *et al.* (2014)
TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index)	> 0.9	Hair *et al.* (2010)
PCLOSE	> 0.05	Hu and Bentler (1999)

Table 6.26. Path model fit indices adopted for this study, developed by the researcher.

However, various exhaustive consideration can be adopted too, as listed below.

Goodness-of-Fit measure	Threshold Debatable Value(s)	Reference
χ^2:df	$\leq 5.0\ \chi^2\text{:df} \geq 2.0$	Wheaton *et al*. (1977); Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007); Hooper *et al*. (2008)
GFI	≥ 0.80	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand (1996)
	0 to 1: higher value represents better fit. Scholars argue 0.90 considered to be good and others claim 0.95 is a must to be achieved	Hair *et al*. (2014)
AGFI	≥ 0.80	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand (1996)
NFI	Ranges between 0 and 1 where 1 suggests perfect fit.	Hair *et al*. (2014)
TLI	> 0.9	Hair *et al*. (2010)
	• Below 0 or above 1. • Values close to 1 indicates good fit. • Models consisting higher TLI value represents a better fit than another with a lower TLI value.	Hair *et al*. (2014)

Goodness-of-Fit measure	Threshold Debatable Value(s)	Reference
RMR / SRMR	RMR < 0.05	Hair *et al.* (2010); Kline (2015)
	• RMR and SRMR: • No statistical cut-off point. • Lower values indicate better fit. • Higher values indicate poor fit. • Debated as Inappropriate test.	Hair *et al.* (2014)
	• standardised residual average value is 0: indicating the probability of reporting +/- residuals. • standardised residual < 4.0 or > 0.4 is problematic.	Hair *et al.* (2014)
RMSEA	< 0.10	Byrne (2001)
	< 0.6	Hu and Bentler (1999)
	Lower value indicates better model fit	Hair *et al.* (2014)
CFI	≥ 0.90	Hair *et al.* (2010)
	• Values lie between 0 and 1. • Higher values suggest better fit. • Values > 0.90 suggest well-fit model.	Hair *et al.* (2014)

Table 6.27. 'Rules of Thumb' for Measurement and Structural Models Fit Indices. Developed by the researcher.

The Maximum Likelihood (ML) method is the most frequently employed method for parameter estimation in Structural Equation Modelling, which was used in this research to evaluate the measurement model, CFA via AMOS 26 (Hair *et al*. 2014). Figure 6.16 below displays the path diagram of the CFA first-run output. The overall goodness-of-fit statistics follow in Table 6.28. In addition, the full model-fit summary for the first-run of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis appears in Appendix 5: Survey appendix 7, on page 610.

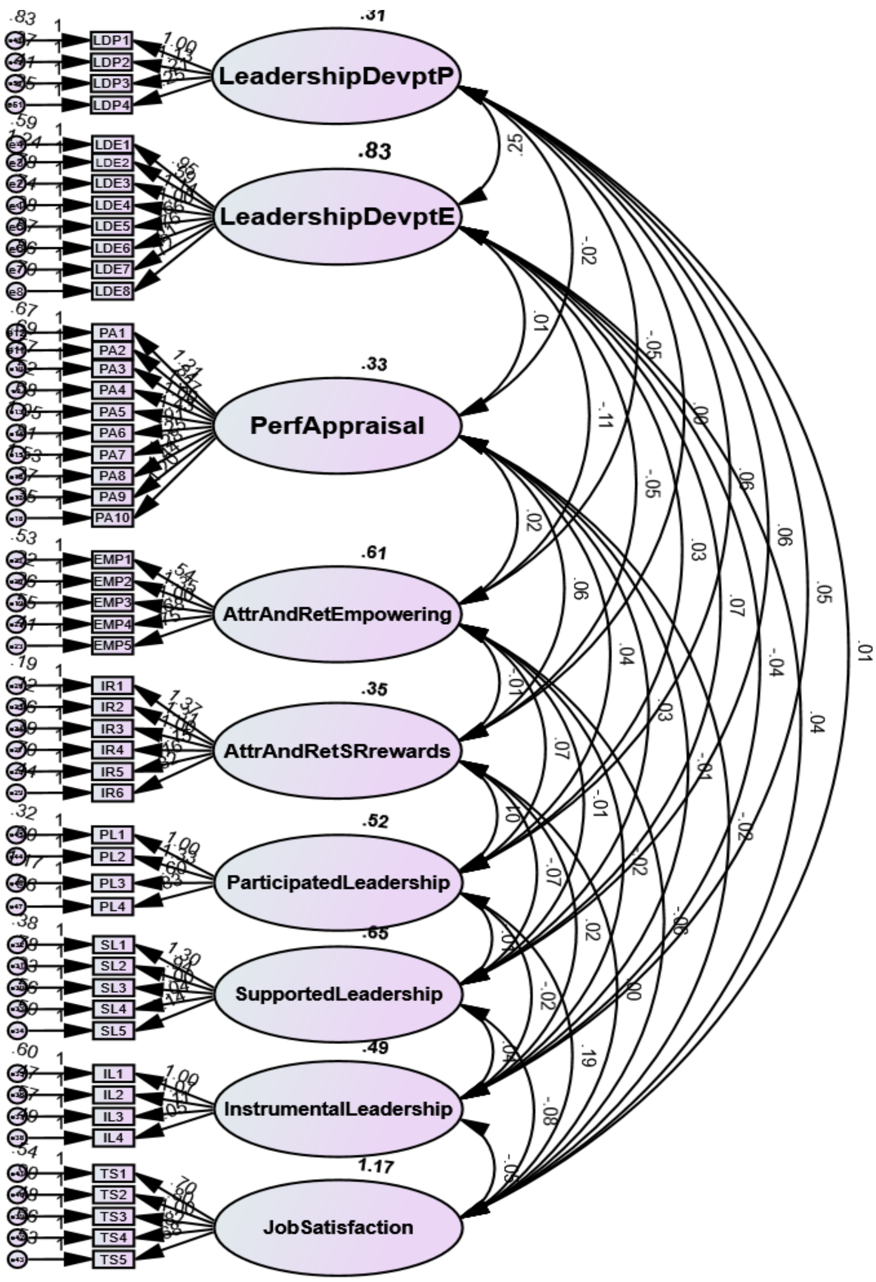


Figure 6.16. The Path Model (CFA Model) – First Run Output.

Based on the results displayed in the Table 6.28, most fit indices indicated acceptable level of model pass, especially given the fact that the achieved satisfactory measures are the most important specifications in determining the goodness of model fit, according to Kline (2015), which are $\chi 2$:df, RMSEA and CFI. The $\chi 2$:df probability value = 0.000 was reported as significant, yielding a bad model fit. However, this result was anticipated, as the Chi-squared (χ^2) test for statistical significance is sensitive to sample size, which means that for a large sample (N > 200), $\chi 2$:df statistic mainly reports a bad model fit and infers accepting the alternative hypothesis and rejection of a null hypothesis (there is significant difference between the estimated model and the null model). Hence, the Chi-squared (χ^2) statistical significance level was not applicable in the model validation process (SEM) for the research under consideration. Moreover, the only three criteria which were not attained were: the GFI, AGFI and TLI. However, the scored estimates were very close to the identified thresholds. Hence, the unsatisfactory values of GFI, AGFI and TLI suggest that there were available fields for further model enhancement in order to accomplish the intended good model.

Fit Indices category	Measurement Test	Conceptual Model (First Run)	Function of the Fit Index	Acceptable/ Unsatisfactory	Reference
Overall model fit measures (the absolute fit indices)	X^2 Chi-square / Degree of freedom	1.880	≤ 3	Acceptable	Hair *et al.* (2010)
	(RMSEA) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	.055	≤ 0.80 < 0.05 Good	Acceptable	Schermelleh-Engel *et al.* (2003); Hooper *et al.* (2008); Hair *et al.* (2010; 2014)
	PCLOSE	1	> 0.05 1 ideal	Acceptable	Hu and Bentler (1999); Hair *et al.* (2010)
	(GFI) Goodness-of-Fit Index.	.757	≥ 0.80	Unsatisfactory	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand (1996)
Model comparisons indices	(CFI) Comparative Fit Index	.838	> 0.80	Acceptable	Kline (2015); Lau (2011)
	TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index)	.827	> 0.9	Unsatisfactory	Hair *et al.* (2010)
Model parsimony indices	(AGFI) Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index.	.729	≥ 0.80	Unsatisfactory	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand (1996)

Table 6.28. Output of Measurement Model Goodness-of-Fit Indices (CFA first-run).

6.6.2.3.2 Enhancing the measurement model

Model adjustments and specification were introduced to lift up the model fit after the first run, based on Joreskog and Sorbom (1986), Hooper *et al.* (2008), Hair *et al.* (2010; 2014), Byrne (2013) and Awang (2015). After modifying the model to maximize the fit to the sample dataset by omitting low loading items, the final measurement model is displayed in Figure 5.17 below. The measurement model comprises nine factors in its structure. The number of variables varies within each construct. That is, leadership development consists of four items; leadership development effectiveness contains eight items; performance appraisal is constituted of ten items. Five distinct items represent each of the following constructs: attraction and retention strategies by enabling and empowering talent, attraction and retention strategies by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards; and satisfaction. Four items, then five items, followed by another four items, indicate the factors: Participative Leadership Style, Supportive Leadership Style and Instrumental Leadership Style, respectively.

6.6.2.3.3 Enhancing the model checks:

- **The standardised regression weights**

The standardised regression weights (SRW) reflect the correlation between the observed and latent variables. It is recommended that the value of these weights be above 0.5; of course, the higher the SRW values (approach 1) the more favourable, and the better the model fit. Any measurement variables lying below 0.5 would be deemed excluded owing to the weak correlation with their corresponding latent variable. The process of eliminating items representing weak loadings repeats until the unidimensionality requisite has been achieved. Items with low factor loading maybe inferred by ambiguous/sensitive/biased or double-meaning statements and thereby, are considered useless to measure their associated construct. In addition, unidimensionality necessitates that all factor loadings be either positive or all in one direction.

- **Squared multiple correlations**

Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC) values portray the percentage of variance in the latent variable that can be explained by each individual observed variable. Hence, values greater than 0.5 are deemed satisfactory, with higher values (approaching 1) being more satisfactory.

- **Standardised residuals (SRCs) covariances**

A matrix represents the difference between the sample covariance and the model-implied covariance, hence observed variables with a high-standardised residuals matrix are deemed a bad fit indicator in the model. Reporting the residuals is essential; without them, model assessment is considered incomplete (Kline 2015). However, models with a good fit ought to generate standardised residuals approaching zero. Therefore, standardised residuals of more than +2.56 or less than -2.56 are usually indicators to determine the causes of the model mis-specification.

- **Modification indices (MI)**

MIs reflect the positive impact of dropping pre-fixed parameters on Chi-squared (χ^2). In pursuit of increasing model fit, it is recommended to check these indices, as they indicate the effect of eliminating pre-fixed parameters on Chi-squared (χ2), through identifying and then adding certain path(s) that would contribute to decreasing the result of the returned Chi-squared (χ^2) statistic test. Therefore, high values of modification indices (mainly above 6.63) determine nominated parameters to be set free. This can be achieved by correlating parameter errors of the same factor only. This is in addition to parameters for which high covariance arises among their associated errors and simultaneously high regression weights, which are candidates for elimination too.

The SEM output results were duly inspected thoroughly to identify room for further enhancements. Accordingly, modifications were made in the quest of improving the measurement model goodness-of-fit:

<table>
<tr>
<td>The Standardised Regression Weights (SRWs)</td>
<td>
SRW analysis demonstrated that 2 items loadings are relatively low (nearly < 0.5) and therefore, were deleted as articulated in table 5.31 below: LDE2, PA6 and PL3. However, the rest identified loadings indicate approximately good correlation between the individual observed variables and their associated latent variables.
<table>
<tr><th>Sr.</th><th>Item Label/Path/Construct Name</th><th>Factor Loading</th><th>Retained</th><th>Deleted</th></tr>
<tr><td>1.</td><td>LDE2 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Effectiveness</td><td>.435</td><td>☐</td><td>☑</td></tr>
<tr><td>2.</td><td>PA6 <--- Performance_Appraisal</td><td>.456</td><td>☐</td><td>☑</td></tr>
<tr><td>3.</td><td>PL3 <--- Participative_Leadership</td><td>.373</td><td>☐</td><td>☑</td></tr>
</table>
Table 6.29. Factor Loading of Constructs in the Primary Measurement Model for the Selected Candidates for Deletion. Developed by the researcher.
</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardised Residuals Covariances (SRCs)</td>
<td>A review of the SRCs matrix was performed, in which overestimated relationship of positive/negative residuals was detected between IWR construct’s items in the model i.e. IR5 with each IR6 (SR = 3.909), IR5 (SR = -2.957) and IR4 (IR4 = 5.546), all of which beyond the acceptable threshold of ± 2.56. Hence, it has been suggested to delete the item IR5 due to its overestimated relationship with IR4, itself and IR6 which supported the option to drop it from the construct IWR in order to eliminate model misfit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modification Indices (MIs)</td>
<td>An inspection of MIs displayed in Table 6.30 below, several large values were presented. Hence, it would be advantageous to relax such covariance in the quest of improving the measurement model GOF:</td>
</tr>
</table>

Modification Indices (MIs)

Covariances							
Path			MI	Path			MI
e39	↔	e43	21.200	e15	↔	e17	19.28
e39	↔	e41	23.768	e10	↔	e12	27.01
e21	↔	e22	35.611	e10	↔	e9	30.59
e16	↔	e17	22.942	e1	↔	e7	20.45
e16	↔	e15	62.388	e40	↔	e43	26.00
e16	↔	e9	21.693	e41	↔	e42	20.81
e10	↔	e16	*34.27	e10	↔	e15	*15.7

*= Skipped/retained matrices as a result of parameter former deletion

Table 6.30. Modification Indices for The Path Model (CFA Model) – First Run Output.

- Deleting *itemTS3*, implied in talent satisfaction construct, associated with error e39 because of the suggestion to co-vary e39s with each of the errors e41 and e43, in order to enhance the model, in which a change in the Chi-squared (χ^2) by at least 23.768% (for e41) and 21.200% (e43) ratios respectively that are subject to reduction, was introduced.
- Freeing the model from *item PA8* within the performance appraisal construct, associated with error *e16* because of the recommendation introduced to co-vary e16's with three errors e9, e17 and e15 (considered as high covariance), suggesting a change in the Chi-square (χ^2) by at least); 22.942% (for e17), 62.388% (e15) and 21.693 (for e9) respectively could be decreased, thereby improving the model fit.

Modification Indices (MIs)	- The matrix representing e10 with e16 covariance suggested achieving 34.277% decrement could be attained to χ^2 when relaxing those errors, for the benefit of the model fit; however, this matrix was skipped as a result of deleting PA8, the error associated with e16. - Excluding *item PA3* within performance appraisal construct, associated with error *e10*, introducing relaxing e10's covariance with each of the errors e12 and e9, (considered as high covariance), suggesting a change in the Chi-squared (χ^2) by at least 27.018% (for e12) and 30.590% (e9) respectively could be lowered, contributing to leveraging the quality of the model by a considerable rate accompanied with each individual error. - The matrix representing e10 with e15 covariance suggested achieving 34.277% decrement could be attained to χ^2 when freeing those errors, for the benefit of the model fit; however, this matrix was skipped, as a result of deleting PA3, the error associated with e10. - Covariance of eight errors that showed large values (e21 with e22, chance to decrease χ^2 by 35.611%); (e15 with e17, chance to decrease χ^2 by 19.284%); (e1 with e7, chance to decrease X2 by 20.458%); and (e40 with e43, chance to decrease χ^2 by 26.003%). - Ultimately, after inspecting the regression weights statistics, which represent the relationships across the model predictors, no high RWs were identified to demonstrate problematic parameters, and so no further need to free any of the relationships of theses parameters, via their powerful role in lowering the discrepancy rate, for the purpose of increasing model fit.

Table 6.31. Modifications undertaken to enhance the measurement model goodness-of-fit. Developed by the researcher

Hence, the following modifications were undertaken to improve the measurement model goodness-of-fit:

- Deletion of problematic items based on SRWs analysis e.g. LDE2, PA6 and PL3.
- Further checks, which necessitated deletion of IR5 based on other analysis such as SRCs analysis.
- Deletion of TS3, PA3 and PA8 due to the detected high covariance with high regression weights based on MI analysis.
- Covariance of eight error terms as follows: (e21 with e22), (e15 with e17), (e1 with e7) and (e40 with e43) based on MI analysis.

After summarising the model modifications stated above, a second CFA run was performed. Results of the second run of CFA are presented in the following table 5.33, which demonstrates the overall goodness-of-fit statistics that resulted from the second-run of CFA. The full model-fit summary for the second run of CFA can be found in Appendix 7.

Consequently, the related fit statistics show a reasonably good fit of the dataset for a nine-factor hypothesis model. Hence, in line with Kline's (2010) recommendation to report the Chi-squared test, the RMSEA and the CFI; the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) score; the comparative fit index (CFI). X2:df revealed a low estimate at 1.415 and hereby representing the appropriate model index, RMSEA is 0.04 below 0.05 demonstrating good fit. The CFI value of .932 also displayed acceptable model fit. In addition, GFI indicates acceptable rate at .843. Table 6.32 indicates further the goodness-of-fit indices for this study.

It can be seen from Table 6.32 that introducing the above modifications resulted in enhancing the overall goodness-of-fit of the model and raised it to meet the adopted criteria and reach the satisfactory level. Therefore, after confirming the revised model to fit the empirical data appropriately, it was decided to stop any further modification.

Fit Indices category	**Measurement Test**	**Conceptual Model (First Run)**	**Obtained Model (Second Run)**	**Function of the Fit Index**	**Comment**	**Reference**
Overall model fit measures (the absolute fit indices)	χ^2 Chi-squared / Degree of freedom	1.880	1.415	≤ 3	Acceptable	Hair *et al.* (2010)
	(RMSEA) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	.055	.038	≤ 0.80 < 0.05 Good	Acceptable	Schermelleh-Engel et al. (2003); Hooper *et al.* (2008); Hair *et al.* (2010; 2014)
	PCLOSE	1	1	> 0.05 1 ideal	Acceptable	Hu and Bentler (1999); Hair *et al.* (2010)
	(GFI) Goodness-of-Fit Index.	.757	.843	≥ 0.80	Acceptable	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand (1996)
Model comparisons indices	(CFI) Comparative Fit Index	.838	.932	> 0.80	Acceptable	Kline (2015); Lau (2011)
	TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index)	.827	.925	> 0.9	Acceptable	Hair *et al.* (2010)
Model parsimony indices	(AGFI) Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index	.729	.820	≥ 0.80	Acceptable	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand (1996)

Table 6.32. Measurement Model Goodness-of-Fit Indices (CFA second-run)

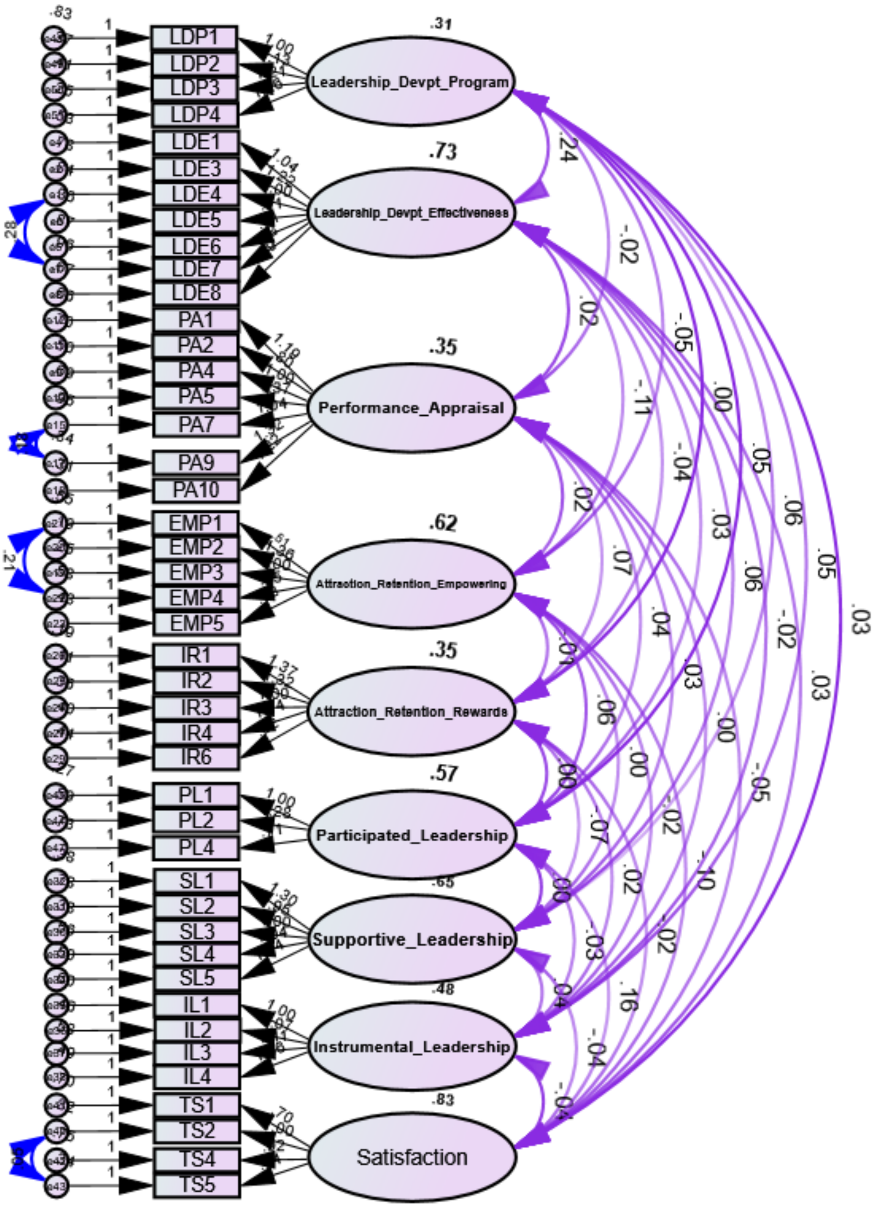


Figure 6.17. The Path Model (CFA Model) – Second-Run Output.

6.6.3 Validity and reliability

6.6.3.1 Reliability assessment of the measurement model

After demonstrating the GOF for the measurement model, the next stage was to inspect the composite reliabilities of the model constructs. Composite Reliability (CR) resulting from using SEM, which is considered to provide better reliability estimation than by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Peterson and Kim 2013). Therefore, establishing CR in this investigation added extra reliability verification to determine how accurate the generated results are obtained via Cronbach's alpha coefficient test, undertaken earlier. The formula $CR = (\Sigma\kappa)^2 / [(\Sigma\kappa)^2 + (\Sigma 1 - \kappa^2)]$ is widely applicable to calculate the CR for all combining constructs within the model where κ = factor loading of every item. (Fornell and Larcker 1981; Ahmad *et al*. 2016). However, this study employed a reliable Microsoft Excel Statistical tools package to generate the CR associated with each construct (Gaskin 2016).

6.6.3.2 Validity assessment of the measurement model

To determine the construct validity of the modified measurement model, the procedure outlined below was used. Construct validity can be examined via convergent and discriminant validity tests, which indicated that all items of the measurement model are statistically significant (Hair *et al*. 2010). Hence, convergent validity is estimated via applying the related Composite Reliability (CR) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Therefore, in order to report convergent validity, the recommended cut-off-point values for each criterion should be as follows: $CR > 0.7$ and $AVE > 0.5$ (ibid). The formula ($AVE = \Sigma\ \kappa^2 / n$) can be applied to compute the AVE for the individual construct accordingly, where κ = factor loading of every item, and n = number of items in a model (Fornell and Larcker 1981; Ahmad *et al*. 2016). However, this study employed a reliable Microsoft Excel Statistical tools package to calculate AVE, then to assess the discriminant validity via comparing the square root for all AVE values with the inter-correlation estimations among constructs (Gaskin 2016).

Based on the table 5.33 below, all constructs have AVE values greater than 0.5. Therefore, it has been confirmed that the modified measurement model passes the validity and reliability assessment. Notwithstanding, to attain further confirmation on the achieved construct validity, a discriminant validity test was conducted, in parallel with Hair *et al*.'s

(2010) recommendation. Discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is free from redundancy and actually distinct from other constructs, as suggested by Hair *et al*. (2016). Moreover, it can be measured by using Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) and Maximum Reliability [Max(H)]. The measures of Discriminant Validity are as follows: [Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) < AVE], Square root of AVE > one of the inter-construct correlations for another factor. Hence, the results of the generated average variance extracted ought to be greater than the squared correlation estimates (Fornell and Larcker 1981; Hair et al. 2016). Employing the earlier approach, discriminant validity has been established in all latent constructs. Moreover, the results showed that the relevant values of all the average variance extracted for each construct are greater than their associated squared correlation estimates; no high correlations were found. Nevertheless, for the inter-correlation of 0.072 between SL and IL, the respective square roots of AVE were 0.863 and 0.787 which, as shown, are both higher than the inter-correlations of the observed constructs and so on for all other correlations, thereby fulfil the specification and confirm discriminant validity for the entire constructs.

	Convergent and Discriminant Validity and Reliability				Factor Correlation Matrix with Square Root of the AVE Statistics								
	CR	**AVE**	**MSV**	**MaxR(H)**	**PL**	**LDE**	**PA**	**EMP**	**IWR**	**SL**	**IL**	**TS**	**LDP**
PL	0.763	0.526	0.043	0.805	**0.725**								
LDE	0.834	0.512	0.255	0.848	0.040	**0.678**							
PA	0.846	0.504	0.035	0.868	0.092	0.042	**0.811**						
EMP	0.830	0.509	0.027	0.909	0.096	-0.165	0.047	**0.803**					
IWR	0.880	0.601	0.035	0.921	0.009	-0.083	0.186	-0.030	**0.845**				
SL	0.882	0.602	0.020	0.895	-0.005	0.092	0.070	-0.003	-0.140	**0.863**			
IL	0.804	0.507	0.017	0.806	-0.059	-0.026	-0.006	-0.039	0.057	0.072	**0.787**		
TS	0.834	0.505	0.043	0.855	0.208	0.050	-0.055	-0.121	-0.006	-0.054	-0.063	**0.790**	
LDP	0.793	0.503	0.255	0.818	0.130	0.505	-0.056	-0.120	0.003	0.132	0.132	0.020	**0.538**

Table 6.33: The Modified Measurement Model Reliability and Validity Measures Derived from CFA

EMP, Attraction and Retention by Empowering; IL, Instrumental Leadership; IWR, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards; LDE, Leadership Development Effectiveness; LDP, Leadership Development Programme; PA, Performance Appraisal; PL, Participative Leadership; SL, Supportive Leadership; TS, Talent Satisfaction.

To conclude, the above relevant results of model construct validity using convergent and discriminant validity assessment of the measurement model delivered appropriate constructs in terms of the statistical and theoretical validity, in respect to the convergent validity. In addition, the observed variables were well-correlated with the variables of the same latent factor, rather than correlating with other external factors. That is, the latent factors are duly explained by their included observed variables.

6.6.3.3 Common method bias (CMB)

A Common Method Bias (CMB) emerges due to external issues related to the employed measures which may influence the responses and perhaps result in biasing the dataset. That is, the relationships across the factors would be subject to inflation or deflation, accompanied with measurement error. CMB can be introduced when a single data collection method is adopted, such as a survey questionnaire tool (a common instrument in social science research) or when a single factor can explain the majority of the variance (Podsakoff *et al*. 2003).

6.6.3.4 Harman's single factor method

Harman's Single Factor technique employs exploratory factor analysis, in which all observed items/measured variables are loaded into a single factor, thus constraining the extracted factors to one, without rotation. Evidence for common method bias arises when the single latent factor to emerge from this analysis explains more than 50% of the variance. The variance explained in Table 6.34 demonstrated that the single factor to emerge from this analysis explains only 9.027% of the variance, while the remainder ratio of 90.79% is explained by another factor. The variance represented by the emerged factor is below 50%, suggesting there were no serious issues pertaining to CMB in the study dataset.

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.408	10.401	10.401	4.694	➔ **9.027**	9.027
2	5.151	9.905	20.306			
3	3.902	7.503	27.809			
4	3.860	7.423	35.232			
5	3.241	6.234	41.466			
6	3.086	5.935	47.401			
7	2.528	4.861	52.263			
8	2.045	3.933	56.195			
9	1.685	3.240	59.435			
10	1.497	2.880	62.315			
11	1.154	2.220	64.535			
12	1.042	2.003	66.538			
13	.955	1.837	68.375			
14	.906	1.743	70.118			
15	.837	1.610	71.727			
16	.787	1.513	73.240			
17	.759	1.460	74.700			
18	.726	1.395	76.096			
19	.689	1.326	77.421			
20	.663	1.275	78.696			
21	.627	1.206	79.902			
22	.600	1.153	81.056			
23	.578	1.111	82.167			
24	.572	1.100	83.267			
25	.541	1.041	84.308			
26	.520	1.000	85.308			
27	.482	.927	86.235			

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
28	.476	.916	87.151			
29	.456	.877	88.028			
30	.412	.791	88.819			
31	.394	.758	89.577			
32	.383	.736	90.314			
33	.364	.700	91.013			
34	.361	.694	91.707			
35	.349	.672	92.379			
36	.319	.613	92.992			
37	.314	.604	93.595			
38	.310	.596	94.191			
39	.294	.565	94.756			
40	.288	.553	95.309			
41	.276	.532	95.840			
42	.271	.522	96.362			
43	.259	.497	96.860			
44	.247	.475	97.335			
45	.227	.437	97.772			
46	.217	.418	98.189			
47	.202	.388	98.577			
48	.186	.357	98.934			
49	.165	.316	99.251			
50	.148	.285	99.536			
51	.130	.250	99.786			
52	.111	.214	100.000			

Table 6.34. CBM Analysis

- **Latent factor method**

The Latent Factor technique was additionally applied to obtain a more accurate result of CMB and support Harman's Single Factor analysis, employing CFA. In this method a single common latent factor (CLF) was added and linked to all measured variables, then all regression paths were constrained to be equal. Hence, in the measurement model below, Figure 6.18, unstandardised regression is generated and the maximum common variance between the new CLF and all observed items, constituting the study factors, represents less than 1% only 0.0025 (square of 0.05) which lies far below the recommended threshold of 0.50. Consequently, the above findings confirm no serious presence of common method bias in this study.

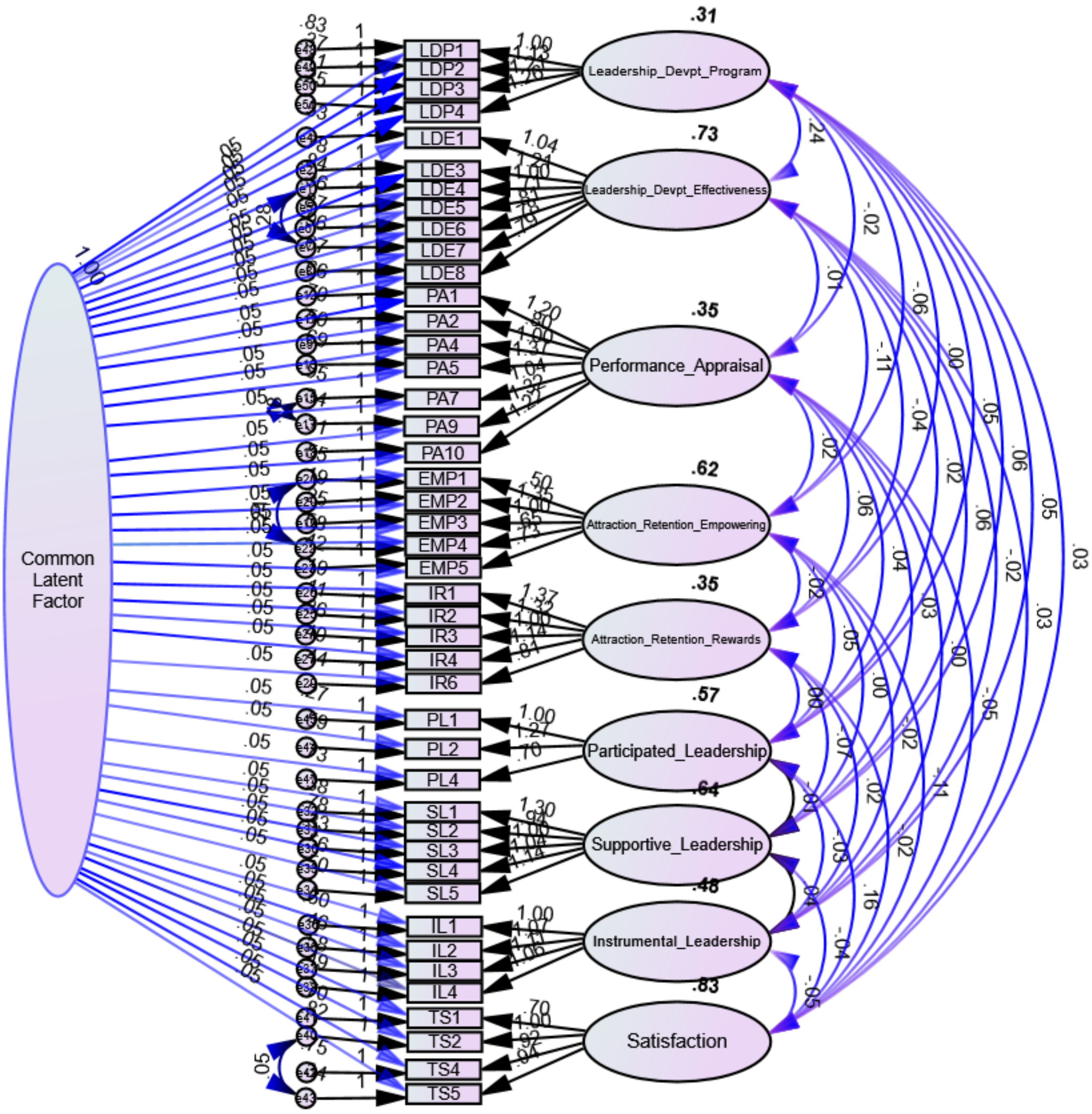


Figure 6.18 CFA for CBM – CLF Method.

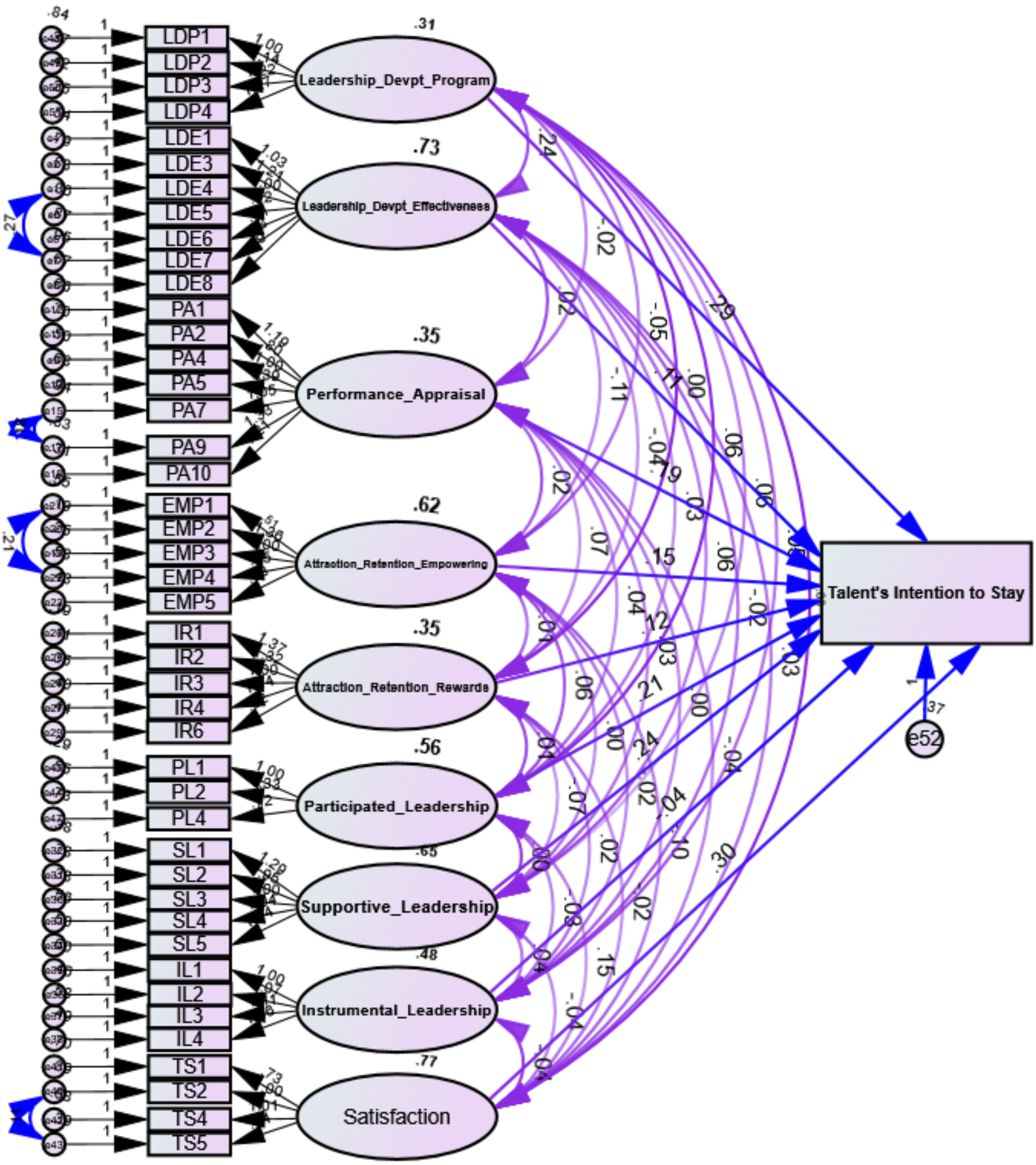
Hence, having rigidly introduced the underlying latent variables for SEM testing phase, the next phase was to develop the study's SEM (structural equation model) to investigate the established causal correlations among constructs and to test the research hypotheses (Hair *et al*. 2010).

6.6.4 The structural model: structural equation modelling (SEM)

After establishing the measurement model goodness-of-fit and confirming the validity of all its related constructs, in the next phase the model will be tested to predict talent intention to stay in ADG (IS) (see Figure 6.19), provided the research has formerly demonstrated an acceptable model fit, including its refined nine constructs/latent variables.

Fit Indices category	**Measurement Test**	**SEM 1st Run Obtained Model**	**Function of the Fit Index**	**Comment**
Overall model fit measures (the absolute fit indices)	χ^2 Chi-square / Degree of freedom	1.460	≤ 3	Acceptable
	(RMSEA) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	.040	≤ 0.80 < 0.05 Good	Acceptable
	PCLOSE	1	> 0.05 1 ideal	Acceptable
	(GFI) Goodness-of-Fit Index.	.839	≥ 0.80	Acceptable
Model comparisons indices	(CFI) Comparative Fit Index	.924	> 0.80	Acceptable
	TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index)	.916	> 0.9	Acceptable
Model parsimony indices	(AGFI) Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index.	.814	≥ 0.80	Acceptable

Table 6.35. Structural Model Goodness-of-Fit Indices (SEM first-run)



Model Fit: X^2 /DF = 1.460; RMSEA=.040; PCLOSE= 1; GFI = .839; CFI = .924; TLI = .916; AGFI = .814

Figure 6.19. GF Model to Forecast IS (Intention to Stay)

A dependent variable is a binary variable of one item which can measure the construct of talent intention to stay (Hair *et al*. 2014). After evaluating all the items which constitute the Performance Appraisal construct, it was decided to keep PM as a parcelled construct and not a composite of smaller sub-constructs to reduce complexity, because minimising model complexity would result in sub-constructs of one or two items only, which is considered a poor practice; therefore, it was parcelled to reveal the quality of all individual items (Hair *et al*. 2014).

6.6.5 Further assessment of the structural equation model (prediction power)

In order to assess the explanatory power of the research model, Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC) estimates for the factors were analysed and the SMC for IS (the dependent variable) rated at .395. Based on the SMC analysis, it is estimated that the predictors of IS explain 39.5 percent of its variance. In other words, the error variance of IS approximately 60.5 percent of the variance of IS itself.

6.6.6 Testing research hypotheses

Having successfully validated the structural model's goodness-of-fit to the dataset, the following stage was to test the research assumptions using path measurement coefficients (regression weight estimates and critical ratios) emerged from SEM analysis, which were conducted via AMOS 26. Table 5.36 below summarises these results, where it is indicated that only six of the total nine hypothesised causal paths within the structural model were found significant at the level 0.05.

Hypothesis				Estimate	S.E.	*C.R.	P	Comments	
Code	DV	Path	IV						
H1	IS	←	LDP	.292	.102	2.874	.004	Significant (P<0.05)	Accepted
H2	IS	←	LDE	.112	.060	1.858	.063	Not Significant (P>0.05)	Rejected
H3	IS	←	PA	.187	.074	2.526	.012	Significant (P<0.05)	Accepted
H4	IS	←	EMP	.153	.053	2.883	.004	Significant (P<0.05)	Accepted
H5	IS	←	IWR	.122	.070	1.739	.082	Not Significant (P>0.05)	Rejected
H6	IS	←	TS	.302	.058	5.206	***	Significant (P<0.001)	Accepted
H7	IS	←	PL	.207	.062	3.316	***	Significant (P<0.001)	Accepted
H8	IS	←	SL	.244	.052	4.655	***	Significant (P<0.001)	Accepted
H9	IS	←	IL	-.039	.062	-.619	.536	Not Significant (P>0.05)	Rejected

EMP, Attraction and Retention by Empowering; IL, Instrumental Leadership; IWR, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards; LDE, Leadership Development Effectiveness; LDP, Leadership Development Programme; PA, Performance Appraisal; PL, Participative Leadership; SL, Supportive Leadership; TS, Talent Satisfaction.

*** $p < 0.001$, *Cut-off-point (C.R. >±1.96) (Hair et al., 2010)

***Table* 6.36. Path Coefficient Weights for the Structural Model.**

According to the research objectives, the quantitative data analysis aimed to predict the causal relationships between the explanatory variables and DV (intent to stay). The independent variables are: PL = Participative Leadership, LDE = Leadership

Development Effectiveness, PA = Performance Appraisal, EMP = Attraction and Retention by Empowering, IWR = Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards, LDP = Leadership Development Programme, SL = Supportive Leadership, TS = Talent Satisfaction, IL = Instrumental Leadership. In this study, independent variables were categorised as TM Strategy, Cultural Influence, and other exogenous factors such as Talent Satisfaction, that were all projected to positively influence the Dependent Variable (DV) (see section 6.25). In the initial conceptual framework (Figure 5.10), LDP, LDE, PA, EMP, IWR were classified as factors related to TM Strategy (TMS). Similarly, PL, SL and IL were categorised under environmental/cultural factor. Finally, TS belonged to the other external factor.

The results in Table 6.36 uncovered that six paths reflect the direct impact of LDP, PA, EMP, IS, PL and SL on IS. While three of these paths were statistically significant at $p < 0.001$, the remaining three hypotheses were significant at $p < 0.05$, denoting a direct influence on talent intention to stay at ADG. Additionally, three hypotheses/paths were statistically insignificant at $p > 0.05$, reflecting that there is no direct influence of LDE, IWR and IL on talent intention to stay at ADG.

The results of hypotheses testing are as detailed in the section below.

- **Hypothesis H 1**

This hypothesis tested the impact of LDP on IS of TMS. The causal path between the two constructs revealed a significant positive influence at a level of $p < 0.05$ ($p = 0.004$). Therefore, the null hypothesis fails to be accepted and the alternate hypothesis is accepted (LDP positively influences IS). That is, any increase in LDP would positively influence talent intention to stay in an ADG-affiliated department.

- **Hypothesis H 2**

This hypothesis tested the influence of LDE on IS. The causal path between the two variables disclosed insignificant influence at a level of $p > 0.05$ ($p = 0.063$). Accordingly, the null hypothesis is accepted and the alternate hypothesis is therefore rejected, indicating that LDE does not positively influence IS, talent intention to stay in an ADG-affiliated department.

- **Hypothesis H 3**

As presented in Table 6.36, the path coefficient and critical ratio estimates for the causal path between PA and IS were 0.187 and 2.526, respectively. The p value was 0.012 (p <0.05), showing lack of support for the null hypothesis and support for the alternate hypothesis H3a, which infers that PA has a positive direct effect and strongly influences the behavioural intention of talent towards staying at an ADG-affiliated department.

- **Hypothesis H 4**

This hypothesis tested the influence of EMP on IS. As shown in Table 5.39, the causal path between the two constructs revealed significant influence at a level of p <0.05, indicating lack of support for the null hypothesis. Results of regression weight and critical ratio estimates for this path were .153 and 2.883, respectively. These results revealed support for the alternate hypothesis H 4a, which suggests that EMP positively influences IS.

- **Hypothesis H 5**

As presented in Table 6.36, the path coefficient for this causal path was 0.122 and its critical ratio value 1.739. Moreover, the p-value was 0.082. As it is clear, these findings suggest a non-significant effect of IWR factor on talent's retention. Therefore, since the results revealed support for the null hypothesis, it is accepted and the alternate hypothesis

H 5a is rejected, which indicates that IWR does not positively influence IS, talent retention in Abu Dhabi public sector organisations.

- **Hypothesis H 6**

This hypothesis testing the causal relationship between TS and IS revealed a significant positive impact (path coefficient= 0.302, $p < 0.001$, and critical ratio= 5.206). This result inferred that the null hypothesis fails to be accepted and the alternate hypothesis H 6a is accepted, which in turn suggests that TS has a strong positive impact on talent behaviour in serving longer at an ADG-affiliated department.

- **Hypothesis H 7**

The causal path between PL and IS indicated a significant positive influence of PL on IS at a level of p <0.001. This result showed no support for the null hypothesis and therefore the alternate hypothesis H 7a is accepted, which suggests that PL has a strong positive impact on IS at an ADG-affiliated department.

- **Hypothesis H 8**

Results of regression weight and critical ratio estimates for the causal path of SL to IS were 0.244 and 4.655, respectively with p <0.001. These results indicated lack of support for the null hypothesis and therefore support the alternate hypothesis H 8a, which indicates that SL has a significant positive effect on the intention to stay at an ADG-affiliated department.

- **Hypothesis H 9**

The path statistics in Table 6.36 (path coefficient= –0.039, with its low critical ratio= –0.619, and p-value= 0.536 for the causal path of IL of IS) showed support for the null hypothesis (H 9b) which is therefore accepted, and the alternate hypothesis (H 9a) is rejected. In other words, SEM results demonstrated insignificant influence of Instrumental Leadership (IL) on talent retention at ADG-affiliated departments.

6.6.7 The final research model

Subsequently, in the quest to secure a parsimonious model for better fit of the empirical dataset, all insignificant regression paths were excluded from the final model, including the LDE, IWR, and IL constructs, owing to their ineffectual impact on talent intention to stay at ADGD, as depicted earlier. Hence, the final structural model is displayed in Figure 6.20 below.

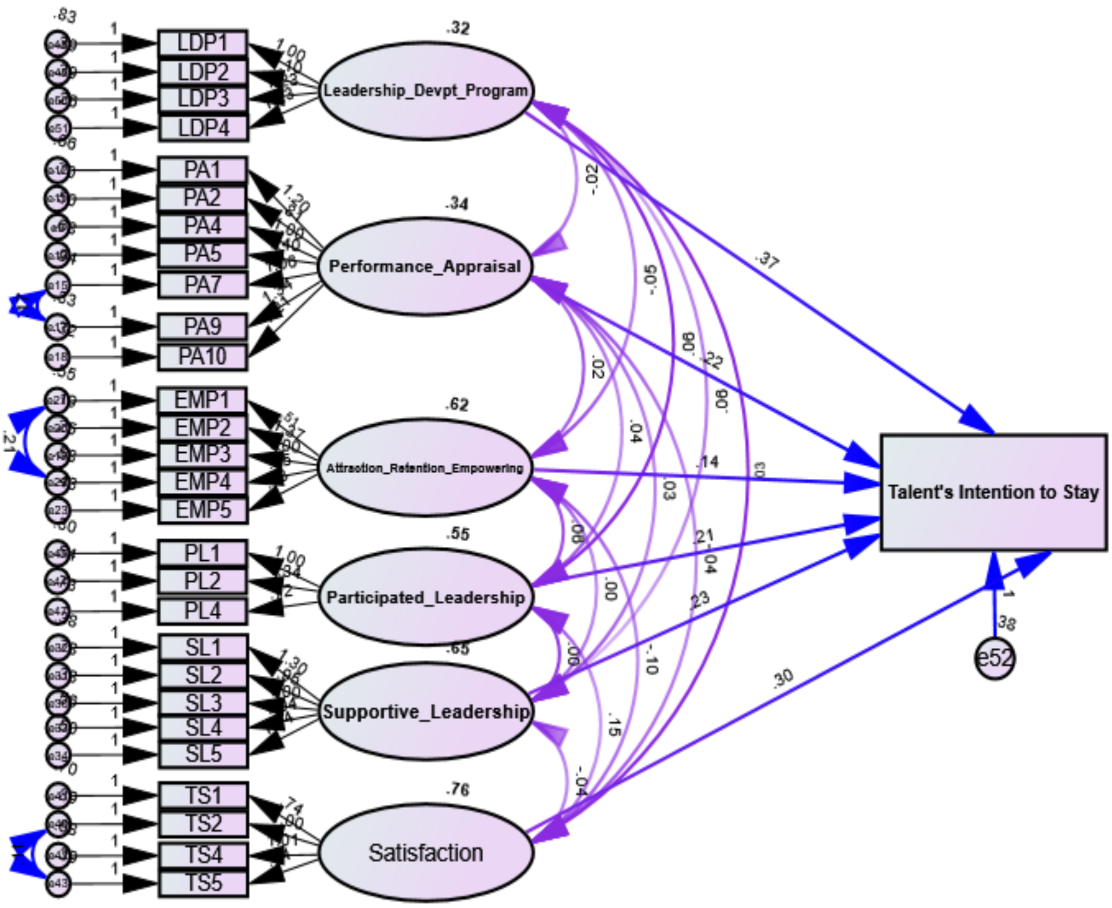


Figure 6.20. Validated Research Model (SEM).

In addition, Table 6.37 below indicates that the overall goodness-of-fit for the revised structural model was slightly improved due to relaxing the detected non-significant regression paths.

Fit Indices category	Measurement Test	SEM 2nd Run Obtained Model	Function of the Fit Index	Comment
Overall model fit measures (the absolute fit indices)	χ^2 Chi-square / Degree of freedom	1.622	≤ 3	Acceptable
	(RMSEA) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	.047	≤ 0.80 < 0.05 Good	Acceptable
	PCLOSE	.784	> 0.05 1 ideal	Acceptable
	(GFI) Goodness-of-Fit Index.	.881	≥ 0.80	Acceptable
Model comparisons indices	(CFI) Comparative Fit Index	.933	> 0.80	Acceptable
	TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index)	.924	> 0.9	Acceptable
Model parsimony indices	(AGFI) Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index.	.854	≥ 0.80	Acceptable

Table 6.37. Structural Model Goodness-of-Fit Indices (SEM second-run).

Generally, after freeing the insignificant paths from the original SEM model, a slightly more parsimonious/revised model was generated, informing an enhanced fit against the collected empirical dataset. Figures 6.21 and 6.22 portray the final research model respectively.

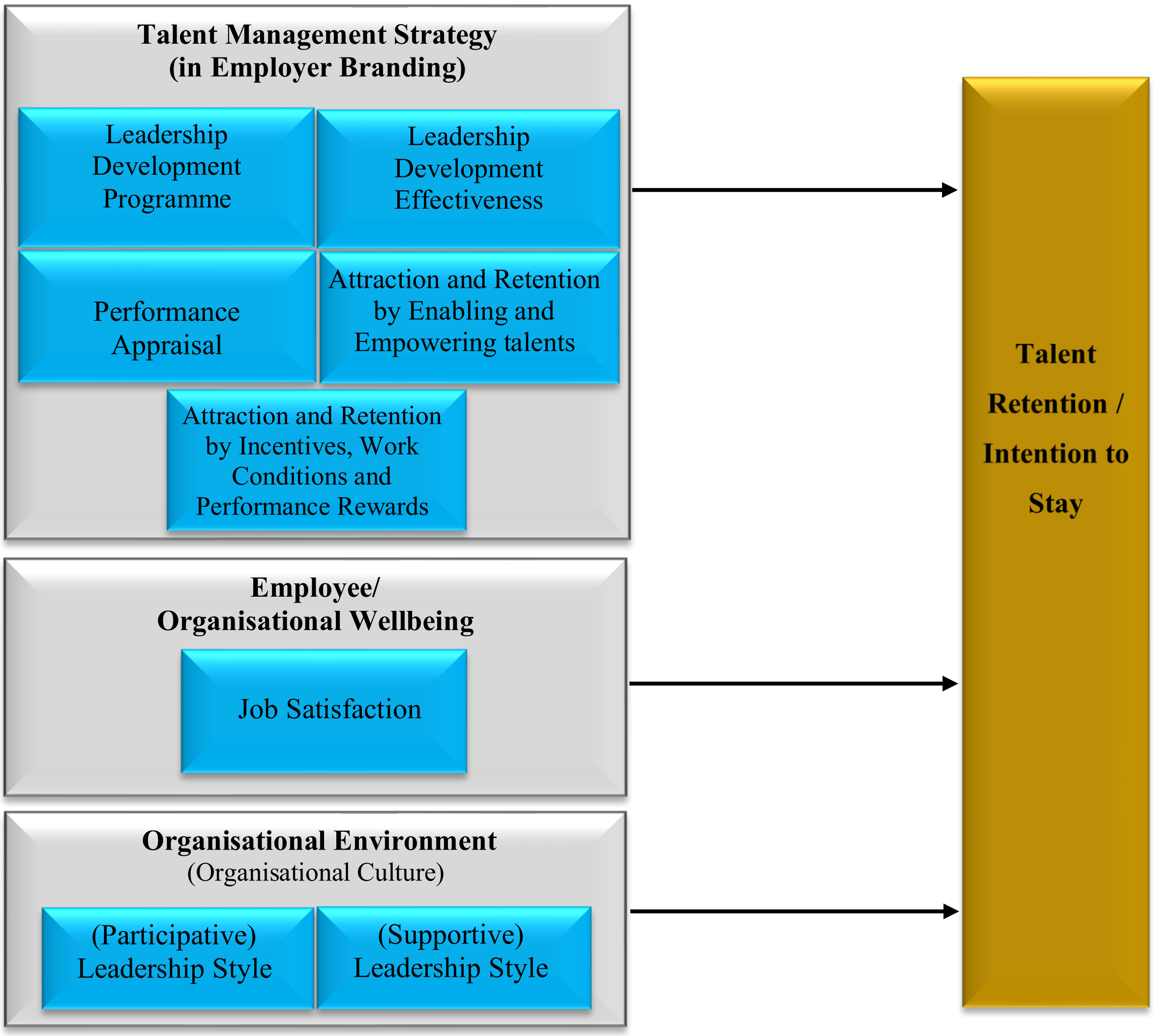


Figure 6.21. The Final Research Model (A). Developed by the Researcher.

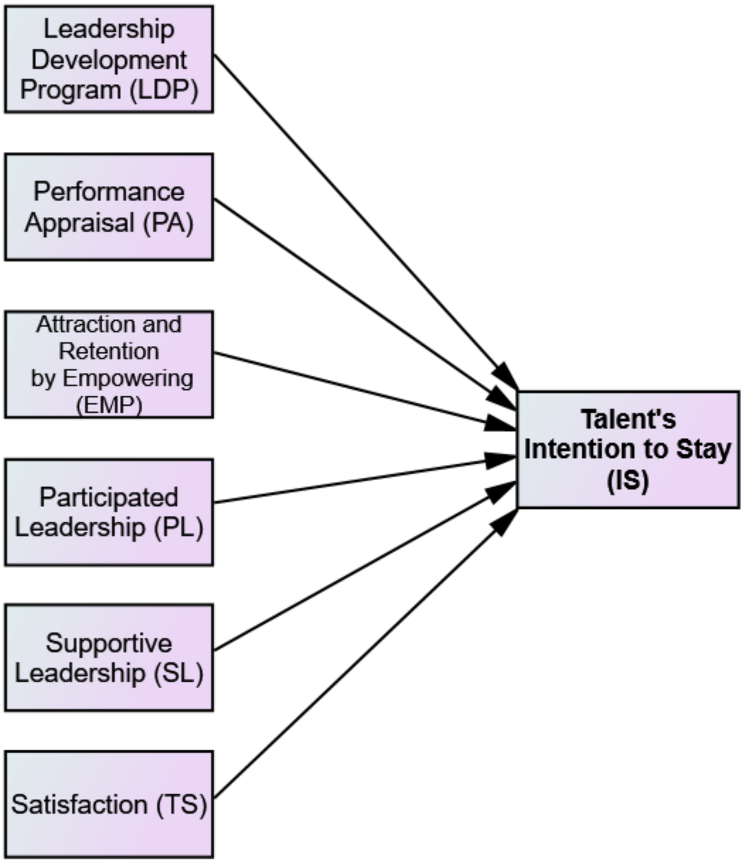


Figure 6.22. The Final Research Model (B).

6.6.8 Further assessment of the revised structural model

In order to assess the explanatory power of the revised research model, Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC) estimates for the research factors were analysed and the SMC for IS (the dependent variable) rated at .377. Based on the SMC analysis, it is estimated that the predictors of IS explain 37.7 percent of its variance. In other words, the error variance of IS approximately 62.3 percent of the variance of IS itself.

Additionally, from reviewing the previous Table 6.36 the total effects of the research construct on the main research dependent variable IS, it can be seen that the largest impact is of TS (0.302), followed by LDP (0.292), SL (0.244); then PL (0.207) and PA (0.187). The smallest effect is the influence of EMP on IS (0.153).

6.6.9 Study structural model

Having displayed the observed data and the emerged models with the convergent supporting results, this research adopts validated SEM. SEM and multiple regression are essentially equivalent, with slightly higher prediction power for the SEM model at 38%, and multiple regression at 36%. Taking into consideration the variance in the inferred ranking among independent/latent variables, the researcher adopted a SEM model inferred outcome for its credibility and capabilities in establishing causal inference, as it is more about causality; in contrast, regression has more of a predictive focus. In addition, SEM is more rigid in terms of fitness, due to the procedural checks taken prior to testing the causality; this makes it a more reliable tool and also implies regression kit. SEM is not capable of implementing causal relationships with nonlinear causal relationships; however, it has been formerly confirmed that there is no departure from linearity in the empirical datasets. SEM arguably remains indispensable in that it potentially provides better understanding of the concept being studied, besides its ability to predict more than one dependent variable, unlike multiple regression. Therefore, SEM is more comprehensive than regression and more robust for statistical analysis in the social sciences (Bollen and Pearl 2013).

6.6.10 Chapter summary

This chapter aimed at interpreting and reporting the generated results from testing the research-posited hypotheses via undertaking the desired inferential tests to the observed dataset i.e. multiple regression and SEM (with the aid of CFA). As regards the discussion of the motivating factors of strategic TM implementation within ADG and their crucial role and impact in sustaining talent flow, the scales possessed an acceptable level of validity, so were appropriate to verity the posited hypotheses. Multiple regression analysis was employed to gauge and explain the relationship identified between the research constructs and the DV, in addition to assessing the factors that act as the main determinants of the strategic TM programme's effectiveness. A model emerged via stepwise multiple regression with eight factors influencing talent stay at ADG; that is, all study measures were found to affect talent retention except for one (instrumental leadership). A six-context-specific-factor solution was suggested and confirmed by CFA for being an appropriate foundation to proceed with further SEM analysis within the proposed model of the study. Therefore, those significant triggers to an effective implementation of the strategic TM do positively influence talent attitudes to staying longer with their employer. The successful implementation factors retained and consolidated within the final variant of the study model are: Participative Leadership, Performance Appraisal, Attraction and Retention by Empowering, Leadership Development Programme, Supportive Leadership, Talent Satisfaction. The three other TM implementation determinants – Instrumental Leadership, Leadership Development Effectiveness, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards – were not found influential on talent retention and thus were dismissed. The final model for TM strategy for this study was subject to a validation process which affirms and demonstrates its capability to explain talent retention within ADG. The research model was finally purified by dropping the insignificant paths, hence leading to a more parsimonious model. The following chapter discusses the findings emerging from the quantitative analysis.

CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results obtained from the data collected via the questionnaire are discussed and analysed based on the reviewed extant literature around the area under study. This will assist in answering research questions and fulfilling the core objectives. Hence, the subsequent sections of this chapter represent findings pertaining to the main research objectives that are implied in the first chapter and the literature review. Study findings, therefore, will contribute to this particular discipline and aid in reaching practical conclusions and appropriate recommendations for the policy makers, HR practitioners, and senior management of ADG-affiliated departments, with potential application in analogous contexts such as the Middle Eastern region, the GCC, and other developing countries.

In order to discuss the research results, it is advantageous to recall the main objectives.

7.2 The adoption and implementation of TM Strategies by ADG

An initial objective of the project was to determine the adoption and implementation of TM strategies by ADG by exploring talent perspectives. The lack of empirical studies with practical implications and the short supply of concrete evidence has been pointed out, along with little or insufficient guidance in theoretical underpinning by the published research. TM strategies and a holistic theoretical framework pertinent to TM are scarce and there is no standardised or uniform model to guide practitioners and businesses in developing an appropriate TM strategy (Temkin 2008; Van Zyl *et al*. 2017). As outlined in Chapter four, prior studies have pointed to the main TM strategies that are implied in the CIPD Talent Pipeline (2007) and embraced by organisations to acquire and nurture the best performing 'talents,' based on their varied identification of talents (Highhouse *et al*. 1999; Fulmer *et al*. 2003; Lievens *et al*. 2005; Towers Perrin 2005, 17). TM's basic strategies as referred to in this study are: attraction by empowering, attraction by incentives, work conditions and performance rewards; the leadership development programme, leadership development effectiveness, performance appraisal, retention by empowering, retention by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards. The above strategies are drawn from the CIPD Talent Pipeline (2007). As Wimalasiri (1995) and Jaiswal (1982) argue, having policies in place (such as selection, employee learning and career development, compensations and rewards, and retention) can positively impact on employee commitment, and, in turn, employee retention to an organisation. However, attraction and retention strategies were blended into one factor, as the applied strategies to poach and entice talents were found to overlap with the factors identified as the top strategies to attract talent after they have been appointed (Human Resources and Employment 2003). In addition, as suggested from the literature concerning the success of multinational companies, this success is attributed to the culture imported from the main country, which resulted in higher engagement and retention rates among talent as reported by Sidani and Al Ariss (2014, 220). In addition, managers' approach to leadership was reported as the number one predictor in measuring employee turnover in organisations (Dimaculangan and Aguiling 2012; Babalola *et al*. 2016; Ariyabuddhiphongs and Kahn 2017). Therefore, the additional factor of leadership style was added to complement TM strategy, together with coupling other important factors of talent satisfaction. It is also worth pointing out that LDP measures the provision of learning and talent development, whereas LDE is about gauging the effectiveness of the training provided to talented leaders. As such, the literature indicated that the UAE is in an adaptation and transition stage, engaging with the Western system and business culture so as to reinforce its own business environment to achieve organisational prosperity (de Waal and Frijns 2016). However, Dirani *et al*. (2018, 494) proposed 'that a variation to the Western practices would be helpful to ensure acceptance in the Arab culture.' Hence, the descriptive findings pertaining to the adoption and implementation of TM strategies will be discussed in the subsections below.

- **The adoption of talent management strategy at ADG**

Leadership Development is one of TM's core strategies espoused by organisations in the quest for maintaining talent credit. Leadership development can be explained in this study as a strategic intervention that supports the business's human capital and strengthens the strategic value of the organisation (Stewart and Rigg 2011). Leadership development has a crucial impact on leveraging talents' retention rates through enhancing their affective commitment. In addition, learning and development have a positive impact on talent engagement (Gibbons 2006). This factor consists of two sub-factors – Leadership Development Programme (LDP) and Leadership Development Effectiveness (LDE) – as shown below.

- **Talent management strategy: factor one (the adoption of leadership development – LDP)**

According to the findings, the mean score of the four employed items to measure leadership development at ADG-affiliated departments was 3.70 (which is greater than the midpoint of 3 of the study scale), indicating that the majority of respondents were in agreement about the adoption and implementation of a LDP. Many preceding studies have noted the importance of talent and leadership development as a crucial pattern of the strategic TM, and it has been reported as the more powerful instrument in strategic TM, according to Contractor (2013), playing a vital role in the acquisition and retention of talent (Highhouse et al. 1999; Fulmer *et al*. 2003; Deloitte 2005; Lievens *et al*. 2005; Towers Perrin 2005; Harrison 2009; Stewart and Rigg 2011; Chami-Malaeba and Garavan 2013). The result confirms Singh and Sharma's (2015) conclusions that 'career progression' and 'training and development' are long-term retention strategies for workers in private companies in the UAE. Moreover, Ulrichsen (2017) reported the UAE devoted considerable attention to locals' training and education, in addition to 'emulating the most advanced systems in the world for a long time' (Warner and Burton 2017; Dirani *et al*. 2018, 486). In turn, to Daleure (2017), the country markedly outperformed and progressed in education during the last decade. Furthermore, the lowest agreement average (3.4) was scored via the statement 'My organisation develops high potential employees to become leaders to ensure a strong talent pool' (LDP1). It was also reported by some participants that the LDP has not been provided for several years by the government of Abu Dhabi, from 2013 to 2018, (a period that overlaps the period of data collection). This perhaps explains such scoring and may result in insufficient development for Abu Dhabi leaders. Therefore, the finding of LDP1 is also in contrast with Armstrong (2006) and Iles *et al.* (2010), who considered that TM is another terminology for developing people to head the organisation. The findings of LDP1 do not agree with Ready and Conger (2007) and Ringo *et al*. (2008), as it has been concluded that TM involves investing in human capital by the identification of training and development needs and implementing career development, as well as providing progression paths for their talented staff. In addition, this applies to talent willingness to develop organisation-specific skills. However, it was also noted that Abu Dhabi School of Government (2019) has been newly established to 'develop the competencies of government employees to become more effective by providing training and development programmes based on international best practices adapted to the needs of the Emirate of

Abu Dhabi,' as emphasised by the late ruler of the UAE, H.H Sheikh Zayed bin Sultan al-Nahyan, who declared, 'The real asset of any advanced nation is its people, especially the educated ones, and the prosperity and success of the people are measured by the standard of their education.' The CIPD (2016c) suggests that successful TM is achieved via employing a strategic integration of the implied approaches of a cohesive talent pipeline to attract, identify, develop, engage, reward, and retain talents. Hence, the findings that have emerged from this research subscribe to previous studies in the literature in respect of the inclusion and contribution of learning and talent development in implementing a successful TM strategy (CIPD Talent Pipeline 2007).

- **Talent management strategy: factor two (the adoption of leadership development effectiveness – LDE)**

According to the findings, the mean score of eight observable variables to measure the effectiveness of the LDP at ADG-affiliated departments was 3.29 (which is greater than the midpoint of 3 based to the scale of this study), showing that the majority of respondents were agreed in assessing the effectiveness of the leadership development programme. As pointed to by Anderson (2007) and Davins and Smith (2010), it is ideal to get learners' feedback and to measure the effectiveness of the learning and development function pre and post-training, where workforce competences are an indicator of capability profiles being built as a result of the ongoing training that is offered those talents. In addition, it is a high priority to ascertain that the function of the offered training and development interweaves with the organisation's critical corporate aspects in order to produce the intended outcomes. Respondents conveyed lower agreement concerning their readiness to occupy a strategic position (Mean = 2.68), followed by the statement towards the sufficiency of training allowances allocated for leadership development programme (Mean = 2.97), which are key indicators of the effectiveness of LDPs. On the other hand, the report unfolded a roughly low agreement level in respect to their possession of the competencies required for their positions, in which the scoring was near the midpoint of 3 (Mean = 3.05). Nonetheless, the question pertaining to the effectiveness and overall evaluation of LDP, surprisingly, exhibited the highest mean rank at (3.98). Therefore, the overall result confirms Younger and Ulrich (2004) and Groves (2007) who claim positive outcomes for a leadership development programme, based on the average mean obtained by surveyors. The development outcomes can be viewed as the set of skills and behaviour the learners would gain. LDPs equip leaders with the necessary skills and competences and help enhance their roles in leading the organisation. This is in addition to gauging LDP effectiveness on the organisational and corporate level, to test if it contributes to the strategic objectives. Hence, some of the findings for this factor do not match those of previous studies such as Anderson (2007) and Davins and Smith's (2010) pertaining to leaders' readiness to occupy higher positions, and the acquisition of the intended competencies, in which those are typically deemed the local purpose of talent learning and development.

This finding was unexpected and suggests that the shortfall in Section Head skills were found to cause a deficiency in leadership development effectiveness at ADG-affiliated Departments, as shown by the current study's respondents' revealing that section heads were not involved in strategic issues and were segregated from TM responsibility, as also highlighted by Schuler *et al*. (2011). It is noted that some of the line managers were not fluent in the English language and so were excluded from participation in the national programme for leadership development. This finding is consistent with those of Hughes and Rog's (2008) research, which explored TM strategy to improve its initiatives and claimed a shortage in line manager' skills owing to a lack of information, authority restrictions, or budget limitations. This leads to the implementation of informal approaches of TM activities as addressed by Young-Thelin and Boluk's (2012) study in Sweden. However, the above finding of the current study do not support the previous research of Sheehan *et al*. (2018), which stressed the active participation of line managers, owing to their essential role and positive contribution in achieving the strategic role concurrently with their daily work responsibilities. This can be achieved by cascading employee retention targets to line managers and inserting this factor as a performance measure, as recommended by Ibrahim (2015). In the same vein, prior studies, e.g. Schuler *et al*. (2014), noted the adverse impact of excluding line managers and considered it a significant hurdle to implementing global TM initiatives. In conclusion, the findings suggest that talent development strategies were in place within ADG-affiliated departments; meanwhile, it seems possible that the above results are due to the lack of awareness across this leadership cohort, together with the failure to incorporate line managers. Thus, according to Mead (2007), Harrison (2009) and Anderson (2007, 2009), it could be said that the rate of successful adoption and implementation for the leadership development effectiveness factor is around 75%, which might suggest that this factor not be duly adopted and implemented. However, it was evidenced that management does not communicate with its employees appropriately and inform its stakeholders enough, in light of the above finding. This is consistent with studies conducted on the UAE and KSA such as those documented by Arabian Business Global (2020) and Alshehri and Drew (2010), which identified communication breakdown as a prime obstacle to the implementation of TM and its anticipated and exclusive effectiveness (Gallardo-Gallardo *et al.* 2020), as well as talent retention in the UAE, owing to its adverse consequences such as increasing employee turnover (Branham 2005a, b; Ongori 2007; Khan *et al*. 2010). Communication as a culture-related trait was emphasised in Gallardo-Gallardo *et al*.'s (2020) research to be a core determinant in the organisational context influencing talent behaviour; a finding that was confirmed posing a challenge in the context of this study as well.

- **Talent management strategy: factor three – the adoption of performance appraisal system (PA)**

The second core concern of the questionnaire is to investigate whether a performance appraisal strategy is adopted at ADG and to evaluate its practice based on the existing specifications and talent point of view. The findings reveal that the mean ratio for the ten items used to measure the performance appraisal system in ADG organisations was 3.59. The above result, therefore, reports a significant number of respondents who believe that the main processes of performance appraisal system are employed and implemented by ADG, which is assumed to leverage talent retention and influence turnover rates positively across talented leaders accordingly. This finding corroborates the notion of the CIPD Talent Pipeline (2007), suggesting the effectiveness of the main TM strategies that are implied in a talent pipeline; however, it contradicts Gopalakrishnan (2002) and Idris (2009), who argue that employees' discontent with performance appraisals in Arab contexts such as the UAE and KSA, according to bayt.com survey, was due to the deployment of a consultant to deliver the feedback from performance appraisals. Also, the result differs from that of Sidani and Al Ariss's (2014) study, which yields lack or absence of strategic planning on the part of firms, and a lack of engagement in promoting female talent, revealing that talented women are not even listed in TM programmes in some organisations within the GCC region context. Moreover, the descriptive statistics for performance appraisal also uncovered respondents' dissatisfaction with the effectiveness of performance appraisal in terms of assisting leaders to perform their jobs efficiently (mean = 2.85, below the cut-off point of 3). Furthermore, close to a majority of study respondents gave little endorsement to the statement, ‘Performance review meetings are conducted periodically’ (mean = 3.27). These two findings do not match Armstrong’s (2009) criteria for evaluating performance management systems for the category of managers. Further, participants’ low level of agreement shown to pertain to the use of monitoring systems to evaluate performance and emerged from descriptive data generated, with a mean score of 3.06 (PA8). Therefore, this study confirms that the earlier stated practice of performance management at ADG is consistent with Stewart and Rigg’s (2011) proposal. The highest level of agreement was reflected regarding data from the monitoring system being used to develop an incentive pay system (PA10) at the average mean of 4, which is associated with the previous work of Carayon (1993), Jeske and Santuzzi (2015) and Armstrong (2009). The above results and effective PA practices may serve and explain a relatively good strategy of performance appraisal at ADG, which could be expected to impact positively on talent acquisition and retention, based on RBV’s theoretical approach and according to Brown et al. (2016, 4) “the broader the definition of total reward that is adopted, including a wide range of extrinsic and intrinsic, financial and non-financial rewards, then the more significant the potential impact on employee engagement appears to be”. Likewise, it sheds light on the important finding about the current performance appraisal system’s support for developmental plans set for those talented leaders in the ADG sector, rather than for disciplinary purposes. Thus, PA is compatible with the best practices surrounding TM and its broad aim to support talent career development, which is aligned with the horizontal function with other processes, i.e. assessing the efficiency of learning and talent development practices and measuring the return of investment on talent performance and retention. A consideration of some detected drawbacks was provided and illustrated earlier in respect to PA implementation, yet this does not affect the conclusive result also discussed.

- **Talent management strategy: factor four – the adoption of attraction and retention strategies by empowering (EMP)**

Some authors have mainly been interested in gauging the various positive implications for organisations implementing retention strategies. Such benefits were demonstrated in diverse contexts including France, Brazil, Netherlands, Japan, Italy, and South Korea, in which Towers Perrin (2005)'s global workforce study found that practising retention policies (in terms of attracting, retaining, and engaging employees for competitive advantage) yields employee enthusiasm. Successful retention incorporates dealing with people with trustworthiness, credibility, respect and, trust, as well as undertaking appropriate performance reviews and sharing with employees the accountability for achieving performance goals (Hughes and Rog 2008). In the meantime, hunting and nurturing talents is perhaps a key challenge for employers worldwide. The support of HRM interventions, however, can help sustain this pool of human capital, whose performance levels are challenging to replicate, which also assists in dropping the possibility for talent to be attracted by other opportunities across the global market. Thus, this construct aimed to explore and measure talent intention to stay at the organisation (Hom *et al*. 2009). Moreover, Masterson *et al*. (2000) argue that when organisations implement well-designed HRM practices, a positive impact is envisaged on their commitment and willingness to go the extra mile, and their intention to stay with the organisation. Hence, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they perceived the strategies adopted by their employer as attracting and retaining leadership talent. It could be that the findings of this research do not extend and support the CIPD Talent Pipeline (2007), as the majority of respondents were not agreed on the adoption of TM strategies to poach and maintain its leaders by enabling and empowering. According to the mean score of this factor's related ratings (average mean = 2.90), it could partially reflect a roughly low level of agreement, as the mean of the ratings was positioned just below midpoint of 3, indicating in this case that a form of attraction and retention system by empowering may exist in the Abu Dhabi service sector of the UAE. This finding is consistent with Singh and Sharma's (2015) evidence from the UAE, which surveyed managerial males and females and concluded that strategies for employee value propositions are not in place in spite of the country's highly competitive market; nonetheless, it should be considered that Singh and Sharma's (2015) study was conducted on selected establishments mainly in the private service zone. The result subscribes to findings reported by Albawaba.com Middle East News (2017), in which 70% of respondents reported that an employee wellness scheme – preventative care, stress management, and work-life balance options – was not provided by their employers. Study results accord with Dirani *et al*.'s (2018) qualitative study, which confirmed that in the UAE there are practices in place to motivate employees, such as delegating tasks from superiors, empowering, developing competence, and providing a working environment featured of attainment and enrichment.

In the meantime, the highest average ranking across this measure was (3.57), obtained from the statement 'I make a significant impact in my department' (EMP3). The lowest level of agreement within this construct was associated with two items employed to gauge the autonomy talent possess in performing their jobs (EMP4) (mean = 2.22), and the next lowest item rated measured the extent to which job activities are meaningful to employees (EMP1) (mean = 2.33). Although these results differ from those of some published studies (Lievens *et al*. 2005; Towers Perrin 2005; Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010; Pan *et al*. 2012), they are consistent with those of Albawaba.com (2017). It could be concluded that Emirati leader talent may favour other types of benefits that build deeper engagement, such as ethical employers who would grant them autonomy in performing their job, rather than monetary rewards (Maurer *et al*. 1992; Sullivan 2002; Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010). This result confirms findings of the Bayt.com Middle East and North Africa Salary Survey (2019), in which 36% of respondents claim that their loyalty is not attributed to benefits they receive; and thus it has been demonstrated that the management of ADG failed to be the employer of brand for its national talents.

- **Talent management strategy: factor five – the adoption of attraction and retention by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards strategies (IWR)**

Acquiring and nurturing talents is a key challenge for employers worldwide. This is also the case in the GCC region and especially the private service industry in the UAE, where it has been a dilemma to maintain the pay level of nationals in order to sustain the inflow of local talent (Singh *et al*. 2012; Sidani and Al Ariss 2014; Singh and Sharma 2015). HRM interventions help sustain this pool of human capital, whose members are unique in terms of their distinct performance, while also helping to procure talent who are less likely to be lured by other rivals. Such practices imply financial compensation, which is a prime factor in attracting both local and foreign workers in the region of the UAE, where financial rewards remain the best motivator to attract and retain talents (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014). This study reflected respondents' agreement when measuring the retention practices through monetary benefits, career progression, and work conditions employed by ADG to attract and retain talent (average mean = 3.82). The above privileges granted to workers are considered vital practices encompassed in the employer branding (Maurer *et al*. 1992; Sullivan 2002; Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010). The finding supports Dirani *et al*.'s (2018) qualitative study, which pointed out that the UAE is one of the top GCC countries in its attention to occupational health, and that this initiative is monitored by government to ensure that policies and procedures are in place to protect workers in the state. In the same context, the result contradicts Singh and Sharma's (2015) evidence from the UAE, which found that strategies for employee value propositions are not in place in spite of the country's highly competitive market. Meanwhile, the finding is supported by Alferaih *et al*. (2018) in studies conducted at tourism sector organisations in Saudi Arabia. Notably, the highest level of agreement, however, was gained from the statement 'My organisation provides on-site opportunities and a global exposure for talent' (IR1) at an average mean of 4.17. Therefore, conclusions can be drawn from the present study, which supports previous empirical research in demonstrating that career progression and development paths, rather than monetary rewards, are key determinants for talent retention (Bulter and Waldroop 2000; Gandossy and Kao 2004; Ready *et al*. 2008; Sidani and Al Ariss 2014), and that Emirati talent is driven by developmental offerings, as proposed by Ready and Conger (2007) and Lawler (2008). This study also accords with previous studies such as Singh *et al*. (2012), Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) and Singh and Sharma (2015), which confirm that ADG adopts retention strategies by means of compensation, performance rewards, and work conditions. Moreover, the findings subscribe to the those of the Khaleej Times (2019) UAE local newsletter, in which it was noted by the managing director of Page Middle East that there was a trend shift towards multi-layered expectations on the part of job candidates in the UAE and the GCC. Candidates have become more concerned with WLB, personal growth, career progression, and organisational culture, as they seek more a flexible and stable working environment. Nadia's annual GCC Salary Report 2018–2019 has highlighted the recent government initiatives to establish employee loyalty and retention through increasing salaries. Salaries were raised in 2018 and were predicted to continue to rise in 2019, which is compatible with global consultancy Korn Ferry's forecast of a 3.9% salary hike across UAE employees (Zawya.com 2020).

The finding of this study is inconsistent with the conclusions of Kaplan and Norton (1996; 2004) who extensively emphasised the advantages of communicating and linking performance goals with performance measures. The finding revealed that the participating organisations in this research had not offered performance-driven rewards and that there had not been any incentive programme in place at ADG-affiliated departments (average mean = 2.93). It is more likely that ad hoc and scattered incentives were provided in the past at some Abu Dhabi departments, with the absence of a strategy map to systematise compensations. Nevertheless, the government launched information about its performance management system (ADAA, which means performance in Arabic), claiming that its PMS is aligned with best practices (Ministry of Cabinet Affairs and the Future 2019). This conclusion could be attributable to participants' views, and their claim that some governmental departments, such as the Western Region Municipality, Ministry of Interiors, Abu Dhabi Company for Oil and the Western Medical Region, and others, have implemented an initiative for rewarding employees based on their performance for the appraisal scores of 'very good' and 'distinction'.

7.3 The effectiveness of TM programme implementation on talent retention at ADG departments

As outlined in Chapter one, the third research objective aimed to assess the effectiveness of strategic TM programme implementation on talent retention at ADG departments. Hence, in a customer-facing industry, as in the case of ADG-affiliated departments which form the public service sector in the UAE, developing and implementing TM initiatives is essential to attract and nurture leadership talent (Sheehan *et al*. 2018). This is supported by a handful of studies such as Hughes and Rog's (2008), advocating the benefits of implementing effective TM strategy and its impact on acquiring and retaining talent. This also accords with observations of this study, measured by the descriptive statistics, which showed leadership talent intent to stay at their organisations, according to their agreement conveyed via the statement 'I intend to work for the long-term in my organisation,' with an average mean = 3.36 (above the threshold of 3). Therefore, the results are compatible with Ng and Butts (2009), and Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013), Daleure (2017), and Hafez *et al*. (2017). Daleure pointed out that the UAE is ranked highest in the list of neighbouring countries with respect to retention, which is attributed to multiple economic and social factors. For instance, Hafez *et al*. (2017), in their research at Ain Shams University in Egypt found significant relationship between TM strategies (motivating distinct employee performance, development and job enrichment by means of delegating authority and challenging tasks) and talent retention. The literature offers contradictory findings about turnover intentions, e.g. Ibrahim's (2015) research found that turnover rates for Emirati workers in three governmental banks in Dubai and Sharjah within the UAE climbed in 2009 and 2010. Albawaba.com's Middle East News (2017) report noted that 56% of the surveyed employees would prefer to quit their organisations. More recently, the 2019 survey report of the Nadia agency (the leading recruitment firm in the UAE) on employee turnover made a forecast consistent with the above result, observing that turnover rates have recently dropped. The report has noted the new tendencies as mainly attributable to new government initiatives aimed at building employee loyalty, which has also entailed a salary hike according to Nadia's annual GCC Salary Report 2018–2019. On the other hand, the drop in employee turnover projections was perhaps associated with the UAE's uncertain job market, which in turn witnessed more employee retention, as employees decided to stay at their jobs rather than moving between employers. Turnover percentages decreased from 11% to 8% between 2018 and 2019 as a result of new loyalty strategies that were recently introduced in the workplace by employers (Zawya.com 2020). The above findings are consistent with other theories that counter the argument that TM strategies (implicit in HR) are linked to retention (Applebaum *et al*. 2000; Macky and Boxall 2007; Chew and Chan, 2008; Wright *et al*. 2013). In addition, the finding subscribed to the study by Laabs (1993) who found that implementing training programmes mitigated employee turnover at Bell Helicopter; whilst Singh (2000) notes that the frequency and quality of performance appraisals conducted within the organisation are correlated with employee turnover behaviour. Similarly, Poon (2004) notes the influence of discontent with performance appraisals on job satisfaction, and consequently employee retention. Harel and Tzafrir (1999) also found that the provision of career exposure opportunities significantly enhances employee motivation to continue working at an organisation. Hence, it was proposed that ADG implement successful TM strategies to nurture the potential from leaders, and sufficient empirical evidence has been found to support this suggestion.

7.4 The effectiveness of talent management programme implementation on talent satisfaction at ADG

The fourth research objective aimed to assess the effectiveness of strategic TM programme implementation on talent satisfaction at ADG departments. As addressed in the literature review chapter, much of the available discrete literature on talent retention outlines the critical role of employee job satisfaction and its association with employee intention to stay or leave, as stressed by Deery and Jago (2015). According to this study, the definition of talent satisfaction implies that workers' attitudes and perceptions of their jobs are mediated by a sense of their needs being met by the employer. This study attempted to measure talent satisfaction with their roles. Therefore, in accordance with abundant studies e.g. Allen and Meyer (1990), Podsakoff *et al*. (1990), Meyer *et al*. (1993), Braun *et al*. (2013), Jeske and Santuzzi (2015), and El Dahshan *et al*. (2018), talent satisfaction was revealed, as the scores mean was 3.35 (which lies above the threshold of 3), indicating an acceptable level of talent satisfaction among the study's respondents. As identified previously by many academics and hence referred to in the literature review chapter, motivation has been identified as a major contributing factor to employee satisfaction (Maslow 1954; Vroom 1964; Harel and Tzafrir 1999; Gandossy and Kao 2004). From the emerged result and the above analysis, various themes can be identified that support earlier studies such as Aon Hewitt's (2011) Middle East study, which suggested that motivating GCC national talent is associated with offering designations and job titles, as well as the power of authority in hierarchy. An efficient way to attract and keep GCC national talent is by granting them an 'early mid-career,' which has recently been a tendency; meanwhile, there has been a crisis across the middle leadership roles. Therefore, since the study respondents are all leaders, their motivation, engagement and, hence satisfaction could be projected, to some extent. Moreover, the aforementioned 'Qudurat Report' pointed out that employee engagement rates have recently risen in the GCC region, in comparison with the western context (Aon Hewitt 2011). On the other hand, an emerging theme could be the demonstration of effective HR practices, e.g. providing talents with rewards, extrinsic compensation such as career progression and development paths and meaningful jobs, employers' fulfillment of promises, fair performance appraisals, as well as affective organisational commitment, which were all found to have significant positive impact, leading to talent motivation and in turn improving their satisfaction level. Hence, the aforesaid finding strongly supports the propositions of Maslow (1954), Jaiswal (1982), Wimalasiri (1995), Ellickson and Logsdon (2001), Gandossy and Kao (2004), Poon (2004), McGrath (2008), Braun *et al*.

(2013), Benoy and Gracias (2015), as well as Vroom's expectancy theory (Vroom 1964). In accordance with Vroom's motivational theory and the present results, a previous study by Benoy and Gracias (2015) in India investigated building a talent bank through adopting motivation-related strategies. Their study demonstrated that promoting and employing motivational strategies is a catalyst to the association between talent development and talent implementation for project management, and that motivated employees contirbute to achieving an organisation's goals. An implication of this finding is that talent satisfaction could possibly indicate talent retention, as emphasised by Deery and Jago (2015). In addition, the level of satisfaction could show the adoption of certain leadership styles as claimed by Lok and Crawford (1999, 2004), Ogbonna and Harris (2000), Gibbons (2006) as well as Zeffane and Al Zarooni (2008), who all found correlation and influence between leadership skills and worker satisfaction. This and other aspects, such as probable lower talent turnover rates, as discussed by Allen and Meyer (1990) and Oehley and Theron (2010), are predicted outcomes of affective commitment, engagement, and satisfaction. Moreover, talent satisfaction could be evidence of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) 'conscientiousness,' based on the proposition of Allen and Meyer (1990), Meyer *et al*. (1993) and Jeske and Santuzzi (2015). Similarly, building on Herzberg *et al.* (2008), Beechler and Woodward (2009), DeConinck and Johnson (2009) and Bethke-Langenegger *et al*. (2011), a positive impact on TM outcomes is expected, and thus talent commitment, motivation, and satisfaction are attained when employees obtain appreciation and recognition from their employer. Emphasis is given to aspects related to the working environment and working conditions as the core determinants of job satisfaction, according to Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006). They also found a link between a lack of autonomy and low levels of satisfaction; thus it can be presumed that the Abu Dhabi public sector possesses the patterns of an appropriate workplace for its national talent. The current study revealed a considerable level of talent satisfaction, which perhaps proves the existence of employee job autonomy. These results are congruent with published studies referred to earlier, i.e. El Dahshan *et al.*'s (2018) inquiry in Egypt, which reported the satisfaction of nurses with attraction, development, and retention strategies. However they differ from Manafa *et al.*'s (2009) investigation in Malawi, in which health employees showed their dissatisfaction with retention strategies when it came to their emplowyers providing key ingredients for their career development and progression.

7.5 The Employer branding manifested in the prevailing leadership behaviour at ADG-affiliated departments

The fifth research objective aimed to analyse the prevailing leadership behaviour at ADG. The aim of integrating this measure with the strategic TM practices is based on the suggestions of Aon Hewitt (2011) and Singh *et al.* (2012) to adapt distinct reward dynamics such as becoming 'an employer of choice,' a differentiated, broader psychological way to recognize GCC national potentials, remote from monetary measures. Employer branding embodies attributes relevant to the organisation such as its culture, staff qualities, the leadership style, staffing image, and customer perspectives towards the products of the firm, as well as the quality of the service provided (Sullivan 2002). Moreover, this study sought to identity the prevailing leadership behaviour at ADG departments. The themes identified from talent responses confirm that both participative and supportive leadership styles are adopted by the senior management of ADG. This was revealed in the descriptive tests in Chapter 5, section 5.3.1.1, where scores' means were 3.40 for participative leadership and 3.69 for supportive leadership (in which both results lie above the threshold of 3), indicating acceptance across the study's respondents about the adoption of both managerial traits, which denotes that such competences have been acquired by Emirati executive leaders at ADG.

The results affirm the successful implementation of such participative and supportive approaches by management, specifically in the area of the superior's role in facilitating employee participation and empowerment. In addition to ascertaining subordinates' needs, results emphasise the importance of inspiring and motivating workers and awarding them the autonomy to improve their performance. The findings accord with Bass and Avolio (1993), Schein (1992) and Ogbonna and Harris (2000) and Sowmya *et al*. (2018) in their research on public sector performance, which found that the public sector in the UAE is more effective because of its leadership styles. The result partially accords with Ali's (1989) study, which revealed that participative leadership competence is the prevailing leadership trait within the UAE. The same study found that the instrumental leadership style is not embraced, in accordance with the emerged findings. The potential effect of the participative and supportive leadership styles was empirically shown to contribute to change and enhancement in certain organisational cultures; nonetheless, the instrumental leadership contribution was not supported by Ogbonna and Harris (2000). It is also worth pointing out talent satisfaction rates, as revealed from this study, that tend to demonstrate good leadership style based on the authors' suggestion that leadership behaviour would undoubtedly influence the level of talent satisfaction and the prospect of their retention, as emphasised by Lok and Crawford (1999, 2004), Ogbonna and Harris (2000), Gibbons (2006) and Zeffane and Al Zarooni (2008). It has been found that ADG needs to foster a transactional behaviour in its leadership competencies.

7.6 The impact of TM strategy on talent retention

Talent retention has become a crucial and pressing dilemma worldwide, and nurturing talent is a major challenge for senior management (Singh and Sharma 2015). The sixth research objective aimed to explain the influence of the individual factors of the integrated TM system and their impact on talent retention levels at ADG departments.

In order to answer the questions relevant to this objective and as a result of reviewing the Human Resources Management acceptance literature, nine hypotheses were constructed to test the direct influence of independent variables on the research dependent variable (IS), using SEM (see Chapter Five). The nine hypotheses developed are H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8, H9.

Leading HRM and TM relevant theories, as seen through the lens of Collings and Mellahi's (2009) TM philosophies/framework, SET theory by Blau's (1964), RBV framework by Coff (1997), organisational support theory (Eisenberger *et al*. 1997) and talent pipeline by the CPID (2007), all provide a theoretical foundation for this study to examine and explain the variability of the strategic TM factors influencing Emiratis' intentions to stay at ADG-affiliated departments. After an extensive review of the relevant literature, various factors were identified and then justified to be deemed important parameters in the strategic TM acceptance context. The included dimensions could be categorised under organisational support and were empirically proven successful determinants for the employer's desired behavioural outcomes in Western contexts, but evidence in the Eastern hemisphere is scarce (Isa *et al*. 2018). Those factors were included into the proposed model presented in chapter three; nine factors were proposed to influence talent intentions to stay at ADG organisation. These factors were split into three main categories based on the nature of their influence: strategic TM-related factors, employer branding-related factors, and other-related factors. Strategic

TM-related factors represent HRM practices implied in managing talent, and which tend to influence retention decisions. These factors were originally obtained from the CIPD Talent Pipeline (2007). LDP and LDE, PA, EMP and IWR represent the original TM constructs. Employer branding-related factors represent one aspect of the organisational culture, which is leadership behaviour as classified into three styles, PL, SL, and IL. Another external related factor is represented by TS. Both employer branding and satisfaction have been found to affect the level of talent retention across a variety of nations over the decades. Thus, the aforementioned factors were theoretically presumed to have focal influence on GCC national talent, according to the contextual similarities.

Later, CFA using SPSS 26.0 and SEM using AMOS 26.0 were employed to analyse the quantitative data and generate a model based on appropriate fit with the observed datasets. CFA was employed to test the convergent and discriminant validity of the proposed survey questions/items (measurement theory). Moreover, SEM was used to examine the structural model, which involves testing the relationships and reasonable hypotheses between the latent variables to examine the scale ability to measure the intended concept (reliability).

Hence, SEM was subsequently applied in two steps, the first involving confirmation of the constructs CFA, together with verification of the related validity and reliability, and the second stage involving testing of the research hypotheses pertaining to the causal relationships established among the identified factors. Table 7.1 lists these ten factors as verified by CFA.

Sr.	Factor
One	Leadership Development Program (LDP)
Two	Leadership Development Effectiveness (LDE)
Three	Performance Appraisal (PA)
Four	Attraction and Retention by Empowering (EMP)
Five	Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards (IWR)
Six	Talent Satisfaction (TS)
Seven	Participative Leadership (PL)
Eight	Supportive Leadership (SL)
Nine	Instrumental Leadership (IL)
Ten	Intention to Stay (IS) * *Dependent variable.

Table 7.1. The factors CFA.

- **The individual influence of TM determinants on the level of talent retention**

(Factor one: leadership development)

The impact of leadership development programmes on talent retention (H1).

The literature has reported a strong relationship between a leadership development programme and enhanced retention levels. Accordingly, a hypothesis was formulated of the direct positive impact of a leadership development programme on talent intention to stay at ADG-affiliated departments. The inferential analysis revealed a significant positive influence at a level of $p< 0.05$ ($p=0.004$). Meanwhile, the emerged relationship indicates strong significance, and according to standardised regression weights (β =

0.266), the relationship yields LDP factor exerts the second greatest influence over the other employed factors affecting talent intent to stay. Therefore, the null hypothesis fails to be accepted and the alternate hypothesis is accepted (LDP positively influences IS). That is, any increase in LDP would positively influence talent intention to stay in ADG-affiliated departments. This result is similar to several previous studies on HRM generally and strategic TM particularly, which all have buttressed a positive and significant relationship between LDP and IS, and found the direct positive influence of leadership development on the acquisition and retention of talents. This research includes Highhouse *et al*. (1999), Fulmer *et al*. (2003), Deloitte (2005), Lievens *et al*. (2005), Towers Perrin (2005); Harrison (2009), Stewart and Rigg (2011), Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013), Isa *et al*. (2018), Khan (2018), Ohunakin *et al*. (2020), Al Mheiri *et al*. (2021), Mangal (2021) and Al Ali (n.d.). Khan's (2018) study found that training can predict and impact the rate of employee retention in the UAE private sector. Al Mheiri *et al*.'s (2021) qualitative study at Abu Dhabi Healthcare Sector (PHS) in the UAE ranked training and development the highest influential factor in the retention of medical staff. As well, a recurrent theme in the interviews in Al Ali's (n.d.) research established that the provision of intensive language and technical training for Emirati workers during employment is essential to increase the retention of UAE nationals.

As pointed out in Chapter two, past research demonstrated the role of developing leaders in gaining favourable behavioural outcomes through affected commitment, which predicts leader willingness to remain in the organisation. For instance, Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013)'s empirical study, which explored talent and leadership development practices in Lebanon, found a positive relationship between talent and leadership development on each of the affective commitment and talent intention to stay. The finding also confirms results obtained from Harel and Tzafrir's

(1999) research, that the provision of career exposure opportunities significantly enhances employee motivation to continue working at an organisation. Moreover, Eisen *et al*.'s (2005) survey of an American manufacturing workforce found that learning and talent development is linked with a 70 percent rise in employee retention rates. Furthermore, Isa *et al*.'s (2018) study held in an Asian context has empirically proven the relationship and positive implications of talent development on the behaviour of Malaysian workers, indicating a lesser likelihood of them leaving their jobs. Likewise, Ohunakin *et al*. (2020) examined retention strategies and talent behavioural outcome in the hospitality industry in Nigeria and confirmed a significant and positive linkage between talent development and talent commitment, which created employer branding and hence increased the level of retention. The findings in relation to hypothesis H1 support the view that the effect of adopting and implementing successful learning and talent development events is significant. Based on the above results, it could be suggested that leadership development is a critical tool in an appropriate strategic TM and retention strategy for nurturing talents, and that there is a significant and direct impact on enhancing talent retention at ADG-affiliated departments. Therefore, ADG should be aware of the significance of developing its long-serving talented leaders, in alignment with the organisational strategic approach. This investment is expected to be returned by a robust form of competitive advantage, in addition to guiding employee behaviour through strengthening their bond to the organisation, and therefore their intention to remain in their respective departments. This is especially so in a time of recession, where talents can be a prime supporting source to the organisational objectives. Learning and talent development are effectively harnessed and thus learning can be transferred to the organisation.

- **The individual influence of TM determinants on the level of talent retention. (Factor two: leadership development effectiveness)**

  The impact of leadership development effectiveness on talents' retention (H2).

The second question of the study's sixth objective sought to determine the potential influence of leadership development effectiveness on keeping the best workforce for a long-term prospect. Hence, Hypothesis (H2) tested the influence of LDE on IS. It assumed that the effectiveness of leadership development programmes would positively affect talent attitudes towards longer service at ADG Departments. There was a lack of existing evidential research on the relationship between the effectiveness of leadership development with regards to employee retention (Jayawarna *et al*. 2007; Nikandrou *et al*. 2009). Surprisingly, the obtained results of testing the aforementioned hypothesis uncovered that the parameter estimates were statistically insignificant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was supported by the current study results. It was subsequently accepted, leading to a rejection of the alternate hypothesis. This finding suggests that LDE do not influence talented leaders to remain at ADG Departments. Therefore, this study has been unable to demonstrate and endorse the work of Kontoghiorghes and Bryant (2004), Anderson (2007), Beynon (2015), Kibui (2015), Singh (2017), and Baharin and Hanafi (2018). Hence, the result contradicts the findings of Kontoghiorghes and Bryant's (2004) study, which explored employees' attitudes as an outcome of training and found the effectiveness of training positively linked to organisational commitment, which leads to employee retention, in a service organisation in the health care insurance industry. Moreover, the result differs from conclusions in another study of 12 organisations in the UK, held by the CIPD, which found a significant impact of learning on organisational strategic value. Nonetheless, the findings of the current study support two facets of

Beynon *et al*.'s (2015) findings related to employee behaviour towards retention, as a result of leadership development effectiveness through the acquisition of job-related skills and management competences. Their research provides a novel contribution to knowledge, exploring the implications of training on employees in SMEs, and finding positive associations between the provision of alternative training (such as e-learning, training held in the workplace or in a local college, and training intervention through a government programme) and enhancing employee retention, thus losing fewer employees to a competitor; while contrary results emerged from the independent training delegation, which revealed a diminishing association between employees and employer and, consequently, a greater tendency for them to look for different job opportunities. This means that in contrast to earlier findings, no evidence of an effective alternative learning impact on employee retention was detected, i.e. one that would increase the employee association and loyalty to employer after undertaking the national leadership development programme, and which could indicate employees' willingness to look for other opportunities. This may subscribe to Collings and Mellahi (2009) who emphasised that developing talent was cited in the literature without declaring the best facets and practice in the area of the talent development mechanism. This finding may also advocate Sidani and Thornberry (2013) who argued that there were shortcomings within the Emirati talent development, economic system, and labour market (TM), which created obstacles to generating a sufficient number of engineers, computer specialists, teachers, accountants, nurses, doctors and business managers. Additionally, the result supports Haladay *et al*.'s (2016) qualitative study in the UAE private sector and semi-government organisations, which pointed to insufficient evaluation and measurement of the long-term impact of training and development outcomes on talent development.

The result also does not accord with Singh's (2017) research, exploring the effectiveness of the corporate training programme in Pune city in India. Singh's study showed the positive impact of a corporate education programme on the knowledge and skill level of employees, in terms of an increased set of competences, as well as increased employee retention and reduced turnover. Based on the findings related to this factor, a possible explanation for negative results might be a deficiency or lack of action learning, as it could be inferred by talents that they are not yet qualified to hold senior positions or occupy strategic roles. Moreover, the finding could be related to the competences anticipated to be acquired by learner talent, and the requisite job skills imparted among talents, as an indicator of the capabilities profile being built. That is, when measuring the efficiency of training interventions, if the training and development offered are not interwoven with critical aspects associated to organisational corporate plan and the set strategic priorities, it could be stated that leadership development has not achieved its intended outcomes, as debated by Anderson (2007), Davins and Smith (2010) and Stewart and Rigg (2011).

According to TM and the leadership development function, equipping leaders with the competences required both to occupy a strategic position and qualify them to occupy a higher-grade job is a primary objective. However, failing to fulfil this function may indicate a failure in TM implementation. Hence, such a result does not match the findings of Anderson (2007), who found that senior management is keen to equip leaders with the readiness to occupy a strategic role. As Anderson's (2007) research suggests, measuring a return of expectations (ROE), in other words the strategic value of training, can be embedded in the overall enhanced performance addressed by leaders, the fruitful management of leader succession, the new set of observed behaviours that attest to their improvement, as well as the extent of strategic capabilities development and the size of the talent population within the organisation. Stewart and Rigg (2011) add that in order to gain the anticipated expectations, communication and clarity of the predefined ROEs are essential initiatives in the design phase of such tailored leadership development interventions. Based on the study's survey, and in particular this factor, it assesses building job-relevant competencies, in terms of related knowledge, skills and attitude that are essential to perform the job role effectively and efficiently (Chauhan and Srivastava 2013; Jain *et al*. 2013; Yuvaraj 2011). Hence, the result of this factor differs from the quantitative investigation of Baharin and Hanafi (2018) who examined the influence of competency mapping practices within a TM strategy for talent retention in the Malaysian industry sector, in which TM was measured as four independent variables and talent retention as a dependent variable. The results of the above study demonstrated a significant and positive effect of each TM parameter on talent retention and support the similar academic work of Kibui (2015) held in Kenya.

Another factor could be insufficient allowances being allocated for training delegation in the UAE, as already documented, against hotel and other related trainee expenses, which makes LDE an ineffective variable in predicting Emirati talent behaviour towards remaining with their employer for the long term. Moreover, as the critical effectiveness of promoting learning and talent development can be assessed based on talent readiness to occupy a strategic position or a higher grade job, these learning outcomes could not be achieved in the context of this study, which could also suggest that those leaders will not have the chance to be promoted, whilst the factor constituting the sense of promotion possibility carries heavy weight in retaining talent, as identified by Vandana (2017). Thus, it may be stated that promoting talent learning and development within ADG organisations is a key initiative within an effective strategic TM strategy, which alone does not exert significant influence on Emirati talented leaders' views, and hence would not encourage them to increase their stay with their employers. This result indicates that effectiveness of talent development is not an important determinant of talent remaining with the employer. Hence, the above result is of particular importance to decision-makers in the government, in order to identify what sort of change is required and to explore other potential factors within the leadership development function at ADG departments. Findings indicate the need to continue training and developing leadership talent for potential critical roles, to identify possible gaps in their knowledge, and then implement appropriate initiatives to enhance their competencies. This is in addition to involving all leaders (including middle managers) in the strategic aspects of the organisation, and ensuring they are not segregated from the strategic TM function in general, and leadership development in particular, in the pursuit of augmenting talent retention levels. The findings of the present research show that ADG needs to focus on the solid approach of the national leadership programme – as in a corporate management training programme – to address organisational objectives and development, employing action learning effectiveness and critical action learning in developing leaders in public service, such as in through the PSLS (Public Services Leaders Scheme) (Rigg and Trehan 2004; Mead 2007; Rigg and Richards 2006). It is also urged that organisations carry out employee training audits frequently to assess the competences and supply the skills needed by the organisation, in addition to assessing the efficiency of the leadership development provided and addressing any potential gaps. In conclusion, although talent development plays a vital role in cultivating retention, it could be inappropriate if other organisational associated systemic obstacles are not sorted (Johenness and Chou 2017).

- **The individual influence of TM determinants on the level of talent retention. (Factor three: performance appraisal)**

The impact of performance appraisal on talent retention (H3)

This study hypothesised that managing talent appraisal effectively has a significant and positive relationship with talent retention in ADG Departments (H3). Performance appraisal is an HRM tool employed to convey an appreciative message for employees for being effective members of the team within the organisation, which implies development review and perhaps involves appropriate individual interventions (Levy and Williams 2004). Nura and Osman (2013) argue that effective performance management is the best HRM instrument to lower turnover to the barest minimum. Several studies in HRM and organisational behaviour literature have empirically affirmed the significant relationship between the way employers appraise their talents and their probable intent to have long tenure. Such studies include the work of Singh (2000), Poon (2004), Zhang *et al*. (2015), Nura and Osman (2013), Mbugua et al. (2015), Johenness and Chou (2017) and Isa *et al*. (2018). Based on this study's findings, a positive relationship between the variables was shown at the significance level of ($p<0.05$) ($p=0.012$), indicating moderate significance, and to standardised regression weights ($\beta = 0.169$), the emerged relation shows that PA exerts the second least influential factor over the other employed factors affecting talent intent to spend long-term service in ADG departments. The findings support the idea of Singh (2000), who argues that the frequency and quality of performance appraisals conducted within the organisation are correlated with employee behaviour in respect of turnover intent. This argument is also consistent with Poon's (2004) research, which debated that discontent with performance appraisals influences job satisfaction, may avert conflicts, and consequently may affect employee retention in terms of individual willingness to continue working for the employer. Moreover, Zhang *et al*.'s (2015) study concludes that performance management practice contributes to greater talent retention, which empirically reported that successful retention levels result from identifying talent through performance appraisals by task-focused managers. This supports an inevitable relationship between the performance appraisal function, employee development, evaluation, and retention. The results also match those of Mbugua *et al*.'s (2015) empirical research, which was conducted on commercial banks in Kenya, where a significant, though weak, relationship and influence was found between strategic performance management and enhancing retention rates across the workforce through action planning, target setting, allocating a reasonable budget, prediction, performance measurements, performance review, and performance-based rewards. Additionally, Johenness and Chou's (2017) research on Taiwanese companies found a significant relationship between employee appraisal and feedback and employee retention. As well, Isa *et al*.'s (2018) investigation in an Asian context has empirically proven the positive implications of organisational support, through the management of employees such as providing performance feedback by supervisors, on the behaviour of Malaysian workers and a decreased likelihood of them leaving their jobs. Based on the findings in respect of H3, it could be stated that the appraisal and management of talent performance has a significant influence on their retention at the organisation. Having extensively established the association between managing employee performance and retention in previous TM studies using various meta-analyses (e.g. Crook et al. 2008), the result of this study supports RBV theoretical unified approach (Ambrosius 2018), through pay satisfaction and compensation system. As it is posited, the unique and valuable human capitals are significant in shaping business strategies and maintaining the firm's sustainable competitive edge (Thunnissen and Gallardo-Gallardo 2017). Talents here constitute the competitiveness (Lepak and Snell 2002).

As its service sector is one of the leading sectors in the UAE economy, the ADG ought to take initiatives towards developing a superior approach to the strategic management of leader appraisal. This would include, but not be limited to, linking performance management to organisational performance and employee retention, setting appropriate performance targets, conducting periodic performance review meetings, binding performance to incentive pay schemes, and the provision of fair and frank appraisals while assessing talented leaders. Talent is also urged to contribute to the effective performance management function, via acquiring certain skills, commitment, and engagement in this process with the aim of improving retention levels within ADG Departments. Thus, ADG should employ strategic performance management to increase its competitiveness and preserve its key asset of talented leaders, since competitiveness means that employees tend to be happy to remain with their employer, thus supporting employee retention.

- **The individual influence of TM determinants on the level of talent retention. (Factor four: attraction and retention by enabling and empowering).**

  The impact of attraction and retention by enabling and empowering on talent retention (H4)

Prior studies that have noted the importance of attracting and retaining talents by means of enabling and empowering strategies as a means to poach and keep key staff in the organisation. As stated earlier and widely cited, employee behaviour is influenced by internal and external considerations such as employee empowerment and management style and its employed instruments (Collings and Mellahi 2009). This measure is underpinned by the application and implication of the RBV theoretical framework, organisational support theory and the foundation of SET's behavioural theory, of which OST was referred to in the previous chapters. These theories imply three types of employer treatments: supervisor support, fairness, organisational rewards, supplemented by working conditions (Eisenberger *et al*. 1986). Empowerment can be defined as 'entrusting the power of decisions, thereby allocating more power, responsibility and ability to employees in order to complete their duties' (Johenness and Chou 2017, 49). Enabling and empowering talents was indicated by numerous studies on TM practices for its relationship to employee retention (Birt *et al*. 2004; Pan *et al*. 2012; Ambrosius 2018; Al-Ali, n.d.).

This is because good empowerment practices facilitate decision-making by employees, which enables them to perform their job tasks independently. This in turn translates into higher loyalty, which would stimulate talent to enhance their capabilities, increase self-confidence and trust in management, and encourage them to go the extra mile (ibid). Hypothesis (H4) posited and tested the influence of EMP on IS. It proposed that attracting and retaining talents by enabling and empowering them would positively affect their attitudes to staying longer at ADG departments. The parameter estimate results for hypothesis H4 (path coefficient = .153, critical ratio = 2.883) failed to support the null hypothesis, where statistically significant positive influence was revealed at a level of $p<0.05$ ($p=0.004$), indicating strong significance. According to standardised regression weights ($\beta = 0.139$), the relation indicates an EMP factor, of which attraction and retention by enabling and empowering exerts the least effect over others influencing talent retention at ADG departments. Hence, the alternative hypothesis was supported and accepted (EMP positively influences IS).

Although empirical research pertaining to antecedents and results of empowering employees is in its infancy (Spreitzer 2006; Shafiezadehgarousi 2011), the result here is consistent with the findings of the very few cited studies, which explored and demonstrated a strong and positive relationship between EMP and IS [(e.g. Birt *et al*.

(2004), Wahab *et al*. (2014), Singh and Sharma (2015), Johenness and Chou (2017), Refan and Suciratin (2021), Al Mheiri *et al*. (2021) and Mangal (2021)]. Al Mheiri *et al*.'s (2021) empirical research established that empowerment was found to be one of the most influential attraction and retention factors on medical staff in the public health sector in the UAE. Therefore, this research offers a new contribution to knowledge, to the human resource management literature in general, and strategic TM in particular, by providing empirical evidence to support the theoretical models in managing the top talent. Birt *et al*.'s (2004) study tested the influence of empowering talent via integrating them, ensuring their involvement, and assigning new responsibilities and challenges, and found significant correlation between these determinants and retention, which confirms their significance to the retention of South African talents, based on their perceptions. Similarly, Ugboro's (2006) research determined the relationship between job redesign and employee empowerment, which was tested by affective organisational commitment. That research notes that empowerment, together with job redesign, has been shown to be effective though indirect interventions for mitigating intent to quit and sustaining employee retention, particularly by restructuring and downsizing the work environment. Thus, Ugboro's (2006) result shows statistically significant positive relationships between the three variables. The current result is supported by Wahab *et al*.'s (2014) findings, in which their research on the Malaysian manufacturing sector evidenced a negative relationship between the perceived organisational support, which implies management support (e.g. empowering employees), and turnover intention. In other words, the higher the rate of perceived organisational support by talent, the lesser likelihood of talent intending to leave their employers. Similarly, the finding supports RBV which encompasses the extrinsic and intrinsic as well as the financial and non-financial reward's role in their major benefits to the organisation when they are properly complemented. As emphasised by Brynne (2016), and accords with this study that the tradition of realising monetary rewards to poach and nurture the top employers no longer sufficient exclusively. Nowadays, pay satisfaction constitutes single portion beside the multiple variables proposed to talents and potential employable personnel. In addition, the finding supports Iqbal and Hashmi's (2015) empirical study showing the relationship between the POS variable, grounded by SET, and the employee retention variable in higher educational organisations in Pakistan, as mediated by psychological empowerment. The result, however, disproves Singh and Sharma's (2015) study on private industry in the UAE, which demonstrated the need to address long-term retention strategies in UAE organisations, such as supporting personal growth, succession planning, and developing leadership-related competences. These practices appealed more to the valued leaders, based on the most important ranked strategies by participants. Short-term strategies such as high salaries and performance-driven rewards seem more common and are given more focus by employers in the UAE region, to attain enhanced employee retention. Singh and Sharma's (2015) study surveyed the managerial workforce and concluded that strategies for employee value propositions were lacking, despite the region's position as a leading competitive market while offering such incentives as employee stock option schemes (ESOS). Such a conclusion confirms the findings of Ashton and Morton (2005) and Collings and Mellahi (2009), who emphasised the significance of organisational growth and job security drivers over monetary and performance-driven incentives to the quest of retaining talent. Moreover, the finding of this study agrees with Johenness and Chou's (2017) research on Taiwan, which targeted critical HRM practices, including employee empowerment, which was found to have significantly and positively impacted on employee retention.

Overall, in agreement with the findings of prior pertinent studies, this study confirmed a significant and positive influence of EMP on retaining top talent, thereby suggesting that ADG management in the UAE ought to pay appropriate attention towards supporting its talent, since it has been proven that such strategies are key to obtaining their commitment. Empowerment policies encompass setting goals together with employees, as this creates a sense of empowering talents via their participation and involvement (Johenness and Chou 2017), with employee interaction a major factor in measuring whether talents are empowered (Verhulst and Boks 2014). Thus, employees exhibit feelings of commitment and engagement and are subsequently more inclined to stay with such empowering employers, which results in their sense of belonging to the organisation (Johenness and Chou 2017). Support could also include enabling employees to apply their potential, being flexible and ethical in granting talents the autonomy in performing their jobs, supporting their career progression (as emphasised earlier), following a credible and fair approach in compensating and rewarding, and last but not least providing the best talent with global exposure (Srivastava and Bhatnagar 2010), as will be discussed in the following subsection. Promoting psychological empowerment implies that supervisors provide talented employees/leaders with support and autonomy and consider their contribution; it is considered the most important dimension, coupled with positive results such as increasing employees' sense of self-determination, their creativity in carrying out tasks, and their greater control and impact (Keller and Dansereau 1995; Pan *et al*. 2012).

- **The individual influence of TM determinants on the level of talent retention. (Factor five: attraction and retention by incentives, work conditions and performance rewards).**

  The impact of attraction and retention by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards on talent retention (H5)

In reviewing the literature, there has been much emphasis on encouraging and retaining employees by rewards, pointing to numerous strategic TM practices and their implications on employee retention, such as incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards (Rynes *et al*. 2004; Singh and Sharma 2015). Hypothesis H5 was developed, proposing that attraction and retention strategies (such as incentives, good work conditions, and performance rewards) have a positive impact on talent retention in ADG departments. After testing the above hypothesis, the obtained results showed that the parameter estimates were statistically insignificant, and therefore, the null hypothesis was supported and subsequently accepted by these research findings, which led to the rejection of the alternative hypothesis. Hence, this result suggests that IWR does not influence IS; that is, talent's stay at ADG Departments. The finding of this construct contradicts previous findings from compensation research such as Rynes et *al*. (2004), Iqbal and Hashmi (2005), Hytter (2007), Scott *et al*. (2010), Ibrahim (2015), Singh and Sharma (2015), Almaaitah et al. (2017), Alferaih *et al*. (2018), BaniMelhem *et al*. (2019), Mangal (2021) and Al Ali (n.d.) who all found a significant influence in this relationship, in studies set in the UK, France, Sweden, and the UAE ,respectively. For example, Ibrahim (2015) found monetary incentives to be the most preferred retention strategy for Emirati workers in governmental banks with the UAE. Al Ali's (n.d.) qualitative research considered it crucial to revise salaries, benefits, and incentives regularly in order to increase retention rates across UAE locals. Alferaih *et al*.'s (2018) study found extrinsic rewards to be the highest influential factor on workers in tourism sector organisations in Saudi Arabia. BaniMelhem *et al*.'s (2019) investigation revealed a positive relationship between compensating employees and their retention in the UAE public healthcare sector. Al Mheiri *et al*. (2021) provided empirical evidence that monetary rewards are one of the most significant ways to poach and nurture administrative staff in the UAE medical health sector. The approach to retaining talent within the UAE was described by some to be more monetary, as discussed earlier in the literature debate (Singh and Sharma 2015). The results are inconsistent with the study's RBV theoretical framework, in which previous TM empirical research emphasized the crucial impact of employing the various meta-analyses tangible and intangible rewards on enhancing talents' retention (Luna-Arocas et al. 2020). The finding also does not accord Iqbal and Hashmi's (2015) and Almaaitah et al.'s (2017) investigations respectively. Iqbal and Hashmi's (2015) study was conducted on Pakistan's educational institution workers. As well, Almaaitah et al.'s (2017) empirical research on the public health sector of the Arab countries confirmed that compensation and career development positively related to employee retention. Therefore, it can be concluded that showering talent with financial compensations alone does not motivate them enough to encourage them to stay at ADG departments. It is also worth pointing out that performance rewards are not an active practice across the majority of the organizations studied, as stated earlier from the research findings, which could suggest potential reasons for the obtained result.

Overwhelming evidence was provided to demonstrate incentives as one of the top factors in poaching and retaining talents; although the relationship between employee satisfaction with TM compensation and incentives strategies and organisational commitment is still under exploration (Luna-Arocas et al. 2020). Also, to Benest's (2004; 2008) argument, exploring local government agencies, it is imperative to offer competitive packages; meanwhile, such financial benefits are insufficient for poaching and nurturing new generations of talent. This debate is based on the assumption that marketing the organisational culture as a benefit is the main driver to win or otherwise lose rare talent. For example, executives ought to be engaged in enhancing and creating a positive culture perceived as a 'benefit.' In the meantime, numerous studies conclude that non-monetary compensation, alongside the quality of the working environment, is most important to nurturing employees, which subsequently leads to mitigating their turnover rates and enhancing retention, as presented by Rynes *et al*. (2004). Likewise, Hytter's (2007) study explored retention strategies in France and Sweden and indicated some workplace factors that exerted indirect impact on employee retention, such as physical working conditions, career opportunities, balance between professional and personal life and others, rewards, and provision of training and developing skills. Scott *et al*. (2010) studied social support, flexibility, and WLB and concluded that all of these have a direct effect on employee retention. However, this result has previously been described by Bohassan and Muhammad's (2021) research in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia's education industry, in which no significant relationship was detected between support from their employers and employees' attitudes towards staying longer. The result does not match findings drawn by Singh and Sharma (2015) whose research was held in the UAE and shed great emphasis on promoting employee stock option schemes (ESOS), which was evidenced as a powerful practice in attracting and retaining talent. This retention strategy encompasses granting employees the privileged 'option' to buy shares at a certain price for long-term retention; and nurturing employees, for example by promoting the organisational identity, encouraging employee welfare; providing suitable and friendly work environment, establishing social security, gathering feedback, providing mentoring and coaching interventions, off-the-job training and onsite/external career development programmes. The result was a surprising conclusion, because to Kong *et al*. (2012), this measure involves career development, which emphasizes improving the core competencies of the employee. In other words, it focuses on career motivation, identification, personal meaning, networks, and communication, in addition to career-related skill and knowledge. Therefore, it was envisaged that this dimension should have posed great variance among other studied factors in encouraging and retaining the capable talent. Overall, this hypothesis was not supported from the findings of the survey related to ADG in the UAE, although incentives, good work conditions, and giving performance rewards are powerful ingredients in keeping their star performers of talents. Moreover, despite the above-given elucidations from the literature, it has been an unexpected result, and hence further research is needed to explore and trigger further argument to provide a possible explanation.

- **The influence of other factors towards explaining the level of talent retention.**

  Factor six: the impact of job satisfaction on talent retention (H6)

Within this investigation, an extremely significant and positive correlation was hypothesised between job satisfaction and retention, indicating that highly committed employees tend to have longer tenure in the organisation (H6). Job satisfaction is defined as the behaviour, attitudes, and feelings of employees toward their experience at work (Armstrong 2003). Some workplace norms were mentioned in the literature to improve talent retention and minimise turnover intention, such as the psychological contract, WLB, organisational behaviour, satisfaction, commitment, and level of fairness (Deery and Jago 2015). Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) refers to a class of individual behaviour that is beneficial for the organisation but is not formally associated with the reward scheme (Organ 1988); OCB is manifested by one of Organ's five proposed dimensions i.e. conscientiousness (examples could be attendance and following the set rules). In this study, talent satisfaction is measured via the behavioural outcomes influenced by HRM practices (e.g. monitoring, incentive pay schemes), such as affective organisational commitment (Meyer and Allen 1991) and individually achievable OCB (Podsakoff *et al*. 1990; Jeske and Santuzzi 2015) that lead their attitudinal commitment and guide their behavioural intention either to exert their efforts, as a result of enjoying the membership to the organisation or to quit. Numerous HRM research, such as Podsakoff *et al*. (1990), Meyer and Allen (1991), The study of the Government of Alberta, Human Resources and Employment (2003), Light (2004), Deery and Jago (2015), Jeske and Santuzzi (2015) and Alferaih *et al*. (2018), have established the significant positive correlation between talent job satisfaction and their retention and intent to stay (H6). Allen and Griffeth (2001) demonstrate job satisfaction as an effective and strong predictor of talent turnover intent and retention. Several studies have found a direct negative relationship between talent job satisfaction and intent to leave the organisation (Cotton and Tuttle 1986; Costen and Salazar 2011; Trevor 2001). Shah and Asad's (2018) investigation on banking sector staff in Lahore found that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation exerts a significant influence on employee retention, in which motivation enhances employee satisfaction. The relationship is mediated by the POS (part of SET).

Hence, data revealed an extremely significant and very strong relationship between the talent job satisfaction and their level of retention ($P<0.001$). The result indicates agreement with prior research, which supports the influence of job satisfaction on talent intention to stay in the workplace. This finding subscribes to Light (2004) where job satisfaction was explored positively, as it is related to employee intent to remain with the employer. The results are also compatible with Meyer and Allen's (1991) study, which revealed that ongoing organisational commitment has a positive impact on employee behaviour in binding the individual to the employer, which organisational psychological state would obligate talents to stay. Clearly this would make them less likely to leave the organisation. Moreover, Alferaih *et al.*'s (2018) study pointed that satisfaction was one of the most significant determinants in sustaining the flow of potential and current talent in the tourism sector in Saudi Arabia. In the same vein, various studies (Cotton and Tuttle 1986; Tett and Meyer 1993; Trevor 2001; Omar *et al.* 2013) have tested the relationship between employee satisfaction and turnover and concluded that there is a negative association. A Human Resources survey in 2008 found that staff who are not satisfied with their jobs would probably vacate those jobs (Vandana 2017). If it is likely that employees will quit their employers when they feel dissatisfied in their job, then satisfaction is a predictor for employee turnover. The present result confirms that conclusion, suggesting that greater satisfaction, through emotional and affective attachment as well as increased OCB, adheres to satisfaction and turnover among talented leaders in ADG Departments, therefore influencing them to remain longer at their organisations. The finding also indicates that the governmental departments have taken steps to adopt HR policies to ensure their leadership talents are happy and satisfied when they perceive them as useful to the organisation. This enables the government to nurture them and keep them longer in the organisation.

- **The influence of other factors towards explaining the level of talent retention. Factors seven, eight and nine: the influence of employer branding on the level of talent retention. (H7, H8 and H9)**

Research on the subject has been mostly restricted to a direct influence and strong relationship between employer branding, implied in cultural dimensions, which is manifested in three leadership styles, and talent retention, for example, in the work of Hodges (2008), Dimaculangan and Aguiling (2012), Grissom (2012), Zhang *et al.* (2015), and Ariyabuddhiphongs and Kahn (2017). Therefore, this research offers a new contribution to knowledge on human resource management literature in general and strategic TM in particular by providing empirical evidence to support the theoretical models in managing and retaining the top talent. Hence, in this study, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and other factors were inferred, as they entail employee retention or turnover, provided the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions was previously well established by many studies (Halbesleben and Wheeler 2008; Braun *et al.* 2013; Mulki *et al.* 2015). Satisfaction with job, pay, and supervisor (the core elements in SET) was shown to be a strong predictor of employee intention to leave the employer (DeConinck and Stilwell 2004; Jauhar *et al.* 2017). In addition, studies show that supervisor behaviour with subordinates that causes employee dissatisfaction is deemed a critical factor in talent deciding to leave their jobs (Jones *et al.* 1996; Mulki *et al.* 2006; Mulki and Jaramillo 2011). In respect to affective commitment, turnover rates tend to result as an outcome of affective commitment and satisfaction (Oehley and Theron 2010). Furthermore, the consistency of organisational commitment has a positive impact in making it difficult for an employee to leave an organisation (Meyer and Allen 1991).

- **Factor seven: the impact of participative leadership style on talent retention (H7).**

This study set out with the aim of assessing the importance of the participative leadership approach in retaining the best talent at ADG departments. Hence, Kaliprasad (2006) argues that despite the fact that an employer may attract and nurture talent by bringing all available measures into play to increase employee retention, yet talent may still decide to quit the workplace due to bad management. As explained earlier, exploring employer branding implies a management style that varies by the regional culture. Based on Bass and Avolio (1993) and Schein (1992), participative leadership encourages and welcomes subordinate involvement in decision-making, discussion, and suggestions related to work matters. Hence, hypothesis H7 proposes that a participative leadership style has a positive impact on talent retention in ADG Departments. The parameter-estimated result for hypothesis H7 was positive and statistically extremely significant, and there was a very strong relationship between participative leadership and talent retention ($p<0.001$). Therefore, the result supports the argument that leadership style could potentially create opportunities to enhance employee retention. The finding is also aligned with the conclusions reached by Scott *et al.*'s (2010) investigation on work-life balance, social support, and flexibility, which found that cultural variance and diversity was the greatest factor in influencing employee retention. Moreover, the result is in line with findings of Pawar (2020) who argues that employer brand improves employee engagement, and is an inevitable influence in attracting and retaining talent. Furthermore, the finding accords with Clarke (2001), Jones and Skarlicki (2003) and Taplin and Winterton (2007), who purport that leadership style can undoubtedly affect employee satisfaction, and the prospect of retention, as well as the overall performance. Yet, the results are broadly inconsistent with the earlier inquiry by Mulki *et al*. (2015), conducted in India, which yielded a weak or insignificant relationship between a salesperson's satisfaction with his/her participative supervisor and turnover intention. This study strengthens the previous work of Grissom (2012) which evidenced a positive, though contingent, impact of managerial competences on teachers' turnover and retention across the public sector in America, ascribed to the necessary leadership traits that effectively promote the participation of employees in organisational decision-making. That study emphasised that appropriate implementation to make participation work well could be maintained via senior staff's effectiveness in facilitating such participation and empowerment. This is to avoid negative effects such as role ambiguity among employees or inadvertent frustration due to ineffective management or lack of related communication skills in sharing decision-making. For instance, it was reported by Smylie's (1992) research, that there was teacher unwillingness to engage in organisational decisions because of principals' leadership characteristics, e.g. unsupportive, controlling, and closed. Likewise, the findings provide support to Walker (2001), who found that leadership style is an indirect factor influencing talent retention. This study demonstrated leadership behaviour as a direct determinant to talent intention to stay in the organisation. Furthermore, this research supports Hodges's (2008) study which advocates leadership as the focal contributing factor to talent departure. Further, the finding of this study is compatible with Zhang *et al*.'s (2015) case study, investigating the influence of all leadership styles on talent retention strategies and talent retention in the context of China. The said investigation argues that the effective leadership style (namely Task-focused leadership, Communication-focused leadership, and Relationship-focused leadership) positively affects talent retention in China, which in turn is arguably distinct from the style compatible with Western contexts. Meanwhile, the former study revealed a variance in talent attitude to management style, which undermines the leadership style as an uninfluential factor, based on the Chinese tendency to not participate or negotiate with leaders in decision-making. On the other hand, Ogbonna and Harris's (2000) research on UK companies supports the potential contribution of participative leadership styles to changing certain organisational cultures. Thus, it can be seen that the success of STM programmes in ADG is highly dependent on the leadership style in the organisation. The results also suggest that investing in improving leadership and management competence is potentially extremely important, and an essential precondition for the public sector to engage in an appropriate participative management strategy, such as group strategic planning, employee consultation, and shared decision-making. This is in order to gain the benefits of increasing talent participation in organisational decision-making, such as positive outcomes on turnover and retention.

- **Factor eight: the impact of supportive leadership style on talent retention (H8)**

A strong relationship between supportive leadership behaviour and employee retention has been reported in the literature. Hence, with respect to the influence of the supportive leadership style on talent intention to stay in ADG departments, the preliminary research model anticipated a positive influence of SL on IS. Therefore, hypothesis H8 was formulated and later tested by SEM. The results of testing the above hypothesis uncovered a significant causal path between both factors (constructs) at the level of ($p < 0.001$), indicating a stronger and positive relationship. Consequently, this result provided no support towards failing to accept the null hypothesis, which leads to accepting the alternative hypothesis, thus demonstrating that SL does positively influence IS. The current result was able to demonstrate the relational parties that SET involves (Blue 1964). Based on Bass and Avolio (1993) and Schein (1992), supportive leadership emphasizes subordinates' needs and welfare, reinforces compassion and equality among them to attain further satisfaction in the workplace. The current result subscribes to Pawar (2020) who argues the employer brand improves employee engagement, and the influence is affirmed to attract and retain talent. In addition, Ariyabuddhiphongs and Kahn's (2017) investigation of Thai café employees (salesmen) in which transformational/supportive leadership seemed to negatively predict turnover intent, supports the results of this study. As well, Dimaculangan and Aguiling (2012) empirically tested a US-based scale in the Philippines, and their SEM model demonstrated a significant and direct negative impact of the transformational/supportive leadership on salesmen's turnover intentions. The findings corroborate the work of Scott *et al.* (2010), Clarke (2001), Jones and Skarlicki (2003) and Taplin and Winterton (2007), Bushra *et al.* (2011), Dimaculangan and Aguiling (2012), Ariyabuddhiphongs and Kahn (2017), Jauhar *et al.* (2017), and Almaaitah et al. (2017). The result was consistent with those findings in the literature, in line with Clarke (2001), Jones and Skarlicki (2003), and Taplin and Winterton (2007), that leadership style can undoubtedly affect employee satisfaction and commitment, and lead to the prospect of retention. For instance, Almaaitah et al.'s (2017) empirical study on Arab countries' staff in the health care sector demonstrated the argument underpinned by SET's and, hence, disclosed a relationship between the transformational/supportive management style and higher retention rates among employees. The finding is also aligned with the conclusions reached by Scott *et al.*'s (2010) investigation around work-life balance, social support, and flexibility, which ranked cultural variance and diversity the greatest factor influencing employee retention. In Dartey-Baah (2015), transformational leadership was also known as supportive leadership. Bushra *et al.*'s (2011) research in Pakistan states that the transformational/supportive style has a positive relationship with employee satisfaction, which in turn will result in lowering the intention to quit. Ariyabuddhiphongs and Kahn's (2017) investigation demonstrated that transformational/supportive leadership adopted by Thani managers would negatively predict café employees' turnover intention, through the role of trust in their superiors and how they perceive their performance. Moreover, the finding is supported by Jauhar *et al.*'s (2017) study in Malaysia, which detected a negative relationship between supportive/transformational leadership and turnover intentions. On the other hand, Ogbonna and Harris's (2000) research on UK companies supports the potential contribution of the supportive leadership styles in changing certain organisational cultures; leaders in turn are influenced and later shaped by the resulting culture, making both concepts intertwined, and hence, improving organisational outcomes as observed by Schein (1992). As was pointed out in the literature, an effective leader is one who is able to grasp and work within the boundary of the prevalent culture (Hennessey 1998). Therefore, since this study deals with a certain batch of leadership styles, having developmental and supportive leadership are implied in transformational leadership, as contended by Rafferty and Griffin (2006). Empirical research surrounding transformational leadership were deduced by this research to support the obtained result, in light of the shortage of empirical claims exploring the impact of the supportive leadership style solely on retention. The nature of transformational leadership is supportive (Bass and Avolio 1993) as it ascertains subordinates' needs and emphasizes motivating workers and giving them the autonomy to improve their performance (Bass *et al*. 2003). Therefore, the finding is in agreement with Yaghoubipoor *et al*. (2013), Ahmad *et al*. (2017), Lavoie-Tremblay *et al*. (2016), Visvanathan *et al*. (2018), in Iran, Canada, Pakistan, and Malaysia respectively. For example, Ahmad *et al*.'s (2017) research probed and found a positive impact of training and development and the transformational/supportive leadership style on academic staff's commitment in Pakistani institutions. The result is also supported by the notion of SET (Blau 1964); that is, subordinates react with positive behaviour as a result of their perceived support from their superiors (Tansky and Cohen 2001). Similarly, it supports Lavoie-Tremblay *et al.*'s (2016) investigation in a nursing context, which showed that nurses quit rapidly in certain stage during their employment. The former study was held in the province of Quebec (Canada), and showed that a positive relationship of supportive (transformational) leadership factor could predict nursing intention to stay. Likewise, other reviews of evidence, i.e. Cummings *et al.* (2010), indicated the positive effect of adopting supportive/ transformational leadership practices to improve the retention level across nurse managers. Yaghoubipoor *et al.*'s (2013) research and Visvanathan *et al.*'s (2018) study found a significant and positive relationship between supportive/transformational leadership and job satisfaction in the Iranian automobile industry and among Malaysian manufacturing employees; hence, satisfaction is vital to the aim of attaining retention in such industries (Yaghoubipoor *et al.* 2013; Visvanathan *et al.* 2018). To this effect, SL appeared as a major determinant of talent behavioural intention toward their stay at ADG. A possible explanation is that supportive leadership is about attaining subordinates' job satisfaction, as purported by Yukl (1999), and an indication to employees of a superior's concern for their occupational welfare. Therefore, adopting such leadership traits has a healthy effect on keeping the best talent. Moreover, the result may support Lavoie-Tremblay *et al.* (2016, 583), who contended that 'the transformational leadership remains the better known and most frequently studied leadership approach,' and is seen as the ideal and favourable leadership style according to employees, as argued by Dartey-Baah (2015) and Visvanathan *et al.* (2018). Therefore, the public service industry ought to put more emphasis on job satisfaction-related strategies as embedded in leadership characteristics, owing to the inevitable association between leadership competencies, job satisfaction, and retention, as well as intention to quit the organisation. In addition, leaders must be delegated to training courses to enhance their interpersonal skills, and hence, their relationship with subordinates (Jauhar *et al.* 2017).

- **Factor nine: the impact of instrumental leadership Style on talent retention (H9)**

Very little evidence was found in the literature on the question of the relationship and direct influence of the instrumental leadership style on talent retention. Instrumental leadership is manifested in leaders who focus on assigning tasks and setting up procedures, and who emphasize a high level of performance (Bass and Avolio 1993; Schein 1992; Ogbonna and Harris 2000). Instrumental leadership traits are meant to be encompassed in the transactional style of leadership paradigm (Bass and Avolio 1993; Ogbonna and Harris 2000). Thus, instrumental leadership is more task-goal oriented than employee-oriented (Russell 2011). Dartey-Baah (2015) indicated that the roots of the transactional leadership approach belong to the traditional leadership style. Rowold (2006) contends that substantial traits in instrumental leadership are prerequisites for supportive leadership, where the skills of correcting mistakes are important, such as in a coach. Therefore, after reviewing the leadership literature, it could be said that leadership traits are perhaps intertwined, and that different names for leadership attributes are coupled with leadership styles according to the argument put forward by certain theorists. Subordinates tend to appreciate instrumental leaders and respond to their directives positively, due to the presence of guidelines, assistance, and reward schemes, as argued by Tjosvold (1984). Also, in most situations, subordinates believe that following the leader's directives leads to organisational success, as superiors know most about the best strategies for the organisation's benefit (Agarwal *et al*. 1999). Hence, this would suggest subordinates' acceptance of the instrumental style of management stems from their trust in their superiors' capabilities and their assumption and belief that directive leadership would assist in better performance in their jobs, which in turn makes them more successful. The above theory proposes that such leadership traits are more convenient in industries such as high-powered distance organizations, e.g. the police, civil defence (Euwema *et al*. 2007). Thus, this study speculated H9 and hypothesises that the Instrumental Leadership style has a positive impact on talent retention in ADG Departments. The result contradicts hypothesis H9. Unlike various related studies, this research did not demonstrate the adoption of the instrumental leadership factor to be an important predictor of talent intent to stay (retention) in the UAE. That is, it appears that for the majority of talent, there is no significant impact from being supervised by effective leaders who employ/exhibit instrumental leadership traits. This null result was unanticipated in light of plentiful previous studies, e.g. Pawar (2020), who argues that employer brand improves employee engagement and the influence is affirmed inevitable for attracting and retaining talent. In addition, the finding was not supported by a handful of research; for example, Visvanathan *et al.'s study* (2018) of Malaysian manufacturing employees and Yaghoubipoor *et al*. (2013) in the Iranian automobile industry. Visvanathan *et al*.'s (2018) study found a significant and positive relationship between transactional/instrumental leadership and job satisfaction among Malaysian manufacturing employees, in which satisfaction is indeed vital for enhancing their retention in the sector, where the relationship between subordinates' satisfaction and their intention to stay long term has been well established in the literature. Indeed, the relationship could be described as inevitable. Aside from that, Yaghoubipoor *et al*.'s (2013) research proved a significant and positive relationship between the traditional leadership style (referred to as transactional/instrumental) and job satisfaction, where satisfaction is key to the aim of retaining workers for long-term prospects, as is the case in such an industry.

Meanwhile, the result is consistent with other literature, for example Wu (2009), Epitropaki and Martin (2005), Dartey-Baah (2015), and Mulki *et al*. (2015). That is, Wu

(2009), Epitropaki and Martin (2005) recorded higher satisfaction rates among workers with transformational leaders than those managed by the transactional leadership style, and hence the outcome was attributed to the rewards usually provided by transactional/instrumental superiors for fulfilling certain assigned job tasks. The imperative association between talent satisfaction and retention was extensively demonstrated empirically in the previous sections. The findings also tally with other work of Dartey-Baah (2015) in Ghana, which showed that the supportive/transformational leadership is more preferred by subordinates than the instrumental/transactional traits of leadership, as employees are inclined to be more attached and have a sense of belonging with the supportive type of leadership. Mulki *et al.*'s (2015) inquiry in India found a weak or insignificant relationship between a subordinate's satisfaction with his/her instrumental supervisor and turnover intention.

Considering the conflicting employee behavioural outcomes gained from prior research, further research is needed to augment the understanding of the effective leadership style traits and paradigms, and to conceptualise justifications attributed to the non-impact of the instrumental leadership style on talent retention at ADG. Another potential explanation could be related to subordinates themselves, and is not entirely dependent on the effective type of leadership traits appropriate for them; hence, reviewing the leadership behaviour theories buttresses the notion that leadership style is not fixed, as argued by Rotemberg and Saloner (1993). It may also be that the leadership style is not proper for all postures and situational needs, as claimed by Visvanathan *et al.* (2018), or is dependent on the context and the prevailing culture, such as in emerging markets, as concluded by Mulki *et al.* (2015), or even that these traits of leadership may be grouped or mixed in one leadership style, known as resilient leadership, that was shown to yield effective outcomes as proposed by Dartey-Baah (2015).

Overall, the above discussion, which is relevant to research objective 6 also subscribes to the study's theoretical pattern, which advocates the provision of HR bundles such as HPWS to convey the employer's appreciation, support, and commitment (Alfes *et al*. 2013; Choi 2019), and thereby engender a corresponding commitment from staff. This reasoning is justified by the psychological contract theory (Rousseau 1995) and the social exchange theory (SET) (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005).

7.7 Strategic TM framework

The seventh objective in this research was to develop and test a conceptual framework that captures the critical factors influencing talented leaders' intention to stay, and to confirm the research model in terms of its empirical validity to strengthen the understanding of TM and talent behaviour to stay in the Emirati public sector (ADG). Hence, in order to achieve research objective 7, the following research question (no. 4) was formulated:

- 'Is the proposed model effective in attempting to explain and predict talents' behaviour in respect of their intention to stay in public sector organizations of ADG?'

The sub-section below discusses how the findings of this research have answered the above research pertaining to the developed contextual model of talent intention to stay in the Emirati public sector.

7.8 Revised structural model

As discussed in previous sections, this study used empirical data, confirmatory factor analysis, multiple regression, and SEM to gain a deeper understanding of strategic TM systems through a context-based retention model appropriate to the developing region.

The purpose was to improve retention of the best talent and mitigate turnover intentions in developing countries or regions such as the UAE. If the government can anticipate talent retention predictors, they will be able to harness resources and enact the necessary initiatives and interventions to keep talent in place.

Causal models such as the proposed strategic TM framework will be able to assist organisations to understand a TM strategy that will help them optimise talent flow and retention where those unique human resources are scarce, which includes most industries. Models such as SEM are widely applicable across social research (Bollen and Pearl 2013), but need to comply with a TM strategy and fit the empirical data for this study (isomorphic) (Frank 2002). Conceptual frameworks are of limited use to actual TM practitioners, but study results might inform their planning. The results of the study measurement model goodness-of-fit indices, reported in Table 6.37, support the final research model portrayed in figure 6.21, 6.22 on page 383, according to the causal relationships among the model's explanatory variables. The emerged SEM of this investigation examined and demonstrated a set of acceptable fit indices, indicating that the developed model has an acceptable fit with the collected data. Therefore, the results of the current research strengthen the understanding of TM strategy and hence the applicability and adoption of the final model in the Emirati context of emerging countries. Three of the study's proposed factors, (Leadership Development Effectiveness—LDE, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards—IWR and the Instrumental Leadership Style—IL) had an ineffectual impact on the dependent variable, Talent Intention to Stay—IS, and hence were excluded from the research final model. Thus, talent intention to stay (IS) can be significantly influenced by six constructs, along with twenty-eight variables. The latent variables are: Leadership Development Programme—LDP, Performance Appraisal—PA, Attraction and Retention

Strategies by Enabling and Empowering talents—EMP, Participative Leadership—PL, Supportive Leadership—SL, and Talent Satisfaction—TS.

According to the results of the stepwise regression analysis (MRA) employing a stepwise method, the effective factors were reported (Table 6.24). MRA yields the independence of variances explained by each predictor as it fairly examines and ranks the predictors in terms of the 'more explanatory' ones compared with other predictors within the employed sample. Based on the final model emerged by stepwise regression analysis, the explanatory variable of instrumental leadership was excluded as ineffective on the dependent variable. Moreover, the rank of the predictors according to their importance to the dependent variable (retention: intention to stay) are: 1. Job Satisfaction, 2. Supportive Leadership, 3. Participative Leadership, 4. Leadership Development Programme, 5. Performance Appraisal, 6. Leadership Development Effectiveness, 7. Attraction and Retention by Empowering talents, 8. Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards; hence, they are the most explanatory predictors of talents' intention to stay. It is very important for the senior leaders to recognise the levels of explanation exhibited by each factor, so that they decide to allocate the appropriate resources accordingly. The researcher chose to adopt the SEM model for its efficiencies over the regression model.

Furthermore, in assessing the explanatory power of the final research model, Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC) analysis was run for SEM and the calculated estimates show that the explanatory power of the proposed model of this research (in respect of DV: talent's intention to stay) is rated at 0.377, indicating that the predictors of IS explain 37.7% of variance. As well, the path statistics (total effects of the research construct on the main research dependent variable IS) exhibited in table 5.39 revealed that the largest impact on talent intention to stay in ADG organisations is 'Talent's Job

Satisfaction' TS regression weight = 0.302), (p-value <0.001), followed by, in order of importance, the determinants: 'Leadership Development Programme LDP' (standardised regression weight= 0.292) (p-value <0.05), then 'SL Supportive Leadership' (standardised regression weight= 0.244); then PL 'Participative Leadership' (0.207) (p-value <0.001) and 'Performance Appraisal PA' (0.187) (p-value <0.05). However, the smallest effect was obtained from SMC analysis was the influence of 'Attraction and Retention by Empowering EMP' on the study dependent variable IS (standardised regression weight= 0.153) (p-value <0.05).

The above discussion has demonstrated how the proposed SEM model of this study imparts appropriate understanding of the pivotal factors influencing talent intention to stay for the long-term prospect in governmental departments in UAE. The emerged TM insights into developing country or regional settings are applicable to senior management and human resource practitioners in similar contexts. Moreover, the final retention model can guide attention and redirect efforts to reform TM strategies based on the core areas that are potentially the most relevant determinants to attract and retain talents.

7.9 Chapter summary

A discussion about the study questionnaire results was offered in this chapter. It has highlighted the key findings associated with the individual research question within the frame of the literature, in order to demonstrate how the research objectives have been achieved.

Overall, six of the nine variables tested in the research model were shown to have a significant and direct impact on talent intention to stay. Hence, the variables: Leadership Development Programme—LDP, Performance Appraisal—PA, Attraction and Retention

Strategies by Enabling and Empowering talents—EMP, Participative Leadership—PL, Supportive Leadership—SL and Talent Satisfaction—TS, have been integrated in the final model. Meanwhile, LDE, IWR and IL had no significant influence on IS and since then have been excluded.

The final retention model offered in the study was, therefore, validated, confirmed, and proved to be effective in explaining talent intentions to stay for the long-term prospect.

In the final summarizing chapter, as the thesis turns towards conclusions, the limitations of the study are listed and the recommendations emerging from its findings are highlighted. Finally, various directions for future research are suggested.

CHAPTER EIGHT: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter has seven sections, including this introduction. Thus, section 8.2 offers the key findings of the study, in compliance with the research objectives stated in Chapter one. The theoretical and practical contributions of the research are displayed in section 8.3, while section 8.4 puts forward recommendations for ADG and developing countries in the quest to attract and keep high-potential talent for the long term in public service organisations. The limitations of the current study are detailed in section 8.5. Finally, section 8.6 describes some possible directions for future research.

8.1 Key findings

This section presents the study's key findings and demonstrates how the results have fulfilled its research objectives. As stated earlier, the study aims to examine and test appropriate TM strategies for Abu Dhabi public sector departments, with the aim of gauging their impact on rare talent retention in order to sustain the flow of Emirati talented leaders. (Applying strategic TM to the UAE context, with its distinctive organisational and cultural settings, will also offer a new perspective. on the practice.) In view of the current economic downturn and various other troubles, the UAE government is facing growing pressure to promote and support its citizens' national interests, including their employment and career development. There is a shortage of talent in the UAE, due to a lack of appropriate TM strategies to address the need to develop and retain a talented workforce. As such, this research was inspired by the Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030 (2008, 6), and its goals for social and human resources development, which state: 'The Government aims to ensure the availability of a stable supply of high quality labour to staff the economy, and especially to encourage full employment among Nationals.' Empirical data from the study questionnaires produced strong evidence and interesting findings, and the research objectives were fulfilled, as seen in in sections 8.2.1–8.2.6 below, by obtaining answers to the following central questions:

- ‘What are the TM strategies adopted by the UAE government in the public service sector?’
- ‘What is the influence of selected factors related to TM on talent satisfaction and retention at ADG?’
- ‘Is the proposed model effective in attempting to explain and predict talent behaviour in respect of their intention to stay in the public sector organisations of ADG?’

The subsection below will offer a brief summary and critique of the findings and illustrate how they answered the above research questions.

8.1.1 Research Objective 1

The first research objective aimed to review the strategies and practices related to strategic TM and its implementation at ADG departments. This objective was achieved via a critical review of the key strategic HRM literature on strategic TM and retention. Through this review, the aim was to identify key strategies, evaluate theoretical models by Collings and Mellahi (2009), among many others, and examine the adoption of strategic TM in the UAE and their impact on talent retention. In addition, the intention was to review SHRM theories and core practices in the literature on strategic TM implementation that have been identified as promoting talent retention (see Chapters two and three), particularly in the public service sector. This was the basis for developing the proposed theoretical and conceptual framework for the measurement model and the structural equation model, which have been found appropriate for the ADG context. This framework serves as the guide for this investigation. A robust review of the academic work consulted had not been conducted in previously published strategic TM studies. Based on this review, nine factors were considered significant, and were included in the theoretical model and relevant hypothesis in order to assess the relationship between predominant/identified strategic TM factors and talent retention.

This assessment was achieved by surveying UAE national talent perceptions across the public service sector. Factors identified were: LDP = Leadership Development Programme, LDE = Leadership Development Effectiveness, PA = Performance Appraisal System, IWR = Attraction and Retention Strategies by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards, EMP = Attraction and Retention Strategies by Empowering and Enabling Talent, TS = Talent Satisfaction, PL = Participative Leadership, SL = Supportive Leadership, and IL = Instrumental Leadership.

8.1.2 Research Objective 2

One main goal of the current study was to determine the TM strategies adopted at ADG departments through the perspective of talent themselves. It was essential to identify these strategies in order to implement this study and to understand the issues affecting retention. This objective was achieved from the descriptive statistics analysis of quantitative data (Chapter six, section 6.5.3 and Chapter seven, section 6.2), in which the relatively high scores revealed the TM strategies implemented by ADGDs. These were: Leadership Development Programme – LDP, Leadership Development Effectiveness – LDE, Performance Appraisal – PA, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards – IWR, Talent Satisfaction – TS, and Supportive Leadership – SL. Accordingly, these practices are deemed key to the strategic TM in the UAE government context, while two others were not significant (and not in use by ADGD).

As revealed from the quantitative data analysis, the strategies adopted are common practice in organisations (see Chapters two and three). ADGDs implement them to help retain executive talent. Thus, one of the more significant findings to emerge from this study is that it has been affirmed that key elements of strategic TM are implemented by ADG. Moreover, the relevance of strategic TM to employer branding, as ADG is seen to nurture its executive talents, is clearly supported by the current findings, which are foundational to the other research goals.

8.1.3 Research Objective 3

The third research objective was to explicitly assess the effectiveness of strategic TM programme implementation on talent retention at ADG departments. Hence, the most obvious finding to emerge from this study is that talented leaders do intend to remain at ADG organisations, although the emerging literature from 2019 suggests that one reason may be the uncertain UAE job market, and that workers may be staying in their jobs owing to that uncertainty. The research findings of this study align with the literature and the various theories about the inevitable association that exists between HRM practices and retention across employees; in addition, the published survey results, pointed to a turnover drop from 11% to 8% between 2018 and 2019.

8.1.4 Research Objective 4

The fourth research objective was to assess the effectiveness of the strategic TM programme implementation in enabling talent satisfaction at ADG departments. This objective was achieved by analysing the descriptive statistics (see Chapter 6, section 6.5.3.7 and Chapter 7, section 7.4). Abundant studies have addressed the critical association between employee job satisfaction and talent intention to stay or leave. The results of this investigation show talent satisfaction from the perspective of study respondents. Some established determinants of job satisfaction for GCC national talent were found to have been adopted by ADG departments. These are: designations, job titles, and the power of hierarchical authority which stimulates talent commitment, motivation, engagement, and satisfaction in middle leadership roles. In addition, other HR practices such as intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (career progression and the provision of learning and development interventions) and affective organisational commitment are also implemented. Based on study participant scores, other core contributors to talent satisfaction were appropriate work environments and working conditions, and job autonomy. Leadership styles were also found to play a part. Hence, the present results show the significance of at least two major aspects: talent retention and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. It can be said that the inclusion of the talent satisfaction dimension is a vital element in ADGDs' talent retention strategy; hence, this study proposes that an integrated talent satisfaction factor strengthens an effective TM strategy, and specifically in the context of local public departments in the UAE.

8.1.5 Research Objective 5

The fifth objective was attained by using a descriptive test to analyse prevailing leadership behaviour at ADG. Analysis of the test offers empirical evidence that two of the leadership behaviours are being implemented at ADG departments, which reinforces the integrated approach of employer branding with strategic TM facets. The study result supports leadership behaviour theories, and affirms the adoption and effect of participative and supportive leadership skills. The literature stresses that talent intention and actions to stay may be inseparably linked to leadership style, and therefore an integrated leadership style is significant to nurturing the best leadership talent from at ADG departments. This finding enhances our understanding of talent behaviour and retention. All the study findings will doubtless be closely scrutinised, but there are some immediately reliable conclusions, such as the fact that it is clearly necessary that employer branding be embodied by a TM strategy that assesses the whole picture rather than isolated aspects.

8.1.6 Research Objective 6

Objective 6 aimed to probe the impact of each factor relevant to the strategic TM (including the ones mentioned above) on talent retention levels at ADG departments, and to identify the causal relationships among those factors, in order to make a solid connection with the study's theoretical grounding. The results demonstrated that six variables directly determine talent intentions to stay in ADG departments: Leadership Development Programme – LDP, Performance Appraisal – PA, Attraction and Retention Strategies by Enabling and Empowering talents – EMP, Participative Leadership – PL, Supportive Leadership – SL and Talent Satisfaction – TS. Leadership Development Effectiveness – LDE, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards – IWR and Instrumental Leadership – IL were not found direct and reliable predictors and had no significant influence on talent's intention to stay – IS.

The preceding chapter has shown these findings to be support the assessments of previous studies on STM, satisfaction and leadership behaviour in predicting talent intention to stay at ADG departments. As well, the results obtained from SEM analysis suggest that, among the final model factors (see Figure 6.22), talent job satisfaction (TS) was the most impactful/influential predictor of intention to stay (IS). Therefore, SEM analysis concluded that those who stay are indeed those more satisfied with their jobs. From this, job satisfaction and affective organisational commitment were inferred to entail positive outcomes on employee retention or turnover. In a sense, Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) or 'conscientiousness,' is the psychological contract, and affective organisational commitment will make it difficult for an employee to leave an organisation. Much research emphasis was directed at the inevitable and well-established relationship between job satisfaction and talent intention stay or leave.

The second greatest causative influence on talent intention to stay is a Leadership Development Programme. Leadership development is the central strategy of SHR and STM practices. Hence, some authors have speculated, TM could be another name for leadership development (Armstrong 2006; Lewis and Heckman 2006; Iles *et al*. 2010). A strong relationship between a leadership development programme, talent acquisition, and enhanced retention levels has been well reported in the literature. It has been proven that providing development paths and equipping exceptional talents with job-related competencies, as well as career progression opportunities (all implicit in employer branding), positively influences talent to stay with an organisation. Likewise, this finding was empirically supported by numerous earlier studies on talent learning and development as discussed in the previous chapter, where both were considered a key approach to maximise talent stock.

Furthermore, the results revealed that TS and LDP were important determinants of IS. The SEM analysis of squared multiple correlations denote that they explain 59.4% of the variance in IS. This suggests that IS is more likely to be held by talents if their perception of their job is satisfactory to begin with, then enhanced by training and development opportunities that foster their capabilities, knowledge and skills. In addition, the result suggests that the ideal strategy to achieve talent commitment and retention is by developing and managing their competences through an LDP. The provision of long-term investment is valued by top talent and perceived as an appreciation of their distinct contribution and hard work. It also indicates the employer's adherence to the psychological contract, which encourages talent to stay.

Based on the study results, the third influential factor – and a major determinant – on talent intention to remain at Abu Dhabi public service organisations is supportive leadership (SL, as a result of the leaders' traits and their focus on occupational welfare (and hence employee satisfaction. Thus, the adoption of such leadership characteristics was proven to be successful in keeping the best talent at ADG.

Participative leadership (PL) represents the fourth most important factor to retaining the best talent at ADG (IS). This suggests that, in accordance with the Social Exchange Theory, talents who are headed by leaders with participative management traits feel more committed, and inclined to reciprocate their superiors' supportiveness via their behaviour towards their organisation. The literature has pointed out the implications of adopting an employee participation approach. Meanwhile, it stresses the role of leaders' competences in facilitating such an approach in order to support and empower subordinates, while avoiding any potential deleterious effect resulting from lack of communication or ineffective management, as argued by Kaliprasad (2006). The results thereby suggest that leadership characteristics such as the participative features would potentially influence key talent decisions to serve longer at ADG organisations.

As revealed from the results of this investigation, the fifth important factor is the performance appraisal system (PA). This factor plays a pivotal role in reflecting talent's decision and intention to remain or quit the organisation of ADG. Singh and Sharma (2015) stress that managing performance is a powerful means of nurturing and retaining the best performers in the organisation. Their study, conducted on public industry in the UAE, concluded that managing employee performance is tied to retention through the provision of informative and fair feedback. The current study supports that conclusion, and is consistent with earlier research which has found that managing employee performance is perceived by the best talent as an appreciation of their distinct contribution to organisational success. This is likely to result in better behavioural outcomes in terms of talent sustainability (see Chapter 7). Consequently, it has been widely agreed that PA will influence turnover intent, based on the frequency and quality of performance appraisals conducted within the organisation. One example of such an appraisal is the 360-degree feedback which was broadly noted for its merits in the evaluation process and its role in assessing staff competencies through the eyes of more than one assessor.

Attraction and retention strategies by empowering and enabling talents (EMP) is the last variable directly influencing talent intent to stay at ADG departments in the UAE, as revealed by SEM results. EMP presents the least significant direct impact on key staff's intention to stay or quit ADG-affiliated departments. Nevertheless, it does affirm the importance of the leader's role in nurturing domestic talent and managing their workflow by granting them the power, responsibility, and autonomy to accomplish their duties. This is reinforced by Organisational Support Theory (OST), which emphasizes holistic organisational support to retain the organisation's key performers. Hence, OST involves the various facets of support, fairness, organizational rewards, and good work conditions, given that each individual element has a potential effect on employees' behaviour, from an emerging market perspective here in the UAE. The obtained results suggest that EMP would encourage talent to stay, which is consistent with numerous studies that suggest strategies to attract, nurture and retain talent through enabling and empowerment.

8.1.7 Research Objective 7

The last research objective was to test and validate the study's retention-prescient model that could effectively explain and predict talent behavioural intentions to remain or quit

ADG departments, while considering the peculiarity of the UAE context. The obtained results indicated that in contrast to other developed models, the final research model is able to explain a good percentage of the variance in intention to stay (IS). This demonstrates that the inquiry has accomplished its mission in depicting the vitally important determinants influencing talent intention to stay (IS) at ADGD. The model was presented to explain 37.7% of the variance in talent intention to stay or quit ADGD. Hence, the results of this study indicate that the proposed model is valid and has acceptable explanatory power; it is, therefore, rigorous in predicting talent intentions to stay at ADGD.

The discussions and perceptions above which were established in this research have been confirmed to be reliable means to understand the significant predictors of the DV, through portraying the nature and features of these factors. Of the variables examined, Leadership Development Effectiveness (LDE), Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions and Performance Rewards (IWR) and Instrumental Leadership (IL) were found to have no significant influence on the DV; therefore, they were excluded from the SEM final research model (see chapter five for extra details). This is the most striking result, as previous studies in distinct contexts found these factors to be influential for the successful adoption of strategic TM and an implementation strategy for retention. Those studies include: Kontoghiorghes and Bryant (2004), Rynes *et al*. (2004), Anderson (2007), Hytter (2007), Scott *et al*. (2010), Yaghoubipoor *et al*. (2013), Beynon (2015), Kibui (2015), Singh and Sharma (2015); Singh (2017), Baharin and Hanafi (2018), and Visvanathan *et al*. (2018). From these *context-specific* perceptions, significant implications can emerge for how a TM strategy ought to be conceptualised and evaluated by strategic and TM leaders of ADG departments, ‘owners of talent,’ and policy makers. Other multiple stakeholders include line managers, employee unions in the UAE, the General Secretariat of the Executive Council, and the Human Resources Authority. Using this research, these stakeholders can put in place the appropriate initiatives and interventions, and allocate suitable resources accordingly.

8.2 Theoretical contributions to knowledge

As previously pointed out, strategic TM literature has scarce empirical research findings surrounding the determinants of talent intention to stay with the employer in the public sector setting, particularly in developing countries and the Middle East region. Along the same line, this is the first study which is devoted to STM, specifically strategies of talent acquisition and retention in the public sector among ADG departments. In addition, it adopts a clear and appropriate definition of strategic TM for the local public service sector in the UAE, as encouraged by Hughes and Rog (2008), Glenn (2012), and McDonnell *et al*. (2017). This is besides the role of management leadership style and its impact in forming an effective STM process, with an emphasis on talent belonging to the local demographic of the GCC region. Another contribution to the field of knowledge is the notion of integrating STM dimensions, thus manifesting the HR role alongside the organisational environment/employer branding as manifested in leadership style and its effect on employee satisfaction. To the best knowledge of the researcher, this facet of SHRM research, using these dimensions, was not formerly accounted for, whether in Western settings, developing countries, or the specific context of the UAE. Thus, this investigation may be one of the few inquiries to examine the reliability of the measurement scale; in other words, to validate the structure of TM strategies scales in Abu Dhabi, which affirms the study's constructs and constitutes a comprehensive and consolidated TM strategies scale. This investigation could be considered more comprehensive in the explored areas, with multiple strategic TM-related and other environmental variables (guided by the study conceptual framework and encompassing all strategic TM, in aggregate 5 factors plus 4 for organisational culture and satisfaction). The findings of the present research reinforce earlier work in this particular discipline; however, even though adopting TM strategies has shown significant advantages, with compelling evidence at both the individual and organisational level, this study offered some surprising findings. For example, that 1) the provision of leadership development, 2) attraction and retention by incentives, work conditions, and performance rewards, and 3) instrumental leadership were not significant, and thus not influential in attracting and retaining Emirati inimitable talent at Abu Dhabi local public service establishments. Such contradictory findings create a new, diverse, and better understanding of the strategic TM approach and the holistic view of its practices, plus additional evidence with respect to evaluating strategic TM outcomes globally, and the benefits of investing in talent development. The above discussion addresses the significance of the contextual factors embodied in the alignment of the organisational environment. Hence, this research hopes to extend the strategic TM focus by providing important insights into TM strategy by the Emirati government and bridging previous gaps in understanding. To that end, it was successful in measuring the merits of adopting an appropriate TM strategy individually and collectively. Therefore, this study assessed the advantages of strategic TM in sustaining the required level of talent retention, as well as obtaining talent satisfaction.

The second contribution of this doctoral research is that it offers reliable evidence about the relationship between each dimension of strategic TM and talent retention. Thus, this academic work considered other parameters, with new implications for the theoretical development of strategic TM. Strategic TM deals with the influence of TM systems rather than individual TM bundles, since talents simultaneously undergo multiple strategic TM practices, in which the assumption suggests each these individual elements depend on and complement each other. However, in the sizable body of literature exploring TM strategies, the fundamentals of these synergistic systemic effects and measurement of strategic TM are still nascent and developed consensus is lacking or have not yet been agreed. Therefore, this study addressed how a wide set of TM strategies exist and are distinct, in respect of the HR-related inclusive or exclusive practices, and how the adopted strategies fulfil the broad aims of TM, with an emphasis on the outcome, which was sufficiently addressed in exploring talent retention and intention to stay. The study articulates the strategic importance of TM to ADG when a talent plan is directly embedded in ADG's strategic fabric and business strategy. This study also expands on how the diverse interactive components of TM strategy illuminate talent retention for business leaders who acquire strategic prospects to implement their business integration initiatives. It also advances HRD theory through portraying the organisational and national determinants that influence TM theory and practice, to benefit HRD scholars. This occurs through validating the employed measurements and theory and providing the TM constructs and attitudinal outcomes to build a leadership bench—according to ADG Vision 2030. This would aid organisations and HRD practitioners to understand and implement strategic TM best practices in emerging markets, particularly in the UAE, such as designing TM strategy via corresponding TM system's conceptualisation and measurement in order to offer balanced understanding of strategic TM system. This study contributes to the knowledge of contextual factors that inevitably influence TM's conceptualisation, implementation, and effectiveness. For instance, rather than the frequently cited practices for retaining top talent such as training and development and job performance, this contextually based model offers the inclusion of factors such as performance appraisal and career growth, and underlines leadership style as an embodiment of organisational culture. Previous scholarship in the strategic TM field has not paid much attention to these constructs. The study takes the opportunity to highlight the strategic relevance of institutional mechanisms such as internal pressures related to the predominant social, cultural, regulatory, and organisational dimensions of ADG. Through empirical research, the study explains certain relationships and existing links between each of the individual independent variables (LDP, PA, EMP) and the dependent variable (talent intention to stay). In addition, this investigation maps the relationships between other determinants of talent retention such as the characteristics of management style (PL, SL and IL). Finally, the study explores the association between Talent Satisfaction (TS) and the dependent variable, Intention to Stay (IS), a connection that has received little attention to date. Indeed, the significant relationships within the research constructs model have not been conceived or tested in previous research , which means that this model can serve as a benchmark for further analysis in the emerging economies of the Arab world—regions that have similar features culturally and otherwise, and that subscribe to a comparable economic vision to ADG 2030: "*Developing a highly skilled, highly productive workforce*" (Abu Dhabi Economic Vision-2030 2021).

This study tested its own theoretically based model, which by surveying national talented leaders and obtaining data from all ADG public service departments on talent behaviour and intention to stay in their jobs in this developing Arab nation which is both typical and unique.

The findings of this empirical research make several noteworthy contributions to the existing body of knowledge, contributing new evidence to the study of STM that suggests the influence of theory-based HRM and strategic TM factors on Emirati talent behaviour (intention to stay) in an emerging economy setting. Various TM and strategic TM research was reviewed in the context of different economies and sectors worldwide, to demonstrate the need for further research. Analysing the extant literature on strategic

TM shed light on the lack of studies in certain areas, especially talent satisfaction and leadership behaviours in emerging countries. Altogether, this analysis of TM and STM literature makes an original contribution to the existing literature and presents a call for more.

The third core contribution of this investigation is the validation of the SEM research, STM and retention strategies model, using empirical data to convey leadership talent perceptions from the local service departments in Abu Dhabi, as part of the UAE, and a Middle Eastern developing country. The study output model is a novel integrated strategic TM and retention model underpinned by blended theories, strategic TM models and well-established constructs. This study contributes academically to theories such as Blau's (1964) Social Exchange Theory (SET), Coff's (1997) Resource-Based View (RBV) framework, and Eisenberger *et al*.'s (1997) Organisational Support Theory (OST). This is in addition to the inclusion of TM strategies drawn from the talent pipeline variables proposed by CPID (2007), which are: Leadership Development, Performance Appraisal System, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards; Attraction and Retention by Empowering. As well, this study incorporates Collings and Mellahi's (2009) model, which stresses identifying pivotal positions and then cascading talents across the organisation, as well as restructuring the positions and revising incentive schemes to engage those talented employees. In addition, the study encompasses other variables such as employer branding through behaviour (Participative leadership, Supportive leadership and Instrumental Leadership), and talent job satisfaction. The result is an appropriate model of talent retention, with a reasonably good percentage level of variance in talent retention and intention to stay. Hence, the above nine factors were synthesised and tested together for the first time to form an integrated model, a tailored bundle of strategic TM activities on a country scale/level.

The model was next tested to demonstrate its predictive and explanatory power to depict which factors influence talent intentions to stay (IS) in ADG. As mentioned, this predictive capacity can be applied to analogous geographical and economic regions. The findings of the current study provide validation evidence of the research final (refined) model, which also exhibits (good) explanatory power in predicting/explaining talented leaders' intentions to stay (IS) with their organisations. As a base for future studies, the developed model is transferable to other fields, the oil and gas industry, private sector companies, and to other public service establishments within the UAE seven cities, such as Dubai, Sharjah, etc.

8.3 Practical Contributions

This doctoral thesis has expanded the scope of STM practices in research in the context of the GCC and particularly in the Emirati local public sector. The research has several practical applications and recommendations that evolve from the study's findings, targeting human resources managers, middle managers, and strategic stakeholders, e.g., senior management at ADG departments across the different sectors. First, the study framework identifies the most significant factors that strategic management/planners at ADG ought to know when designing and implementing strategic TM programmes, since the organisational setting affects how strategic TM processes generate results. The study highlighted the direct determinants for talent retention to focus on: a Leadership Development Programme, Performance Appraisal System, Attraction and Retention by Empowering, and other environmental and external components such as Supportive Leadership Style, Participative Leadership Style, and Talent Satisfaction. The validated framework acts as a management model with the causal relationships identified between the contextual factors of STM and talent intention to stay in UAE service organisations, which can help guide specific STM and HRD practice. In the meantime, the generalisable data provides evidence of the benefits of STM to organisations and more understanding of the obstacles and challenges facing ADG departments while implementing such practices. For stakeholders to sustain the flow of talented leaders at ADG departments, they need to thoroughly grasp the effectiveness of the strategic influences on talent attraction and retention. The study framework can act as a management instrument and an implementation map to guide leaders who are engaged in the process of designing TM strategies to take the correct steps, and to gear their initiatives, interventions, and decisions towards allocating suitable resources and investing them to enhance the retention level in government departments in the UAE. Evidence that emerged from this study confirms that the ability to nurture the rare leaders who are identified as talents from an ADG perspective hinges on the interaction of STM practices with the organisational culture, and other external determinants, i.e. job satisfaction. Hence, the findings advocate the need for an integrated view of talent retention. The study model provides a comprehensive approach to strategic TM implementation to constitute an integrated contextual model that offers a bundle of strategic and competitive merits to ADG. Six important factors were identified as core drivers for talent intention to stay at public service sector establishments (Table 6.36 on page 378 lists them in ascending order, according to their weight/influence on DV). The three other contextual factors—Leadership Development Effectiveness, Attraction and Retention by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards; and Instrumental Leadership, were considered insignificant from the UAE's perspective. The study's emerged model is analogous to models by others such as Al Mheiri *et al*. (2021), whose qualitative study on the UAE Public Healthcare Sector (PHSS) used an Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) decision-making model with predetermined multi-criteria (Saaty 2012), to rank the selected variables and emphasise one that most shapes talent decision to remain in the organisation. There were differentiating motivating factors based on the various specialisms (e.g. researchers, medical staff, administrators). For instance, recognition in terms of financial and non-financial rewards was a top priority retention factor for non-clinical staff at UAE PHS. Career development was ranked as the most important variable for clinical staff, whilst empowerment was found the most influential strategy to nurture and retain medical researchers. Performance management, organisational culture, and job satisfaction factors were not included in Al Mheiri et al.'s (2021) study. In comparison, in Alferaih et al.'s (2018) SEM turnover model from a tourism industry perspective, extrinsic rewards were found to be the highest influential factor, with a negative impact on talent turnover. Talent satisfaction and its effect on talent intention to leave is a significant factor in the research study reported on here. Talent identification was not emphasised in the two studies mentioned above, whereas in the frame of this study it is distinct and exclusive to UAE national leaders in the UAE public sector. It is pertinent also to mention that Alferaih *et al.*'s (2018) model did not rank the main factors which play a crucial role in attracting and retaining the best talent in Saudi Arabia tourism sector. Pawar (2020)'s prognostic model, a non-empirical study, bolsters the proposition that elements of the employer brand (employee value proposition, HR procedures and consistently communicating and evaluating the employer brand) improve employee engagement with that brand, which has been affirmed as critical to attracting and retaining talent. Anlesinya and Amponsah-Tawiah's (2020) conceptual study for a responsible TM model espouses supporting talent development for career growth (experiential learning, coaching, and mentoring) for organisational competitiveness and sustainable innovation through identifying talent strengths across various contexts. An emphasis was given to the performance management construct in order to identify training needs and the top performers for performance rewards. In the same vein, life satisfaction, job satisfaction and work engagement are crucial elements of the TM model to boost employee wellbeing, which in turn reinforces the organisation's wellbeing. In respect of talent identification and the inclusive approach of TM, Anlesinya and Amponsah-Tawiah (2020) argue that talent includes employees at different levels, by which it is important to adopt a fair approach to talent identification and to plan development interventions for those who fall short. The above provides a guide for decision-makers to gear their interventions and efforts towards the top context-specific factors that appeal more to Emirati talent. However, models vary by organisation, which may pose a challenge to figuring out which is the most effective, based on the needs and practices of individual organisations (Anlesinya and Amponsah-Tawiah 2020).

The effect of the EMP – Attraction and Retention by Enabling and Empowering was found to have a significant and positive, yet relatively weak, correlation to talent retention at ADG departments in the UAE. However, management of the ADG sector in the UAE should continue to promote psychological empowerment for its talent, since this strategy has been proven to maintain talent commitment. Employee empowerment practices lead to attitudinal commitments which shape employees' behavioural intentions to remain with the empowering organisation. Empowerment practices promote employee participation and stimulate their involvement, grant autonomy for employees while doing their tasks, provide fair appraisals, and work exposure opportunities.

The strongest and most significant influence on talent retention was talent satisfaction, which suggests that the management at ADG should pay extra attention to satisfying their exceptional performers and talents in order to retain them. Therefore, senior managers and decision-makers in ADG ought to strengthen the emotional and affective attachment of experienced talents, who tend to go beyond expectations, through adopting HRM practices such as monitoring and incentive pay schemes, in addition to achieving the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) of their excellent performers.

Taken together, the study findings suggest a significant role for adopting and implementing a Leadership Development Programme to promoting the nurturing of talent as the next highest influencing factor among the other five counterparts. This investigation revealed LDP to be a significant factor due to its considerable effect in attracting and retaining the most talented employees at ADG establishments. This finding uncovered the fact that the provision of career exposure opportunities by ADG exerts great influence over talent intention to stay in the local public service sector in the UAE. Therefore, this finding is relevant to practice at all UAE public service departments, in that it emphasises the inevitable impact of designing and deploying learning and development interventions in gaining favourable behavioural outcomes through the affected commitment and motivation, which results in strengthening employee bonds with the employer and boosting leaders' retention and willingness to stay in the organisation.

Managers are urged to understand the organisational environment comprehensively, as well as any factors that contribute to the management of the flow of talent, before making decisions on TM strategy. On this, ADG should consider informing its strategic partners, who may help implement the proposed integrated model into business processes. As such, the second main implication to practice was the relatively strong and significant relationship found by this study between supportive leadership and talent retention. The research established the effective role of applying supportive leadership practices in increasing talent service length and enhancing their retention by their current employers in the context of ADG departments. Hence, these leadership traits correspond with the Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Blau 1964), which focuses on ascertaining talent needs and motivating them by offering them the necessary autonomy to perform their jobs. This elicits positive behaviour in exchange for the support they perceive from their superiors. It was explained earlier that the supportive leadership type is a feature in attaining subordinate satisfaction in their jobs (Yukl 1999), which also reflects superiors' concern for the occupational welfare of hardworking and talented workers. Hence, ADG should promote the adoption of such management traits to keep their best and unique talents. It is recommended that ADG convince management and HR departments of the merits and strategic value of supporting TM in their retention strategy, and to persuade them to play a proactive role in the implementation stage via allocating the sufficient time and budget to delegate leaders of ADG to attend specialised training courses to improve their leadership skills, hence their relationship with subordinates. In addition, the successful adoption of such a TM strategy, is considered a driver for ascertaining talent retention.

Pertaining to the role of STM in the future of HRM, it might be argued that STM is a succession planning tool which can help move HRM from an administrative role to a more strategic function, which would be expected to improve the quality of the public services working environment. Across this setting, cultivating an organisational culture can facilitate STM and retention, smooth the integration of talent attraction and retention into organisational processes, and support the collaboration within various divisions, such as strategy and HR, in the pursue of institutionalising the organisational culture and norms so as to consolidate the intended change.

8.4 Research limitations

Despite the extraordinary efforts made to conduct this research as thoroughly as possible, and to bridge the existing lacuna in the academic domain of strategic TM, and from a developing countries' perspective, any study has limitations that arise when generalising its results or applying its model to other contexts. Therefore, a considerable amount of research is required to wholly fill the gaps outlined in this section. As to the methodological issues, this research was conducted within the ADG sectors, and was restricted to senior management at the government (who are identified talents in ADG affiliated departments). Other levels of workforce talent were excluded while collecting data. The researcher is aware that the 360-degree instrument could be powerful in assessing TM strategies, particularly with the participation of the junior workforce, as pointed out in Bethke-Langenegger et al. (2011).

Meanwhile, the generalisability of these results is subject to certain limitations. That is, the UAE is formed of seven emirates/cities, but the study was restricted to the Abu Dhabi area; the investigator therefore considered including other cities, which could have improved the representativeness and the generalisable results, in addition to the appropriate subset of the population being studied in this research. However, the study scrutinised the entire population of local talented leaders at ADG departments, with no sampling frame, and so the study findings can confidently be seen as transferrable to the population. Including leaders of talent from the other six emirates would require more time, effort, and funds on the part of the investigator, in order for the findings to be generalised to the whole country, which consists of other emirates, Dubai, Sharjah, Ajman, Fujairah, Um Alqiwain, and Ras Al Khayma (Milanzi *et al*. 2015). Moreover, the actual study participants were nationally representative of UAE national leaders who are considered talent according to criteria set by the ADG. The research's population tends to abandon talented leaders who were excluded from the national leadership development programmes which are designed by the Human Resources Authority, as they are not UAE nationals or are not fluent in the English language. It is also unfortunate that the study did not include non-national talent who are not involved in TM strategies run by the government due to government-related constraints and applicable considerations pertaining to the workforce and nationalisation schemes.

There are additional limitations on the generalisability of these results. For instance, whilst considering the contextual variance, there are some restrictions to applying the study's offered model to other geographical zones and countries which may have various or vast conflicting conditions and may therefore be subject to other legal and regulatory variances and effects. Hence, the results should be generalised with caution. As well, the current research was not specifically designed to evaluate indirect factors related to strategic TM and indirect determinants to talent retention such as employee turnover, employee engagement, and organisational performance, or other external variables. The current study has examined only the direct determinants and core dimensions of the strategic TM, plus other integrated factors, e.g. employer branding and management style.

In addition, this research employs a quantitative approach that underlies a singular perspective (the assumption being that only a single reality exists) and measures a handful of variables to be studied, so the inquirer may neglect other potential contributors to the phenomenon under investigation. In this, a web-based structured questionnaire survey was used, where respondents returned their responses online, with a five-point Likert scale employing closed-ended questions. This is to explore the relationship between the strategic TM primary factors, via viewing the responses acquired from the sample population. Although this tool was found sufficient to understand the potential and existing influence of the STM variables and talent's intention to stay at ADG departments, such empirical investigations lack in-depth understanding of all contributing angles of employees' intention to remain in the organisation. Hence, this limitation can be addressed in future research, by employing other qualitative research methods, to triangulate the findings from a diverse array of evidence (Johnson and Long 2000). Triangulation is ‘a validity procedure for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes’ (Creswell and Miller 2000, 126). This is in addition to obtaining detailed and sharpened understanding and considering other factors and concepts relevant to TM (Johnson 1997) that may be uncovered from the analysis of the semi-structured interviews and focus groups the researcher would engage at different level of the workforce, in regards to offering new and rich insights relevant to human behaviour, rather than the limited factors involved in the survey; thus constituting a holistic picture of the strategic TM phenomenon and talent retention. For instance, ten participants can be interviewed from various establishments under ADG (Guba and Lincoln 1985). Likewise, the researcher can coordinate repeated tests to enforce reliability via sending the draft analysis for the participants to add more comments, to give them additional opportunity and thus assuring accuracy of the analysis as well as consistency of the findings (Joppe 2000). This would also tackle weaknesses of qualitative methods in measuring human experiences; for instance, respondents are influenced by policies, as suggested by Crishna (2006).

While the study discussed the supportive leadership style. which is encompassed in transformational leadership, the core dimension of transformational traits resides in its developmental side. This is attributed to the transformational effect on subordinates of such leadership characteristics (Rafferty and Griffin 2006). This research dealt with the supportive aspect without focusing on the developmental aspect of transformational leadership traits, although the correlation between training and development and transformational leadership is significant in the literature (Ahmad *et al*. 2017) and in the region, and is clearly part of UAE’s vision going forward. Therefore, further investigation is required to broaden knowledge about the effect of all features implied in the transformational style, including developmental leadership, on talent intention to stay.

The current study developed and validated a model to forecast and explain the variance in talents' intentions to stay or leave their jobs in local public service departments. Local private/profit establishments which operate under different regulations may embrace considerably distinct TM strategies and measures to retain their employees, so the study should be generalised with caution, as already indicated.

Control variables (extraneous/demographic variables that are not being investigated) have not been measured and controlled in the subsequent sophisticated statistical analysis of this study so as to reinforce the internal validity, eliminate their potential influence, and ensure that the cause absolutely relies on the employed variables, which in turn avoids inaccurate explanation of the relationship between the other independent and dependent variables of interest to the researcher. This is because the ANOVA test revealed variance in respondents' scoring by position and age of respondents, that is likely to affect the outcome and inferences if left uncontrolled. Another limitation of this study might be measuring the study's constructs/variables using different scales, as well as the analysis performed, such as factor analysis which was not performed - a justification was given in previous sections. Lastly, another limitation undermining this empirical study is that it did not focus on shedding light on any underlying market mechanisms and conditional boundaries that impact on talent retention in the UAE, such as market forces, demands emerging from interrelated product-market integration, and applicable technology aimed at accomplishing firms' efficiency, flexibility, innovation, strength, and quality.

8.5 Recommendations for future research

This research offered substantial evidence about strategic TM and retention strategy at ADG departments. Further research is needed to account for the additional areas of investigation to be explored. Hence, the study considers several recommendations for a natural extension of this specific work into other academic studies.

First, a number of possible future studies using the same or a different methodological set-up can be conducted to test the research model in other industries of developing countries beyond the Arab world. This is in order to gauge how far the study's mainstream factors can be applied, and what kind of results will be obtained in the wider context, through recruitment of different participants with different mindsets, and observation of TM decision-makers and senior management at the government level. This would help us to establish the study model's transferability.

Second, this research explored a group of factors (the direct determinants and core dimensions of strategic TM, plus other integrated factors e.g. employer branding and management style) for the aim of developing and validating an appropriate model for the ADG. In order to extend the study, it is suggested that the association of strategic TM factors is investigated in future studies, which might evaluate direct/indirect relationships between factors related to the strategic TM and its determinants, such as employee turnover, employee engagement, and organisational performance, or other external variables. There may be numerous additional constructs that would create new ways to comprehend their relevance to strategic TM implementation, and the talent retention.

Third, further qualitative inquiries and their analysis are recommended to be carried out for a holistic perspective, i.e. in eliciting new views from interviewees not encompassed in other study questions, and hence, acquiring in-depth understanding of other aspects of strategic TM, as well as the responses of talent to the retention strategies adopted. The closed-ended questions are less effective in denoting respondents' views, and it is open-ended questions that can capture talent's conceptions. In the same vein, analysing secondary data, for instance examining documents such as talents' periodical performance review reports, attendance reports, and the overall organisational performance, could add deeper knowledge of STM implementation. Moreover, the TM and retention strategies in use can be assessed based on the additional dimensions disclosed by the study's participants pertaining to their intention to serve ADG for the long term or lean towards turnover. This will help senior management and SHRM to gain further information and review the implemented strategies and examine their effectiveness in sustaining talent flow across the governmental entities.

Employing qualitative secondary research enables gaining more insights concerning talent experience and their perceptions towards TM strategies i.e. LDP, PMS and RS (Cooper and Schindler 2006). Semi-structured-interviews can be conducted to triangulate their outcome with the results generated from quantitative primary research – Survey, in order to validate the tested theories (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Strauss and Corbin 1990; Silverman 2000; Punch 2005; Bougie and Sekaran 2010), as a means to reach convergent results among both quantitative and qualitative data, according to Creswell (2014). This is owing to the assertion pertaining to the capacity of qualitative studies to disclose the emic (insider) perspective and yield enormous insights into participants' behaviour (Glaser and Strauss 1967; Strauss and Corbin 1990). Also, qualitative study prevents ambiguities that reside when it is 'inapplicable to generalise data to individual cases,' and through the occurrence of the 'nomothetic/idiographic disjunction' problem (Guba and Lincoln 1994, 106), i.e., comprehensive understanding of the narrow phenomenon and generalisation to the large scale of society. This will allow the researcher to address reasons behind TM evaluation (Denzin and Lincoln 1998; Crishna 2006; Kumar 2011) and therefore provide answers to the problems and challenges hindering the implementation of strategic TM at the ADG.

Fourth, findings gained from the current study and its validated model were obtained from recruiting certain respondents according to ADG specifications of their identification of talent, which is also relevant to the appropriateness of the study model. Therefore, the sample of this study can be extended by potential research to include UAE national talent from the remaining six emirates of the UAE, as well as non-local or expatriate talents and other local/nonlocal talents in the private sector, to predict and explain the variance in talent behavioural decisions to stay or leave those other sectors, to enhance the representativeness of the sample and, hence, to generalise the conclusions; in addition, to examine, attain, and enhance the model validity.

Potential research could extend the findings of the current study to broader knowledge, by a greater focus on exploring management style generally and the developmental aspects of transformational leadership traits, which were deemed a good explanatory and TM implementation factor, owing to the correlation between training and development and transformational leadership as has been emphatically cited in the literature (Ahmad *et al*. 2017). Hence, future investigation would produce interesting findings for the decision-makers at ADG, in examining the effect of possible features included in the supportive/transformational style, and the impact of the external and organisational culture, particularly in second world countries where it could exert a significant influence on talent intention to stay. Lastly, future research could also adopt robust theoretical groundings to explore the potential influential factors that impact talent retention at macro (country), meso (institutional) and micro (individual) levels in terms of the employed analysis. This is to examine TM strategies according to the political or legislative environment, or in various groupings, teams, or entities and establishments, implicating national schemes, governance or cultures, as well as measuring talent retention based on the individual level, involving employee beliefs, intentions, and feelings.

REFERENCES

Abdalla, I. M., Al-Waqfi, M. A., Harb, N., Hijazi, R. H., & Zoubeidi, T. (2010). 'Labour Policy And Determinants Of Employment And Wages In A Developing Economy With Labour Shortage', *Labour,* 24(2), pp.163–177. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9914.2010.00474.x (Accessed: 6 March 2016).

Abdul, N., Syed, S.J., Roshidi, H., Embi, R. & Rahmat, A.K. (2012). 'Managing Talent In Two Leading Companies In Malaysia', *International Conference On Technology And Management*, Vol. 21, pp.125-130.

Abeysekera, R. (2007). 'The Impact Of Human Resource Management Practices On Marketing Executive Turnover Of Leasing Companies In Sri Lanka', *Contemporary Management Research,* 3(3). https://doi.org/10.7903/cmr.94.

ABG. Arabian Business Global (2020). 'Managers Suffer Communication Breakdown', Available at: https://www.arabianbusiness.com/managers-suffer-communication-breakdow50133.html (Accessed: 12 June 2020).

Abubakr, M. (2006). *Managing Human Resource In The Middle East: Human Resource Management In The UAE.* London: Taylor & Francis Ltd.

Abu Dhabi Economic Vision 2030 (2008). *Abu Dhabi: Abu Dhabi Council For Economic Development & Others*. Available at: file://jmu.ac.uk/pfs/hs04i/store10/hs214046/downloads/abu%20dhabi%ec%9d%98%20%ea%b2%bd%ec%a0%9c%eb%b0%9c%ec%a0%84%eb%b9%84%ec%a0%84%202030.pdf (Accessed: 23 August 2020).

Abu Dhabi, Economic Vision-2030 (2021), Available at: Https://U.Ae/En/About-The-Uae/Strategies-Initiatives-And-Awards/Local-Governments-Strategies-And-Plans/Abu-Dhabi-Economic-Vision-2030. (Accessed: 6 December 2021).

Acharya, P., Garcia-Tapial, J. And Jena, L.K. (2021). 'Millennial Turnover Intentions: How Can B-Schools Make A Difference?', *Development And Learning In Organizations: An International Journal.* DOI:10.1108/DLO-01-2021-0005

ADAA. (2016). *The UAE Accountability Report.* Available at: file:///c:/users/user/desktop/talent%20mgt/annual%20report%202015%20uae.pdf (Accessed: 13 March 2016).

ADG. (2016). ADG Strategic Plan 2030. Available at: http://www.abudhabi.ae/egovpoolportalwar/appmanager/adegp/citizen?_nfpb=true&pagelabel=p4200113791218444260839&lang=en (Accessed: 6 March 2016).

ADI. (2016a). *The Arab Development Initiative*. Available at: http://arabdevelopment.com/en/content/in news (Accessed: 10 March 2016).

ADI. (2016b). *Qudurat Report*. Available at: http://arabdevelopment.com/en/content/in news (Accessed: 10 March 2016).

ADSG. (2019). *Abu Dhabi School Of Government*. Available at: https:// adsg.gov.ae/. (Accessed: 2 May 2019).

ADG. (2016). *Abu Dhabi Egovernment Departments*. Available at: https://www.abudhabi.ae/portal/public/en/departments?_adf.ctrl-state=6572jc9964& (Accessed: 15 April 2016).

Afiouni, F., Karam, C.M., And El-Hajj, H. (2013), 'The HR Value Proposition Model In The Arab Middle East: Identifying The Contours Of An Arab Middle Eastern HR Model', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management,* 24, 10, pp.1–38.

Afthanorhan, W., Ahmad, S., Mamat, I., Et Al. (2014). 'Pooled Confirmatory Factor Analysis (PCFA) Using Structural Equation Modeling On Volunteerism Program: A Step-By-Step Approach', *International Journal Of Asian Social Science,* 4(5), pp.642-653.

AG. (2016). *ADG Human Resources Authority*. Available at: https://www.abudhabi.ae/portal/public/en/departments/departmentdetail?docname=adegp df 446 en& _adf.ctrl-state=4yo0iq6ng 4& afrloop= 3751120846464865#! (Accessed: 17 March 2016)

Agarwal, S., Decarlo, T. E., & Vyas, S. B. (1999). 'Leadership Behavior And Organizational Commitment: A Comparative Study Of American And Indian Salespersons', *Journal Of International Business Studies*, 30(4), pp.727-743.

Agend, C. C. (2006). *The Value Of Learning: A New Model Of Value And Evaluation*. CIPD, London.

Aguinis, H., Gottfredson, R. K., & Joo, H. (2012). 'Using Performance Management To Win The Talent War', *Business Horizons*, 55(6), pp.609–616.

Ahammad, M. F., Glaister, K. W., Sarala, R. M., & Glaister, A. J. (2018). 'Strategic Talent Management In Emerging Markets', *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 60 (1), pp.5-8.

Ahammad, M. F., Glaister, K. W., Weber, Y., & Tarba, S. Y. (2012). 'Top Management Retention In Cross-Border Acquisitions: The Roles Of Financial Incentives, Acquirers Commitment And Autonomy', *European Journal Of International Managemen*t, 6(4), pp.458–480.

Ahmad, A., Bibi, P., & Majid, A. H. A. (2017). 'The Impact Of Training & Development And Transformational Leadership Over Organizational Commitment Among Academic Staff In Public Tertiary Institutions: The Buffering Role Of Coworker Support', *Journal Of Economic & Management Perspectives*, 11(1), pp.417–432.

Ahmad, S., Zulkurnain, N. N. A., & Khairushalimi, F. I. (2016). 'Assessing The Validity And Reliability Of A Measurement Model In Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)', *Journal Of Advances In Mathematics And Computer Science*, pp.1–8.

Al Ali, J. A. (N.D.) "Emiratisation In The Local Labor Force Of The UAE: A Review Of The Obstacles And Identification Of Potential Strategies". Available at: https://www.anzam.org/wp-content/uploads/pdf-manager/2044_alali_jasimahmed.pdf (Accessed: 28 January 2022).

Al Aina, R. & Atan, T. (2020). 'The Impact Of Implementing Talent Management Practices On Sustainable Organizational Performance.' *Sustainability 2020*, 12(20), 8372.

Aiello, J. R., & Kolb, K. J. (1995). 'Electronic Performance Monitoring: A Risk Factor For Workplace Stress', In S. L. Sauter & L. R. Murphy (Eds.), *Organizational Risk Factors For Job Stress (pp. 163–179*). American Psychological Association. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1037/10173-010.

Aladeli, N. (2009). 'How Is The State Of Talent Management In Saudi Companies?', *Alektisadyah Newspapers*, 5670.

Albawaba.Com (2017). 'Employee Turnover In UAE Higher Than Global Average: Report.' Available at: https://www.albawaba.com/business/employee-turnover-in-uae-higher-than-global-average%3a-report-1035314 (Accessed: 12 June 2020) .

Al Ariss, A., Cascio, W. F., & Paauwe, J. (2014). 'Talent Management: Current Theories And Future Research Directions', *Journal Of World Business* 49 (2), pp.173–179.

Al Dari, T., Jabeen, F., & Papastathopoulos, A. (2018). 'Examining The Role Of Leadership Inspiration, Rewards And Its Relationship With Contribution To Knowledge Sharing: Evidence From The UAE', *Journal Of Workplace Learning,* 30(6), pp.488-512.

Almaaitah, M.F., Harada, Y., Sakdan, M.F. and Almaaitah, A.M., 2017. Integrating Herzberg and social exchange theories to underpinned human resource practices, leadership style and employee retention in health sector. *World Journal of Business and Management*, 3(1), p.16.

Almannai, A. W., Arbab, A. M., & Darwish, S. (2017). 'The Impact Of Talent Management Strategies On Enhancement Of Competitive Advantage In Bahrain Post', *International Journal Of Core Engineering & Management*, 4, pp.1–17.

Al-Faleh, M. (1987). 'Cultural Influences On Arab Management Development: A Case Study Of Jordan.' *Journal Of Management Development.* 6(8), pp.19-33.

Alferaih, A., Sarwar, S. And Eid, A. (2018). 'Talent Turnover And Retention Research: The Case Of Tourism Sector Organisations In Saudi Arabia.' In *Evidence-Based HRM: A Global Forum For Empirical Scholarship*. Emerald Publishing Limited.

Alfes, K., Truss, C., Soane, E. C., Rees, C., & Gatenby, M. (2013). 'The Relationship Between Line Manager Behaviour, Perceived HRM Practices, And Individual Performance: Examining The Mediating Role Of Engagement', *Human Resource Management*, 52(6), pp.839–859

Ali, A. (1989). 'A Comparative Study Of Managerial Beliefs About Work In The Arab States', *Advances In International Comparative Management,* 4, pp.95-112.

Ali, A. (2008). *Talent Management In Middle East. Global Talent Management*, Rutledge, London.

Allen, D. G., & Griffeth, R. W. (2001). 'Test Of A Mediated Performance–Turnover Relationship Highlighting The Moderating Roles Of Visibility And Reward Contingency', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 86(5), 1014.

Allen, D. G., Shore, L. M., & Griffeth, R. W. (2003). The role of perceived organizational support and supportive human resource practices in the turnover process. *Journal of Management*, 29(1), 99-118.

Allen, D. G., & Shanock, L. R. (2013). 'Perceived Organizational Support And Embeddedness As Key Mechanisms Connecting Socialization Tactics To Commitment And Turnover Among New Employees', *Journal Of Organizational Behavior*, 34(3), pp.350–369.

Allen, N.J., And Meyer, J.P. (1990), 'The Measurement And Antecedents Of Affective, Continuance And Normative Commitment To The Organization', *Journal Of Occupational Psychology*, 63(1), pp.61–89.

Al Mehrzi, N., & Singh, S. K. (2016). 'Competing Through Employee Engagement: A Proposed Framework', *International Journal Of Productivity And Performance Management,* 65(6), pp.831-843.

Al Mheiri, S., Jabeen, F. And Abdallah, S. (2021). 'Inhibitors Of Talent Retention In UAE Public Healthcare.', *International Journal Of Business And Society*, 22(1), pp.74-101.

Al Murawwi, M. P. M. A., Moosa Abdulla; Behery. (2014). 'Examining The Relationship Between Organizational Culture And The Moderation Effect Of Organizational Divisions At An Abu Dhabi Gas Company', *Advanced Management Journal*, 79(2), pp.48-59.

Al Naqbi, W. (2011) 'The Relationship Between Human Resources Practices And Employee Retention In Public Organizations: An Exploratory Study Conducted In The UAE', *Journal Of Business Case Studies*, 4(1).

Al-Oraimi, S. Z. (2004). *Gender And Development: The Role Of Women In The Formal Economic And Political Spheres In The UAE* (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). American University.

Al Ruwaili, N. F., Bright, D., & Alhameed, A. (2013). 'To What Extent Talent Management In Saudi Arabian Banks', *International Journal Of Advances In Management Science*, 2(1), pp.9–15.

Al Saleh, A. (2014), 'The Need To Develop Second Line Of Leadership In Public Sector.' Available at: www. slideshare.net/thehrobserver/day-1-1240-abdullah-ahmed-al-saleh (Accessed 20 January 2022).

Al-Shamsi, A.-S. H. B. Y., F., & Rutledge, E. (2011). 'Women, Labour Market Nationalization Policies And Human Resource Development In The Arab Gulf States', *Human Resource Development International*, 14(2), pp.183-198.

Alshehri, M., & Drew, S. (2010). 'Challenges Of E-Government Services Adoption In Saudi Arabia From An E-Ready Citizen Perspective.' *World Academy Of Science, Engineering And Technology*, 66, pp.1053–1059.

Al-Waqfi, M., & Forstenlechner, I. (2010). 'Stereotyping Of Citizens In An Expatriate Dominated Labour Market', *Employee Relations,* 32 (4), pp.364-381. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1108/01425451011051596.

Al-Waqfi, M. A., & Forstenlechner, I. (2014). 'Barriers To Emiratization: The Role Of Policy Design And Institutional Environment In Determining The Effectiveness Of Emiratization', *International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 25, pp.167-189.

Amagoh, F. (2009). 'Leadership Development And Leadership Effectiveness', *Management Decision*, 47(6), pp.989-999. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1108/00251740910966695.

Amaratunga, D., Baldry, D., Sarshar, M., & Newton, R. (2002). 'Quantitative And Qualitative Research In The Built Environment: Application Of Mixed Research Approach', *Work Study*, 51(1), pp.17-31. https://doi.org/10.1108/00438020210415488.

Ambler, T., & Barrow, S. (1996). 'The Employer Brand', *Journal Of Brand Management,* 4(3), pp.185–206.

Ambrosius, J. (2018). 'Strategic Talent Management In Emerging Markets And Its Impact On Employee Retention: Evidence From Brazilian Mncs', *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 60(1), pp.53–68.

Amick III, B. C., & Smith, M. J. (1992). 'Stress, Computer-Based Work Monitoring And Measurement Systems: A Conceptual Overview', *Applied Ergonomics*, 23(1), pp.6–16.

Anderson, V. (2004). *Research Methods In Human Resource Management: Investigating A Business Issue*. Chartered Institute Of Personnel And Development, London.

Anderson, V. (2007). *The Value Of Learning: From Return On Investment To Return On Expectation*. London: Chartered Institute Of Personnel And Development,.

Anderson, V. (2008). *Aligning Learning To The Needs Of The Organization*. Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/subjects/lrnanddev/general/ alignlearng.htm. (Accessed: 20 March 2016)

Anderson, V. (2009). 'Desperately Seeking Alignment: Reflections Of Senior Line Managers And HRM Executives', *Human Resource Development International*, 12(3), pp.263–277.

Anderson, V., & Turner, S. (2011).*Achieving Alignment.* Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/practical-tools/achieving-alignment-shared-purpose-agility.aspx (Accessed: 20 March 2016)

Ang, S. H., Bartram, T., Mcneil, N., Leggat, S. G., & Stanton, P. (2013). 'The Effects Of High-Performance Work Systems On Hospital Employees' Work Attitudes And Intention To Leave: A Multi-Level And Occupational Group Analysis', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 24(16), pp.3086–3114.

Ang, S. H., Cavanagh, J., Southcombe, A., Bartram, T., Marjoribanks, T., & Mcneil, N. (2017) 'Human Resource Management, Social Connectedness And Health And Well-Being Of Older And Retired Men: The Role Of Men's Sheds', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management,* 28(14), pp.1986–2016.

Angen, M. J. (2000). 'Evaluating Interpretive Inquiry: Reviewing The Validity Debate And Opening The Dialogue', *Qualitative Health Research,* 10(3), pp.378–395.

Anlesinya, A. & Amponsah-Tawiah, K. (2020). 'Towards A Responsible Talent Management Model', *European Journal Of Training And Development*, 44, (2/3), pp.279-303.

Anlesinya, A., Amponsah-Tawiah, K. And Dartey-Baah, K. (2019), 'Talent Management Research In Africa: Towards Multilevel Model And Research Agenda', *African Journal Of Economic And Management Studies,* 10(4), pp.440-457.

Anzi, S.A. & Abdi A.(2011). 'High Performance Work Systems As A Way To Promote The Talent Management Strategy In Organizations', *Journal Of Business And Economics*, 89.

Aon Hewitt (2011) 'QUDURAT Report', Available at: http://www.aon.com/middle-east/attachments/ah-qudurat-report-english.pdf (Accessed: 30 April 2016)

Apker, J., Propp, K. M., & Zabava Ford, W. S. (2009). 'Investigating The Effect Of Nurse–Team Communication On Nurse Turnover: Relationships Among Communication Processes, Identification, And Intent To Leave', *Health Communication*, 24(2), pp.106–114.

Appelbaum, E., Bailey, T., Berg, P., Kalleberg, A. L., & Bailey, T. A. (2000). *Manufacturing Advantage: Why High-Performance Work Systems Pay Off.* NY,USA: Cornell University Press.

Arabian Business (2021). 'Middle East Companies Must Address Work Culture To Attract And Retain Top Talent.' Available at: https://www.arabianbusiness.com/462143-middle-east-companies-must-address-work-culture-to-attract-retain-top-talent (Accessed: 17 June 2021)

Ardichvili, A., & Dirani, K. M. (Eds.). (2017). *Leadership Development In Emerging Market Economies.* New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
Argyris, C. (1955). 'Some Characteristics Of Successful Executives'. *Personnel Journal*, pp.50-63.
Argyrous, G. (2011). *Statistics For Research: With A Guide To SPSS*. London: Sage Publications.
Ariyabuddhiphongs, V., & Kahn, S. I. (2017). 'Transformational Leadership And Turnover Intention: The Mediating Effects Of Trust And Job Performance On Cafe Employees In Thailand', *Journal Of Human Resources In Hospitality & Tourism*, 16(2), pp.215–233.
Armstrong, M. (2003). *Armstrong's Handbook Of Human Resource Management Practice, 9th Edition*. London: Kogan Page.
Armstrong, A., K. Ward. (2005). 'What Makes For Effective Performance Management?' London: The Work Foundation. Available at: Https://Www.Bl.Uk/Britishlibrary/~/Media/Bl/Global/Business-And-Management/Pdfs/Non-Secure/C/O/R/Corporate-Partners-Research-Programme-What-Makes-For-Effective-Performance-Management.Pdf
Armstrong, M. (2006). *Performance Management: Key Strategies And Practical Guidelines*. London: Kogan Page.
Armstrong, M. (2008). *Strategic Human Resource Management*. London: Kogan Page.
Armstrong, M. (2009). *Armstrong's Handbook Of Performance Management: An Evidence-Based Guide To Delivering High Performance*. London: Kogan Page.
Armstrong, M. (2010). *Armstrong's Handbook Of Reward Management Practice: Improving Performance Through Reward*. London: Kogan Page.
Armstrong, M. (2012). *Armstrong's Handbook Of Human Resource Management Practice*, *12th Edition.* London: Kogan Page.
Armstrong, M.(2016a). *Armstrong's Handbook Of Management And Leadership For HR: Developing Effective People Skills For Better Leadership And Management*. London: Kogan Page.
Armstrong, M. (2016b). *Armstrong's Handbook Of Strategic Human Resource Management*. London: Kogan Page.
Armstrong, M., & Baron, A. (2004). *Managing Performance: Action And Impact*. London: CIPD.
Armstrong, M., & Baron, A. (2005). *Managing Performance: Performance Management In Action*. London: CIPD.
Armstrong, S., M. & Taylor. (2014). *Armstrong's Handbook Of Human Resource Management Practice, 13th Edition*. London: Kogan Page.
ASG. (2019). 'The Arab States Of Gulf.Gulf Cooperation Council For The Arab States Of The Gulf.' Available at: http://www.gcc-sg.org/en-us/pages/ default.aspx (Accessed: 15 July 2019)
Aryee, S., Walumbwa, F. O., Seidu, E. Y., & Otaye, L. E. (2012). 'Impact Of High-Performance Work Systems On Individual-And Branch-Level Performance: Test Of A Multilevel Model Of Intermediate Linkages', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 97(2), pp.287–300.
Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., & Corley, K. G. (2008). 'Identification In Organizations: An Examination Of Four Fundamental Questions', *Journal Of Management*, 34(3), pp.325–374.
Ashton, C., & Morton, L. (2005). 'Managing Talent For Competitive Advantage', *Strategic HR Review*, 4(5), pp.28–31.
Assets, M. H., Beer, M., Spector, B., Lawrence, P., Quinn Mills, D., & Walton, R. (1984). *Managing Human Assets.* New York. NY, USA: The Free Press.
Awang, Z. (2015). *A Handbook On SEM, 2nd Edition*. Kuala Lumpur: University Sultan Zainal Abidin.
Axelrod, B., Handfield-Jones, H., & Michaels, E. (2002). 'A New Game Plan For C Players', *Harvard Business Review*, 80(1), pp.80–90.
Axelrod, E. L., Handfield-Jones, H., & Welsh, T. A. (2001). 'The War For Talent, Part Two', *The Mckinsey Quarterly* 2(2). pp.9-12
Ayubi, N. (1990). 'Arab Bureaucracies: Expanding Size, Changing Roles' In Luciani, G. (Ed.) *The Arab State*. London: Routledge, pp.129–149.

Babalola, M. T., Stouten, J., & Euwema, M. (2016). ‘Frequent Change And Turnover Intention: The Moderating Role Of Ethical Leadership’, *Journal Of Business Ethics*, 134(2), pp.311–322.

Babakus, E. And Mangold, W.G. (1992). ‘Adapting The SERVQUAL Scale To Hospital Services: An Empirical Investigation’, *Health Services Research*, 26(6), P.767.

Baharin, N.L. And Hanafi, W.N.W. (2018). ‘Effects Of Talent Management On Employee Retention: A Case Study Of Hospitality Industry’, *Global Business & Management Research*, 10(3).

Ballinger, G., Craig, E., Cross, R., & Gray, P. (2011). ‘A Stitch In Time Saves Nine: Leveraging Networks To Reduce The Costs Of Turnover’, *California Management Review*, 53(4), pp.111– 133.

Banimelhem, H., Elanain, H. M. A., & Hussain, M. (2019). ‘Impact Of Human Resource Management Practices On Employees' Turnover Intention In United Arab Emirates (UAE) Health Care Services’, *International Journal Of Information Systems In The Service Sector*, 10(4), pp.21-41

Baroda, S. (2018). ‘Impact Of Talent Management Practices On Employees’ Performance In Private Sector Bank’, *International Journal Of Management*, 9 (1), pp.16-21.

Barnes, S.J., Mattsson, J. And Sørensen, F. (2014). ‘Destination Brand Experience And Visitor Behavior: Testing A Scale In The Tourism Context’, *Annals Of Tourism Research*, 48, pp.121-139.

Barney, J. (1991). ‘Firm Resources And Sustained Competitive Advantage’, *Journal Of Management*, 17(1), pp.99–120.

Barrett, P. (2007). ‘Structural Equation Modelling: Adjudging Model Fit’, *Personality And Individual Differences*, 42(5), pp.815–824.

Bartlett, K. R. (2001). The Relationship Between Training And Organizational Commitment: A Study In The Health Care Field. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 12(4), 335–352.

Bass, B.M., & Avolio, B.J., (1990). ‘Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire’, *APA Psyctests*. Available at: Https://Doi.Org/10.1037/T03624-000

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). ‘Transformational Leadership And Organizational Culture’, *Public Administration Quarterly*, pp.112–121.

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). ‘Predicting Unit Performance By Assessing Transformational And Transactional Leadership’, *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), pp.207.

Beardwell, G. J. H. R. I. P., J., & Stewart, J. (2010). *Human Resource Development: Theory & Practice*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Becker, B.E. And Huselid, M.A. (2006). ‘Strategic Human Resources Management: Where Do We Go From Here?;, *Journal Of Management*, 32(6), pp.898-925.

Becker, B., & Gerhart, B. (1996). ‘The Impact Of Human Resource Management On Organizational Performance: Progress And Prospects’, *Academy Of Management Journal*, 39(4), pp.779–801.

Becker, B. E., & Huselid, M. A. (2006). ‘Strategic Human Resources Management: Where Do We Go From Here?’ *Journal Of Management*, 32(6), pp.898–925.

Becker, S., Bryman, A., & Ferguson, H. (2012). *Understanding Research For Social Policy And Social Work 2nd Edtion: Themes, Methods, And Approaches.* London: Policy Press.

Beechler, S. And Woodward, I.C. (2009). ‘The Global War For Talent’. *Journal Of International Management*, 15(3), pp.273-285.

Beer, M., Walton, R. E., Spector, B., Lawrence, P. R., & Mills, D. Q. (1985). *Human Resource Management: A General Manager’s Perspective: Text And Cases.* New York: Free Press; London: Collier Macmillan.

Beijer, S., Peccie, R., Van Veldhoven, M., & Paauwe, J. (2021). ‘The Turn To Employees In The Measurement Of Human Resource Practices: A Critical Review And Proposed Way Forward’, *Human Resource Management Journal*. 31, pp.1–17.

Bell, A. N. (2005). The Employee Value Proposition Redefined. *Strategic HR Review*, 4(4), pp.3-3. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1108/14754390580000792

Bell, E., Bryman, A., & Harley, B. (2018). *Business Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Benson, G. S. (2006). 'Employee Development, Commitment And Intention To Turnover: A Test Of Employability Policies In Action', *Human Resource Management Journal*, 16(2), pp.173–192.

Berg, B., & Lune, H. (2011). *Qualitative Research Methods For The Social Sciences*. London: Prentice Hall.

Berger, L. A., & Berger, D. R. (2011). *The Talent Management Handbook: Creating A Sustainable Competitive Advantage By Selecting, Developing, And Promoting The Best People*. New York, NY, USA: McGraw-Hill.

Berger, L. T., P. L. (1967). *The Social Construction Of Reality: A Treatise In The Sociology Of Knowledge*. Garden City, NJ, USA: Anchor.

Bergkvist, L., & Rossiter, J. R. (2007). 'The Predictive Validity Of Multiple-Item Versus Single-Item Measures Of The Same Constructs', *Journal Of Marketing Research*, 44(2), pp.175–184.

Bernal, D. D. (2002). 'Critical Race Theory, Latino Critical Theory, And Critical Raced-Gendered Epistemologies: Recognizing Students Of Color As Holders And Creators Of Knowledge', *Qualitative Inquiry*, 8(1), pp.105–126.

Bernard, H. (2000). *Social Research Methods*. London: Sage Publications.

Bernard Hodes Group (2007). 'Playing For Keeps/Recruiting For Retention: The Hodes 2007 Workplace Study.' Available at: https://www.onrec.com/news/news-archive/bernard-hodes-group-study-reveals-that-more-companies-need-to-focus-recruiting-eff (Accessed 10 December 2021).

Benest, F. (2004). "Best Practices In Preparing The Next Generation', *Public Management*, June 2004.

Benest, F. (2008). 'Retaining And Growing Talent: Strategies To Create Organizational', *Stickiness*, 90(9), pp.1-8.

Benoy, J. And Gracias, N. (2015). 'Strategic Talent Management: A Proposed Model For Building Talent Pipeline Of Project Managers', *International Journal Of Management* (IJM), 6(7), pp.67-83.

Bersin, J. (2006). 'Talent Management: What Is It? Why Now?' Available at: http://www.bf.umich.edu/docs/keyreferencearticles.pdf.

Bersin, J., Israelite, & L. (2010). *The Business Of Talent Management. Talent Management: Strategies For Success From Six Leading Companies*. Boston, MA, USA: ASTD Press, pp.15–44.

Bethke-Langenegger, P. (2012). 'The Differentiated Workforce: Effects Of Categorization In Talent Management On Workforce Level', *Unpublished Working Paper, No. 18.* Switzerland: Department Of Business Administration, University Of Zurich.

Bethke-Langenegger, P., Mahler, P., & Staffelbach, B. (2011). 'Effectiveness Of Talent Management Strategies', *European Journal Of International Management*, 5(5), pp.524–539.

Berthon, P.; Ewing, M.; Hah, L. (2005). 'Captivating Company: Dimensions Of Attractiveness In Employer Branding' *International Journal Of Advertising*, 24(2), pp.151–172

Beynon, M. J., Jones, P., Pickernell, D., & Packham, G. (2015). 'Investigating The Impact Of Training Influence On Employee Retention In Small And Medium Enterprises: A Regression-Type Classification And Ranking Believe Simplex Analysis On Sparse Data', *Expert Systems*, 32(1), pp.141–154.

Bhagat, R. S., & Mcquaid, S. J. (1982). 'Role Of Subjective Culture In Organizations: A Review And Directions For Future Research', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 67(5), P.653.

Bhanugopan, R., Wagga, W., Aladwan, K. Petra And Fish, A. (2013). 'A Structural Equation Model For Measuring Human Resource Management Practices In The Jordanian Organisations', *International Journal Of Organizational Analysis*, 21(4), pp.565-587.

Bhatnagar, J. (2007). 'Talent Management Strategy Of Employee Engagement In Indian ITES Employees: Key To Retention', *Employee Relations*, 29(6), pp.640-663.

Rhoades, L. And Eisenberger, R. (2002). ‘Perceived Organizational Support: A Review Of The Literature’, *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), P.698
Biernacki, P., & Waldorf, D. (1981). ‘Snowball Sampling: Problems And Techniques Of Chain Referral Sampling’, *Sociological Methods & Research,* 10(2), pp.141–163.
Birt, M., Wallis, T., & Winternitz, G. (2004). ‘Talent Retention In A Changing Workplace: An Investigation Of Variables Considered Important To South African Talent’, *South African Journal Of Business Management*, 35(2), pp.25–31.
Biygautane, M., & Al Yahya, K. O. (2014). ‘Talent Management In The MENA And GCC Regions: Challenges And Opportunities’, In Al Ariss, A. (Ed.), *Global Talent Management: Challenges, Strategies And Opportunities*, pp.197–215. Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.
Bjorkman, I., Ehrnrooth, M., Makela, K., Smale, A., & Sumelius, J. (2013). ‘Talent Or Not? Employee Reactions To Talent Identification’, *Human Resource Management*, 52(2), pp.195–214.
Black, T. (1999). *Doing Quantitative Research In The Social Sciences: An Integrated Approach To Research Design, Measurement And Statistics*. London: Sage.
Blass, E. (2009). *Talent Management: Cases And Commentary*. London: Springer.
Blau, P. (1964). *Power And Exchange In Social Life*. New York: J Wiley & Sons.
Blumberg, C. D., B., & Schindler, P. (2007). *Business Research Methods*. London: McGraw-Hill.
Blumberg, B., Cooper, D.R. And Schindler, P.S. (2008) *Business Research Methods*. New York, USA: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
Blumberg, B., Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. (2011). *Business Research Methods*. New York, USA: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
Bollen, K. A., & Pearl, J. (2013). ‘Eight Myths About Causality And Structural Equation Models’ In *Handbook Of Causal Analysis For Social Research.* London: Springer, *pp.*301–328.
Bolander, P., Asplund, K. And Werr, A. (2014). ‘Talent Management In A Collectivistic And Egalitarian Context–The Swedish Case’, *SSE/EFI Working Paper Series In Business Administration,* (2).
Boudreau, J. W., & Ramstad, P. M. (2005). ‘Talent Ship, Talent Segmentation, And Sustainability: A New HR Decision Science Paradigm For A New Strategy Definition’, *Human Resource Management*:, 44(2), pp.129–136.
Boudreau, J. W., & Ramstad, P. M. (2007). *Beyond HR: The New Science Of Human Capital*. Boston, MA, USA: Harvard Business Press.
Bougie, R., & Sekaran, U. (2009). *Research Methods For Business: A Skill Building Approach*. London: John Wiley And Sons.
Boonbumroongsuk, B. And Rungruang, P. (2021). ‘Employee Perception Of Talent Management Practices And Turnover Intentions: A Multiple Mediator Model’, *Employee Relations: The International Journal.* 44 (2), pp.461-476. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1108/er-04-2021-0163.
Bohassan, R. and Muhammad, F. A. Impact Of Perceived Organizational Support On Employee Retention In Educational Organization, *Jeddah-Palarch’s Journal Of Archaeology Of Egypt*/Egyptology 18(14), 635-645. ISSN 1567-214x.
Boselie, P., & Thunnissen, M. (2017). ‘Talent Management In The Public Sector’, In Collings, D. G., Mellahi, K., & Cascio, W. F. (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook Of Talent Management.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Boselie, P., Thunnissen, M., & Monster, J. (Forthcoming). 'Talent Management And Performance In The Public Sector’, In Tarique, I. (Ed.), *The Routledge Companion To Talent Management*. London: Routledge.
Bowen, D. E., & Ostroff, C. (2004). ‘Understanding HRM–Firm Performance Linkages: The Role Of The Strength Of The HRM System’, *Academy Of Management Review*, 29(2), pp.203–221.

Bowen, P., Rose, R., & Pilkington, A. (2017). ‘Mixed Methods-Theory And Practice. Sequential, Explanatory Approach’, *International Journal Of Quantitative And Qualitative Research Methods*, 5(2), pp.10–27.

Bowers, D. G., & Seashore, S. E. (1966). ‘Predicting Organizational Effectiveness With A Four-Factor Theory Of Leadership’, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, pp.238–263.

Boxall, P., & Macky, K. (2007). ‘High-Performance Work Systems And Organisational Performance: Bridging Theory And Practice’, *Asia Pacific Journal Of Human Resources*, 45(3), pp.261-270.

Boxall, P., & Macky, K. (2009). ‘Research And Theory On High-Performance Work Systems: Progressing The High-Involvement Stream’, *Human Resource Management Journal*, 19(1), pp.3–23.

Boxall, P., & Purcell, J. (2011). *Strategy And Human Resource Management*. London: Macmillan International Higher Education.

Boxall, P. F., Purcell, J., & Wright, P. M. (2007). *The Oxford Handbook Of Human Resource Management*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Boxall, P., Purcell, J., And Wright, P. (2008). *The Oxford Handbook Of Human Resource Management.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Boxenbaum, E., & Jonsson, S. (2008). ‘Isomorphism, Diffusion And Decoupling’ In Greenwood, R., Oliver, C., Sahlin, K,. & Suddaby, R. (Eds.), *The Sage Handbook Of Organizational Institutionalism*. London: Sage Publications. pp.78–98.

Bradburn, N. M., Sudman, S., Blair, E., Locander, W., Miles, C., Singer, E., & Stocking, C. (1979). *Improving Interview Method And Questionnaire Design: Response Effects To Threatening Questions In Survey Research.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Branham, L. (2005a). *The Hidden Reasons The Employees Leave: How To Act Before Being Too Late By Recognizing The Subtle Signs*. New York: Amacom Books.

Branham, L. (2005b). ‘Planning To Become An Employer Of Choice’, *Journal Of Organizational Excellence*, 24(3), pp.57–68.

Bratianu, C. (2008). ‘A Dynamic Structure Of The Organizational Intellectual Capital’, *Knowledge Management In Organizations*, pp.233–243.

Braun, S., Peus, C., Weisweiler, S., & Frey, D. (2013). ‘Transformational Leadership, Job Satisfaction, And Team Performance: A Multilevel Mediation Model Of Trust.’ *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(1), pp.270–283.

Brayfield, A.H. And H.F. Rothe (1951), ‘An Index Of Job Satisfaction’, *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 35(5), pp.307–311.

Brewster, C., & Mayrhofer, W. (2011). ‘Comparative Human Resource Management’, *International Human Resource Management*, 3, pp.47–78.

Brewster, C., Suutari, V. And Minbaeva, D.B. (2005). ‘HRM Practices And MNC Knowledge Transfer. Personnel Review, 34, 125-144. Available at: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00483480510571914.

Brewster, C., Wood, G., Brookes, M., & Ommeren, J. V. (2006). ‘What Determines The Size Of The HR Function? A Cross-National Analysis’ *Human Resource Management*: 45(1), pp.3–21.

Brown, T. A. (2006). *Confirmatory Factor Analysis For Applied Research*. New York, USA: Guilford Publications.

Brown, P., Hesketh, A. and Williams, S. (2004) The Mismanagement of Talent: Employability and Jobs in the Knowledge Economy, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brown D, Callen A, Robinson D (2016), The relationship between total reward and employee engagement, *NHS Employers*, NHS Confederation, London.

Brumbach, G. (1988). *Some Issues, Ideas And Predictions About Performance Management, Public Personnel Management.* Pennsylvania, USA: Winter Press.

Brundage, H., & Koziel, M. (2010). ‘Retaining Top Talent Still A Requirement For Firms: Focus On People Now To Keep Turnover Costs Down When The Economy Improves.’ *Journal Of Accountancy*, 209(5), P.38.

Brunetti, A. (2016). *A Holistic Investigation Into Employee Engagement: A Case Study And Some Empirical Evidence From The Irish Securities Services Industry* (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Dublin: National College Of Ireland.

Bryant, P. C., & Allen, D. G. (2013). 'Compensation, Benefits, And Employee Turnover: HR Strategies For Retaining Top Talent', *Compensation & Benefits Review,* 45(3), pp.171–175.

Bryman, A. (2009). *Social Research Methods.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A., & E, B. (2007). *Business Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A., & E, B. (2011). *Business Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. (2016). *Social Research Methods. 5th. Edition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Brynne, H. (2016), "Moving employee talent key to competitive edge", *Strategic HR Review*, Vol. 15. No. 2, pp. 65-69.

Buchner, T. W. (2007). 'Performance Management Theory: A Look From The Performer's Perspective With Implications For HR', *Human Resource Development International*, 10(1), pp.59–73.

Buckingham, M., & Vosburgh, R. M. (2001). 'The 21st Century Human Resources Function: It's The Talent, Stupid!' *Human Resource Planning*, 24(4).

Budhwar, P., & Mellahi, K. (2007). 'Introduction: Human Resource Management In The Middle East.' *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management,* 18(1), pp.2–10.

Budhwar, P. S., & Bhatnagar, J. (2007). 'Talent Management Strategy Of Employee Engagement In Indian Its Employees: Key To Retention.' *Employee Relations.* 29(6), pp.640-663

Budhwar, P., Pereira, V., Mellahi, K., & Singh, S,K. (2019). 'The State Of HRM In The Middle East: Challenges And Future Research Agenda', *Asia Pacific Journal Of Management*, 36(4), pp.905-933.

Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership.* New York: Harper & Row.

Burrell, G., & Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological Paradigms And Organisational Analysis: Elements Of The Sociology Of Corporate Life.* London: Heinemann.

Burgess, R.G. (1984). *In The Field: An Introduction To Field Research*. London: Unwin.

Burrell, G. And Morgan, G. (1979). *Sociological Paradigms And Organisational Analysis: Elements Of The Sociology Of Corporate Life,* London: Heinemann.

Bushra, F., Ahmad, U., & Naveed, A. (2011). 'Effect Of Transformational Leadership On Employees' Job Satisfaction And Organizational Commitment In Banking Sector Of Lahore (Pakistan)', *International Journal Of Business And Social Science*, 2(18).

Butler, T., & Waldroop, J. (2000). 'How Companies Retain Their Best People', *Harvard Business Manager*, 22(2), pp.70–79.

Byrne, B.M. (2001). 'Structural Equation Modeling With AMOS, EQS, And LISREL: Comparative Approaches To Testing For The Factorial Validity Of A Measuring Instrument', *International Journal Of Testing*, 1(1), pp.55-86.

Byrne, B.M. (2013). *Structural Equation Modeling With Mplus: Basic Concepts, Applications, And Programming.* London: Routledge.

Byrne, B. M. (2016). *Structural Equation Modelling With AMOS: Basic Concepts, Applications, And Programming, 3rd Edition.* New York: Routledge.

Cable, D. M., & Graham, M. E. (2000). 'The Determinants Of Job Seekers' Reputation Perceptions', *Journal Of Organizational Behavior*, 21(8), pp.929–947.

Cajigas, T.J. & Mcgrath, J.A. (2015). 'Formalizing A Talent Management Strategy Through A Competency Model Framework', *Strategic Enrollment Management Quarterly*, 3(2), pp.132-144.

Caldwell, A. And Lestie, L. (2010) *Qualitative Reading Inventory*, *5th Edition*. Boston, USA: Allyn & Bacon.

Calnan, M. (2017) 'War for talent and skills shortages are HR's biggest problems, report reveals', CIPD [Online] Available at http://www2.cipd.co.uk/pm/peoplemanagement/b/weblog/archive/2017/05/08/war-for-talent-and-skills-shortages-are-hr-s-biggest-problems-report-reveals.aspx (Accessed 23.08.2017).

Cameron, K., & Freeman, S. (1991). 'Cultural Congruence, Strength, And Type: Relationships To Effectiveness.' *Research In Organizational Change And Development*, 5, pp.23-58.

Cameron, K. & Quinn, R. (1999). *Diagnosing And Changing Organizational Culture Based On The Competing Values Framework.* London: Addison-Wesley Publishing.

Camp, W. (2001). 'Formulating And Evaluating Theoretical Frameworks For Career And Technical Education Research' *Journal Of Vocational Education Research*, 26(1), pp.4– 25.

Campbell, J. P., Mccloy, R. A., Oppler, S. H., & Sager, C. E. (1993). 'A Theory Of Performance', *Personnel Selection In Organizations*, 3570, pp.35–70.

Campbell, J. P. (1977). 'On The Nature Of Organizational Effectiveness', *New Perspectives On Organizational Effectiveness,* 13(55).

Campbell, J.P. And Freeman, S.J. (1991) 'Cultural Congruence, Strength And Type: Relationships to Effectiveness'. In Woodman, R.W. & Passmore, W.A. (Eds) Research In Organizational Change And Development*,* 5.

Campbell, M. And Smith, R. (2014). 'High-Potential Talent: A View From Inside The Leadership Pipeline', *Center For Creative Leadership.* Available at: www.Ccl.Org/Leadership/Pdf/Research/Highpotentialtalent.Pdf

Caplan, J. (2010). *The Value Of Talent: Promoting Talent Management Across The Organization.* London: Kogan Page.

Cappelli, P. (2008a). 'Talent Management For The Twenty-First Century', *Harvard Business Review*, March, pp.74-81.

Cappelli, P. (2008b). *Talent On Demand: Managing Talent In An Uncertain Age*. Boston, MA, USA: Harvard Business School Press,

Carayon, P. (1993). 'Effect Of Electronic Performance Monitoring On Job Design And Worker Stress: Review Of The Literature And Conceptual Model', *Human Factors*, 35(3), pp.385–395.

Carter, B., Danford, A., Howcroft, D., Richardson, H., Smith, A., & Taylor, P. (2011). 'All They Lack Is A Chain: Lean And The New Performance Management In The British Civil Service.' *New Technology, Work And Employment*, 26(2), pp.83–97.

Cassell, C., & Symon, G. (2004). *Essential Guide To Qualitative Methods In Organizational Research*. London: Sage.

Cavana, R., Delahaye, B., & Sekeran, U. (2001). *Applied Business Research: Qualitative And Quantitative Methods*. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.

CEW. (2010). 'Centre Of Excellence Website Overview: Program Overview.' Available at: Http://Sharing.Ecouncil.Ae/Coe/Adgleadership/ Overview/Overview.Pdf (Accessed: 13 February 2016)

Chaisson, J., & Schweyer, A. (2004). *Global Talent Management: Fostering Global Workforce Practices That Are Scalable, Sustainable And Ethical. 8 Principles And 7 Field Lessons For Success In Global Talent Management.* A Human Capital Institute Position Paper.

Chami-Malaeb, R., & Garavan, T. (2013). 'Talent And Leadership Development Practices As Drivers Of Intention To Stay In Lebanese Organisations: The Mediating Role Of Affective Commitment', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 24(21), pp.4046–4062.

Chan, A.T. And Chan, E.H. (2005). 'Impact Of Perceived Leadership Styles On Work Outcomes: Case Of Building Professionals' *Journal Of Construction Engineering And Management*, 131(4), pp.413-422.

Chauhan, R. And Srivastava, P. (2013) 'Impact Of Stress On Organizational Effectiveness', *Wish You A Very-Very Happy New Year 2013*.

Cheese, P., Thomas, R., & Tapscott, D. (2008). *The Talent Powered Organization: Strategies For Globalization, Talent Management And Performance*. London /Philadelphia, USA: Keogan Page.
Chen, C. & Hughes, J. (2004). 'Using Ordinal Regression Model To Analyze Student Satisfaction Questionnaires', *Association For Institutional Research,* 1, pp.1–13.
Chen, Z. X., & Francesco, A. M. (2000). 'Employee Demography, Organizational Commitment, And Turnover Intentions In China: Do Cultural Differences Matter?' *Human Relations*, 53(6), pp.869–887.
Chen, J. V., & Ross, W. H. (2007). 'Individual Differences And Electronic Monitoring At Work', *Information, Community And Society,* 10(4), pp.488–505.
Chew, J. And Chan, C.C. (2008). 'Human Resource Practices, Organizational Commitment And Intention To Stay', International Journal Of Manpower, 29(6), pp.503-522. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1108/01437720810904194
Cho, S., Johanson, M. M., & Guchait, P. (2009). 'Employee's Intent To Leave: A Comparison Of Determinants Of Intent To Leave Versus Intent To Stay', *International Journal Of Hospitality Management*, 28(3), pp.374–381.
Choi, J. H. (2019). 'What One Thinks Determines One's Actions: The Importance Of Employees' Perception In Implementing HR Systems', *Asia Pacific Journal Of Human Resources*, 57(1), pp.85–102.
Chun, R. (2001), *The Strategic Management Of Corporate Reputation: Aligning Image And Identity*. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. University Of Manchester, Manchester, UK.
Church, A.H. (2013). 'Engagement Is In The Eye Of The Beholder Understanding Differences In The OD Vs. Talent Management Mindset', *OD Practitioner*, 45(2), pp.42-48.
Churchill, G., & Lacobucci, D. (2009). *Marketing Research: Methodological Foundations*. Boston, USA: Cengage.
Churchill Jr, G.A. And Peter, J.P. (1984). 'Research Design Effects On The Reliability Of Rating Scales: A Meta-Analysis', *Journal Of Marketing Research*, 21(4), pp.360-375.
CIPD. (Chartered Institute Of Personnel And Development) (2005). *CIPD Survey Report Performance Management*. Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/binaries/ perfmansr0905.pdf (Accessed: 13 February 2016)
CIPD. (2006). *CIPD Change Agenda The Value Of Learning: A New Model Of Value And Evaluation.* Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/nr/rdonlyres/94842e50-f775-4154-975f-8d4be72846c7/0/ valoflearnnwmodvalca.pdf (Accessed: 20 March, 2016)
CIPD (2007). *Talent-Management: Understanding The Dimensions*. London: CIPD.
CIPD. (2009a). *CIPD Annual Survey Report Learning And Development*. Available at: Http://Www.Cipd.Co.Uk/Binaries/Learnanddevsur2009.Pdf (Accessed: 13 February 2016)
CIPD. (2009b). *CIPD -Survey-Report The War On Talent? Talent Management Under Threat In Uncertain Times*, , Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/nr/rdonlyres/dfc760f8-f37c-4548-9470-5154073fe4ec/0/ warontalent.pdf (Accessed: 31 March 2016)
CIPD. (2010). *CIPD Annual Survey Report Learning And Talent Development*. Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk /binaries /5215 learning_talent development survey report.pdf (Accessed: 17 March 2016)
CIPD. (2011). *CIPD Annual Survey Report 2011 Learning And Talent Development.* Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/binaries/5455%20learning%20and%20talent%20development%202011.pdf (Accessed: 13 February 2016)
CIPD. (2014). *Talent Management.* Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-topics/talent-management.aspx (Accessed: 31 February, 2016)
CIPD. (2015a). CIPD *Annual Survey Report Resourcing And Talent Planning.* Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/binaries/resourcing-talent-planning _2015.pdf (Accessed: 14 March, 2016)

CIPD. (2015b). *CIPD Middle East Website New Human Resources Authority For Abu Dhabi*. Available at: http://www.cipd.ae/people-management-magazine/hr-news-opinion/new-hr-authority-abu-dhabi (Accessed: 17 March 2016)
CIPD. (2015c). *CIPD Change Website Ambitious Millennials Choose UAE As Top Country To Work*. Available at: http://www.cipd.ae/people-management-magazine/hr-news-opinion/milennials-choose-uae (Accessed: 23 April, 2016)
CIPD. (2016a). *TM: An Overview*. Available at: www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/factsheets/talent-management -overview.aspx
CIPD. (2016b). *CIPD Factsheet Succession Planning: Resource Sum.* Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/factsheets/ succession-planning.aspx (Accessed: 21 March 2016).
CIPD. (2016c). *Factsheet Succession Planning: Resource Summary*. Available at: http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/factsheets/succession-planning.aspx (Accessed: 21 March 2016)
CIPD. (2021). *Talent Management.* Available at: www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/talent-factsheet_20211203t161746.pdf (Accessed: 1 December 2021).
Clarke, K. F. (2001). 'What Businesses Are Doing To Attract And Retain Employees–Becoming An Employer Of Choice', *Employee Benefits Journal*, 26(1), pp.21-23.
Coff, R., & Kryscynski, D. (2011). 'Invited Editorial: Drilling For Micro-Foundations Of Human Capital–Based Competitive Advantages', *Journal Of Management*, 37(5), Pp,1429–1443.
Coff, R. W. (1997). 'Human Assets And Management Dilemmas: Coping With Hazards On The Road To Resource-Based Theory', *Academy Of Management Review*, 22(2), pp.374–402.
Cohen, M. L., L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods In Education*. London: Routledge.
Cohn, J. M., Khurana, R., & Reeves, L. (2005). 'Growing Talent As If Your Business Depended On It', *Harvard Business Review*, 83(10), pp.62-71
Collings, D., & Scullion, H. (2010). 'Global Talent Management', *Journal Of World Business*, 45, pp.105-108.
Collings, D., & Scullion, H. (2012). *Global Talent Management*. London: Routledge.
Collings, D. G. (2014). 'Toward Mature Talent Management: Beyond Shareholder Value', *Human Resource Development Quarterly,* 25(3), pp.301–319.
Collings, D. G., & Mellahi, K. (2009). 'Strategic Talent Management: A Review And Research Agenda', Human Resource Management Review, 19(4), pp.304–313.
Collings, D. G., Scullion, H., & Vaiman, V. (2011). 'European Perspectives On Talent Management', *European Journal Of International Management,* 5(5), pp.453–462.
Collins, K. (2010). 'Advanced Sampling Designs In Mixed Research: Current Practices And Emerging Trends In The Social And Behavioral Sciences', In Tashakkori A., & Teddlie, C. (Eds) *Sage Handbook Of Mixed Methods In Social And Behavioral Research,* 2nd Edition,, pp.353–377.
Collins, K. M., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Jiao, Q. G. (2006). 'Prevalence Of Mixed-Methods Sampling Designs In Social Science Research', *Evaluation & Research In Education*, 19(2), pp.83–101.
Collis, J., & Hussey, R. (2003). *Business Research: A Practical Guide For Undergraduate And Postgraduate Students*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
Collis, J., & Hussey, R. (2009). B*usiness Research: A Practical Guide For Undergraduate And Postgraduate Students.* Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
Collis, J. And Hussey, R. (2013). *Business Research: A Practical Guide For Undergraduate And Postgraduate Students.* London: Macmillan International Higher Education.
Colzon, J. (1987). *Moments Of Truth*. New York, USA: Ballinger.
Comrey, J. A., & Lee, H. B. (1992). *A First Course In Factor Analysis*. New Jersey, USA: Erlbaum.
Conway, S. D. (2007). *The Think Factory: Managing Today's Most Precious Resource, People*! *Vol. 1.* Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.

Conway, E., Fu, N., Monks, K., Alfes, K., & Bailey, C. (2016). 'Demands Or Resources? The Relationship Between HR Practices, Employee Engagement, And Emotional Exhaustion Within A Hybrid Model Of Employment Relations*', Human Resource Management*, 55(5), pp.901-917.

Contractor, F.J. (2013). 'Punching Above Their Weight', *International Journal Of Emerging Markets*, 8(4), pp.304-328.

Cook, T. D., Campbell, D. T., & Day, A. (1979). *Quasi-Experimentation: Design & Analysis Issues For Field Settings*. Boston, USA: Houghton Mifflin.

Crook, T.R., Ketchen, D.J. Jr, Combs, J.G. And Todd, S.Y. (2008). 'Strategic Resources And Performance: A Meta-Analysis', *Strategic Management Journal*, 29(11), pp.1141-1154.

Cooper, C., & Schindler, P. (2008). *Business Research Methods, 10th Edition.* Boston, USA: McGraw-Hill.

Cooper, R., And Schindler, P. (2006). *Business Research Method. 9th. Edition*. Boston, USA: McGraw-Hill.

Cooper, D. R., Schindler, P. S., & Sun, J. (2006). *Business Research Methods, Vol. 9.* New York, USA: McGraw-Hill.

Costen, W. M., & Salazar, J. (2011). 'The Impact Of Training And Development On Employee Job Satisfaction, Loyalty, And Intent To Stay In The Lodging Industry', *Journal Of Human Resources In Hospitality & Tourism,* 10(3), pp.273–284.

Cotton, J. L., & Tuttle, J. M. (1986). 'Employee Turnover: A Meta-Analysis And Review With Implications For Research', *Academy Of Management Review*, 11(1), pp.55–70.

Cox III, E. P. (1980). 'The Optimal Number Of Response Alternatives For A Scale: A Review', *Journal Of Marketing Research*, 17(4), pp.407–422.

Cramer, D. (1998). *Fundamental Statistics For Social Research: Step-By-Step Calculations And Computer Techniques Using SPSS For Windows*. London: Routledge.

Cramer, D., & Howitt, D. L. (2004). *The Sage Dictionary Of Statistics: A Practical Resource For Students In The Social Sciences.*London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, And Mixed Method Approaches. London*: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research Design: Qualitative And Quantitative Approach*es. London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (1999). 'Mixed-Method Research: Introduction And Application', In *Handbook Of Educational Policy,* Cizek, G. (Ed), (pp. 455–472). Oxford: Elsevier.

Creswell, J. W. (2003*). Research Design Qualitative, Quantitative, And Mixed Methods Approach, 3rd Edition.* London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative Inquiry And Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches.* London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design Qualitative, Quantitative, And Mixed Methods Approach, 2nd Edition,*. London: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. (2011). 'Controversies In Mixed Methods Research' In *The Sage Handbook Of Qualitative Research*, Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (Eds) London: Sage. pp.269-284.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational Research: Planning. Conducting, And Evaluating Quantitative And Qualitative Research, 4th. Edition.* Boston: Pearson.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design Qualitative, Quantitative, And Mixed Methods Approach, 4th. Edition*. London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2018). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, And Mixed Methods Approach, 5th Edition*. London: Sage..

Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). 'Determining Validity In Qualitative Inquiry', *Theory Into Practice*, 39(3), pp.124–130.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing And Conducting Mixed Methods, 2nd. Edition*. London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing And Conducting Mixed Methods Research, 3rd Edition.* London: Sage.

Creswell, W., & Clark, V. (2010). *Designing And Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. London: Sage.
Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, And Mixed Methods Approaches. 9th. Editions.* London: Sage.
Crishna, B. (2006). 'Participatory Evaluation (Ii)–Translating Concepts Of Reliability And Validity In Fieldwork', *Child: Care, Health And Development*, 33(3), pp.224–229.
Cronbach, L. J. (1951). 'Coefficient Alpha And The Internal Structure Of Tests', *Psychometrika*,16(3), pp.297–334.
Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). 'Social Exchange Theory: An Interdisciplinary Review', *Journal Of Management,* 31(6), pp,874–900. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602
Crotty, Michael (1998). *The Foundations Of Social Research : Meaning And Perspective In The Research Process*. London: Sage.
Crotty, M., & Crotty, M. F. (1998). *The Foundations Of Social Research: Meaning And Perspective In The Research Process.* London: Sage.
Cui, W., Khan, Z., & Tarba, S. Y. (2017). 'Strategic Talent Management In Service SMEs Of China', *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 60(1), pp.9–20.
Cunliffe, A. L. (2011). 'Crafting Qualitative Research: Morgan And Smircich 30 Years On', *Organizational Research Methods,* 14(4), pp.647–673.
Cummings, G. G., Macgeregor, T., Davey, M., Lee, H., Wong, C. A., Lo, E., Muise, M., & Stafford, E. (2010). 'Leadership Styles And Outcome Patterns For The Nursing Workforce And Work Environment: A Systematic Review.' *International Journal Of Nursing Studies*, 47(3), pp.363-385.
Cunningham, R., Sarayrah, Y. K., & Sarayrah, Y. (1993). *Wasta: The Hidden Force In Middle Eastern Society*. Weastport, USA: Praeger.
Dada, O. (2018). 'A Model Of Entrepreneurial Autonomy In Franchised Outlets: A Systematic Review Of The Empirical Evidence', *International Journal Of Management Reviews,* 20 (2), pp.206–226.
D'Amato, A., & Herzfeldt, R. (2008). 'Learning Orientation, Organizational Commitment And Talent Retention Across Generations: A Study Of European Managers', *Journal Of Managerial Psychology*. 23(8), pp.929-953.
D'Annunzio-Green, N., Maxwell, G. A., Watson, S., Et Al. (2002*). Human Resource Management: International Perspectives In Hospitality And Tourism*. London: Continuum.
Dartey-Baah, K. (2015). 'Resilient Leadership: A Transformational-Transactional Leadership Mix'. *Journal Of Global Responsibility*, 6(1), pp.99-112.
Datta, D.K., Guthrie, J.P. And Wright, P.M. (2005). 'Human Resource Management And Labor Productivity: Does Industry Matter?' *Academy Of Management Journal*, 48(1), pp.135-145.
Davies, B., & Davies, B. J. (2010). 'Talent Management In Academies.' *International Journal Of Educational Management,* 24(5), pp.418-426.
Davins, D. And Smith, J. (2010). 'Evaluation Of HRD' In Gold, F., Holden, R., Iles, P. Stewart, J. And Beardwell, J. (Eds.) *Human Resource Development: Theory And Practice*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
Dawson, C. (2009). *Introduction To Research Methods: A Practical Guide For Anyone Undertaking A Research Project. 4th. Edition*. Oxford: How To Books Ltd.
De Meuse, K.P., Dan, G., Hallenbeck, G.S., And Tang, K.Y. (2009), 'Global Talent Management: Using Learning Agility To Identify High Potentials Around The World,' *Korn/Terry International Report No. 9932*, Los Angeles: Korn Terry.
De Waal, A. & Frijns, M. (2016). 'The Influence Of The UAE Context On Management Practice In UAE Business', *International Journal Of Islamnic And Middle Eastern Finance And Management,* 9(2), pp.236-253.

Deconinck, J.B. And Johnson, J.T. (2009). ‘The Effects Of Perceived Supervisor Support, Perceived Organizational Support, And Organizational Justice On Turnover Among Salespeople’, *Journal Of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 29(4), pp.333-350.
Deconinck, J. B., & Stilwell, C. D. (2004). ‘Incorporating Organizational Justice, Role States, Pay Satisfaction And Supervisor Satisfaction In A Model Of Turnover Intentions’, *Journal Of Business Research*, 57(3), pp.225–231.
Deephouse, D. L. (1999). ‘To Be Different, Or To Be The Same? It’s A Question (And Theory) Of Strategic Balance’, *Strategic Management Journal*, 20(2), pp.147–166.
Deery, M., & Jago, L. (2015). ‘Revisiting Talent Management, Work-Life Balance And Retention Strategies’, *International Journal Of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 27(3), pp.453-472.
Daleure, G. (2017). *Emiratization In The UAE Labor Market: Opportunities And Challenges*. Singapore: Springer Nature.
Delfgaauw, J., And R. Dur (2010). ‘Managerial Talent, Motivation, And Self-Selection Into Public Management’, *Journal Of Public Economics,* 94 (9/10), pp.654–660
Dell, D. J., & Hickey, J. (2002). ‘Sustaining The Talent Quest: Getting And Keeping The Best People In Volatile Times’, *The Conference Board.* Available at: Https://Www.Conference-Board.Org/Publications/Publicationdetail.Cfm?Publicationid=581
Deloitte (2005), ‘Becoming A Magnet For Talent: Global Talent Pulse Survey Results, Canadian Edition’. Available at: www.deloitte.com/dtt/research/0,1015,cid%253d103148,00.html (Accessed: April 3 2017).
Deming, W.E. (1986), *Out Of The Crisis*. Cambridge, MA, USA: MIT Press.
Den Hartog, D. N., & Verburg, R. M. (2004). ‘High Performance Work Systems, Organizational Culture And Firm Effectiveness’, *Human Resource Management Journal*, 14(1), pp.55-78.
Den Hartog, D. N., Boon, C., Verburg, R. M., & Croon, M. A. (2013). ‘HRM, Communication, Satisfaction, And Perceived Performance: A Cross-Level Test’, *Journal Of Management*, 39(6), pp.1637–1665.
Denzin, N., & Lincoln. (1998). *The Sage Handbook Of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). *The Sage Handbook Of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
Denzin, N. And Lincoln, Y. (2018). *The Sage Handbook Of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
Deo, D. (2014). ‘Role Of Human Resource Practices On Employee Retention In Institutes Of Higher Learning In Delhi-NCR’, *Review Of HRM*, 3, pp.259–275.
Deshpandé, R., Farley, J.U. And Webster Jr, F.E. (1993). ‘Corporate Culture, Customer Orientation, And Innovativeness In Japanese Firms: A Quadrad Analysis’, *Journal Of Marketing*, 57(1), pp.23-37.
Devellis, R. (2003). *Scale Development: Theory And Applications 2nd. Edition.* London: Sage.
Devi, S. (2017). ‘Impact Of Talent Management On Organizational Performance: Role Of Employee Engagement’, *International Journal Of Management Studies,* 4(1): pp.2231-2528.
Devlin, S.J., Dong, H.K. And Brown, M. (1993). ‘Selecting A Scale For Measuring Quality’. *Marketing Research*, 5(3), P.12-17.
Dianne, S. L. (1994). ‘Organizational Change: Relationship Between Reactions, Behavior And Organizational Performance’, *Journal Of Organizational Change Management*, 7(5), pp.41–55.
Dietz, M. C., Orr, G., & Xing, J. (2008). ‘How Chinese Companies Can Succeed Abroad’, *Mckinsey Quarterly*, 3(22).
Dillman, D. (2007). *Mail And Internet Surveys: The Tailored Design Method 2nd. Ed*. Hoboken. NJ, USA: Wiley.
Dillman, D. A. (2000). ‘Procedures For Conducting Government-Sponsored Establishment Surveys: Comparisons Of The Total Design Method (TDM), A Traditional Cost-Compensation Model, And Tailored Design’ In *Proceedings Of American Statistical Association*, *Second International Conference On Establishment Surveys* (pp. 343–352).

Dillman, D. A. (1978). *Mail And Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method, Vol. 19.* New York, USA: Wiley.
Dimaculangan, E. D., & Aguiling, H. M. (2012). 'The Effects Of Transformational Leadership On Salesperson's Turnover Intention', *International Journal Of Business And Social Science*, 3(19).
Dimaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. W. (1983). 'The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism And Collective Rationality In Organizational Fields', *American Sociological Review*, 48(2), pp.147– 160.
Dito, M. E. (2008). 'GCC Labour Migration Governance', In *UN Expert Group Meeting On International Migration And Development In Asia And The Pacific*, Bangkok, Thailand.
Dirani, K., Bowman, E. Guyer, T., Kasper, R., Makarem, Y., Ray, S., Wang. CW., And Xie, L. (2018) 'Talent Management And Development In The United Arab Emirates', *Advances In Developing Human Resources*, 20(4), pp.479–498.
Dirani, K. And Nafukho, F. (2018). 'Talent Management And Development: Perspectives From Emerging Market Economies', *Advances In Developing Human Resources*, 20(4), pp.383–388.
Ditomaso, N. (1987). 'Symbolic Media And Social Solidarity: The Foundations Of Corporate Culture', *Research In The Sociology Of Organizations*, 5(1), 05.
DMA. (2014). *Department Of Municipal Affairs: Overview*. Available at: http://dma.abudhabi.ae/en/ (Accessed: 13 Feburary 2016)
Doane, D. P. And Seward, L. E. (2011) 'Measuring Skewness'. *Journal Of Statistics Education*, 19(2), pp.1-18.
Donnelly, N., & Dowling, P. (2010). 'Managing Globalization And International HRM', In Connell J., & Teo, S. (Eds.), *Strategic HRM: Contemporary Issues In The Asia Pacific Region* (pp. 60-84). Melbourne, Australia: Tilde University Press.
Dowell, B., & Silzer, B. (2010). *The Professional Practice Series: Strategy-Driven Talent Management: A Leadership Imperative.* San Francisco, USA: Wiley.
Dries, N. (2013), 'The Psychology Of Talent Management: A Review And Research Agenda', *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), pp.272-285.
Dries, N. & Pepermans, R. (2008). 'Real High−Potential Careers: An Empirical Study Into The Perspectives Of Organisations And High Potentials', *Personnel Review,* 37(1), pp.85-108.
Drori, I., Wrzesniewski, A., & Ellis, S. (2011). 'Cultural Clashes In A Merger Of Equals: The Case Of High-Tech Start-Ups', *Human Resource Management,* 50(5), pp.625–649.
Eabrasu, M., & Al Ariss, A. (2012). 'Socially Responsible Employee Management: Case Studies From Saudi Arabia And Lebanon', In Jamali, D., Sidani, Y. (Eds) *CSR In The Middle East*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
Earley, P. (1997). *Face, Harmony And Social Structure: An Analysis Of Organisational Behavior Across Cultures.* New York, USA: Oxford University Press.
Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., & Jackson, P. R. (2012). *Management Research, 5th Edition*. London: Sage.
Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., Jackson, P. R., & Jaspersen, L. J. (2018). *Management And Business Research*, *6th Edition*. London: Sage.
Easterby-Smith. M., R., Thorpe, & Andy Lowe, P. (2008). *Management Research: Theory And Practice, 3rd Edition*. London: Sage.
Edelman, L. B. (1992). 'Legal Ambiguity And Symbolic Structures: Organizational Mediation Of Civil Rights Law', *American Journal Of Sociology*, 97(6), pp.1531–1576.
Edhlund, B. (2011). *Nvivo 9 Essentials*. Morrisville, NC: Lulu Publishing.
Effron, M. And Ort, M. (2010). *One Page Talent Management: Eliminating Complexity, Adding Value*. Boston, USA: Harvard Business Press.
Egerova, D. (2014). 'Talent Management: Towards New Perspectives', *Problems Of Management In The 21st Century*, 9(2), pp.114–128.

EIU (Economist Intelligence Unit). (2009). *The GCC In 2020: The Gulf And Its People*. London: The Economist.
Eisen, J. J. K. R. & P. (2005). *A Survey Of The American Manufacturing Workforce*. Available at: http://www.deloitte.com (Accessed: 21 April 2012)
Eisenberger, Robert, Robin Huntington, Steven Hutchison, and Debora Sowa. 1986. Perceived Organizational Support. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 71(3): 500–507
Eisenberger, R., Cummings, J., Armeli, S., & Lynch, P. (1997). 'Perceived Organizational Support, Discretionary Treatment, And Job Satisfaction', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 82(5), p.812.
Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). 'Perceived Organizational Support', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), P.500.
El Dahshan, M. E. A., Keshk, L. I., & Dorgham, L. S. (2018). 'Talent Management And Its Effect On Organisation Performance Among Nurses At Shebin El-Kom Hospitals', *International Journal Of Nursing*, 5, pp.108–123
Ellickson, M. C., & Logsdon, K. (2001). 'Determinants Of Job Satisfaction Of Municipal Government Employees', *State And Local Government Review*, 33(3), pp.173–184.
Ellway, B. P. (2013). 'Making It Personal In A Call Centre: Electronic Peer Surveillance', *New Technology, Work And Employment*, 28(1), pp.37–50.
Elorza, U., Aritzeta, A. And Ayestarán, S., (2011). 'Exploring The Black Box In Spanish Firms: The Effect Of The Actual And Perceived System On Employees' Commitment And Organizational Performance', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management,* 22(07), pp.1401-1422.
Elorza, U., Harris, C., Aritzeta, A., & Balluerka, N. (2016). 'The Effect Of Management And Employee Perspectives Of High-Performance Work Systems On Employees' Discretionary Behaviour', *Personnel Review*, 45(1), pp.121–141.
Emerson, R. M. (1976). 'Social Exchange Theory', *Annual Review Of Sociology*, 2(1), pp.335-362.
Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2005). 'From Ideal To Real: A Longitudinal Study Of The Role Of Implicit Leadership Theories On Leader-Member Exchanges And Employee Outcomes', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 90(4), P.659.
Epstein, L., & King, G. (2002). 'The Rules Of Inference', *The University Of Chicago Law Review*, 69(1) pp.1–133.
Etezadi-Amoli, J., & Farhoomand, A. F. (1996). 'A Structural Model Of End User Computing Satisfaction And User Performance', *Information & Management*, 30(2), pp.65–73.
Etzioni, A. (1968). Basic human needs, alienation and inauthenticity. *American Sociological Review*, 33, 870–885.
Euwema, M. C., Wendt, H., & Van Emmerik, H. (2007). 'Leadership Styles And Group Organizational Citizenship Behavior Across Cultures', *Journal Of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal Of Industrial, Occupational And Organizational Psychology And Behavior*, 28(8), pp.1035–1057.
Evans, J. R., & Jack, E. P. (2003). 'Validating Key Results Linkages In The Baldrige Performance Excellence Model', *Quality Management Journal*, 10(2), pp.7–24.
Evans, M., Arnold, J., & Rothwell, A. (2020). *From Talent Management To Talent Liberation: A Practical Guide For Professionals, Managers And Leaders, 1st Edition.* New York, USA: Routledge.
Ewing, M. T., Pitt, L. F., De Bussy, N. M., & Berthon, P. (2002). 'Employment Branding In The Knowledge Economy', *International Journal Of Advertising*, 21(1), pp.3–22.
FAG. (2016). *Federal Authority For Government HR's Website Employee Performance Management System*. Available at: Https://Www.Fahr.Gov.Ae/Portal/ En/Legislations-And-Guides/Systems/Performance-Management-System-For -The-Employees-Of-Federal-Government.Aspx (Accessed: 1 March 2016).

FAHR. (2016a). Federal Authority For HR's Website Federal Authority For Government Human Resources: Employee Performance Management System. Available at: https://www.fahr.gov.ae/portal/userfiles/assets/documents/ 50c11796pdf (Accessed: 1 March, 2016).

FAHR. (2016b). Employee Performance Management System. Available at: https://www.fahr.gov.ae/portal/en/legislations-and-guides/systemsperformance-management-system-for-the-employees-of-federal-government.aspx (Accessed: 1 March, 2016).

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). *How To Design And Evaluate Research In Education, 8th Edition*. New York, USA: McGraw-Hill.

Farndale, E., & Paauwe, J. (2007). 'Uncovering Competitive And Institutional Drivers Of HRM Practices In Multinational Corporations', *Human Resource Management Journal*, 17(4), pp.355–375.

Farndale, E., & Paauwe, J. (2018). 'SHRM And Context: Why Firms Want To Be As Different As Legitimately Possible', *Journal Of Organizational Effectiveness: People And Performance*, 5(3), pp.202–210.

Farndale, E., Pai, A., Sparrow, P., & Scullion, H. (2014). 'Balancing Individual And Organizational Goals In Global Talent Management: A Mutual-Benefits Perspective', *Journal Of World Business,* 49(2), pp.204–214.

Farndale, E., Scullion, H., & Sparrow, P. (2010). 'The Role Of The Corporate HR Function In Global Talent Management', *Journal Of World Business*, 45(2), pp.161–168.

Faust, C. (2008). *State Of The Global Talent Nation Report 2008. Organizations Struggle To Ready Workforces To Meet Growth Demands.* Available at: Http:// Www.Softscape.Com (Accessed: 13 February 2016)

Fay, B. (1987). *Critical Social Science: Liberation And Its Limits*. Ithaca, NY, USA: Cornell University Press.

Federal Competitiveness And Statistics Authority (2020). *Sheikh Khalifa Issues National Law Of Reading.* Available at: Https://24.Ae/Article/571506/88/ (Accessed: 30 June 2021)

Festing, M. (2012) 'Strategic Human Resource Management In Germany: Evidence Of Convergence To The U.S. Model, The European Model, Or A Distinctive National Model?', *Academy Of Management Perspectives*, 26(2), pp.37–54.

Festing, M., Schäfer, L., & Scullion, H. (2013). 'Talent Management In Medium-Sized German Companies: An Explorative Study And Agenda For Future Research', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management,* 24(9), pp.1872-1893.

Fey, C.F., Bjorkman, I. And Pavlovskaya, A. (2000). 'The Effect Of Human Resource Management Practices On Firm Performance In Russia', *International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 11, pp.1-18.

Fiedler, F.E. (1967) *A Theory Of Leadership Effectiveness*. New York, USA: McGraw-Hill.

Fiedler, F. E. (1996). 'Research On Leadership Selection And Training: One View Of The Future', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41(2), pp.241–250.

Fleishman, E.A., (1957). 'Factor Structure In Relation To Task Difficulty In Psychomotor Performance', *Educational And Psychological Measurement*, *17*(4), pp.522-532.

Figliolini, A. J., Hofmann, A., & Kanjirath, T. (2008). 'Growth In The Middle East And HR Capabilities' In *Background Papers For Spring International Sponsor Meeting Of Centre For Advanced Human Resource Studies.* Dubai, UAE.

Field, A., (2009). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS*. London: Sage.

Fincham, R. And Rhodes, P. (2005).*Principles Of Organizational Behaviour.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Finlay, J., Neal, M., Catana, A., & Catana, D. (2005). 'The Influence Of Cultural Backgrounds On Perceptions Of Manager And Subordinate Relationships In Romania, Lebanon And Oman: A Preliminary Cross-Cultural Investigation', *Journal Of Organizational Change Management*, 19(4), pp.181–210.

Firfiray, S. (2009). *Social Identification Among Employee In Talent-Intensive Organizations*. Presented At The 9th. EURAM Conference, Liverpool, UK.
Flax, J. (1990). *Thinking Fragments: Psychoanalysis, Feminism, And Postmodernism In The Contemporary West*. Berkeley, USA: University Of California Press.
Fombrun, C.J. (1998). 'Indices Of Corporate Reputation: An Analysis Of Media Rankings And Social Monitors' Ratings', *Corporate Reputation Review*, 1(4), pp.327-340.
Ford, N., J. Harding, & Stoyanova, D. (2010). *Talent Management And Development: An Overview Of Current Theory And Practice, Bradford University School Of Management*. Available at: http://www.brad.ac.uk/acad/management/ external/pdf/cme/talent-management-and-development-an-overview-of-current-theory-and-practice.pdf . (Accessed: 13 February 2016)
Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). 'Evaluating Structural Equation Models With Unobservable Variables And Measurement Error', *Journal Of Marketing Research*, 18(1), pp.39-50.
Forstenlechner, I. And Mellahi, K. (2011). 'Gaining Legitimacy Through Hiring Local Workforce At A Premium: The Case Of Mnes In The UAE', *Journal Of World Business*, 46(4), pp.455-461.
Foster, H. L. P. J.-S. A. T. C. T., C., & Williams, H. (2007). *Talent Management: Research Insight.* London: CIPD.
Fowler. (2009). *Survey Research Methods 4th Edition*. London: Sage.
Fraenkel, W. N. E.-. H. H. H., J. R. (2012). *How To Design And Evaluate Research In Education*. New York, USA: McGraw-Hill.
Frank, R. (2002). *The Explanatory Power Of Models, Volume 1*. London: Springer.
Frank, F. D., Finnegan, R. P., & Taylor, C. R. (2004). 'The Race For Talent: Retaining And Engaging Workers In The 21st. Century', *Human Resource Planning*, 27(3), pp.12-25.
Frankel, L., Et Al. (1982). *On The Definition Of Response Rates: A Special Report Of The Council Of American Survey Research Organizations (CASRO) Task Force On Completion Rates.* Port Jefferson, NY: Council Of American Survey Research Organizations.
Freek, S. (2004). *Voices From The Shope Floor: The Impact Of The Muli-Cultural Work Environment On UAE*. Dubai, United Arab Emirates: Tanmia,
Fulmer, I.S., Gerhart, B. And Scott, K.S. (2003). 'Are The 100 Best Better? An Empirical Investigation Of The Relationship Between Being A "Great Place To Work" And Firm Performance', *Personnel Psychology*, 56(4), pp.965-993.
Gagné, F. (2000). 'Understanding The Complex Choreography Of Talent Development Through DMGT-Based Analysis', In Heller, K. A. (Ed.), *International Handbook Of Giftedness And Talent, 2nd Edition,* Oxford: Elsevier.
Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Dries, N., & Gonz´Alez-Cruz, T. F. (2013). 'What Is The Meaning Of Talent In The World Of Work?' *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), pp.290–300.
Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Thunnissen, M. And Scullion, H. (2020), 'Talent Management: Context Matters', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 31.(4), pp.457-473.
Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Nijs, S., Dries, N. And Gallo, P. (2015), 'Towards An Understanding Of Talent Management As A Phenomenon-Driven Field Using Bibliometric And Content Analysis', *Human Resource Management Review,* 25 (3), pp.264-279.
Gandossy, R., & Kao, T. (2004). 'Talent Wars: Out Of Mind, Out Of Practice', *People And Strategy*, 27(4), P.15.
Gandy, R., Harrison, P., & Gold, J. (2018). 'Talent Management In Higher Education: Is Turnover Relevant?' *European Journal Of Training And Development*, 42 (9). pp.597-610.
Garavan, T.N., Hogan, C., Cahir-O`Donnell, A., (2009), *Developing Managers And Leaders – Perspectives, Debates And Practices In Ireland*. Dublin: Gill & Macmillan Ltd.
Garavan, T. N., Carbery, R., & Rock, A. (2012). 'Mapping Talent Development: Definition, Scope And Architecture', *European Journal Of Training And Development*, 36, pp.5-24.
Gaskin, J. (2012). 'Confirmatory Factor Analysis', *Gaskination's Statwiki*. Available at: Http://Statwiki.Gaskination.Com (Accessed: 18 May 2016)

Gaskin, J. (2016) 'SEM Series 2016', Available at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v= as7zxozgu4c&list=plnmjlbz3sefjavv8rbl2_g85houko5i-- (Accessed: 16 April 2020)
Gatewood, R., Field, H., & Barrick, M. (2008). *Human Resource Selection, 6th. Edition*. Mason, OH, USA: Thomson/South Western.
GCC. (2016). *Gulf Cooperation Council For The Arab States Of The Gulf*. Available At http://www.gccegov.org/web/guest/gcc (Accessed: 18 March, 2016)
GCC. (2019). *Gulf Cooperation Council For The Arab States Of The Gulf*. Available at: http://www.gcc-sg.org/en-us/pages/default.aspx (Accessed: 15 July 2019)
Geertz, C., Et Al. (1973). T'hick Description: Toward An Interpretive Theory Of Culture', *Turning Points In Qualitative Research: Tying Knots In A Handkerchief,* 3, pp.143–168.
Gernal, LM, Sergio, RP, & Hamedal Rawahi, SM (2012) 'Managing Talent For Competitive Advantage: Perspective From Gulf Cooperation Council Nationals', *IAMURE*, 1, pp.116-127.
Gernal, LM, Sergio, RP, & Al Shuali, M (2013) 'Looking Ahead: Scanning Change. Management And Its Implications To Human Resource Management Practices' I*AMURE International Journal Of Business And Management,* 7(1).
Gefen, D., Rigdon, E. E., & Straub, D. (2011). 'Editor's Comments: An Update And Extension To SEM Guidelines For Administrative And Social Science Research', *MIS Quarterly*, 25(2), pp.Iii–Xiv.
Ghazali, H., Nashuki, N. M., Othman, M. (2018). The influence of perceived organizational support (POS), perceived supervisory support (PSS) and organizational, commitment (OC) towards intention to leave or intention to stay: A case of casual dining restaurants in Klang Valley, Malaysia. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 8(9), 1884–1902.
Ghosh, R., Reio Jr, T.G. And Haynes, R.K. (2012). 'Mentoring And Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Estimating The Mediating Effects Of Organization-Based Self-Esteem And Affective Commitment', *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 23(1), pp.41-63.
Gibbons, J. M. (2006). *Employee Engagement: A Review Of Current Research And Its Implications*. Conference Board Report.
Gilbert, R. J. (1986). 'The First Complete Enumeration Of Papua New Guinea: The 1980 Population Census', *Journal Of Official Statistics,* 2(4), pp.501-514.
Gill, J., & Johnson, P. (2002). *Research Methods For Managers*. London: Sage.
Giroux, H. (1988). *Schooling And The Struggle For Public Life: Critical Pedagogy In The Modern Age*. Minneapolis,USA: University Of Minnesota Press.
Giroux, H. A. (1982). *Theory And Resistance In Education: A Pedagogy For The Opposition*. Boston, USA: Bergin And Garvey.
Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The Discovery Of Grounded Theory: Strategies For Qualitative Research: Aldine Transaction*. New Brunswick, NJ, USA: Taylor & Francis.
Glenn, T. (2012). 'The State Of Talent Management In Canada's Public Sector', *Canadian Public Administration,* 55 (1), pp.25–51.
Gliem, J. A., & Gliem, R. R. (2003). *Calculating, Interpreting, And Reporting Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient For Likert-Type Scales.* Available at: https://scholarworks.iupui.edu/bitstream/handle/1805/344/gliem%20&%20gliem.pdf?s. (Accessed: 13 February 2016).
GLMM. (2015). *Demography, Migration, And The Labour Market In The UAE.* Available at: http://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/36375/glmm expnote 07 2015.pdf?sequence=1(Accessed: 20 March 2016)
Godfrey, T. (2010). The relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intentions in a developing country: The mediating role of organizational commitment. *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(6), 942-952.
Gopalakrishnan, R. (2002). 'Leading Diverse Teams', *Business World.* Available at: www.tata.com/tata_sons/media/20020408.htm (Accessed: On 13 June 2017)

Government Of Alberta, Human Resources And Employment (2003), *Finders And Keepers: Recruitment And Retention Strategies*. Alberta, Canada: Government Of Alberta.
Golafshani, N. (2003). 'Understanding Reliability And Validity In Qualitative Research', *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), pp.597–607.
González-Cruz, T., Martínez-Fuentes, C., & Pardo-Del-Val, M. (2009). 'La Gestión Del Talento En La Empresa Industrial Española', *Economía Industrial*, 374, pp.21–35.
Goodman, P. S., & Pennings, J. M. (1977). *New Perspectives On Organizational Effectiveness*. San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass.
Grant, A. M., & Mayer, D. M. (2009). 'Good Soldiers And Good Actors: Prosocial And Impression Management Motives As Interactive Predictors Of Affiliative Citizenship Behaviors', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 94(4), pp.900–912.
Grant, R. M. (1996). 'Toward A Knowledge-Based Theory Of The Firm', *Strategic Management Journal,* 17(S2), pp.109–122.
Gray, David E. (2014). *Doing Research In The Real World*. London: Sage.
Greenwood, R. And Miller, D. (2010), 'Tackling Design Anew: Getting Back To The Heart', *Academy Of Management Perspectives*, Vol. 24 No. 4, pp.78-88.
Grint, K. (1995). *Management: A Sociological Introduction.* Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
Grissom, J. A. (2012). 'Revisiting The Impact Of Participative Decision Making On Public Employee Retention: The Moderating Influence Of Effective Managers', *The American Review Of Public Administration*, 42(4), pp.400–418.
Groysberg, B., Nanda, A., & Nohria, N. (2004). 'The Risky Business Of Hiring Stars', *Harvard Business Review*, 82(5), pp.92-101.
Groysberg, B., Lee, L.-E., & Nanda, A. (2008). 'Can They Take It With Them? The Portability Of Star Knowledge Workers' Performance', *Management Science*, 54(7), pp.1213-1230.
Groves, K. S. (2007). 'Integrating Leadership Development And Succession Planning Best Practices', *Journal Of Management Development*, 26(3), pp.239-260.
Groves, K. S. (2011). 'Talent Management Best Practices: How Exemplary Health Care Organizations Create Value In A Down Economy', *Healthcare Management Review*, 36(3), pp.227–240.
GT Gulf Talent (2012). *Gulf Talent Gulf Compensation Trends 2007.* Available at: http://www.gulftalent.com/repository/int/gulf compensation trends 2007.pdf (Accessed: 13 March 2016)
Gulftalent (2016). *Employment And Salary Trends In The Gulf 2016 Report*. Dubai, United Arab Emirates: Gulftalent.
Guba, E. (1996). 'What Happened To Me On The Road To Damascus', In Heshusius, L. & Ballard, K. (Eds) *From Positivism To Interpretivism And Beyond: Tales Of Transformation In Educational And Social Research*, (pp. 43-49). New York: Teachers College Press.
Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA, USA: Sage.
Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (1994). *Competing Paradigms In Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.
Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. (2005). 'Paradigmatic Controversies, Contradictions, And Emerging Confluences' In Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S., Eds. *The Sage Handbook Of Qualitative Research, 3rd. Edition*. Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.
Guba, E. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1998) 'Competing Paradigms In Qualitative Research' In: Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds), *The Landscape Of Qualitative Research:Theories And Issues*, pp.195–220. Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.
Guba, E. G. (1990). *The Paradigm Dialogs*. Newbury Park. CA,USA: Sage.
Guerrier, Y., Et Al. (1999). *Organizational Behaviour In Hotels And Restaurants: An International Perspective*. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.
Guest, D. E., Et Al. (2007). 'HRM And Performance: Can Partnership Address The Ethical Dilemmas?' *Human Resource Management: Ethics And Employment,* pp.52-65.

Hackman, J. R., Oldham, G., Janson, R., & Purdy, K. (1975). 'A New Strategy For Job Enrichment', *California Management Review*, 17(4), pp.57–71.
Hafez, E. Neel, R. A. And Elsaid, E. (2017). 'An Exploratory Study On How Talent Management Affects Employee Retention And Job Satisfaction For Personnel Administration In Ain Shams University Egypt', *Journal Of Management And Strategy*, 8(4), pp.1-17.
Haladay, D., Sergio, R., Opulencia, M., & Antiado, D. (2016). 'Strategic Talent Management Practices In The United Arab Emirates', *World Review Of Business Research*, 6, pp.118-128.
Haid, M. (2012). 'Benchmark Your Organisation Talent Management Strategy'. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/deref/http%3a%2f%2fwww.rightmanagement.ie%2fthought-leadership%2farticles-and-publications%2fbenchmark-your-organisations-talent-strategy.pdf/
Haid, M., Sims, J., Schroeder-Saulnier, D., & Wang, H. (2010). Organisational Effectiveness: Discovering How It Happens. Leadership Insights Incorporated. Available at: https://eoe.leadershipacademy.nhs.uk/wp-content/uploads/sites/6/2019/07/1317116794_dggd_organisational_effectiveness_-_how_to_make_it_happ.pdf (Accessed: 15 August 2013).
Hair, B. W. A. R., J., & Babin, B. (2018). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. New York, USA: Pearson.
Hair J., J.F., Hult, G.T.M., Ringle, C. And Sarstedt, M. (2016). *A Primer On Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM).* London: Sage.
Hair, J., Anderson, R., Babin, B., & Black, W. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis: A Global Perspective, Volume 7.* Upper Saddle River. NJ,USA: Pearson.
Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2014). *Multivariate Data Analysis: Pearson New International Edition*. Essex: Pearson.
Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2019). *Multivariate Data Analysis, 8th Edition.*
Hampshire, UK: Cengage.
Hakim, C. (1982). *A Guide To Data Sources And Methods With Examples*. London: Allen And Unwin.
Halbesleben, J. R., & Wheeler, A. R. (2008). 'The Relative Roles Of Engagement And Embeddedness In Predicting Job Performance And Intention To Leave', *Work & Stress,* 22(3), pp.242–256.
Handfield-Jones, H., Michaels, Ed & Axelrod, B. (1999), *The War For Talent*, Boston, MA, USA: Harvard Business School Press.
Harel, G. H., & Tzafrir, S. S. (1999). 'The Effect Of Human Resource Management Practices On The Perceptions Of Organizational And Market Performance Of The Firm', *Human Resource Management*, 38(3), pp.185–199.
Harper, S. (1983). 'A Developmental Approach To Performance Appraisal', *Business Horizons*, 26(5), pp.68-74.
Harris, L., & Foster, C. (2010). 'Aligning Talent Management With Approaches To Equality And Diversity: Challenges For UK Public Sector Managers', *Equality, Diversity And Inclusion: An International Journal*, 29 (5), pp.422-435.
Harrison, R. (2005). *Learning And Development, 2nd Edition.* London: CIPD.
Harrison, R. (2009). *Learning And Development, 5th Edition*. London: CIPD.
Hartmann, E., Feisel, E., & Schober, H. (2010). 'Talent Management Of Western Mncs In China: Balancing Global Integration And Local Responsiveness', *Journal Of World Business*, 45(2), pp.169–178.
Hasson, H., Tafvelin, S. And Schwarz, T., (2013). 'Comparing Employees And Managers' Perceptions Of Organizational Learning, Health, And Work Performance', *Advances In Developing Human Resources,* 15(2), pp.163-176.
Hatch, N. W., & Dyer, J. H. (2004). 'Human Capital And Learning As A Source Of Sustainable Competitive Advantage', *Strategic Management Journal*, 25(12), pp.1155–1178.

Haveman, H. A. (1993). ‘Follow The Leader: Mimetic Isomorphism And Entry Into New Markets’, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38, pp.93–627.
Hayes, BE (1992*). Measuring Customer Satisfaction: Development And Use Of Questionnaire. CONSTRUCTING EFFECTIVE QUESTIONNAIRES*. Cambridge, MA, USA: Art Books.
Hay Group. (2012). *Nitaqat In The Spotlight.* Available at: http://www.haygroup.com/uae/downloads/details.aspx?id=33248 (Accessed: 13 May 2016)
Healey, M. (1991). *Obtaining Information From Businesses*. Harlow, Essex: Longman.
Healey, M., & Rawlinson, M. (1994). ‘Interviewing Techniques In Business And Management Research’ In Wass, V. And Wells, P. (Eds), *Principles And Practice In Business And Management Research,* pp.26-123. Dartmouth Heights, MA, USA: Allyn & Bacon.
Healey, M. J., & Rawlinson, M. B. (1993). ‘Interviewing Business Owners And Managers: A Review Of Methods And Techniques’, *Geoforum,* 24(3), pp.339–355.
Heilmann, P. (2010). ‘To Have And To Hold: Personnel Shortage In A Finnish Healthcare Organisation’, *Scandinavian Journal Of Public Health,* 38(5), pp.518–523.
Heinen, J. S., & O’Neill, C. (2004). ‘Managing Talent To Maximize Performance’, *Employment Relations Today*, 31(2), pp.67-82.
Hellman, C. M. (1997). ‘Job Satisfaction And Intent To Leave’, *The Journal Of Social Psychology*, 137(6), pp.677–689.
Hedayati Mehdiabadi, A., & Li, J. (2016). ‘Understanding Talent Development And Implications For Human Resource Development: An Integrative Literature Review’, *Human Resource Development Review*, 15(3), pp.263-294.
Hennessey Jr, J. T. (1998). ‘Reinventing” Government: Does Leadership Make The Difference?’ *Public Administration Review*, 5(6) pp.522–532.
Hemphill, J. K. (1955). ‘Leadership Behavior Associated With The Administrative Reputation Of College Departments’ *Journal Of Educational Psychology*, 46(7), 3, pp.85–401.
Herold, D. M., Liden, R. C., & Leatherwood, M. L. (1987). ‘Using Multiple Attributes To Assess Sources Of Performance Feedback’, *Academy Of Management Journal*, 30(4),Pp.826–835.
Heron, J. (1996). *Co-Operative Inquiry: Research Into The Human Condition.* London: Sage.
Herzberg, M. B. B. S.-B., F. (2008). *The Motivation To Work*. New Brunswick, NJ, USA: Transaction Publishers.
Hesse, E. (1980). *Revolutions And Reconstructions In The Philosophy Of Science.* Bloomington, USA: Indiana University Press.
Hewitt Associates. (2004). ‘Employee Engagement Higher At Double Digit Growth Companies’, *Research Brief, Hewitt Associates LLC.*
Hewitt, A. (2011). *Qudurat Report*. Available at: Http://Www.Aon.Com/ Middle-East/Attachments/AH-Qudurat-Report-English.Pdf (Accessed: 30 April 2016)
Hewson, C., Yule, P., Laurent, D., & Vogel, C. (2003). *Is The Internet A Viable Research Tool? Internet Research Methods: A Practical Guide For The Social And Behavioural Sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Highhouse, S., Zickar, M. J., Thorsteinson, T. J., Stierwalt, S. L., & Slaughter, J. E. (1999). ‘Assessing Company Employment Image: An Example In The Fast Food Industry’, *Personnel Psychology*, 52(1), pp.151–172.
Hilal, M. (2012). *Talent Management. Improve Performance And Development Publication And Distribution.* Cairo.
Hills, A. (2009). ‘Succession Planning – Or Smart Talent Management?’ *Industrial & Commercial*, 41(1), pp.3–8.
Horner, S. (2017) (ed.) Talent Management in Hospitality and Tourism, Oxford: Goodfellow Publishers Limited.
Hinrichs, J. R. (1966). *High-Talent Personnel: Managing A Critical Resource.* Vermont, USA: American Management Association.
Hamidi, M., Altaib , A.(2011). *Investment In Training And Talent Management: The Experience Of The United Arab Emirates*. Ras Al Khaimah: Emirates Police College.

Hoaglin, D. C., & Iglewicz, B. (1987). 'Fine-Tuning Some Resistant Rules For Outlier Labeling', *Journal Of The American Statistical Association*, 82(400), pp.1147–1149.
Hodges, G. (2008). *Leadership As A Talent Retention Tool.* Available at: http://www.changeagentsinc.com/cai_article_leadership_as_a_talent_retention_tool.pdf. (Accessed: 23 October 2010).
Hofmann, A. (2010). *Introduction: Talent Management Strategies For Growth*. Available at: http://www.ilr.cornell.edu/cahrs/research/ whitepapers/upload/talentmgmt intromideast.pdf (Accessed: 13 February 2016)
Hofstede, G., Neuijen, B., Ohayv, D. D., & Sanders, G. (1990). 'Measuring Organizational Cultures: A Qualitative And Quantitative Study Across Twenty Cases', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35, pp.286–316.
Holden, M.T., And Lynch, P., (2004), 'Choosing The Appropriate Methodology: Understanding Research Philosophy', *The Marketing Review*, 4(4), pp.397-409.
Holmberg, I. & Åkerblom, S. (2012). '"Pirmus Inter Pares": Leadership And Culture In Sweden', In Chhokar, J. S., Brodbeck, F. C. & House R. J. (Eds.), *Culture And Leadership Across The World: The GLOBE Book Of In-Depth Studies Of 25 Societies*. New York, USA: Taylor & Francis.
Holmes-Smith, P. (2006). *School Socio-Economic Density And Its Effect On School Performance.* Sydney, Austrailia: MCEETYA.
Hom, P. W., Tsui, A. S., Wu, J. B., Lee, T. W., Zhang, A. Y., Fu, P. P., & Li, L. (2009). 'Explaining Employment Relationships With Social Exchange And Job Embeddedness', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 94(2), pp.277-297.
Hooper, C. J., D., & Mullen, M. (2008). 'Guidelines For Determining Model Fit. Guidelines For Determining Model Fit', *The Electronic Journal Of Business Research Methods*, 6(1), pp.53-60.
Hooper, D., Coughlan, J. And Mullen, M. (2008) 'Structural Equation Modeling: Guidelines For Determining Model Fit. Guidelines For Determining Model Fit', *The Electronic Journal Of Business Research Methods,* 6(1), pp.53 – 60.
Hopfl, S. S., H., & Spencer, S. (1992). 'Values And Valuations: Corporate Culture And Job Cuts'. *Personnel Review*, 21(1), pp.24–38.
House, J. S. (1981). *Work Stress And Social Support.* Reading, UK: Addison-Wesley Publishing.
House, R. (1971a). 'A Path-Goal Theory Of Leadership', *Journal Of Contemporary Business*, 9, 81–97.
House, R. J. (1971b). 'A Path Goal Theory Of Leader Effectiveness', *Administrative Science Quarterly,*16(3), pp.321–38.
House, R.J. And Dessler, G. (1974) 'The Path-Goal Theory Of Leadership: Some Post Hoc And A Priori Tests', In Hunt, J.G. And Larson, L.L. (Eds), *Contingency Approaches To Leadership*. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
Hoyle, R. H. (2012). *Handbook Of Structural Equation Modeling.* New York,USA: Guilford Press.
Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). 'Cutoff Criteria For Fit Indexes In Covariance Structure Analysis: Conventional Criteria Versus New Alternatives', *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), pp.1–55.
Hughes, J. A., & Sharrock, W. W. (1997). *The Philosophy Of Social Research.* New York, USA: Routledge.
Hughes, J. C., & Rog, E. (2008). 'Talent Management: A Strategy For Improving Employee Recruitment, Retention, And Engagement Within Hospitality Organizations', *International Journal Of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 20(7), pp.743-757.
Hussain, K., Wahab, E., Zeb, A., Khan, M.A., Javaid, M. And Khan, M.A. (2018). 'Examining The Relationship Between Learning Capabilities And Organizational Performance: The Mediating Role Of Organizational Innovativeness', In *MATEC Web Of Conference*, 150, P. 06027.

Hulin, C. (1991). ‘Adaptation, Persistence, And Commitment In Organizations’, In Dunnette, M. D. & Hough, L. M. (Eds.), *Handbook Of Industrial And Organizational Psychology* (P. 445–505). Palo Alto, CA, USA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Huselid, M. A. (1995). ‘The Impact Of Human Resource Management Practices On Turnover, Productivity, And Corporate Financial Performance’, *Academy Of Management Journal*, 38(3), pp.635–672.

Huselid, M. A., Beatty, R. W., & Becker, B. E. (2005). ‘A Player Or A Positions’, *Harvard Business Review*, 83(12), pp.110–117.

Huselid, M. A., Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1997). ‘Technical And Strategic Human Resources Management Effectiveness As Determinants Of Firm Performance’, *Academy Of Management Journal*, 40(1), pp.171–188.

Hutchings, K., & Weir, D. (2006). ‘Guanxi And Wasta: A Comparison’, *Thunderbird International Business Review,* 48(1), pp.141–156.

Hyde, K. F. (2000). ‘Recognising Deductive Processes In Qualitative Research’, *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal,* 3(2), pp.82-90.

Hyslop, L. (2012). ‘GCC Population To Reach Nearly 50 Million In 2013’. *The Telegraph*. Available at: https://www.telegraph.co.uk/expat/expatnews/9095696/gcc-population-to-reach-nearly-50-million-in-2013.html.

Hytter, A. (2007). ‘Retention Strategies In France And Sweden’, *The Irish Journal Of Management*, 28(1), pp.59-79.

Ibrahim, S. (2015). D’eterminants And Strategies Of The Retention Of UAE Nationals In The Islamic Banks Based In The United Arab Emirates’, *IOSR Journal Of Business And Management* 17(7)Version II. pp.31-40.

Idris, A. (2009). *Cultural Barriers To Improving Performance In Saudi Arabia*. Available at: http://www.allbusiness.com/management/4508149-1.html (Accessed: 12 July 2017).

Iqbal, S. and Hashmi, M. (2015). Impact of Perceived Organizational Support on Employee Retention with Mediating Role of Psychological Empowerment. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences* 2015, Vol. 9 (1), 18-34.

Iles, P. (2013). Commentary On The Meaning Of Talent In The World Of Work. Human Resource Management Review, 23(4), 301-304.

Iles, P., Chuai, X., & Preece, D. (2010). ‘Talent Management And HRM In Multinational Companies In Beijing: Definitions, Differences And Drivers’, *Journal Of World Business*, 45(2), pp.179-189.

Ilgen, D. R., & Schneider, J. (1991). ‘Performance Measurement: A Multi-Discipline View’, *International Review Of Industrial And Organizational Psychology,* 6(1), pp.71–108.

Isa, A., Ibrahim, H.I., Jaaffar, A.H. And Baharin, N.L. (2018). ‘Talent Management Practices, Perceived Organizational Support And Employee Retention: Evidence From Malaysian Government-Linked Companies’, *Global Business & Management Research*, 10(3), 688.

Ismail, M. (2005). ‘Creative Climate And Learning Organization Factors: Their Contribution Towards Innovation’, *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 26, Pp,639-654.

Ivankova, N.V., Creswell, J.W. And Stick, S.L. (2006). ‘Using Mixed-Methods Sequential Explanatory Design: From Theory To Practice’, *Field Methods*, 18(1), pp.3-20.

Jabeen, F., & Al Dari, T. (2020). ‘A Framework For Integrating Knowledge Management Benefits In The UAE Organizations’, *Knowledge Management Research & Practice*, pp.1-15.

Jain, A.K., Giga, S.I. And Cooper, C.L. (2013). ‘Perceived Organizational Support As A Moderator In The Relationship Between Organisational Stressors And Organizational Citizenship Behavior, *International Journal Of Organizational Analysis,* 21(3), P.313-334.

Jaiswal, S. (1982). ‘Impact Of Organizational Culture On Commitment To Work’, *Lok Udyog*, 16(27), pp.2-14.

Jankowicz, A. (2005). *Business Research Projects.* London: Business Press Thomson Learning.

Jauhar, J., Ting, C. S., Rahim, N. F. A., & Fareen, N. (2017). 'The Impact Of Reward And Transformational Leadership On The Intention To Quit Of Generation Y Employees In Oil And Gas Industry: Moderating Role Of Job Satisfaction', *Global Business And Management Research: An International Journal*, 9(4), pp.426–442.

Jayawarna, D., Macpherson, A., & Wilson, A. (2007). 'Training Commitment And Performance In Manufacturing Smes: Incidence, Intensity And Approaches', *Journal Of Small Business And Enterprise Development*, 14(2), pp.321-338.

Jeske, D., & Santuzzi, A. M. (2013). 'Effect Of Monitoring Techniques On Job Attitudes, Control, Intentions And Behaviors At Work', In *Proceedings Of The IADIS International Conference On E-Society*, pp.266–274.

Jeske, D., & Santuzzi, A. M. (2015). 'Monitoring What And How: Psychological Implications Of Electronic Performance Monitoring', *New Technology, Work And Employment*, 30(1), pp.62–78.

Jensen, J. M., Patel, P. C., & Messersmith, J. G. (2013). 'High-Performance Work Systems And Job Control: Consequences For Anxiety, Role Overload, And Turnover Intentions', *Journal Of Management*, 39(6), pp.1699–1724.

Jennings, P. D., Cyr, D., & Moore, L. F. (1995). 'Human Resource Management On The Pacific Rim: An Integration', In Moore, L. F., & Jennings, P. D. (Eds.), *Human Resource Management On The Pacific Rim: Institutions, Practices, And Attitudes,* (pp. 351–379). Berlin: De Gruyter.

Jiang, K., Hu, J., Liu, S., & Lepak, D. P. (2017). 'Understanding Employees' Perceptions Of Human Resource Practices: Effects Of Demographic Dissimilarity To Managers And Coworkers', *Human Resource Management,* 56(1), pp.69–91.

Johennesse, L.-A. C., & Chou, T.-K. (2017). 'Employee Perceptions Of Talent Management Effectiveness On Retention' *Global Business & Management Research*, 9(3).

John, S. (2002). 'Job-To-Job Turnover And Job-To-Non-Employment Movement. A Case Study Investigation', *Personnel Review*, 31(6), pp.710–721.

John, S. (2007). *Human Resource Management: A Critical Text, 3rd Edition.* London: Thomson Learning.

Johns, G. (2017). 'Reflections On The 2016 Decade Award: Incorporating Context In Organizational Research', *Academy Of Management Review*, 42(4), pp.577–595.

Johnson, P., & Gill, J. (2010). *Research Methods For Managers*. London: Sage.

Johnson, R. B. (1997). 'Examining The Validity Structure Of Qualitative Research', *Education,* 118(2), 282.

Johnson, S. D. (1995). 'Will Our Research Hold Up Under Scrutiny?' *Journal Of Industrial Teacher Education*, 32(3), pp.3–6.

Johnson, M. & Long, T. (2000). 'Rigour, Reliability And Validity In Qualitative Research', *Clinical Effectiveness In Nursing,* 4, pp.30–37.

Johnson, G., Scholes, K., & Whittington, R. (2011). *Exploring Corporate Strategy: Text And Cases. 9th Edition*. London: Prentice Hall,

Jones, D. (2010). 'Manpower Challenges In The Middle East', In *Presentation At Advisory Seminar Series: Doing Business In Middle East*, Singapore.

Jones, D. A., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2003). 'The Relationship Between Perceptions Of Fairness And Voluntary Turnover Among Retail Employees', *Journal Of Applied Social Psychology*, 33(6), pp.1226–1243.

Jones, E., Kantak, D. M., Futrell, C. M., & Johnston, M. W. (1996). 'Leader Behavior, Work-Attitudes, And Turnover Of Salespeople: An Integrative Study', *Journal Of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 16(2), pp.3–23.

Jonker, J., & Pennink, B. (2010). *The Essence Of Research Methodology: A Concise Guide For Master And Phd Students In Management Science.* London: Springer Science & Business Media.

Joppe, M. (2000). *The Research Process.* Available at: http://www.htm.uoguelph.ca/mjresearch/researchprocess/home.html (Accessed: 13t February 2016)

Joreskog, K. G., & Sorbom, D. (1986). *Lisrel Vi: Analysis Of Linear Structural Relationships By Maximum Likelihood, Instrumental Variables, And Least Squares Methods*. Scientific Software.

Josselson, R. (1995). 'Imagining The Real: Empathy, Narrative, And The Dialogic Self', In Modified Paper Delivered At The American Psychological Association Meeting, Los Angeles, CA, Aug 1994.

Joyce, S., Herreman, J., & Kelly, K. (2007). *Talent Management: Buzzword Or Holy Grail*. Palo Alto: Hackett Group.

Joyce, W. F., & Slocum, J. W. (2012). 'Top Management Talent, Strategic Capabilities, And Firm Performance', *Organizational Dynamics*, 41(3), pp.183–193.

Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001). 'The Job Satisfaction– Job Performance Relationship: A Qualitative And Quantitative Review', *Psychological Bulletin*, 127(3), 376.

JWB. (2010). *JWB Website Global Talent Management*. Available at: http://ac.els-cdn.com/s1090951609000728/1-s2.0-s1090951609000728-main.pdf?tid=2d9200bf37e6d6f56758ae88769977ed&acdnat=1334528274 de31e3fc53b8b531faff99f33b64a08b (Accessed: 13 February 2016).

Kaliprasad, M. (2006). 'The Human Factor I: Attracting, Retaining, And Motivating Capable People', *Cost Engineering,* 48(6), 20.

Kalpan, R., & Norton, D. (1992). 'The Balanced Scorecard. Measures That Drive Performance', *Harvard Business Review,* 69(1), 9-71.

Kaplan, R.S. And Norton, D.P. (1996). 'Strategic Learning & The Balanced Scorecard', *Strategy & Leadership*, 24(5), pp.18-24.

Kaplan, R.S. And Norton, D.P. (2004). 'The Strategy Map: Guide To Aligning Intangible Assets', *Strategy & Leadership,* 35(5), pp.10-17.

Kaplan, R. S., Kaplan, R. E., Norton, D. P., Davenport, T. H., Norton, D. P. (2004). *Strategy Maps: Converting Intangible Assets Into Tangible Outcomes*. Cambridge, MA, USA: Harvard Business Press.

Karl, K.A., Peluchette, J.V. And Harland, L. (2007). 'Is Fun For Everyone? Personality Differences In Healthcare Providers'attitudes Toward Fun', *Journal Of Health And Human Services Administration*, 29(4), pp.409-447.

Kasi, P. (2009). *Research: What, Why And How. A Treatise From Researchers To Researchers, 1st. Edition.* Bloomington, USA: Authorhouse,

Keefe, J. (1979). *Nassp's Student Learning Styles: Diagnosing And Prescribing Programs, Chapter Learning Style: An Overview*. Reston, VA: National Association Of Secondary School Principals.

Keefe, J. W. (1979). *Student Learning Styles: Diagnosing And Prescribing Programs*., Reston, VA: National Association Of Secondary School Principals.

Keefe, T. J. (2007). 'Know Thyself: Developing A Strong Employer Brand', *Journal-American Water Works Association,* 99(8), pp.20–21.

Kehoe, R. R., & Wright, P. M. (2013). 'The Impact Of High-Performance Human Resource Practices On Employees' Attitudes And Behaviours', *Journal Of Management*, 39(2), pp.366–391.

Keller, T., & Dansereau, F. (1995). 'Leadership And Empowerment: A Social Exchange Perspective', *Human Relations,* 48(2), pp.127–146.

Kemper, S. S. T.-C., E. (2003). *Mixed Methods Sampling Strategies In Social Science Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kennedy, A. A. (1982). *Corporate Cultures: The Rites And Rituals Of Corporate Life*. Reading, MA, USA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Kenny, D.A. (2011). *Terminology And Basics Of SEM. Terminology*. Available at: http://davidakenny.net/cm/basics.htm. (Accessed: On 20 April 2020).
Kenny, D. A., Kaniskan, B., & Mccoach, D. B. (2015). 'The Performance Of RMSEA In Models With Small Degrees Of Freedom', *Sociological Methods & Research*, 44(3), pp.486–507.
Khaleej Times (2019). 'Jobs In UAE: Employee Turnover Drops As Loyalty Has New Meaning In Workplace Employers Begin To Realise The Value Of Staff Loyalty And Their Experience: Salary In 2019', Available at: https://www.zawya.com/mena/en/economy/story/jobs_in_uae_employee_turnover_drops_as_loyalty_has_new_meaning_in_workplace-sng_136676948/ (Accessed: 2 June 2020).
Khan, N. (2018). 'Does Training & Employee Commitment Predict Employee Retention?', In *International Conference On Management And Information Systems*. Chitkara University, Thailand.
Khan, I. (2011). 'Gulf States Struggle To Shift Jobs To Choosy Locals', Available at: http://www.arabianbusiness.com/gulf-states-struggle-shift-jobs-choosy-locals-428611.html?tab=article (Accessed: 13 February 2016)
Khan, K. U., Farooq, S. U., & Ullah, M. I. (2010). 'The Relationship Between Rewards And Employee Motivation In Commercial Banks Of Pakistan', *Research Journal Of International Studies*, 14, pp.37–52.
Khanna, T., & Palepu, K. (1997). Why Focused Strategies May Be Wrong For Emerging Markets. Harvard Business Review, 75, 41–54.
Kassem, R., Ajmal, M. M., & Khan, M. (2016). 'The Relationship Between Organizational Culture And Business Excellence: Case Study From United Arab Emirates', *International Journal Of Information Systems In The Service Sector,* 8(3), pp.16–35.
Khursani, S. A., Bazuhair, O. S., & Khan, M. R. (2011). 'Strategy For Rapid Transformation Of Saudi Arabia By Leveraging Intellectual Capital And Knowledge Management', *Saudi Aramco Journal Of Technology*, 4, pp.1–13.
Kibui, W., A., (2015). *Effect Of Talent Management On Employees Retention In Kenya's State Corporations*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation.
Kidder, C. M. J., Louise H., & Smith, E. R. (1991). *Research Methods In Social Relations.* Fort Worth, USA: Harcourt Brace Jonaovich College Publishers.
Kiessling, T., & Harvey, M. (2006). 'The Human Resource Management Issues During An Acquisition: The Target Firm's Top Management Team And Key Managers', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management,* 17(7), pp.1307–1320.
Kilgore, D. W. (2001). *The New Update Of Education Theory: New Directions In Adult And Continuing Education.* San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass.
Khilji, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (2017). 'Talent Management In The Global Context', In Collings, D. G., Mellahi, K. & Cascio, W. F. (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook Of Talent Management*, pp.399–420. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Khilji, S.E., Tarique, I. And Schuler, R.S. (2015). 'Incorporating The Macro View In Global Talent Management', *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(3), pp.236-248.
Kirkland, S. (2009). 'Creating A Common Language For Building A Successful Talent Management Program: Paving The Path For Succession, And Success, Within Your Organization', *Transfusion*, 49(7.2), Pp,1498–1501.
Klein, H. J., Noe, R. A., & Wang, C. (2006). 'Motivation To Learn And Course Outcomes: The Impact Of Delivery Mode, Learning Goal Orientation, And Perceived Barriers And Enablers', *Personnel Psychology*, 59(3), pp.665–702.
Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles And Practice Of Structural Equation Modelling, 2nd Edition*. New York, USA: Guilford.
Kline, R.B. (2010). 'Promise And Pitfalls Of Structural Equation Modeling In Gifted Research', In Thompson, B. & Subotnik, R. F. (Eds.), *Methodologies For Conducting Research On Giftedness* (pp. 147–169). *American Psychological Association.* Available at: https://doi.org/10.1037/12079-007.

Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles And Practice Of Structural Equation Modelling, 4th Edition*. New York, USA: Guilford.
Ko, J. and Hur, S., 2014. The impacts of employee benefits, procedural justice, and managerial trustworthiness on work attitudes: Integrated understanding based on social exchange theory. *Public Administration Review*, 74(2), pp.176-187.
Koh, A. (2003). 'Global Flows Of Foreign Talent: Identity Anxieties In Singapore's Ethnoscape', *SOJOURN: Journal Of Social Issues In Southeast Asia,* 18(2), pp.230–256.
Kohli, A. K. (1989). 'Effects Of Supervisory Behavior: The Role Of Individual Differences Among Salespeople', *Journal Of Marketing*, 53(4), pp.40–50.
Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experience As The Source Of Learning And Development*. Upper Sadle River, NJ, USA: Prentice Hall.
Kong, H., Cheung, C. And Song, H. (2012). 'From Hotel Career Management To Employees' Career Satisfaction: The Mediating Effect Of Career Competency', *International Journal Of Hospitality Management*, 31(1), pp.76-85.
Kontoghiorghes, C. And Bryant, N. (2004). 'Exploring Employee Commitment In A Service Organization In The Health Care Insurance Industry', *Organization Development Journal,* 22(3), P.59.
Korsgaard, M. A., Meglino, B. M., Lester, S. W., & Jeong, S. S. (2010). 'Paying You Back Or Paying Me Forward: Understanding Rewarded And Unrewarded Organizational Citizenship Behavior', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 95(2), 277.
Kostova, T., & Roth, K. (2002). 'Adoption Of An Organizational Practice By Subsidiaries Of Multinational Corporations: Institutional And Relational Effects', *Academy Of Management Journal*, 45(1), pp.215–233.
Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods And Techniques, 2nd Edition.* New Dehli: New Age International.
KPMG. (2008). 'Holy Grail Or Achievement Quest? International Perspectives On Public Sector Performance Management'. *KPMG, Global Public Sector Practice*.
KPMG (2017) The Brexit Effect on EU Nationals: A Survey on what European Workers will do [Online] Available from https://assets.kmpg.com/content/dam/kpmg/uk/pdf/2017/08/the-brexit-efffect-on-eu-nationals.pdf (Accessed 31.08.2017).
Krathwohl, D. (1997). *Methods Of Educational And Social Science Research: An Integrated Approach, 2nd Edition,* New York: Addison Wesley Longman.
Kravariti, F. And Johnston, K. (2020) 'Talent Management: A Critical Literature Review And Research Agenda For Public Sector Human Resource Management', *Public Management Review*, 22:1, pp.75-95, Available at: DOI: 10.1080/14719037.2019.1638439
Krishnan, L. R. K., Warier, S., & Kanaujia, K. (2013). 'An Empirical Examination Of Performance Management On Employee Retention', *International Journal Of Research In Commerce And Management*, 4(1), pp.148–156
Kruskal, W. H., & Wallis, W. A. (1952). 'Use Of Ranks In One-Criterion Variance Analysis', *Journal Of The American Statistical Association,* 47(260), pp.583-621.
K. Sahlin, E.-J., R. Suddaby Boxenbaum. (2008). *Isomorphism, Diffusion And Decoupling, The Sage Handbook Of Organizational Institutionalism.* London: Sage.
Kumar, R. (2011). *Research Methodology: A Step-By-Step Guide For Beginners, 3rd Edition.* London: Sage.
Kumar, R. (2014). *Research Methodology: A Step-By-Step Guide For Beginners. 4th. Edition*. London: Sage.
Kumar, R. (2018). *Research Methodology: A Step-By-Step Guide For Beginners, 5th Edition.* London: Sage.
Kuvaas, B. (2008). 'An Exploration Of How The Employee-Organisation Relationship Affects The Linkage Between Perception Of Developmental Human Resource Practices And Employee Outcomes', *Journal Of Management Studies*, 45, pp.1–25.

Laabs, J. J. (1993). 'HR Initiatives Support Bell Helicopter's New Plant Operations', *PERSONNEL JOURNAL,* 72(5), pp.60–76.
Lacey, M.Y. & Groves, K. (2014). 'Talent Management Collides With Corporate Social Responsibility: Creation Of Inadvertent Hypocrisy', *Journal Of Management Development*, 33(4), pp.399-409.
Laffaldano, M. T., & Muchinsky, P. M. (1985). 'Job Satisfaction And Job Performance: A Meta-Analysis', *Psychological Bulletin*, 97(2), 251.
Liao, H., Toya, K., Lepak, D. P., & Hong, Y. (2009). 'Do They See Eye To Eye? Management And Employee Perspectives Of High-Performance Work Systems And Influence Processes On Service Quality' *Journal Of Applied Psychology,* 94(2), 371–391. Available at: Doi: 10.1037/A0013504.
Lashley, C., (2002). 'Emotional Harmony, Dissonance And Deviance At Work', *International Journal Of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 14(5), pp.255-257.
Latham, G. P., & Locke, E. A. (1979). 'Goal Setting A Motivational Technique That Works;', *Organizational Dynamics*, 8(2), pp.68–80.
Latukha, M. (2016). *Talent Management In Emerging Market Firms.* London: Springer.
Lau, A. K. (2011).' Supplier And Customer Involvement On New Product Performance', *Industrial Management & Data Systems,* 111(6), pp.910-942.
Lavoie-Tremblay, M., Fernet, C., Lavigne, G. L., & Austin, S. (2016). 'Transformational And Abusive Leadership Practices: Impacts On Novice Nurses, Quality Of Care And Intention To Leave', *Journal Of Advanced Nursing*, 72(3), pp.582–592.
Lawler, E. (2008). 'Choosing The Right Talent Management Strategy', *Workspan*, 51(7), pp.65–81.
Lawler, E. (2009). 'Make Human Capital A Source Of Competitive Advantage', *Organizational Dynamics*, 38(1), pp.1-7.
Lawson, P. (1995). 'Performance Management: An Overview', In Walters, M., *The Performance Management Handbook*, pp.1–13. London: CIPD.
Lazarova, M., & Caligiuri, P. (2001). 'Retaining Repatriates: The Role Of Organizational Support Practices', *Journal Of World Business*, 36(4), pp.389–401.
Lee, C., Liu, J., Rousseau, D. M., Hui, C., & Chen, Z. X. (2011). 'Inducements, Contributions, And Fulfillment In New Employee Psychological Contracts', *Human Resource Managem*ent, 50(2), pp.201–226.
Lee, N., & Lings, I. (2008). *Doing Business Research: A Guide To Theory And Practice*.London: Sage.
Lee, T. W., Hom, P., Eberly, M., & Li, J. (2018). 'Managing Employee Retention And Turnover With 21st Century Ideas', *Organizational Dynamics,* 47(2), pp.88-98.
Lee, T. W., Mitchell, T. R., Sablynski, C. J., Burton, J. P., & Holtom, B. C. (2004). 'The Effects Of Job Embeddedness On Organizational Citizenship, Job Performance, Volitional Absences, And Voluntary Turnover', *Academy Of Management Journal*, 47(5), pp.711–722.
Leedy, P., & Ormrod, J. (2013). *Practical Research Planning And Design.* Boston, USA: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
Legge, K. (1978). *Power, Innovation, And Problem-Solving In Personnel Management. London*: McGraw-Hill.
Legge, K. (1994). 'Managing Culture: Fact Or Fiction', In Sisson K. (Ed.), *Personnel Management: A Comprehensive Guide To Theory And Practice In Britain*, pp.397–433. Oxford: Blackwell.
Leopold, J., & Harris, L. (2009). The Strategic Managing Of Human Resources. Pearson Education.
Lepak, D. P., & Snell, S. A. (2002). 'Examining The Human Resource Architecture: The Relationships Among Human Capital, Employment, And Human Resource Configurations', *Journal Of Management*, 28(4), pp.517–543.
Lepak, D. P., Taylor, M. S., Tekleab, A. G., Marrone, J. A., & Cohen, D. J. (2007). 'An Examination Of The Use Of High-Investment Human Resource Systems For Core And Support Employees', *Human Resource Management*, 46(2), pp.223-246.

Lepak, S. A., D. P. Snell. (2002). ‘Examining The Human Resource Architecture’, *Journal Of Management*, 28(1), pp.517-543.
Levinson, B. W. (1965). States of awareness during general anaesthesia: Preliminary communication. BJA: *British Journal of Anaesthesia*, 37(7), 544–546.
Levy, P.E. And Williams, J.R., 2004. ‘The Social Context Of Performance Appraisal: A Review And Framework For The Future’, *Journal Of Management*, 30(6), pp.881-905.
Lewis, D. S. (1994). ‘Organizational Change: Relationship Between Reactions, Behaviour And Organizational Performance’, *Journal Of Organizational Change Management*, 7(5), pp.41-55.
Lewis, J. R. (1993). ‘Multipoint Scales: Mean And Median Differences And Observed Significance Levels’, *International Journal Of Human-Computer Interaction,* 5(4), pp.383-392.
Lewis, R. E., & Heckman, R. J. (2006). ‘Talent Management: A Critical Review’, *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(2), pp.139–154.
Li, J., Hedayati-Mehdiabadi, A., Choi, J., Wu, F., & Bell, A. (2018). ‘Talent Management Process In Asia: A Multiple Case Study’, *European Journal Of Training And Development*, 42(7/8), pp.499-516.
Li, X., & Bryan, L. (2010). ‘On Becoming An Employer Of Choice: Gauging Employee Satisfaction Through Climatequal®’, *Library Trends*, 59(1), pp.256–268.
Li, X. And Frenkel, S. (2019). ‘Where Hukou Status Matters: Analyzing The Linkage Between Supervisor Perceptions Of HR Practices And Employee Work Engagement’, *The International Journal Of Huan Resource Management,* 28(17), pp.2375-2402
Lievens, F., Van Hoye, G., & Schreurs, B. (2005). ‘Examining The Relationship Between Employer Knowledge Dimensions And Organizational Attractiveness: An Application In A Military Context’, *Journal Of Occupational And Organizational Psychology*, 78(4), pp.553–572.
Light, J. N. (2004). *The Relationships And Effects Of Employee Involvement, Employee Empowerment, And Employee Satisfaction By Job-Type In A Large Manufacturing Environment.* Doctoral Thesis. Minneapolis, USA: Capella University.
Likert, R. (1961). *New Patterns Of Management.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
Lim, B. (1995). ‘Examining The Organizational Culture And Organizational Performance Link’, *Leadership & Organization Development Journal,* 16(5), pp.16-21.
Lincoln, G. E. G., Y. S. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA, USA: Sage.
Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., Guba, E. G., Et Al. (2011). ‘Paradigmatic Controversies, Contradictions, And Emerging Confluences, Revisited’, In Denzin, N.K., & Lincoln, Y. S., *The Sage Handbook Of Qualitative Research, 4th Edition,* pp.97–128. London: Sage.
Lings, I. And Lee, N. (2008). *Doing Business Research: A Guide To Theory And Practice*. London: Sage.
Lippman, S. A., & Rumelt, R. P. (1982). ‘Uncertain Imitability: An Analysis Of Interfirm Differences In Efficiency Under Competition’, *The Bell Journal Of Economics*, 13(2), pp.418–438.
Little, D. E., T. (2013). *The Oxford Handbook Of Quantitative Methods, Volume 1.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Liu, D., Gong, Y., Zhou, J., & Huang, J. C. (2017). ‘Human Resource Systems, Employee Creativity, And Firm Innovation: The Moderating Role Of Firm Ownership’, *Academy Of Management Journal*, 60(3), pp.1164–1188.
Lockwood, N. R. (2007). ‘Leveraging Employee Engagement For Competitive Advantage’, *Society For Human Resource Management Research Quarterly*, 1(1), pp.1–12.
Lockwood, N. R. (2017). ‘Talent Management’, *Driver For Organization Success*, pp.1-13.
Lockwood, N. R., Et Al. (2006). ‘Talent Management: Driver For Organizational Success’, *HR Magazine*, 51(6), pp.1–11.
Lok, P., & Crawford, J. (1999). ‘The Relationship Between Commitment And Organizational Culture, Subculture, Leadership Style And Job Satisfaction In Organizational Change And Development’, *Leadership & Organization Development Journal.* 20(7), pp.365-374.

Lok, P., & Crawford, J. (2004). 'The Effect Of Organisational Culture And Leadership Style On Job Satisfaction And Organisational Commitment: A Cross-National Comparison', *Journal Of Management Development*, 23(4), pp.321-338.

Long, T., & Johnson, M. (2000). 'Rigour, Reliability And Validity In Qualitative Research', *Clinical Effectiveness In Nursing*, 4(1), pp.30–37.

Lowhorn, G. L. (2007). 'Qualitative And Quantitative Research: How To Choose The Best Design', In *Academic Business World International Conference.* Nashville, TN, USA.

Luborsky, M. R., & Rubinstein, R. L. (1995). 'Sampling In Qualitative Research: Rationale, Issues, And Methods', *Research On Aging*, 17(1), pp.89–113.

Lucas, A.C., Ardichvili, A., Casa Nova, S.P.D.C., Bittencourt, J.P. And Carpenedo, C., (2018). 'Challenges Of Implementing Western Talent Development Models In A Collectivist Organizational Culture', *Advances In Developing Human Resources,* 20(4), pp.517-532.

Luna-Arocas, R., Valle, I. And Lara, F. (2020). 'Talent Management And Organizational Commitment: The Partial Mediating Role Of Pay Satisfaction', *Employee Relations: The International Journal.*

Luse, A., Mennecke, B. E., & Townsend, A. M. (2012). 'Selecting A Research Topic: A Framework For Doctoral Students', *International Journal Of Doctoral Studies,* 7, pp.143-152.

Lynch, S. (2003). *Using Statistics In Social Research: A Concise Approach*. London: Springer.

Lynham, S., & Webb-Johnson, G. (2008). *Models Of Epistemology And Inquiry Class Notes*. Texas A&M University.

Lyon, D. (2001). *Surveillance Society: Monitoring Everyday Life*. London: McGraw-Hill Education.

Lyon, M. G., F., & Saunders, M. (2012). *Handbook Of Research Methods On Trust.* Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

M., E.-S. (2008). *Management Research: Theory And Practice*. London: Sage.

Maaytah Et Al., (2013). *Talent Management And Competitive Advantage And The Impact Of The Integration Of Knowledge As An Intermediary Variable*. Amman.

Macky, K., & Boxall, P. (2007). 'The Relationship Between High-Performance Work Practices And Employee Attitudes: An Investigation Of Additive And Interaction Effects', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 18(4), pp.537–567.

Maclaran, P., & Catterall, M. (2002). 'Analysing Qualitative Data: Computer Software And The Market Research Practitioner', *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal,* 53(1), pp.17-24.

Madhavan P, S., & Marzouqi, Y. A. (2008). 'Leadership Excellence Attainment Determinants (Lead): Structural Similarities Beyond The Cultivated And/Or Cultural Diversities', *NHRD Network Journal*, 2(1), pp.46–52.

Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). 'Alumni And Their Alma Mater: A Partial Test Of The Reformulated Model Of Organizational Identification', *Journal Of Organizational Behavior,* 13(2), pp.103–123.

Mahoney, T.A., Jardee, T.H. And Allan, N.N. (1960) 'Predicting Managerial Effectiveness', *Personnel Psychology*, Summer: pp.147–63.

Malhotra, N.K. (1999). *Marketing Research. An Applied Orientation. 3rd Edition.* London: Prentice Hall.

Mak, B. L., & Sockel, H. (2001). 'A Confirmatory Factor Analysis Of Is Employee Motivation And Retention', *Information & Management*, 38(5), pp.265–276.

Mangal, M.E. (2021). 'A Study Of Factors Delivering Competitive Edge In Employee Retention', *Turkish Journal Of Computer And Mathematics Education*, 12(7), pp.2555-2571.

Manafa, O., Mcauliffe, E., Maseko, F. (2009). 'Retention Of Health Workers In Malawi: Perspectives Of Health Workers And District Management', *Human Resource Health* 7(1), 65.

Mann, H.B. And Whitney, D.R., (1947). 'On A Test Of Whether One Of Two Random Variables Is Stochastically Larger Than The Other', *The Annals Of Mathematical Statistics*, 18(1), pp.50-60.

March, J. G., Simon, H. A. (1958). Organizations. *John Wiley*.

Mark, S., Philip, L., & Adrian, T. (2009). *Research Methods For Business Students.* London: Prentice Hall.
Marmenout, K., & Lirio, P. (2014). 'Local Female Talent Retention In The Gulf: Emirati Women Bending With The Wind', *International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 25, pp.144- 166.
Martin, J. (1988). 'Organizational Culture And The Denial, Channeling, And Acknowledgement Of Ambiguity', In Pondy, L.R., Boland, R.J., Thomas, H. *Managing Ambiguity And Change, pp.*93-125. Oxford: Wiley.
Martinez-Lopez, F. J., Gazquez-Abad, J. C., & Sousa, C. M. (2013). 'Structural Equation Modelling In Marketing And Business Research: Critical Issues And Practical Recommendations', *European Journal Of Marketing,* 47(1), pp.115-152.
Marton-Williams, J. (1986) 'Questionnaire Design' In Worcester, R. And Downham, J., (Eds), *Consumer Market Research. Handbook*, London: McGraw-Hill.
Maruster, L., & Gijsenberg, M. (2013). *Qualitative Research Methods*. New York: Sage.
Marx, G. T. (1997). 'Of Methods And Manners For Aspiring Sociologists: 37 Moral Imperatives', *The American Sociologist*, 28(1), pp.102–125.
Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation And Personality*. New York: Harper & Row.
Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. (2000). 'Integrating Justice And Social Exchange: The Differing Effects Of Fair Procedures And Treatment On Work Relationships', *Academy Of Management Journal*, 43(4), pp.738–748.
Maurer, S. D., Howe, V., & Lee, T. W. (1992). 'Organizational Recruiting As Marketing Management: An Interdisciplinary Study Of Engineering Graduates', *Personnel Psychology*, 45(4), pp.807–833.
Mauss, M. (1925). *The Gift: Forms And Functional Of Exchange In Archaic Societies*. New York: The Norton Library.
Maxwell, J. (1996). *Qualitative Research Design.* London: Sage.
Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). 'An Integrative Model Of Organizational Trust', *Academy Of Management Review*, 20(3), pp.709–734.
Mbugua, G.M., Waiganjo, E.W. And Njeru, A., (2015). 'Relationship Between Strategic Recruitment And Employee Retention In Commercial Banks In Kenya', *International Journal Of Business Administration*, 6(1), P.87-97.
MCA. (2019). *Ministry Of Cabinet Affairs And The Future Performance Management Framework: Performance Management System ADAA.* Available at: https://www.mocaf.gov.ae/docs/default-source/default-document -library/gov-performance-management-framework.pdf?sfvrsn=6 (Accessed: 3 June 2020)
Mccartney, C. (2009). 'Fighting Back Through Talent Innovation-Clare Mccartney Reveals The Innovative Ways Some Organisations Are Approaching Talent Management During The Recession', *Training Journal,* 36.
Mcclelland, D. C. (1975). *Handbook Of Research Methods On Trust*. New York: Halsted Press.
Mcdonnell, A. (2011). 'Still Fighting The War For Talent? Bridging The Science Versus Practice Gap', *Journal Of Business And Psychology*, 26(2), pp.169–173.
Mcdonnell, A., Lamare, R., Gunnigle, P., & Lavelle, J. (2010). Developing Tomorrow's Leaders. Evidence Of Global Talent Management In Multinational Enterprises, 45(2), pp.150–160.
Mcdonnell, A., D. G. Collings, K. Mellahi, And R. S. Schuler. 2017. 'Talent Management: A Systematic Review And Future Prospects', *European Journal Of International Management*,11(1), pp.86–128.
Mcgrath, L. (2008). 'High Potential - A Winning Strategy', *Accountancy Ireland*, 40(2), 60.
Mcmillan, J. H. (2012). *Educational Research: Fundamentals For The Consumer, 6th Edition*. London: Pearson.
Mcneill, P. (2006). *Research Methods*. London: Routledge.

Mead, G. (2007). ‘Developing Public Service Leaders Through Action Inquiry’, In Rigg, C. And Richards, S. (Eds). *Action Learning: Leadership And Organizational Development In Public Series*, , pp.145-163. London: Routledge.

Mellahi, K., & Collings, D. G. (2010). ‘The Barriers To Effective Global Talent Management: The Example Of Corporate Elites In Mnes*’, Journal Of World Business*, 45(2), pp.143–149.

Merriam, S. B. (1991). ‘How Research Produces Knowledge’, In Peters, J.M., & Jarvis, P. (Eds) *Adult Education: Evolution And Achievements In A Developing Field Of Study*, pp.42–65. Oxford: Wiley.

Merriam, S. B., Caffarella, R. S., & Baumgartner, L. M. (2006). *Learning In Adulthood: A Comprehensive Guide, Third Edition.* Oxford: Wiley.

Mertens, D. M. (2010*). Research And Evaluation In Education And Psychology: Integrating Diversity With Quantitative, Qualitative, And Mixed Methods, 3rd. Edition.* Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). ‘A Three-Component Conceptualization Of Organizational Commitment’, *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1), pp.61–89.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993). ‘Commitment To Organizations And Occupations: Extension And Test Of A Three-Component Conceptualization’, *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 78(4), 538.

Meyers, M. C., & Van Woerkom, M. (2014). ‘The Influence Of Underlying Philosophies On Talent Management: Theory, Implications For Practice, And Research Agenda’, *Journal Of World Business*, 49(2), pp.192–203.

Meyers, V. W. M., M. (2013). ‘The Influence Of Underlying Philosophies On Talent Management: Theory, Implications For Practice, And Research Agenda’, *Department Of Human Resource Studies*, 49(2), pp.192-203.

Meyers, M. C., Van Woerkom, M., & Dries, N. (2013). ‘Talent—Innate Or Acquired? Theoretical Considerations And Their Implications For Talent Management’, *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), pp.305–321.

Mhamed Biygautane & Khalid Othman Al Yahya (2014). ‘Talent Management In The MENA And GCC Regions: Challenges And Opportunities’, Management For Professionals, In: Ariss, A.A., (Ed.), *Global Talent Management, Edition 127*, pp.197-215. London: Springer.

Michaels, E., Handfield-Jones, H., & Axelrod, B. (1999). *The War For Talent*. Boston, MA, USA: Harvard Business School Press.

Michaels, E., Handfield-Jones, H., & Axelrod, B. (2001). *The War For Talent.* Seattle, USA: Mckinsey & Company. Inc.

Milanzi, E., Njagi, E., Bruckers, L. And Molenberghs, G. (2015). *Data Representativeness: Issues And Solutions*. External Scientific Report. Belgium: Interuniversity Institute For Biostatistics And Statistical Bioinformatics, pp.159-203.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook*. London: Sage.

Minchington, B. (2006). *Your Employer Brand: Attract, Engage, Retain.*Adelaide, Australia: Collective Learning.

Ministry Of Cabinet Affairs And The Future (2019). *Government Performance Management Framework: Performance Management System ADAA.* Available at: https://www.mocaf.gov.ae/docs/default-source/default-document-library/gov-performance-management-framework.pdf?sfvrsn=6 (Accessed: 3 June, 2020)

Mitchell, J. (2012). *Leadership Development.* Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Mohammad, A. (2015). ‘The Impact Of Talent Management On Employee Engagement, Retention And Value Addition In Achieving Organizational Performance’, *International Journal Of Core Engineering & Management (IJCEM*); 1(12): pp.142-152.

MOHRE. (2019). *About Us.* Available at: https://mohre.gov.ae/en/about-us/mohre-strategy.aspx (Accessed: 15 July 2019)

Mohrman, R.-W. S., A., & Lawler, E. (1989*). Designing Performance Appraisal Systems*. San Francisco, CA, USA: Jossey-Bass,
Mok, K. H., & Chan, S.-J. (2020). *Promoting Global Cities Status: Talent Attraction And Retention In Asia*. London: Taylor & Francis.
Monteiro, B., Santos, V., Reis, I., Sampaio, M.C., Sousa, B., Martinho, F., José Sousa, M. And Au-Yong-Oliveira, M. (2020). 'Employer Branding Applied To Smes: A Pioneering Model Proposal For Attracting And Retaining Talent', *Information,* 11(12), P.574.
Morgan, D. L. (1998). 'Practical Strategies For Combining Qualitative And Quantitative Methods: Applications To Health Research', *Qualitative Health Research*, 8(3), pp.362–376.
Morse, J. M. (1991). ;Approaches To Qualitative-Quantitative Methodological Triangulation', *Nursing Research,* 40(2), pp.120–123.
Morton, L. (2004), *Integrated And Integrative Talent Management: A Strategic HR Framework*, Research Report R-1345-04-RR, The Conference Board, New York, NY.
Morton, L. (2005). *Talent Management Value Imperatives: Strategies For Execution*. Research Report R-1360-05-RR, Conference Board.
Mossholder, K. W., Settoon, R. P., Henagan, S. C. (2005). 'A Relational Perspective On Turnover: Examining Structural, Attitudinal, And Behavioral Predictors', *Academy Of Management Journal*, 48(4), pp.607–618.
Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). 'The Measurement Of Organizational Commitment', *Journal Of Vocational Behavior*, 14(2), pp.224–247.
Mulki, J. P., Caemmerer, B., & Heggde, G. S. (2015). 'Leadership Style, Salesperson's Work Effort And Job Performance: The Influence Of Power Distance', *Journal Of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 35(1), pp.3–22.
Mulki, J. P., & Jaramillo, F. (2011). 'Workplace Isolation: Salespeople And Supervisors In USA', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 22(04), pp.902–923.
Mulki, J. P., Jaramillo, F., & Locander, W. B. (2006). 'Effects Of Ethical Climate And Supervisory Trust On Salespersons Job Attitudes And Intentions To Quit', *Journal Of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 26(1), pp.19–26.
Murphy, J. P. (1990). *Pragmatism: From Peirce To Davidson.* Boulder, CO, USA: Westview Press.
Mustapha, N., Ahmad, A., Uli, J., Iis, K. (2010). 'Job Characteristics As Antecedents Of Intention To Stay And Mediating Effects Of Work Family Facilitation And Family Satisfaction Among Single Mothers In Malaysia', *International Journal Of Business And Social Science*, 1(3), pp.59–74.
Muthen, L. K., & Muthen, B. O. (2002). 'How To Use A Monte Carlo Study To Decide On Sample Size And Determine Power', *Structural Equation Modeling,* 9(4), pp.599–620.
Muyia, M. H., Wekullo, C. S., And Nafukho, F. M. (2018). 'Talent Development In Emerging Economies Through Learning And Development Capacity Building', *Advances In Developing Human Resources*, 20(4), pp.498–516.
Naif, F. A., David, B., Abdullah, A. (2013) 'To What Extent Talent Management In Saudi Arabian Banks', *International Journal Of Advances In Management Science,* 2(1), pp.9-15.
Naithani, D., & Jha, A., N. (2009). 'Challenges Faced By Expatriate Workers In The Gulf Cooperation Council Countries' *International Journal Of Business And Management,* 5(1), pp.98–104.
Najjar, B. (2013). 'Foreign Labor And Identity Issues In The Arab Gulf', *Imran, 3,* pp.1–23.
Nargotra, M. and Sarangal, R.K., 2021. Perceived Organizational Support and Intention to Stay: The Mediating Effect of Employee Engagement. *FIIB Business Review*, p.23197145211042521.
Nebeker, D. M., & Tatum, B. C. (1993). 'The Effects Of Computer Monitoring, Standards, And Rewards On Work Performance, Job Satisfaction, And Stress', *Journal Of Applied Social Psychology,* 23(7), pp.508–536.
Neuman, W. (2009). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative And Quantitative Approaches. 1st. Edition*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Ng, T. W., & Butts, M. M. (2009). 'Effectiveness Of Organizational Efforts To Lower Turnover Intentions: The Moderating Role Of Employee Locus Of Control', *Human Resource Management*: 48(2), pp.289–310.

NHSLA. (2014). NHS Leadership Academy Talent And Talent Management Insights. Available at: https://eoeleadership.hee.nhs.uk/sites/default/files/insight-1-defining-talent-and-talent-management.pdf (Accessed: 13 March 2016)

Nicholls, J. (1988). 'The Transforming Autocrat', *Management Today*, 3, pp.114–18.

Nikandrou, I., Brinia, V., & Bereri, E. (2009). 'Trainee Perceptions Of Training Transfer: An Empirical Analysis', *Journal Of European Industrial Training,* 33, pp.255-270.

Nilsson, S., & Ellstrom, P.-E. (2012). Employability And Talent Management: Challenges For HRM Practices. *European Journal Of Training And Development*, 36(1), P.26-45

Ntonga, S. (2007) *The Impact Of Talent Management On Business Performance*. Research Project, University Of Pretoria.

Nunnally, J.C. (1978) *Psychometric Theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Nura, A. A., & Osman, N. H. (2013). 'Gauging The Effect Of Performance Management And Technology Based Human Resource Management On Employee Retention: The Perspective Of Academics In Higher Educational Institutions In Sokoto State Nigeria', *Asian Social Science*, 9(15), pp.295-304.

Obrien, R. M. (2007). 'A Caution Regarding Rules Of Thumb For Variance Inflation Factors', *Quality & Quantity*, 41(5), pp.673–690.

Odierno, R. (2015). 'Leader Development And Talent Management', *Military Review*, pp.9–14.

OECD. (2012a). *Oecd Indicators Of Employment Protection*. Available at: www.oecd.org/els/emp/oecdindicatorsofemploymentprotection.htm (Accessed: 15 March 2017)

OECD. (2012b). *Tourism Trends And Policies 2012*. Available at: Http:// Dx.Doi.Org/10.1787/Tour-2012-En (Accessed: 15 March 2017)

Oehley, A. M., & Theron, C. C. (2010).' The Development And Evaluation Of A Partial Talent Management Structural Model. Management Dynamics', *Journal Of The Southern African Institute For Management Scientists*, 19(3), pp.2–28.

Ogbonna, E. (1992). 'Managing Organisational Culture: Fantasy Or Reality?' *Human Resource Management Journal,* 3(2), pp.42–54.

Ogbonna, E., & Harris, L. C. (2000). 'Leadership Style, Organizational Culture And Performance: Empirical Evidence From UK Companies', *International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 11(4), pp.766–788.

Oglesby, R., Leblanci, H., & Adams, M. (2010). 'Business Research Yearbook: Global Busines Perspectives', *The International Academy Of Business Discipline*, 12(1).

Ohunakin, F., Adeniji, A.A., Ogunlusi, G., Igbadumhe, F. And Sodeinde, A.G. (2020). 'Talent Retention Strategies And Employees' Behavioural Outcomes: Empirical Evidence From The Hospitality Industry', *Business: Theory And Practice,* 21(1), pp.192-199.

Oladapo, V. (2014). 'The Impact Of Talent Management', *Journal Of Business Studies Quarterly*, 5(3), pp.19-36.

Omar, K., Abdul Majid, A. H., & Johari, H. (2013). 'Job Satisfaction And Turnover Intention Among Nurses: The Mediating Role Of Moral Obligation', *Journal Of Global Management,* 5(1).

Ongori, H. (2007). 'A Review Of The Literature On Employee Turnover', *African Journal Of Business Management*, 1(3), pp.49-54.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Leech, N. L. (2007). 'Sampling Designs In Qualitative Research: Making The Sampling Process More Public', *Qualitative Report*, 12(2), pp.238–254.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Osanloo, A., & Grant, C. (2016). ‘Understanding, Selecting, And Integrating A Theoretical Framework In Dissertation Research: Creating The Blueprint For Your ‘House’’. *Administrative Issues Journal: Connecting Education, Practice, And Research*, 4(2), pp.12-26.

Palframam, D. (2008). *Compensation & Benefits: A Global View*. Available at: http://www.conference-board.org/publications/ publicationdetail.cfm?publicationid=1416. (Accessed: 10 February 2016).

Pallas, A.M., (2001). ‘Preparing Education Doctoral Students For Epistemological Diversity’, *Educational Researcher,* 30(5), pp.1-6.

Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS Survival Manual*. London: McGraw-Hill Education.

Pan, W., Sun, L.-Y., & Chow, I. H. S. (2012). Leader-Member Exchange And Employee Creativity: Test Of A Multilevel Moderated Mediation Model. Human Performance, 25(5), 432–451.

Paramus, N. P. H. P. (1999). *Topgrading: How Leading Companies Win By Hiring, Coaching, And Keeping The Best People.* London: Portfolio.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1994). ‘Alternative Scales For Measuring Service Quality: A Comparative Assessment Based On Psychometric And Diagnostic Criteria’, *Journal Of Retailing*, 70(3), pp.201–230.

Parzefall, M.-R. and Salin, D. (2010). Perceptions of and reactions to workplace bullying: a social exchange perspective. Human Relations, 63 (6) (2010), pp. 761-780.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative Evaluation And Research Methods, 2nd Edition*. London: Sage.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research And Evaluation Methods, 3rd Edition.* London: Sage.

Papini, J.D.S. (2007). *Big Brother: The Effect Of Electronic Employee Monitoring On Electronic Misbehavior, Job Satisfaction, And Organizational Commitment.* Alliant International University, Los Angeles.

Paul, A. K., & Anantharaman, R. N. (2003). ‘Impact Of People Management Practices On Organizational Performance: Analysis Of A Causal Model’, *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 14(7), pp.1246–1266.

Pawar, A. (2020). ‘Prognostic Model For Employer Brand, Talent Attraction, And Employee Retention Through Employee Value Proposition’, *Journal Of Applied Management And Investments*, 9(3), pp.133-152.

Paisey, C. And Paisey, N. J. (2016). ‘Talent Management In Academia: The Effect Of Discipline And Context On Recruitment’, *Studies In Higher Education*, 43, pp.1196–1214.

Penrose, E. T. (1959). *The Theory Of The Growth Of The Firm.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Perry Hinton, D., Hinton, P. R., Mcmurray, I., & Brownlow, C. (2004). *SPSS Explained*. London: Routledge.

Peter, B., & Pierre, J. (2007). *The Handbook Of Public Administration*. London: Sage.

Peterson, R. A., & Kim, Y. (2013). ‘On The Relationship Between Coefficient Alpha And Composite Reliability’, *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 98(1), 194.

Pfeffer, J. (1994). *Competitive Advantage Through People: Unleashing The Power Of The Work Force*. Boston, MA, USA: Harvard Business Press.

Pfeffer, J., Jeffrey, P., Et Al. (1998). *The Human Equation: Building Profits By Putting People First*. Boston, MA, USA: Harvard Business Press.

Phillips, D. C., & Burbules, N. C. (2000). *Postpositivism And Educational Research*. Boulder, CO, USA: Rowmon And Littlefield,

Phillips, J. (2003). *Return On Investment In Training And Performance Improvement Programs: Improving Human Performance Series.* London: Butterworth Heinemann.

Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). ‘Common Method Biases In Behavioral Research: A Critical Review Of The Literature And Recommended Remedies’, *Journal Of Applied Psychology,* 88(5), pp.879-903.

Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). ‘Transformational Leader Behaviors And Their Effects On Followers’ Trust In Leader, Satisfaction, And Organizational Citizenship Behaviors’, *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2), pp.107–142.

Poon, J.M.L. (2004). Effects Of Performance Appraisal Politics On Job Satisfaction And Turnover Intention. Personnel Review, Vol. 33 No. 3, pp.322-334.

Poorhosseinzadeh, M., & Subramaniam, I. D. (2012). 'Determinants Of Successful Talent Management In Mncs In Malaysia', *Journal Of Basic And Appplied Scientific Research*, 2, pp.12524- 12533.

Popper, K. (1959*). Philosophy Of Science*. London: Routledge.

Powell, S., & Wood, D. (1999). 'Is Recruitment The Millennium Time Bomb For The Industry Worldwide?' *International Journal Of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 11, pp.138-9.

Prakosa, M. M., Dewanti, N., Purwanza, S. W. (2019). The impact of perceived organizational support (POS) for increasing the intention to stay: A systematic review. *Journal Ners*, 14(3), 301–304.

Pratt, J. W., & Zeckhauser, R. J. (1991). *Principals And Agents: The Structure Of Business.* Boston, USA: Harvard Business School Press.

Preissle, J. (2006). 'Envisioning Qualitative Inquiry: A View Across Four Decades', *International Journal Of Qualitative Studies In Education,* 19(6), pp.685–695.

Prinsloo, L. (2012). *Talent Management And Psychological Contract.* Dissertation. University Of Pretoria.

Punch, K. (2005). *Introduction To Social Research: Quantitative And Qualitative Approaches*. London: Sage.

Puravangara, S. M., & Al Marzouqi, D. Y. (2008). 'Leadership Excellence Attainment Determinants (Lead): Structural Similarities Beyond The Cultivated And/Or Cultural Diversities', *NHRD Journal,* 2(1), pp.46-52.

Quick, J. C. (1992). 'Crafting An Organizational Culture: Herb's Hand At Southwest Airlines', *Organizational Dynamics*, 21(2), pp.45–56.

Quinn, R. E. (1988). *Beyond Rational Management: Mastering The Paradoxes And Competing Demands Of High Performance*. Hoboken, NJ, USA: Jossey-Bass.

Quirke, B. (2008). *Making The Connections: Using Internal Communication To Turn Strategy Into Action.* Bodmin, Cornwall: MPG Books Ltd.

Qureshi, T.M. (2019). 'Talent Retention Using High Performance Work Systems', *International Journal Of Organizational Innovation*, 12(2), pp.10-19.

Rabbi, F., Ahad, N., Kousar, T. And Ali, T. (2015). 'Talent Management As A Source Of Competitive Advantage', *Asian Economic And Social Society*, 5(9), pp.208- 214.

Rad, A. M. M., & Yarmohammadian, M. H. (2006). 'A Study Of Relationship Between Managers' Leadership Style And Employees' Job Satisfaction', *Leadership In Health Services*. 19(2), pp.11-28.

Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. A. (2006). 'Refining Individualized Consideration: Distinguishing Developmental Leadership And Supportive Leadership', *Journal Of Occupational And Organizational Psychology,* 79(1), pp.37–61.

Rafnsdottir, G. L., & Gudmundsdottir, M. L. (2011). 'EMP Technology And The Psychosocial Work Environment. New Technology', *Work And Employment*, 26(3), pp.210–221.

Raman, R., Chadee, D., Roxas, B. & Michailova, S. (2013).' Effects Of Partnership Quality, Talent Management, And Global Mindset On Performance Of Offshore IT Service Providers In India', *Journal Of International Management,* 19, pp.333-346.

Ramlall, S. (2004). 'A Review Of Employee Motivation Theories And Their Implications For Employee Retention Within Organizations', *Journal Of American Academy Of Business*, 5(1/2), pp.52–63.

Randeree, K. (2006). 'The Participation Of Women In Dubai's Knowledge-Based Economy: Communities In Transition'. *Paper Presented At The Women As Global Leaders Conference 2006*. Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates.

Rana, G., A. K. Goer, And R. Rastogi (2013). 'Talent Management: A Paradigm Shift In Indian Public

Sector.' *Strategic HR Review* 12 (4), pp.197–202.
Ray, C. A. (1986). 'Corporate Culture: The Last Frontier Of Control', *Journal Of Management Studies.*23(3), pp.287-297.
Razali, N.M. And Wah, Y.B. (2011). 'Power Comparisons Of Shapiro-Wilk, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Lilliefors And Anderson-Darling Tests', *Journal Of Statistical Modeling And Analytics,* 2(1), pp.21-33.
Ready, D. A., & Conger, J. A. (2007).' Make Your Company A Talent Factory', *Harvard Business Review*, 85(6), 68.
Ready, D. A., Hill, L. A., & Conger, J. A. (2008). 'Winning The Race For Talent In Emerging Markets', *Harvard Business Review,* 86(11), 62–70.
Reda, J. (2010). 'Appraising Executive Talent' In Berger, L.A, & Berger, D.R. (Eds) *Talent Management Handbook, 2nd. Edition,* pp.76-86. London: McGraw-Hill.
Reese, W. (1980).*Dictionary Of Philosophy And Religion*. Atlantic Highlands, NJ, USA: Humanities Press.
Refan, G.S. And Suciratin, A.M. (2021). 'Talent Management And Employee Retention With Organizational Trust As Mediating In Insurance Industry', *Psychology And Education Journal,* 58(2), pp.3776-3790.
Redmond, M. V. (2015). *Social Exchange Theory, Volume 5*. Iowa: English Technical Reports And White Papers.
Revans, R. (1987). 'Action Learning In Brief.' *Opening Address At Revans Action Learning Workshop Of The International Management Centres Association.*
Reichheld, F. F. (1993). 'Loyalty-Based Management', *Harvard Business Review,* 71(2), pp.64–73.
Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). 'Perceived Organizational Support: A Review Of The Literature', *Journal Of Applied Psychology,* 87(4), 698.
Rigg, C., & Richards, S. (2006). *Action Learning, Leadership And Organizational Development In Public Services. 1st. Edition.* London: Routledge.
Rigg, C., & Trehan, K. (2004). 'Reflections On Working With Critical Action Learning', *Action Learning: Research And Practice*, 1(2), pp.149–165.
Riggle, R. J., Edmondson, D. R., & Hansen, J. D. (2009). 'A Meta-Analysis Of The Relationship Between Perceived Organizational Support And Job Outcomes: 20 Years Of Research', *Journal Of Business Research*, 62(10), pp.1027–1030.
Riley, M. (1996). *Human Resource Management In The Hospitality And Tourism Industry*. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.
Ringo, T., Schweyer, A., Demarco, M., Jones, R., & Lesser, E. (2008). *Integrated Talent Management: Part 3 - Turning Talent Management Into A Competitive Advantage: An Industry View*. Somers, NY, USA: IBM Corporation.
Rino Schreuder, S. N. & Noorman, S. (2018). 'Strategic Talent Management: Creating Strategic Value By Placing Top Talents In Key Positions'*, Development And Learning In Organizations*, 33(1), pp.1-4.
Riordan, M. H., & Williamson, O. E. (1985). 'Asset Specificity And Economic Organization', *International Journal Of Industrial Organization*, 3(4), pp.365–378.
Robson, C. (1998). *Real World Research*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
Robson, C. (2002). *Real World Research: A Resource For Social Scientists And Practitioner Researchers*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
Rotemberg, J. J., & Saloner, G. (1993). 'Leadership Style And Incentives', *Management Science*, 39(11), pp.1299–1318.
Rothwell, W. (2010). *Effective Succession Planning: Ensuring Leadership Continuity And Building Talent From Within, 4th. Edition.* New York, USA: Amacom.
Rousseau, D. M. (1990). 'New Hire Perceptions Of Their Own And Their Employer's Obligations: A Study Of Psychological Contracts', *Journal Of Organizational Behavior*, 11(5), pp.389–400.

Rousseau, D. M. (1995). *Psychological Contracts In Organizations: Understanding Written And Unwritten Agreements.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
Rousseau, D. M., & Greller, M. M. (1994). 'Human Resource Practices: Administrative Contract Makers', *Human Resource Management,* 33(3), pp.385–401.
Rowold, J. (2006). 'Transformational And Transactional Leadership In Martial Arts', *Journal Of Applied Sport Psychology,* 18(4), pp.312–325.
Russell, E. (2011). 'Leadership Theories And Style: A Traditional Approach', *Unpublished Paper Submitted For The General Douglas Macarthur Military Leadership Writing Competition.*
Rutledge, E., Al Shamsi, F., Bassioni, Y., & Al Sheikh, H. (2011). 'Women, Labour Market Nationalization Policies And Human Resource Development In The Arab Gulf States', *Human Resource Development International*, 14(2), pp.183–198.
Rynes, S. L., Gerhart, B., & Minette, K. A. (2004). 'The Importance Of Pay In Employee Motivation: Discrepancies Between What People Say And What They Do', *Human Resource Management*, 43(4), pp.381–394.
Saaty, T. L. (2012). *Decision Making For Leaders: The Analytical Hierarchy Process For Decision In A Complex World*. Pittsburgh, PA,USA: RWS Publications.
Sabado, A. (2012). 'Global Talent Management Of Multinational Companies', *European Journal Of Business And Management,* 4(21) pp.117-124.
Saks, A. M. (2006). 'Antecedents And Consequences Of Employee Engagement', *Journal Of Managerial Psychology*, 21(7), 600–619.
Sandelowski, M. (2000). 'Combining Qualitative And Quantitative Sampling, Data Collection, And Analysis Techniques In Mixed-Method Studies', *Research In Nursing & Health*, 23(3), pp.246–255.
Sathe, V. (1983). 'Implications Of Corporate Culture: A Manager's Guide To Action', *Organizational Dynamics*, 12(2), pp.5–23.
Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2007). *Research Methods For Business Students. 4th. Edition*. Harlow, UK: Prentice Hall.
Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research Methods For Business Students. 5th. Edition*. London: Pearson.
Schall, M. S. (1983). 'A Communication-Rules Approach To Organizational Culture', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28(4), pp.557–581.
Schein, E. (1992). *Organizational Culture And Leadership, 2nd. Edition*. San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass.
Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H. And Müller, H. (2003). 'Evaluating The Fit Of Structural Equation Models: Tests Of Significance And Descriptive Goodness-Of-Fit Measures', *Methods Of Psychological Research Online,* 8(2), pp.23-74
Scheweyer, A. (2004). *Talent Management System: Best Practices In Technology Solutions For Recruitment, Retention And Workforce Planning*. New York, USA: Wiley.
Schleifer, L.M., Galinsky, T.L. And Pan, C.S. (1995). 'Mood Disturbance And Musculoskeletal Discomfort Effects Of Electronic Performance Monitoring In A Vdt Data-Entry Task', In S. L. Sauter & L. R. Murphy (Eds.), *Organizational Risk Factors For Job Stress*, pp.195–203, Washington D.C., USA: American Psychological Association.
Scholz, C., Stein, V., & Bechtel, R. (2006*). Human Capital Management: Ways Out Of The Non-Binding Nature, 2nd. Edition.* Neuwied, Germany: Luchterhand.
Schreuder, R. & Noorman, S. (2019). 'Strategic Talent Management: Creating Strategic Value By Placing Top Talents In Key Positions', *Development And Learning In Organizations: An International Journal*, 33(1), pp.1-4.
Schuler R. And Tarique, I. (2009). 'Global Talent Management: Literature Review, Integrative Framework, And Suggestions For Further Research', *Journal Of World Business*, 45(2), pp.122–133.

Schuler, R. And Jackson, S.E. (2014). ‘Human Resource Management And Organizational Effectiveness: Yesterday And Today’, *Journal Of Organizational Effectiveness: People And Performance*, 1(1), pp.35-55.

Schuler, R. S., Jackson, S. E., & Tarique, I. (2011). ‘Global Talent Management And Global Talent Challenges: Strategic Opportunities For IHRM’, *Journal Of World Business,* 46(4), pp.506–516.

Scott, J.C., Rogelberg, S.G. And Mattson, B.W. (2010). ‘Managing And Measuring The Talent Management Function’, In Silzer R. & Dowell B. E. (Eds.) *Strategy-Driven Talent Management: A Leadership Imperative*, pp.503-547. San Francisco, CA, USA: Jossey-Bass.

Schwandt, T., Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (1998). *The Landscape Of Qualitative Research: Theories And Issues*. Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.

Schwandt, T. A. (2007). *The Sage Dictionary Of Qualitative Inquiry, 3rd. Edition.* Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.

Scullion, H., & Collings, D. (2006). *Global Staffing,* London: Routledge.

Scullion, H. & Collings, D. (2011). *Global Talent Management*. London: Routledge.

Scullion, H., & Starkey, K. (2000). ‘In Search Of The Changing Role Of The Corporate Human Resource Function In The International Firm’, *International Journal Of Human Resource Management,* 11(6), pp.1061–1081.

Sears, D. (2003). *Successful Talent Strategies, American Management Association.* New York, USA: Routledge.

Sebald, H., Enneking, A., & Woltje, O. (2005). *Talent Management: Between Claim And Reality*. Frankfurt Am Main: Towers Perrin.

Seiler, S., Lent, B., Pinkowska, M., & Pinazza, M. (2011). ‘An Integrated Model Of Factors Influencing Project Managers' Motivation’, *International Journal Of Project Management*, 30, pp.60-72.

Sekaran, U. & Bougie, R. (2010). *Research Methods For Business: A Skill Building Approach, 5th Edition*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Seldon, A., & Pappworth, J. (1983). *By Word Of Mouth:” ′Elite” Oral History.* London: Taylor & Francis.

Shafiezadehgarousi, R. (2011). ‘The Empowerment, Ongoing Limits And Consequences In Financial Services’, *Review Of Management Innovation & Creativity,* 4(11).

Shah, M. And Asad, M., 2018. ‘Effect Of Motivation On Employee Retention: Mediating Role Of Perceived Organizational Support’, *European Online Journal Of Natural And Social Sciences,* 7(2), Pp-511.

Shapiro, S. S., & Wilk, M. B. (1965). ‘An Analysis Of Variance Test For Normality’, *Biometrika*, 52(3/4), pp.591–611.

Shaw, J. D., Dineen, B. R., Fang, R., & Vellella, R. F. (2009). ‘Employee-Organization Exchange Relationships, HRM Practices, And Quit Rates Of Good And Poor Performers’, *Academy Of Management Journal*, 52(5), pp.1016-1033.

Shediac, R., & Samman, H. (2010) *Meeting The Employment Challenge In The GCC The Need For A Holistic Strategy.* Abu Dhabi, UAE: Booz & Company Ideation Center Insight.

Sheehan, M., Grant, K., & Garavan, T. (2018). ‘Strategic Talent Management. A Macro And Micro Analysis Of Current Issues In Hospitality And Tourism’, *Worldwide Hospitality And Tourism Themes*. 10(1), pp.28-41.

Sheridan, J. E. (1992). ‘Organizational Culture And Employee Retention’, *Academy Of Management Journal,* 35(5), pp.1036–1056.

Shields, J. (2007). *Managing Employee Performance And Reward: Concepts, Practices, Strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sidani, Y., & Al Ariss, A. (2014). ‘Institutional And Corporate Drivers Of Global Talent Management: Evidence From The Arab Gulf Region’, *Journal Of World Business*, 49(2), pp.215–224.

Sidani, Y. M., & Thornberry, J. (2010). 'The Current Arab Work Ethic: Antecedents, Implications, And Potential Remedies', *Journal Of Business Ethics*, 91(1), pp.35–49.
Sidani, Y. M., & Thornberry, J. (2013). 'Nepotism In The Arab World: An Institutional Theory Perspective', *Business Ethics Quarterly,* 23(1), pp.69–96.
Silverman, D. (2000). *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Handbook.* London: Sage.
Silzer, D. B. E., D. (2010). *Strategy-Driven Talent Management. A Leadership Imperative*. San Francisco, USA: John Wiley & Sons.
Simms, J. (1997). 'Beauty Queen', *Marketing Business*, pp.48-51.
Singh, S. (2017). 'Impact And Effectiveness Of Corporate Training Programs Through Industry - Academia Tie-Ups', *Journal Of Commerce & Management Thought*, 7(2), pp.309-320.
Singh, A., Jones, D. B., & Hall, N. (2012). 'Talent Management: A Research Based Case Study In The GCC Region', *International Journal Of Business And Management,* 7(24), pp.94-107.
Singh, A., & Sharma, J. (2015). 'Strategies For Talent Management: A Study Of Select Organizations In The UAE', *International Journal Of Organizational Analysis*, 23(3), pp.337 – 347.
Singh, K. (2000). 'Effect Of Human Resources Management (HRM) Practices On Firm Performance In Indi*a', Indian Journal Of Industrial Relations*, 36(1), pp.1–23.
Singh, S. (2016). 'Impact And Effectiveness Of Corporate Training Programs Through Industry Academia Tie-Ups', *Journal Of Commerce And Management Thought,* 7(2), pp.309-219
Silverman, D. (2000) *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Handbook*. London: Sage.
Sink, D., & Tuttle, T. (1990). 'The Performance Management Question In The Organization Of The Future', *Industrial Management,* 32(1), pp.4–12.
Slater, S.F. (1995). 'Issues In Conducting Marketing Strategy Research', *Journal Of Strategic Marketing*, 3(4), pp.257-270.
Smart, B. D. (1999). *Topgrading: How Leading Companies Win By Hiring, Coaching, And Keeping The Best People*. Paramus, NJ, USA: Printice Hall Press.
Smilansky, J. (2006). *Developing Executive Talent*. Oxford: John Wiley & Sons.
Smircich, L. (1983). 'Concepts Of Culture And Organizational Analysis', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 28(3), pp.339-358.
Smith, M.S. Waterman, W.M. Fitch J. (1981) 'Comparative Biosequence Metrics', *Journal Of Molecular Evolution*, 18(1), pp.38–46.
Smith, C., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). 'Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its Nature And Antecedents', *Journal Of Applied Psychology,* 68(4), 653-663.
Smith, M. J., Carayon, P., Sanders, K. J., Lim, S.-Y., & Legrande, D. (1992). 'Employee Stress And Health Complaints In Jobs With And Without Electronic Performance Monitoring', *Applied Ergonomics*, 23(1), pp.17–27.
Smylie, M. A. (1992). 'Teacher Participation In School Decision Making: Assessing Willingness To Participate', *Educational Evaluation And Policy Analysis*, 14(1), pp.53–67.
Snoj, J. (2015). 'UAE's Population–By Nationality', *BQ Magazine*.
Sowmya, D., Chandrasekaran, A. And Patterson, L. (2018) 'An Empirical Study Of Leadership Styles In The UAE Human Resource Strategy', *Academy Of Strategic Management Journal.* 17(6), pp.1-22.
Sparrow, P.R. (2007). 'Globalization Of HR At Function Level: Four UK-Based Case Studies Of The International Recruitment And Selection Process', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 18(5), pp.845-867.
Sparrow, P. (2019). 'A Historical Analysis Of Critiques In The Talent Management Debate', *Business Research Quarterly*, 22(3), Pp,160–170.
Sparrow, P., Farndale, E., & Scullion, H. (2013). 'An Empirical Study Of The Role Of The Corporate HR Function In Global Talent Management In Professional And Financial Service Firms In The Global Financial Crisis', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management,* 24(9), pp.1777–1798.

Sparrow, P. R., & Makram, H. (2015). 'What Is The Value Of Talent Management? Building Value-Driven Processes Within A Talent Management Architecture', *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(3), pp.249–263.

Spitzer, D. (2007). *Transforming Performance Measurement: How To Drive Organizational Success With Reliable Verification.* Available at: http:// deanspitzer.com/resources/tpminterview.pdf (Accessed: 29 March 2012)

Spreitzer, G. M. (2006). 'Psychological Empowerment In The Workplace: Dimensions, Measurement, And Validation', *Academy Of Management Journal,* 38(5), Pp,1442–1465.

Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). 'Psychological Empowerment In The Workplace: Dimensions, Measurement, And Validation', *Academy Of Management Journal*, 38(5), pp.1442–1465.

Srivastava, P. And Bhatnagar, J. (2010). 'Employer Brand For Talent Acquisition: An Exploration Towards Its Measurement', *Vision,* 14(1-2), pp.25-34.

Stahl, G., Bjorkman, I., Farndale, E., Morris, S., Paauwe, J., Stiles, P., & Wright, P. (2007). 'Global Talent Management: How Leading Multinationals Build And Sustain Their Talent Pipeline'. *INSEAD Faculty And Research Working Papers*. Fontainebleau: INSEAD.

Stahl, G. K., Chua, C. H., Caligiuri, P., Cerdin, J.-L., & Taniguchi, M. (2009). 'Predictors Of Turnover Intentions In Learning-Driven And Demand-Driven International Assignments: The Role Of Repatriation Concerns, Satisfaction With Company Support, And Perceived Career Advancement Opportunities.' *Human Resource Management*, 48(1), pp.89–109.

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The Art Of Case Study Research.* Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.

Stanton, J. M., & Julian, A. L. (2002). 'The Impact Of Electronic Monitoring On Quality And Quantity Of Performance', *Computers In Human Behavior*, 18(1), pp.85–101. Available at: https://www.statista.com/markets/422/topic/1037/united-arab-emirates/ (Accessed: 3 May 2020)

Steers, R., & Sanchez-Runde, C. (2001). *Culture, Motivation And Work Behavior.* London: Blackwell..

Stenbacka, C. (2001). 'Qualitative Research Requires Quality Concepts Of Its Own', *Management Decision*, 39(7), pp.551-555.

Steinweg, S. (2009). *Systematisches Talent Management*. Stuttgart, Germany: Schäffer-Poeschel Verlag Stuttgart.

Stewart, J. (2008). 'Developing Skills Through Talent-Managemen', *SSDA Catalyst*, 6, pp.1-14.

Stewart, J., & Rigg, C. (2011). *Learning And Talent Development*. London: Kogan Page Publishers.

Stogdill, R. (1963). Manual For Leadership Description Questionnaire Form Xii, Columbus, Oh., 23(3), 251-97.

Strauss, A. & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics Of Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics Of Qualitative Research Techniques: Grounded Theory Procedures And Techniques, 2nd. Edition.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Suchman, M.C. (1995). 'Managing Legitimacy: Strategic And Institutional Approaches', *Academy Of Management Review,* 20(3), pp.571-610.

Suliman, A. M., & Obaidli, H. A. (2011). 'Organizational Climate And Turnover In Islamic Banking In The UAE', *International Journal Of Islamic And Middle Eastern Finance And Management*, 4(4), pp.308–324.

Sullivan, J. (2002). 'Crafting A Lofty Employment Brand: A Costly Proposition', *ER Daily*, November 25 2002.

Surbakti, H., & Ta'a, A. (2016). 'Improving Employees' Retention Rate Through Knowledge Management And Business Intelligence Components', *Paper Presented At The Knowledge Management International Conference (Kmice)*. 29-30 August 2016, Chiang Mai, Thailand.

Swailes, S. (2020). *Managing Talent: A Critical Appreciation,* Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing Limited.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using Multivariate Statistics. 4th. Edition.* Boston, USA: Allyn And Bacon.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics. 5th. Edition.* Boston, USA: Allyn And Bacon.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2019). *Using Multivariate Statistics, 7th Edition.* Boston, USA: Allyn And Bacon.

Takeuchi, R., Lepak, D. P., Wang, H., & Takeuchi, K. (2007). 'An Empirical Examination Of The Mechanisms Mediating Between High-Performance Work Systems And The Performance Of Japanese Organizations', *Journal Of Applied Psychology,* 92(4), pp.1069-1083.

Tansey, O. (2007). 'Process Tracing And Elite Interviewing: A Case For Non-Probability Sampling', *PS: Political Science And Politics*, 40(4), pp.765–772.

Tansley, C., & Kirk, S. (2018). 'You've Been Framed—Framing Talent Mobility In Emerging Markets', *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 60, pp.39-51.

Tansky, J. W., & Cohen, D. J. (2001). 'The Relationship Between Organizational Support, Employee Development, And Organizational Commitment: An Empirical Study', *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 12(3), pp.285–300.

Tansley, C. (2011). 'What Do We Mean By The Term Talent In Talent Management?', *Industrial And Commercial Training*, 43(5), pp.236-247

Tansley, C., Harris, L., Stewart, K., Turner, P., Foster, C., & Williams, H. (2006). *Talent Management: Understanding The Dimensions Change Agenda.* London: CIPD.

Tansley, C., Kirk, S., & Tietze, S. (2013). 'The Currency Of Talent Management Reply To Talent Management And The Relevance Of Context: Towards A Pluralistic Approach', *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), pp.337–340.

Tansley, C., Turner, P., Foster, C., Harris, L., Stewart, J., Sempik, A., & Williams, H. (2007). *Talent: Strategy, Management, Measurement.* London: CIPD.

Taplin, I. M., & Winterton, J. (2007). 'The Importance Of Management Style In Labour Retention', *International Journal Of Sociology And Social Policy,* 27(1/2), pp.5-18..

Tarique, I., & Schuler, R. S. (2010). 'Global Talent Management: Literature Review, Integrative Framework, And Suggestions For Further Research', *Journal Of World Business,* 45(2), pp.122–133.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed Methodology: Combining Qualitative And Quantitative Approaches.* Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook Of Mixed Methods In Social And Bahavioral Research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Tatoglu, E., Glaister, A. J., & Demirbag, M. (2016). 'Talent Management Motives And Practices In An Emerging Market: A Comparison Between Mnes And Local Firms', *Journal Of World Business*, 51(2), pp.278–293.

Taylor, S. (2008). *People Resourcing.* London: CIPD.

Taylor, S. (2010). *Resourcing And Talent Management 5th Edition*. London: CIPD.

Teas, R. K. (1981). 'An Empirical Test Of Models Of Salespersons Job Expectancy And Instrumentality Perceptions', *Journal Of Marketing Research*, 18(2), pp.209–226.

Teddlie, C., & Yu, F. (2007). 'Mixed Methods Sampling: A Typology With Examples', *Journal Of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), pp.77–100.

Temkin, S. (2008). 'Managers Feel Strain Of Economic Crisis', *Business Day, 20.*

Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993). 'Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Turnover Intention, And Turnover: Path Analyses Based On Meta-Analytic Findings', *Personnel Psychology*, 46(2), pp.259–293.

Tharp, B. (2010). 'The Bayt.Com Middle East And North Africa Salary Survey 2019', Available at: https://www.bayt.com/en/blog/28954/the-bayt-com-middle-east-and-north-africa-salary-survey-2019/ (Accessed: 10 June 2020).

The UAE Government Portal For Living, Working,Visiting And Investing (2022) 'The UAE Strategy For Talent Attraction And Retention'. Available at: https://u.ae/en/about-the-uae/strategies-initiatives-and-awards/federal-governments-strategies-and-plans/the-uae-strategy-for-talent-attraction-and-retention (Accessed: 26January 2022).

Thorne, K., & Pellant, A. (2007). *The Essential Guide To Managing Talent: How Top Companies Recruit, Train, & Retain The Best Employees*. Londong: Kogan Page Publishers.

Thornton-III, G., & Povah, N. (2011). *Assessment-Centres And Global Talent-Management*. Aldershot, UK: Gower Publishing.

Thunnissen, M. (2016). 'Talent Management: For What, How And How Well? An Empirical Exploration Of Talent Management In Practice', *Employee Relations*, 38(1), pp.57–72.

Thunnissen, M., And D. Buttiens. (2017). 'Talent Management In Public Sector Organizations: A Study On The Impact Of Contextual Factors On The TM Approach In Flemish And Dutch Public Sector Organizations', *Public Personnel Management,* 46(4) pp.391–418.

Thunnissen, M., Boselie, P., & Fruytier, B. (2013). 'Talent Management And The Relevance Of Context: Towards A Pluralistic Approach', *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), pp.326–336.

Thunnissen, M. And Gallardo-Gallardo, E. (2017) *Talent Management In Practice: An Integrated And Dynamic Approach*. Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing Limited.

Time, K. (2016). 'Jobs In UAE: Employee Turnover Drops As Loyalty Has New Meaning In Workplace Employers Begin To Realise The Value Of Staff Loyalty And Their Experience: Salary In 2019'. Available at: https://www.zawya.com/mena/en/economy/story/jobs in uae _ employee turnover _drops as loyalty has new meaning in workplace-sng 136676948/ (Accessed: 2 June 2020).

Tjosvold, D. (1984). 'Effects Of Leader Warmth And Directiveness On Subordinate Performance On A Subsequent Task', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 69(3), 422.

Towers Perrin. (2005). 'Winning Strategies For A Global Workforce: Attracting, Retaining, And Engaging Employees For Competitive Advantage', *Towers Perrin Global Workforce Study, Executive Report* Stamford, CT, USA: Towers Perrin.

Trevor, C. O. (2001). 'Interactions Among Actual Ease-Of-Movement Determinants And Job Satisfaction In The Prediction Of Voluntary Turnover', *Academy Of Management Journal*, 44(4), pp.621–638.

Trowler, P. (2014). 'Disciplines And Interdisciplinarity: Conceptual Groundwork', In Trowler, P., Saunders, M., & Bamber, V. (Eds). *Tribes And Territories In The 21st-Century: Rethinking The Significance Of Disciplines In Higher Education, pp.*5-29. London: Routledge.

Tsui, A. S., Pearce, J. L., Porter, L. W., & Tripoli, A. M. (1997). 'Alternative Approaches To The Employee-Organization Relationship: Does Investment In Employees Pay Off?' *Academy Of Management Journal*, 40(5), pp.1089–1121.

Tucker, E. And Williams, R. (2011). *The Intersection Of Talent Management And Engagement. The International Resource For Benchmarks And Best Practices*. Houston, TX, USA: APQC International.

Twining-Ward, L., & Baum, T. (1998). 'Dilemmas Facing Mature Island Destinations: Cases From The Baltic', *Progress In Tourism And Hospitality Research*, 4(2), pp.131–140.

Tymon Jr, W. G., Stumpf, S. A., & Doh, J. P. (2010). 'Exploring Talent Management In India: The Neglected Role Of Intrinsic Rewards', *Journal Of World Business*, 45(2), pp.109-121.

UAE Vision 2021 (2019) 'UAE NATIONAL CHARTER 2021', Available at: http://dubai.ae/sitecollectiondocuments/ uae_vision_2021_english.pdf (Accessed: 19 April 2016)

UAE Statista (2020). *Statistics And Market Data On The UAE*. Available at: https://www.statista.com/markets/422/topic/1037/united-arab-emirates/.

Ugboro, I. O. (2006). 'Organizational Commitment, Job Redesign, Employee Empowerment And Intent To Quit Among Survivors Of Restructuring And Downsizing', *Journal Of Behavioral And Applied Management*, 7(3), pp.232–257.

Ulrich, D. (2007). 'The Talent Trifecta', *Workforce Management*, 86(15), pp.32-33.

Ulrich, D. (2011). ''What Is Talent?' Exectuive White Paper Series', Available at: https://michiganross.umich.edu/sites/default/files/uploads/rtia/pdfs/dulrich_wp_what_is_talent.pdf (Accessed: 13 March 2016).

Ulrichsen, K. (2017). 'Post-Rentier Economic Challenges', *India Quarterly*, 73, pp.210-226.
UNDP. (2010). *ADHR Population Levels, Trends And Policies In The Arab Region: Challenges And Opportunities*, Available at: http://www.arabhdr.org/publications/other/ahdrps/ paper01-en.pdf (Accessed: 24 January 2020).
Unit, E. I., & Kinninmont, J. (2009). 'The GCC In 2020: The Gulf And Its People', *The Economist*. Available at: Http://Www. Economist.Com.
Urdan, T. (2010). 'The Challenges And Promise Of Research On Classroom Goal Structures', In Meece, J.L., & Eccles, J.S., (Eds) *Handbook Of Research On Schools, Schooling, And Human Development*, pp.92-108. London: Taylor & Francis.
Urdan, T. C. (2016). *Statistics In Plain English.* London: Taylor & Francis.
Vaiman, V., & Collings, D. G. (2013). 'Talent Management: Advancing The Field', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 24(9), pp.1737–1743.
Vaiman, V., Sparrow, P. R., Schuler, R. S., Collings, D. (Eds.). (2018). *Macro Talent Management: A Global Perspective On Managing Talent In Developed Markets.* London: Routledge.
Vandana, S. (2017). 'Impact Of Organizational Health And Job Satisfaction On Employee Retention: Evidence Based On Review Of Literature', *International Journal Of Education And Management Studies*, 7(4), pp.575-579.
Van Riel, C. B., Berens, G., & Dijkstra, M. (2009). 'Stimulating Strategically Aligned Behaviour Among Employees', *Journal Of Management Studies,* 46(7), pp.1197–1226.
Van Zyl, E. S., Mathafena, R. B., & Ras, J. (2017). 'The Development Of A Talent Management Framework For The Private Sector', *SA Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 17, DOI: 10.4102/Sajhrm.V17i0.1162
Vermeeren, B. (2014). 'Variability In HRM Implementation Among Line Managers And Its Effect On Performance: A 2-1-2 Mediational Multilevel Approach', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 25(22), pp.3039–3059.
Verhulst, E., & Boks, C. (2014). 'Employee Empowerment For Sustainable Design', *Journal Of Corporate Citizenship,* 2014(55), pp.73-101.
Verreynne, M.-L., Parker, P., & Wilson, M. (2013). 'Employment Systems In Small Firms: A Multilevel Analysis', *International Small Business Journal*, 31(4), pp.405–431.
Von Wright, G. (1971). *Explanation And Understanding*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
Vinod, S., Sudhakar, B., Mihir, H., Varghese, A. M., Bobby, M. (2014). 'Talent Management Among UAE National Women', *Journal Of Emerging Trends In Economics And Management Sciences*, 5(5), pp.474–479.
Visvanathan, P. (2018). 'The Impact Of Leadership Styles And Organizational Culture On Job Satisfaction Of Employees In Malaysian Manufacturing Industry', *Global Business & Management Research*, 10(1) (2018), pp.247-66.
Visvanathan, P., Muthuveloo, R. And Ping, T.A., (2018). 'The Impact Of Leadership Styles And Organizational Culture On Job Satisfaction Of Employees In Malaysian Manufacturing Industry', *Global Business And Management Research,* 10(1), pp.247-265.
Vural, Y., Vardarlier, P., & Aykir, A. (2012). 'The Effects Of Using Talent Management With Performance Evaluation System Over Employee Commitment', *Procedia-Social And Behavioral Sciences*, 58, pp.340–349.
Vroom, V. (1964). *Work And Motivation*. New York: Wiley.
Wahab, E., Goh, C., Shamsuddin, A., & Abdullah, N. H. (2014). 'The Effect Of Perceived Organizational Support (POS) And Affective Commitment (AC) On Employees' Turnover Intention: A Study Of Malaysian Manufacturing Company', *Social Sciences Research,* pp.545–552.
Walters, M. (1995). *The Performance Management Handbook*. London: CIPD.
Walker, J.W. (2001), 'Zero Defections?', *Human Resource Planning,* 24(1), pp.6-8.
Wang, Y., Kim, S., Rafferty, A. And Sanders, K. (2020). 'Employee Perceptions Of HR Practices: A Critical Review And Future Directions', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 31(1), pp.128-173.

Warner, R. S., & Burton, G. J. S. (2017). 'A Fertile Oasis: The Current State Of Education In The UAE', Available at: **Error! Hyperlink reference not valid.**https://mbrsgcdn.azureedge.net/cmsstorage/mbrsg/files/65/658fdafb-673d-4864-9ce1-881aaccd08e2.pdf (Accessed: 4 January 2022)
Weick, K. E. (1985). 'Sources Of Order In Underorganized Systems: Themes In Recent Organizational Theory', *Organizational Theory And Inquiry*, pp.106–136.
Weir, T. (2008). 'HR Challenges For The Region's Re-developers', *Dubai Business Review*.
Wellins, R. S., Smith, A. B., & Erker, S. (2009). 'Nine Best Practices For Effective Talent Management', *Development Dimensions International,* pp.1-14.
Wells, D. L., Moorman, R. H., & Werner, J. M. (2007). 'The Impact Of The Perceived Purpose Of Electronic Performance Monitoring On An Array Of Attitudinal Variables', *Human Resource Development Quarterly,* 18(1), pp.121–138.
West, S. G., Finch, J. F., & Curran, P. J. (1995). 'Structural Equation Models With Nonnormal Variables: Problems And Remedies', In: Hoyle R.H, (Ed) *Structural Equation Modeling: Concepts, Issues And Applications*, pp.56-75. Newbery Park, CA: Sage
Westerberg, K., Hauer, E. (2009). 'Learning Climate And Work Group Skills In Care Work', *Journal Of Workplace Learning,* 21, pp.581-594.
Wheaton, B., Muthen, B., Alwin, D. F., & Summers, G. F. (1977). 'Assessing Reliability And Stability In Panel Models', *Sociological Methodology*, 8, pp.84–136.
White, P. (2009). *Developing Research Questions: A Guide For Social Scientists*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
Wiblen, S. (2016). 'Framing The Usefulness Of Ehrm In Talent Management: A Case Study Of Talent Identification In A Professional Services Firm', *Canadian Journal Of Administrative Sciences*, 33, pp.95-107.
Wiener, Y. (1988). 'Forms Of Value Systems: Focus On Organizational Effectiveness And Cultural Change And Maintenance', *Academy Of Management Review*, 13(4), pp.534–545.
Wilcoxon, F. (1949). *Some Rapid Approximate Statistical Procedures*. American Cyanamid Co. Stamford Research Laboratories.
Williams, M. (2000). *The War For Talent: Getting The Best From The Best.* London: CIPD..
Williams, R. (2002). *Managing Emplpyee Performance: Design And Implementation In Organisations, 1st Edition.* London: Thomson Learning.
Williams, R. (2011). *Managing Employee: Design And Implementation In Organisations, 2nd Edition.* London: Thomson Learning.
Willmott, H. (1993). 'Strength Is Ignorance; Slavery Is Freedom: Managing Culture In Modern Organizations', *Journal Of Management Studies*, 30(4), pp.515–51.
Wimalasiri, J. S. (1995). 'An Examination Of The Influence Of Human Resource Practices, Organizational Commitment And Job Satisfaction On Work Performance', *International Journal Of Management*, 12, pp.352–363.
Winter, G. (2000). 'A Comparative Discussion Of The Notion Of Validity In Qualitative And Quantitative Research', *The Qualitative Report,* 4(3), pp.1–14.
Wood, G., Dibben, P., Stride, C., & Webster, E. (2011). 'HRM In Mozambique: Homogenization, Path Dependence Or Segmented Business System? ', *Journal Of World Business*, 46(1), pp.31–41.
Wood, S. J. (1999). 'Human Resource Management And Performance', *International Journal Of Management Reviews,* 1, pp.367-413.
Woodruffe, C. (2000). *Development And Assessment Centres: Identifying And Assessing Competence*. London: CIPD.
WPR. World Population Review (2021). UAE *Population.* Available at: http://worldpopulationreview.com/countries/united-arab-emirates-population/ (Accessed: 19 September 2021).
Wright, G. V. (1971). *Explanation And Understanding,* London: Routledge &. Kegan Paul.

Wright, P. M., & Nishii, L. H. (2013). ‘HRM And Performance: The Role Of Effective Implementation’, In Paauwe, J., Guest, D.,, & Wright, P. (Eds.), *HRM, & Performance. Achievements, & Challenges.* Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.
Wright, P. M., Gardner, T. M., & Moynihan, L. M. (2003). ‘The Impact Of HR Practices On The Performance Of Business Units’, *Human Resource Management Journal*, 13(3), pp.21–36.
Wright, P. M., Mcmahan, G. C., & Mcwilliams, A. (1994). ‘Human Resources And Sustained Competitive Advantage: A Resource-Based Perspective’, *International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 5(2), pp.301–326.
Wright, A.G., Hallquist, M.N., Beeney, J.E. And Pilkonis, P.A. (2013). ‘Borderline Personality Pathology And The Stability Of Interpersonal Problems’, *Journal Of Abnormal Psychology*, 122(4), P.1094.
Wu, F., & Shiu, C. (2009). ‘The Relationship Between Leadership Styles And Foreign English Teachers Job Satisfaction In Adult English Cram Schools: Evidence In Taiwan’, *The Journal Of American Academy Of Business,* 14(2), pp.75–82.
Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., Schaufeli, W. B. (2009). ‘Reciprocal Relationships Between Job Resources, Personal Resources, And Work Engagement’, *Journal Of Vocational Behavior,* 74(3), pp.235–244.
Yaghoubipoor, A., Tee, O. P., & Ahmed, E. M. (2013). ‘Impact Of The Relationship Between Transformational And Traditional Leadership Styles On Iran’s Automobile Industry Job Satisfaction’, *World Journal Of Entrepreneurship, Management And Sustainable Development*. 9(1), pp.14-27.
Yamamoto, H. (2011). ‘The Relationship Between Employee Benefit Management And Employee Retention’, *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 22(17), 3550–3564.
Yamane, T. (1967). *Statistics: An Introductory Analysis, 2nd. Edition.* New York, USA: Harper And Row,.
Yang, G. & Samiha, A. 2001, *Skill, Wages And Working Conditions In The Insurance Sector*. Tanmia, Dubai: Center For Labour Market Research And Information,.
Yeung, A., Warner, M., & Rowley, C. (2008). ‘Guest Editors’ Introduction Growth And Globalization: Evolution Of Human Resource Management Practices In Asia’, *Human Resource Management*, 47(1), pp.1–13.
Yin, R. (1992). ‘A Continuing Debate’, Available at: http://www.jstor.org/stable/1181823 (Accessed: 30 January 2016)
Yin, R. (1994). *Case Study Research Design And Method, 2nd Edition.* Beverly Hills, CA, USA: Sage.
Yin, R. (2003). *Case Study Research Design And Method, 4th Edition*. Beverly Hills, CA, USA: Sage.
Yin, R. (2010). *Case Study Research From Start To Finish, 1st. Ed*ition, London: Guilford Press.
Yin, R. K., & Heald, K. A. (1975). *Evaluating Policy Studies By Using The Case Survey Methods.* Santa Monica, USA: Rand Publications.
Younger, J., Smallwood, N., & Ulrich, D. (2007). ‘Developing Your Organization’s Brand As A Talent Developer’, *People And Strategy*, 30(2), 21.
Younger, S. N., J. & Ulrich, D. (2004). ‘Developing Your Organizations Brand As A Talent Developer’, *Human Resource Planning*, 30(2), pp.21-29.
Young-Thelin, L., & Boluk, K. (2012). ‘A Case Study Of Human Resource Practices In Small Hotels In Sweden’, *Journal Of Human Resources In Hospitality & Tourism*, 11(4), pp.327–353.
Younas, M. And Bari, M. (2020). ‘The Relationship Between Talent Management Practices And Retention Of Generation ‘Y’ Employees: Mediating Role Of Competency Development’, *Economic Research*, 33(1), pp.1330-1353.

Yousef, D.A. (2000a). 'Organizational Commitment: A Mediator Of The Relationships Of Leadership Behavior With Job Satisfaction And Performance In A Non-Western Country', *Journal Of Managerial Psychology*, 15(1), pp.6-24.

Yousef, D.A. (2000b). 'Organizational Commitment And Job Satisfaction As Predictors Of Attitudes Toward Organizational Change In A Non-Western Setting', *Personnel Review,* 29(5), pp.567-592.

Yukl, G. (1999). 'An Evaluation Of Conceptual Weaknesses In Transformational And Charismatic Leadership Theories', *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), pp.285-305.

Yuvaraj, R., (2011). 'Competency Mapping', *International Journal Of Scientific & Engineering* Research, 2(8), pp.1-7.

Zacharatos, A., Barling, J., & Iverson, R. D. (2005). 'High-Performance Work Systems And Occupational Safety', *Journal Of Applied Psychology,* 90, pp.77–93.

Zawya.Com (2020) 'Jobs In UAE: Employee Turnover Drops As Loyalty Has New Meaning In Workplace' Available at: https://www.zawya.com/mena/en/economy/story/jobs_ (Accessed: On 9 June 2020).

Zeffane, R., & Al Zarooni, H. A. M. (2008). 'The Influence Of Empowerment, Commitment, Job Satisfaction And Trust On Perceived Managers' Performance', *International Journal Of Business Excellence*, 1(1-2), pp.193–209.

Zhang, J., Ahammad, M. F., Tarba, S., Cooper, C. L., Glaister, K. W., & Wang, J. (2015). 'The Effect Of Leadership Style On Talent Retention During Merger And Acquisition Integration: Evidence From China', *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*, 26(7), pp.1021–1050.

Zhang, S., & Bright, D. (2012). 'Talent Definition And Talent Management Recognition In Chinese Private-Owned Enterprises', *Journal Of Chinese Entrepreneurship*, 4(2), pp.143-163.

Zhang, J. E. A. (2005). The Effect Of Leadership Style On Talent Retention During Merger And Acquisition Integration: Evidence From China. *The International Journal Of Human Resource Management*', 26(7), pp.1021-1050.

Zhao, H., Wayne, S. J., Glibkowski, B. C., & Bravo, J. (2007). 'The Impact Of Psychological Contract Breach On Work-Related Outcomes: A Meta-Analysis', *Personnel Psychology,* 60(3), pp.647–680.

Ziad Azzam (2014). *The Impact Of Talent Management Strategies And Its Role In Achieving Competitive Advantage*.Case Study. Amman: Princess Rahma Educational Hospital Of Pediatrics.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Key Literature on Talent Management

Adoption of Talent Management Strategies	**Pre-existing research**
Factor One – the Adoption of Leadership Development (LDP)	CIPD (2007); Contractor (2013); Highhouse *et al.* (1999); Fulmer *et al.* (2003); Deloitte, (2005); Lievens *et al.* (2005); Towers Perrin (2005); Harrison (2009); Stewart and Rigg (2011); Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013); Singh and Sharma (2015); Armstrong (2006); Iles *et al.* (2010); Ready and Conger (2007) and Ringo et al. (2008);
Factor Two - the Adoption of Leadership Development Effectiveness (LDE)	Anderson (2007); Davins and Smith (2010); Younger and Ulrich (2004); Groves (2007); Anderson (2007); Davins and Smith (2010); Schuler *et al.* (2011); Hughes and Rog (2008); Young-Thelin and Boluk (2012); Sheehan *et al.* (2018); Schuler and Jackson (2014); Arabian Business Global (2020) and Alshehri and Drew (2010);
Factor Three - the Adoption of Performance Appraisal System (PA)	CIPD (2007); Gopalakrishnan (2002); Idris (2009); Sidani and Al Ariss (2014); Armstrong (2009); Stewart and Rigg (2011); Carayon (1993); Jeske and Santuzzi (2015);
Factor Four - the Adoption of Attraction and Retention Strategies by Empowering (EMP)	CIPD (2007); Hughes and Rog (2008); Hom *et al.*, (2009); Masterson *et al.* (2000); Singh and Sharma (2015); Lievens *et al.* (2005); Towers Perrin (2005); Srivastava and Bhatnagar (2010); Pan *et al.* (2012); Albawaba.com (2017) and The Bayt.com Middle East and North Africa Salary Survey (2019);
Factor Five - the Adoption of Attraction and Retention by	CIPD (2007); Singh *et al.* (2012); Sidani and Al Ariss (2014); Singh and Sharma (2015); Maurer *et al.* (1992); Sullivan (2002);

Adoption of Talent Management Strategies	**Pre-existing research**
Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards Strategies (IWR)	Srivastava and Bhatnagar (2010); Bulter and Waldroop (2000); Gandossy and Kao (2004); Ready *et al.* (2008); Sidani and Al Ariss (2014); Ready and Conger (2007); Lawler (2008); Khaleej Times (2019); Zawya.com (2020) and Kaplan and Norton (1996; 2004);
Effectiveness of TM implementation on talent retention	Sheehan *et al.* (2018); Hughes and Rog (2008); Ng and Butts (2009); Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013); Albawaba.com (2017); Zawya.com (2020); Appelbaum *et al.* (2000); Macky and Boxall (2007); Chew and Chan (2008); Wright *et al.* (2013); Laabs (1993); Singh (2000); Poon (2004) and Harel and Tzafrir (1999);
Effectiveness of TM implementation on talent satisfaction	Deery and Jago (2015); Allen and Meyer (1990); Podsakoff *et al.* (1990); Meyer *et al.* (1993); Braun *et al.* (2013); Jeske and Santuzzi (2015); Aon Hewitt (2011); Maslow (1954); Jaiswal (1982); Wimalasiri (1995); Ellickson and Logsdon (2001); Gandossy and Kao (2004); Poon (2004); McGrath (2008); Braun *et al.* (2013); Meyer and Allen (1991); Oehley and Theron (2010); Herzberg *et al.* (2008); Beechler and Woodward (2009), DeConinck and Johnson (2009) and Bethke-Langenegger *et al.* (2011);
The adoption of Employer Branding manifested in leadership skills	Aon Hewitt (2011); Singh *et al.* (2012); Bass and Avolio (1993); Schein (1992) and Ogbonna and Harris (2000);
The impact of the integrated TM System on Retention	

Adoption of Talent Management Strategies	**Pre-existing research**
Leadership Development	Highhouse *et al.* (1999), Fulmer *et al.* (2003), Deloitte, (2005); Lievens *et al.* (2005), Towers Perrin (2005); Harrison (2009), Stewart and Rigg (2011), Chami-Malaeba and Garavan (2013), Isa *et al.* (2018); Ohunakin *et al.* (2020); Harel and Tzafrir (1999); Eisen *et al.* (2005) and Ohunakin et al. (2020);
Leadership Development Effectiveness	Jayawarna *et al.* (2007); Nikandrou *et al.* (2009); Kontoghiorghes and Bryant (2004), Anderson (2007), Beynon (2015), Kibui (2015), Singh (2017); Baharin and Hanafi (2018); Collings and Mellahi (2009); Davins and Smith (2010); Stewart and Rigg (2011) and Vandana (2017);
Performance Appraisal	Nura and Osman (2013); Singh (2000), Poon (2004), Zhang et al. (2015), Nura and Osman (2013), Mbugua *et al.* (2015), Johenness and Chou (2017) and Isa *et al.* (2018);
Talent attraction, acquisition and retention strategies: by Enabling and Empowering	Collings and Mellahi (2009); Singh and Sharma (2015); Rynes *et al.* (2004), Hytter (2007) and Scott *et al.* (2010);
Talent attraction, acquisition and retention strategies: by Incentives, Work Conditions, and Performance Rewards	Collings and Mellahi (2009); Rynes *et al.* (2004); Singh and Sharma (2015); Hytter (2007), Scott *et al.* (2010);
Job Satisfaction	Podsakoff *et al.* (1990), Meyer and Allen (1991), The study of the Government of Alberta, Human Resources and Employment

Adoption of Talent Management Strategies		Pre-existing research
		(2003), Light (2004), Deery and Jago (2015); Jeske and Santuzzi (2015); Cotton and Tuttle (1986); Costen and Salazarb (2011); Cotton and Tuttle (1986); Tett and Meyer (1993); Trevor (2001) and Omar *et al*. (2013);
Leadership Behaviour	Participative Leadership Style	Hodges (2008); Grissom (2012); Zhang *et al*. (2015); Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008); Braun *et al*. (2013); Mulki *et al*. (2015); DeConinck *et al*. (2004); Jauhar *et al*. (2017); Jones *et al*. (1996); Mulki *et al*. (2006); Mulki and Jaramillo (2011); Oehley and Theron (2010); Meyer and Allen (1991); Kaliprasad (2006); Bass and Avolio (1993); Schein (1992); Clarke (2001); Jones and Skarlicki (2003); Taplin and Winterton (2007); Mulki *et al*. (2015); Grissom (2012); Walker (2001); Hodges (2008); Zhang *et al*. (2015) and Ogbonna and Harris (2000);

Adoption of Talent Management Strategies		Pre-existing research
	Supportive leadership style	Hodges (2008); Grissom (2012); Zhang *et al.* (2015); Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008); Braun *et al.* (2013); Mulki *et al.* (2015); DeConinck *et al.* (2004); Jauhar *et al.* (2017); Jones *et al.* (1996); Mulki *et al.* (2006); Mulki and Jaramillo (2011); Oehley and Theron (2010); Meyer and Allen (1991); Scott et al. (2010), Clarke (2001); Jones and Skarlicki (2003); Taplin and Winterton (2007); Bushra *et al.* (2011); Dimaculangan and Aguiling (2012); Ariyabuddhiphongs and Kahn (2017); Jauhar *et al.* (2017); Clarke (2001); Jones and Skarlicki (2003); Taplin and Winterton (2007); Rafferty and Griffin (2006); Dartey-Baah (2015); Yaghoubipoor *et al.* (2013) and Visvanathan *et al.* (2018).
	Instrumental leadership style	Hodges (2008); Grissom (2012); Zhang *et al.* (2015); Halbesleben and Wheeler (2008); Braun *et al.* (2013); Mulki *et al.* (2015); DeConinck *et al.* (2004); Jauhar et al. (2017); Jones *et al.* (1996); Mulki *et al.* (2006); Mulki and Jaramillo (2011); Oehley and Theron (2010); Meyer and Allen (1991); Bass and Avolio (1993); Schein (1992); Ogbonna and Harris (2000); Dartey-Baah (2015); Russell (2011); Tjosvold (1984); Agarwal *et al.* (1999); Visvanathan *et al.* (2018); Yaghoubipoor et al. (2013); Wu (2009), Epitropaki and Martin (2005), Dartey-Baah (2015) and Mulki *et al.* (2015); Dartey-Baah (2015) and Rotemberg and Saloner (1993).

Table 1: Key literature on Talent Management, developed by the researcher

Appendix 2: Pilot Survey Questionnaire

INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT AFFILIATED DEPARTMENTS IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION

دراسة مبادرات إدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب بالدوائر الحكومية بأبوظبي في ضوء رؤية أبوظبي 2021 -الإمارات العربية المتحدة

1. SECTION A: INTRODUCTION مقدمة

عزيزي المشارك

من منطلق دعمكم المثمر للتعليم وبناءاً على خبراتكم العريقة أود أن أضع بين أيديكم أسئلة الاستبيان التي تم تصميمها لغرض جمع المعلومات اللازمة للبحث العلمي لدرجة الدكتوراه في الموارد البشرية بعنوان **دراسة مبادرات إدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب بالدوائر الحكومية بأبوظبي في ضوء رؤية أبوظبي 2021 - الإمارات العربية المتحدة**

Dear Participant

You have been invited to participate in my research for the PhD degree in Human Resource Management, titled: **Investigating Talent Management Leadership Initiatives at Abu Dhabi Government Affiliated Departments in Light of the 2021 UAE Vision.**

ما هو الغرض من هذه الدراسة؟

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تقييم مبادرات إدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب في الدوائر التابعة لحكومة أبوظبي. والغرض هو تحديد ما إذا تم تحقيق أهداف هذه البرنامج، والوقوف على التحديات القائمة والعوائق المتوقعة والتي تعيق نجاح برامج إدارة المواهب. كما تتطلع هذه الدراسة أيضاً لتطوير استراتيجية لإدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب في الدوائر التابعة لحكومة أبوظبي؛ بما يتماشى مع رؤية دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة والتي تسعى جاهدةً إلى تحسين الأداء في جميع القطاعات لحكومة أبوظبي

What is the purpose of the study?

This study aims to assess talent management leadership initiatives at Abu Dhabi Government affiliated departments. The purpose of evaluating the TMLP is to determine whether the objectives of the program have been achieved, and identify the anticipated challenges and the potential barriers that impede talent management from functioning successfully. This study will also attempt to develop talent management strategy for Abu Dhabi Government affiliated Departments to deliver high performance in line with the UAE vision to continuous improvement across all the UAE governmental sectors.

ما هي معايير المشاركين؟

تقتصر هذه الدراسة على القادة من الدوائر\الإدارات لحكومة أبوظبي (المدراء العامون، المديرين التنفيذيين ومدراء الإدارات). ممن استكملوا مدة الخدمة 3 سنوات، وذلك لضمان مشاركتهم في برامج تنمية القادة ذوي الكفاءات

What are the inclusion criteria?

The inclusion criteria for this study are limited to the leadership cohort who have worked over 3 years to guarantee that they were engaged in talent management programs.

هل ستبقى مشاركتي في هذه الدراسة سرية؟

أؤكد أن جميع المعلومات التي سيتم جمعها في هذه الدراسة سوف تستخدم لغرض التحليل وسوف يتم التعامل معها في غاية السرية. سوف تكون مشاركتكم دائما مجهولة كما لا يتطلب الكشف عن هويتكم وذلك لضمان تزويدنا بمشاركتك التي نأمل أن تتحلى بأعلى درجات الشفافية والمصداقية

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

I confirm that all information collected in the study will be used for analysis and will be treated in the highest confidence. Your participation will remain anonymous.

، ، ، ثمن لكم عالياً تعاونكم ومساعدتكم في إنجاح هذه الدراسة

1

الباحثة / **إيمان أبوعبيدالله**، PhD. Student, MA. HRM, HND, ND CS
إدارة الأعمال / كلية الآداب والدراسات المهنية والاجتماعية
جامعة ليفربول جون مورس - بريطانيا

Thank you so much for your cooperation and your assistance in this research project is highly appreciated.

Researcher\ **Eman AbouabidAlla**, PhD. Student, MA. HRM, HND, ND CS
Liverpool Business School/Faculty of Arts, Professional and Social Sciences
Liverpool John Moores University – United Kingdom
E.A.AbouabidAlla@2016.ljmu.ac.uk

INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT AFFILIATED DEPARTMENTS IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION
دراسة مبادرات إدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب بالدوائر الحكومية بأبوظبي في ضوء رؤية أبوظبي 2021 -الإمارات العربية المتحدة

2. SECTION B: Participant's Background بيانات المشارك

This part aims to deal with participants' demographic information to assess the differences between answers and views based on this anonymous information. Please answer all the following questions by ticking one box to allow the assessment of answers and views.

* What is your position? ما هي وظيفتك

- ◯ General Manager مدير عام
- ◯ Executive Director مدير تنفيذي
- ◯ Division Manager مدير إدارة

* What is your age group? الفئة العمرية

- ◯ 23 - 34 Years
- ◯ 35 - 44 Years
- ◯ 45 - 54 Years
- ◯ 55 - 60 Years
- ◯ Other (please specify) الرجاء إدخال العمر في حال لم تجد الفئة العمرية المناسبة

* What is your gender? الجنس

- ◯ Male ذكر
- ◯ Female أنثى

3

* Select one of your top qualification? ما هي مؤهلاتك

- ◯ Degree or equivalent درجة الباكلوريوس أو ما يعادلها
- ◯ Masters or equivalent ماجستير أو ما يعادله
- ◯ Ph.D. or equivalent دكتوراة أو ما يعادلها
- ◯ Other (please specify) أخرى، الرجاء إدخال أعلى مؤهل لديك في حال لم تجد الإجابة المناسبة من الخيارات أعلاه

* Please select from the list the governmental department you are currently working at: يرجى اختيار الدائرة الحكومية التي تعمل لديها حالياً من القائمة التالية

* How many years (tenure) have you been employed in one or more of the governmental departments in question 5? إجمالي مدة خدمتك في إحدى أو أكثر من الجهات الحكومية في قائمة السؤال رقم 5 :

- ◯ 0 - 2
- ◯ 3 - 7
- ◯ 8 - 12
- ◯ 13 - 17
- ◯ 18 - 24
- ◯ 25 and plus

INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT AFFILIATED DEPARTMENTS IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION

دراسة مبادرات إدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب بالدوائر الحكومية بأبوظبي في ضوء رؤية أبوظبي 2021 -الإمارات العربية المتحدة

3. SECTION C: Talent Management Planning at Abu Dhabi Government Departments (ADGD)

تخطيط إدارة تنمية المواهب لدى الدوائر الحكومة لأبوظبي

* Please read carefully the following statements and indicate your degree of agreement by selecting one option that best represents your opinion:

	Strongly Agree أوافق بشدة	Agree أوافق	Neutral محايد	Disagree لا أوافق	Strongly Disagree لا أوافق بشدة
My organisation regularly analyses talent needs and requirements. تقوم الجهة التي أعمل لديها بتحليل احتياجات ومتطلبات القادة ذوي المواهب.	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation has a clear talent management strategy. يوجد استراتيجية واضحة لإدارة تنمية مواهب القادة في الجهة التي أعمل لديها.	○	○	○	○	○
Talent management has a high priority in the overall strategic plan of my organisation. تقع إدارة تنمية مواهب القادة ضمن أولويات الخطة الاستراتيجية للجهة التي أعمل لديها.	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation has a succession plan for all management positions. توجد خطة لتعاقب المدراء لكافة المناصب الإدارية لدى الجهة التي أعمل لديها.	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation's talent management strategy primarily sources talent from outside Abu Dhabi organisations. يتم توظيف القادة ذوي المواهب من خارج نطاق الدوائر الحكومة بشكل أساسي وفقاً لاستراتيجية. إدارة تنمية مواهب القادة للجهة التي أعمل لديها	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation develop talent management capabilities. الجهة التي أعمل لديها تقوم بتطوير قدرات قادتها ذوي المواهب.	○	○	○	○	○
In my organisation, the leaders has never heard of talent management. ليس لدى القادة إلمام كامل بمفهوم إدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب في الجهة التي أعمل لديها.	○	○	○	○	○

If you have general comment about the above section, please add it here: أي ملاحظات تود أن تضيفها

INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT AFFILIATED DEPARTMENTS IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION

دراسة مبادرات إدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب بالدوائر الحكومية بأبوظبي في ضوء رؤية أبوظبي 2021 -الإمارات العربية المتحدة

4. SECTION D: Talent Management Resourcing at Abu Dhabi Government Affiliated Department

توظيف القادة ذوي المواهب لدى الدوائر الحكومية بأبوظبي

* Please indicate your degree of agreement by selecting one option that best represents your opinion in relation to how the ADG affiliated Departments sources the key employees:

	Strongly Agree أوافق بشدة	Agree أوافق	Neutral محايد	Disagree لا أوافق	Strongly Disagree لا أوافق بشدة
A skills audit is regularly conducted at my organisation to assess skills gaps. تتم عملية تقييم المهارات بشكل دوري لدى الجهة التي أعمل لديها وذلك بهدف تحديد الفجوات في المهارات.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
The recruitment process for selecting talent is clear. توجد إجراءات واضحة لتوظيف القادة ذوي المواهب الذي يتم اختيارهم.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
The recruitment process is successful in selecting the best talent. عملية التوظيف ناجحة في اختيار أفضل القادة ذوي المواهب.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Before a job vacancy is advertised, the internal talent pool is considered/used. يتم النظر في تعيين القادة ذوي المواهب داخلياً قبل أن يتم الإعلان عن الوظيفة القيادية الشاغرة.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Induction programs are well structured to help the new talent settle in. تنظم البرامج التعريفية بشكل فعال حيث تسهم في استقرار القادة ذوي المواهب الجدد.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
There is sufficient pool of managerial talent available at ADG affiliated Departments to fill vacancies. يتوفر عدد كافي من القادة الموهبين لملئ الشواغر الإدارية بالدوائر الحكومية.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
My organisation has programs to develop a pool of talent and prepare them to be managers. الجهة التي أعمل لديها تتبنى برامج لتطوير ذوي المواهب وإعدادهم ليكونوا مدراء.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

If you have general comment about the above section, please add it here: أي ملاحظات تود أن تضيفها

INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT AFFILIATED DEPARTMENTS IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION

دراسة مبادرات إدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب بالدوائر الحكومية بأبوظبي في ضوء رؤية أبوظبي 2021 -الإمارات العربية المتحدة

5. SECTION E: Measurement of Leadership Development Program :

تدريب وتطوير القادة ذوي المواهب

* Please indicate your degree of agreement by selecting one option that best represents your evaluation of Leadership Development Program (LDP) :

	Strongly Agree أوافق بشدة	Agree أوافق	Neutral محايد	Disagree لا أوافق	Strongly Disagree لا أوافق بشدة
I believe LDP helps to identify the strength and weaknesses of talents. هل تعتقد أن برنامج القادة يساعد على التعرف على جوانب القوة والضعف للقادة ذوي المواهب.	○	○	○	○	○
I believe that I am chieving the intended learning outcomes of the leadership development program. لقد حققت مخرجات التعلم المقصودة الخاصة ببرنامج القادة.	○	○	○	○	○
I believe that I acquired the competencies required for my position. لقد اكتسبت الكفاءات اللازمة لوظيفتي.	○	○	○	○	○
I believe that I am ready to do a higher grade job. أنا على استعداد للقيام بمهام وظيفة أعلى من درجتي.	○	○	○	○	○
I believe that I am ready to occupy a strategic position. انا على استعداد لأتقلد منصباً استراتيجياً.	○	○	○	○	○
I believe that I am ready for job rotation. أنا على استعداد لأتناوب المناصب.	○	○	○	○	○
I believe that I achieved my individual performance objectives. قد حققت أهداف الأداء الخاصة بي.	○	○	○	○	○
I have no firm understanding of the area in which I need development. لست متأكد من الجوانب والمهارات التي أحتاج تطويرها.	○	○	○	○	○
I believe investing in LDP enables achieving the strategic objectives. برنامج تطوير القادة تسهم في تحقيق الأهداف الاستراتيجية.	○	○	○	○	○
I believe the training allowances spent on LDP is sufficient. المخصصات المالية لبدل التعليم التي تمنح لمتدربي برنامج القاة كافية لتغطية التكاليف المترتبة.	○	○	○	○	○
Overall, my evaluation of LDP tends to be an effective program. بشكل عام، تقييمي لبرنامج تطوير القادة يميل للجيد.	○	○	○	○	○

If you have general comment about the above section, please add it here: أي ملاحظات تود أن تضيفها

6. SECTION F: Evaluation of the Performance Management System :

تقييم برنامج إدارة الأداء

INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT AFFILIATED DEPARTMENTS IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION
دراسة مبادرات إدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب بالدوائر الحكومية بأبوظبي في ضوء رؤية أبوظبي 2021 -الإمارات العربية المتحدة

7. SECTION G: Talent Retention Strategies at Abu Dhabi Government Affiliated Departments

استراتيجية الدوائر الحكومية للاحتفاظ بالقادة ذوي المواهب

* Please indicate your degree of agreement by selecting one option that best represents your opinion concerning retention strategies at ADG Affiliated Departments:

	Strongly Agree أوافق بشدة	Agree أوافق	Neutral محايد	Disagree لا أوافق	Strongly Disagree لا أوافق بشدة
My organisation enables talent and empowers them for innovation and creativity (i.e. taking decisions). يتم الاحتفاظ بالقادة ذوي المواهب من خلال تمكينهم من اتخاذ القرارات للابتكار والإبداع.	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation improves work conditions to increase organizational identity. يتم الاحتفاظ بالقادة ذوي المواهب من خلال تحسين أحوال العمل لتعزيز الهوية المؤسسية.	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation provides extensive training and values leaders. يتم الاحتفاظ بالقادة ذوي المواهب من خلال تزويد القادة بالتدريب المكثف وتقدير.	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation provides onsite opportunities and a global exposure for talent. يتم الاحتفاظ بالقادة ذوي المواهب من خلال إيفاد القادة بالبرامج الإلحاقية داخلياً وعالمياً	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation provides clear career path and opportunities to progress. يتم الاحتفاظ بالقادة ذوي المواهب من خلال توفير مسار وظيفي واضح للقادة وفرص لتطوير قدراتهم\مهاراتهم.	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation provides mentoring and coaching programs for talent. يتم الاحتفاظ بالقادة ذوي المواهب من خلال توفير برامج التدريب والتوجيه.	○	○	○	○	○
Positive feedback and fair appraisals are being provided in my organisation. يتم توفير ملاحظات الأداء الإيجابية والتقييم العادل.	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation provides strong social security and employee welfare. يتم الاحتفاظ بالقادة ذوي المواهب من خلال توفير الضمان الاجتماعي القوي ورفاهية الموظف.	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation offers salaries that are above the market rate. يتم الاحتفاظ بالقادة ذوي المواهب من خلال تقديم رواتب أعلى من مستوى رواتب السوق.	○	○	○	○	○
My organisation offers performance-driven rewards. يتم الاحتفاظ بالقادة ذوي المواهب من خلال تقديم المكافآت المترتبة على الأداء.	○	○	○	○	○

If you have general comment about the above section, please add it here: أي ملاحظات تود أن تضيفها

10

8. SECTION H: Talent's Performance Self Evaluation

تقييم ذاتي لأداء القادة ذوي المواهب

* Please indicate your degree of agreement by selecting one option that best represents your performance during the last year.

	Strongly Agree أوافق بشدة	Agree أوافق	Neutral محايد	Disagree لا أوافق	Strongly Disagree لا أوافق بشدة
1. I made decisions that reflect a clear understanding of what we do. القرارات التي اتخذتها تعكس فهماً واضحاً لما نقوم به.	○	○	○	○	○
2. I created short term goals that fit with the long term strategy. لقد قمت بوضع أهداف الأداء (قصيرة المدى) الخاصة بي بما يتفق مع الأهداف الإستراتيجية طويلة المدى.	○	○	○	○	○
3. I kept people focused on the ADG's key initiatives. قمت بتوجيه تركيز الموظفين أثناء العمل على المبادرات الرئيسية لدوائر وأدارات حكومة أبوظبي.	○	○	○	○	○
4. I took responsibility for my own actions. لقد تحملت مسؤولية النتائج الناجمة عن الإجراءات التي وجهتُ باتخاذها.	○	○	○	○	○
5. I was a good example of the behaviour I asked for. لقد كنت مثالاً يحتذى به لسلوك الموظف الذي قمت بالحث على اتباعه.	○	○	○	○	○
6. I turned new ideas and innovative solutions into new services. قمت باستخدام أفكار جديدة وحلول مبتكرة لصياغة خدمات جديدة.	○	○	○	○	○
7. I created an environment that encourages innovation, risk taking and challenge. تتمع بيئة العمل تحت إشرافي بالتشجيع على الابتكار وأخذ المخاطر والتحدي.	○	○	○	○	○
8. I maintained focus and commitment despite challenges. لقد حافظت على التركيز والالتزام بمهام عملي على الرغم من التحديات.	○	○	○	○	○
9. I set high standards of excellence for serving residents. قمت بوضع شروط عالية لتقديم خدمات مميزة للسكان المحليين والمقيمين.	○	○	○	○	○
10. I established effective two way communication with others. قمت بإنشاء التواصل الفعال المتبادل مع الموظفين.	○	○	○	○	○
11. I provided candid feedback to employees in a way that facilitates improvement. قمت بتقديم التغذية الراجعة للموظفين الذي أشرف عليهم بطريقة تسهل عملية تحسين الأداء.	○	○	○	○	○
12. I facilitated teamwork and communication across divisions/sections. قمت بتسهيل العمل الجماعي وعملية التواصل بين الإدارات والأقسام.	○	○	○	○	○
13. I facilitated functions across divisions/sections. قمت بتسهيل المهام بين الإدارات والأقسام.	○	○	○	○	○
14. I provided challenging assignments and opportunities for others to grow. قمت بتفويض مهام ذات تحديات إضافةً لتوفير الفرص لتطوير الموظفين.	○	○	○	○	○
15. I delegated critical tasks or responsibilities. قمت بتفويض مهام ومسؤوليات هامة.	○	○	○	○	○
16. I empowered others with the resources and authority they need to succeed. قمت بدعم الموظفين بالموارد والصلاحيات اللازمة لتحقيق النجاح.	○	○	○	○	○

If you have general comment about the above section, please add it here: أي ملاحظات تود أن تضيفها

SECTION H: Talent's Performance Self Evaluation before and after participating in Talent Management Programs.
تقييم ذاتي لأداء القادة ذوي المواهب قبل وبعد المشاركة في برامج تنمية إدارة المواهب

Please select the best choice that describes your performance before and after participating in Talent Management Programs.

	(1) Greatly below expectations.	(2) Below expectations.	(3) Meets expectations.	(4) Exceeds expectations.	(5) Greatly exceeds expectations.
My evaluation on my performance before participating in talent management program. تقييمي الذاتي لأدائي قبل. المشاركة في برامج تنمية المواهب	○	○	○	○	○
My evaluation on my performance after participating in talent management program. تقييمي الذاتي لأدائي بعد. المشاركة في برامج تنمية المواهب	○	○	○	○	○

If you have general comment about the above section, please add it here: أي ملاحظات تود أن تضيفها

9. SECTION I: Evaluation of Talent Management Programs

التقييم العام لبرامج إدارة المواهب

* Please indicate, from (very weak) to (very strong), how would you rate your organisation in terms of its ability to:
كيف تقيم الجهة التي تعمل لديها، من (ضعيفة جداً) إلى (ممتازة)، من حيث قدرتها على :

	Very Strong ممتازة	Strong جيدة جدا،	Neither Weak Nor Strong ليست ضعيفة و ليست ممتازة	Weak ضغيفة	Very Weak ضعيفة جداً
(1) Attract talent. جذب ذوي المواهب	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
(2) Retain talent. الإبقاء على ذوي المواهب	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

If you have any comment, please add it here: أي ملاحظات تود أن تضيفها

10. SECTION J: Talents' Turnover Forecast

الاستمرار في العمل / ترك العمل

* Please indicate your intention to continue to work at your organisation.

	Yes نعم	No لا
Do you intend to work for the long-term (4 years plus) at your organisation? هل ترغب بمواصلة العمل على المدى البعيد (4 سنوات وأكثر) في. المؤسسة التي تعمل لديها حالياً؟	◯	◯

If you have any comment, please add it here: أية ملاحظات تود أن تضيفها

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.
All the best, in shaa' Allah.

أثمن لكم عالياً تعاونكم ومشاركتكم في الدراسة،،،

Eman AbouabidAlla

Appendix 3: Letter to Gatekeeper

Abouabidalla, Eman

From:	Abouabidalla, Eman
Sent:	04 May 2016 22:53
To:	communicationsuk@mofa.gov.ae; informationuk@mofa.gov.ae
Subject:	FW: Request for Data Collection

M/s. UAE Embassy in London

Att. The UAE Cultural Mission

Dear Sir / Madam

My name is Eman Abouabidalla. I am a postgraduate researcher at Liverpool John Moores University. Please note that I am going to carry out a PhD degree study titled: **Investigating Talent Management Programs at Abu Dhabi Government in Light of The UAE 2021 Vision**.

This study aims at critically investigating the talent management leadership programs at Abu Dhabi Government. It examines the effectiveness of implementing a long-term talent management strategy to achieve high performance as per the goals that are set out in the latest United Arab Emirates (UAE) Vision for 2021. This study assesses the current talent management initiatives in place at Abu Dhabi affiliated departments in order to measure their success rate, making a judgement about the current talent program practices and its implications on leaders' performance. The purpose of evaluating the talent management leadership program in terms of the purpose, processes and outcomes is to determine whether the program objectives have been achieved; if not, identify the anticipated challenges and the potential barriers that impede talent management from functioning successfully. This study will also attempt to develop talent management strategy for Abu Dhabi Government to deliver high performance in line with the UAE vision to continuous improvement across all the UAE governmental sectors.

Therefore, an online questionnaire and a semi-structured interview outline, approved by Liverpool John Moores University, will be applied in the study and need to be circulated among Executive Directors and Division Managers who work in the departments under the General Secretariat of the Executive Council.

I confirm that all information collected in the study will be kept confidential. I hope that you help me in gaining GSEC approval, which is a significant factor for the success of this study.

Looking forward to hearing from you at your convenience, please.

Kindest regards

Faculty of Business and Law

Eman AbouabidAlla, *MA. HRM, NHD. CS*
Researcher
Liverpool Business School

53 Jermyn Street, Liverpool, Merseyside

L8 2XA, United Kingdom
t: 0044151 538 8455 **m:** 0044755 055 0026

e: e.a.abouabidalla@2016.ljmu.ac.uk **w:** www.ljmu.ac.uk

Appendix 4: Tests of Normality

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Gender	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
I intend to work for the long-term in my organisation.	Male	.244	215	.000	.869	215	.000
	Female	.309	72	.000	.806	72	.000
	Position						
	General Manager	.299	36	.000	.764	36	.000
	Executive Director	.222	63	.000	.869	63	.000
	Division Manager	.270	92	.000	.837	92	.000
	Head Section	.337	96	.000	.768	96	.000
	Age Group						
	23 - 34	.282	30	.000	.830	30	.000
	35 - 44	.260	164	.000	.846	164	.000
	45 - 54	.266	79	.000	.869	79	.000
	55 - 60	.249	14	**.019**	.883	14	**.065**
	Tenure						
	4 - 7	.256	11	.043	.893	11	.150
	8 - 12	.265	61	.000	.852	61	.000
	13 - 17	.256	82	.000	.864	82	.000
	18 - 24	.270	93	.000	.830	93	.000
	25 and plus	.257	40	.000	.842	40	.000
	Qualifications						
	Degree or equivalent	.264	86	.000	.860	86	.000
	Masters or equivalent	.234	121	.000	.867	121	.000
	PhD or equivalent	.300	66	.000	.800	66	.000
	High School	.307	4	.000	.729	4	.024
	Diploma	.272	10	.035	.802	10	.015

Table 1 of Appendix 4: a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Appendix 5: Approved Ethics Package

Reply | Delete Junk | •••

Approved - AbouabidAlla

Williams, Mandy
Wed 21/12/2016, 14:26
Abouabidalla, Eman; Research Ethics Proportionate Review; Harrison, Patricia; N

Reply |

Inbox

You replied on 22/12/2016 08:52.

Ethics Application Eman...
2 MB

Download

Dear Eman

With reference to your application for Ethical Approval:

16/LBS/021 - Eman AbouabidAlla, PGR - INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION (Patricia Harrison, Bob McClelland)

The University Research Ethics Committee (UREC) has considered the above application by proportionate review. I am pleased to inform you that ethical approval has been granted and the study can now commence.

Approval is given on the understanding that:

- any adverse reactions/events which take place during the course of the project are reported to the Committee immediately;
- any unforeseen ethical issues arising during the course of the project will be reported to the Committee immediately;
- the LJMU logo is used for all documentation relating to participant recruitment and participation e.g. poster, information sheets, consent forms, questionnaires. The LJMU logo can be accessed at http://www.ljmu.ac.uk/corporatecommunications/60486.htm

Where any substantive amendments are proposed to the protocol or study procedures further ethical approval must be sought.

Applicants should note that where relevant appropriate gatekeeper / management permission must be obtained prior to the study commencing at the study site concerned.

For details on how to report adverse events or request ethical approval of major amendments please refer to the information provided at http://www.ljmu.ac.uk/RGSO/93205.htm

Please note that ethical approval is given for a period of five years from the date granted and therefore the expiry date for this project will be December 2021. An application for extension of approval must be submitted if the project continues after this date.

Mandy Williams, Research Support Officer
(Research Ethics and Governance)
Research and Innovation Services
Kingsway House, Hatton Garden, Liverpool L3 2AJ
t: 01519046467 e: a.f.williams@ljmu.ac.uk

Date received	Initials	LJMU REC Ref

Application for Ethical Approval

No research must be started without full, unconditional ethical approval. There are a number of routes for obtaining ethical approval depending on the potential participants and type of study involved – please complete the checklists below to determine which is the most appropriate route for your research study.

A. Pedagogic Research (ROUTE FOR STAFF ONLY)

To find out if your study can be conducted under the University's Code of Practice for Pedagogic Research please answer the questions below.			
1.	Is the proposed study being undertaken by a member of LJMU staff?	Yes	No
2.	Is the purpose of the study to evaluate the effectiveness of LJMU teaching and learning practices by identifying areas for improvement, piloting changes and improvements to current practices or helping students identify and work on areas for improvement in their own study practices?	Yes	No
3.	Will the study be explained to staff and students and their informed consent obtained?	Yes	No
4.	Will participants have the right to refuse to participate and to withdraw from the study?	Yes	No
5.	Will the findings from the study be used **solely** for internal purposes? *e.g. there is no intention to publish or disseminate the findings in journal articles or external presentations*	Yes	No
If you have answered **Yes to all Qs1-4** your study may be eligible for consideration under the University's Code of Practice for Pedagogic Research. You should **not** complete this application form but seek further guidance at http://www2.ljmu.ac.uk/RGSO/114123.htm or by contacting Dave Harris D.Harriss@ljmu.ac.uk.			
If you have answered **No to any of Qs1-4** you should complete the checklists below to determine which route you should use to apply for ethical approval of your study.			

B. National Research Ethics Service (NRES)

To find out if your study requires ethical approval through NRES answer the questions below. Does you study:			
1.	Involve access to NHS patients or their data, or involve participants identified from, or because of, their past or present use of NHS services?	Yes	✓No
2.	Include adults who lack capacity to consent as research participants?	Yes	✓No
3.	Involve the collection and/or use of human tissue as defined by the Human Tissue Act 2004? **	Yes	✓No
If you have answered **Yes to any of Qs1-3** you should **not** complete this application form. You must seek approval for your study through the NHS National Research Ethics Service (NRES). For further information and details of how to apply to NRES can be found at http://www.nres.nhs.uk/ *Please note that once ethical approval has been received from NRES a completed LJMU Research Governance Proforma must be submitted to LJMU REC with written evidence of full, unconditional ethical approval from NRES prior to commencing their research.*			
If you have answered **No to Qs1-3** complete the checklist below to determine whether your application is eligible for proportionate review or if a full review by the University's REC is required.			
** *Studies involving the use of human tissue from healthy volunteers which are taking place within the University's Research Institute for Sports and Exercise Sciences (RISES) can apply for approval through the University REC (for further information contact Dave Harriss: D.Harriss@ljmu.ac.uk)*			

C. Full versus Proportionate Review

Does the proposed study:

1.	Expose participants to high levels of risk, or levels of risks beyond those which the participant is likely to experience whilst participating in their everyday activities? These risks may be psychological, physical, social, economic, cause legal harm or devaluate a person's self-worth. *e.g. untrained volunteers exposed to high levels of physical exertion; participants purposefully exposed to stressful situations; research where participants are persuaded to reveal information which they would not otherwise disclose in the course of everyday life.*	Yes	✓No
2.	Involve the administration of drugs, medicines or nutritional supplements as part of the research design?	Yes	✓No
3.	Include adults who may be classed as vulnerable? *e.g. adults with learning disabilities or mental illness; drug/substance users; young offenders; prisoners/probationers; those in a dependent relationship with the researcher*	Yes	✓No
4.	Include children or young adults (below 18) where parental consent will not be sought?	Yes	✓No
5.	Involve the discussion or disclosure of topics which participants might find sensitive or distressing? *e.g. sexual activity; criminal activity; drug use; mental health; previous traumatic experiences; illness; bereavement*	Yes	✓No
6.	Use questionnaires which focus on highly sensitive areas? *e.g. illegal activity; criminal activity; disclosure and analysis of findings based on sensitive personal information as defined by Data Protection Act e.g. racial or ethnic origin; political opinions; religious beliefs; trade union membership; physical or mental health; sexual life*	Yes	✓No
7.	Incorporate interviews or focus groups which involve the discussion of highly sensitive areas? *e.g. illegal activity; criminal activity; disclosure and analysis of findings based on sensitive personal information as defined by Data Protection Act e.g. racial or ethnic origin; political opinions; religious beliefs; trade union membership; physical or mental health; sexual life*	Yes	✓No
8.	For research accessing and analysing existing datasets. Will the dataset include information which would allow the identification of individual participants?	Yes	✓No NA
9.	Involve deliberately misleading participants in any way?	Yes	✓No
10.	Involve recruiting participants who have not been provided with a participant information sheet and asked to sign a consent form? *Please note that for questionnaire based studies a consent form is generally not request as consent is implied by the completion of the questionnaire. Applicants conducting **questionnaire-only** studies should answer NO*	Yes	✓No
11.	Involve the collection and/or use of human tissue from healthy volunteers? *Under these circumstances human tissue is as defined by the Human Tissue Act 2004 - "Any, and all, constituent part/s of the human body formed by cells." Research studies involving the use of plasma or serum are not covered by the HTA.*	Yes	✓No
12.	Involve high levels of risks to the researcher? *e.g. lone working at night; interviewing in your own or participants homes, observation in potentially volatile or sensitive situations*	Yes	✓No

If you have answered **No to all Qs1-12** your study is eligible for proportionate review. You should complete the following application form and submit it electronically with any supporting documentation e.g. participant information sheets, recruitment letters, consent forms to EthicsPR@ljmu.ac.uk . Your application will be reviewed by a sub-committee of the University REC

and you will be informed of the outcome within 2 weeks. Please note that if the allocated reviewer finds that your application has been wrongly submitted for proportionate review you will be notified and your application will be forwarded for consideration at the next University REC.
If you have answered **Yes to any of Qs1-12** your study is not eligible for proportionate review and will be considered at the next meeting of the University REC. You should complete the following application form and submit it electronically with any supporting documentation e.g. participant information sheets, recruitment letters, consent forms to **researchethics@ljmu.ac.uk** . *Please note that applications involving the use of human tissue originating from the School of Sports and Exercise Science should complete the Research Ethics Application Form for Studies Involving the Use of Human Tissue available at http://ljmu.ac.uk/RGSO/93044.htm* Guidance on completing the LJMU REC application form can be found at http://ljmu.ac.uk/RGSO/93044.htm ***Please note that following submission of your application to the relevant email address a signed copy of the application's signature page only must be sent to the Research Ethics Administrator, Research and Innovation Services, 4th Floor Kingsway House, Hatton Garden.*** Visit http://ljmu.ac.uk/RGSO/93126.htm for REC submission and meeting dates.

Where teaching practices involve invasive (psychological or physiological) procedures on students or others staff should refer to the guidance provided at http://ljmu.ac.uk/RGSO/93087.htm regarding the development of departmental/faculty codes of practice.

Research Mode

Undergraduate – specify course

Postgraduate

- [ ] MRes
- [ ] MPhil
- [x] PhD
- [ ] Prof Doc e.g. EdD or DBA
- [ ] Other taught Masters programme – specify course

- [ ] Postdoctoral
- [ ] Staff project
- [ ] Other – please specify

Has this application previously been submitted to the University REC for review? – **Yes / ✓No**

If yes please state the original REC Ref Number

SECTION A – THE APPLICANT

A1. Title of the Research

INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION

A2. Principal Investigator (PI) *(Note that the in the case of postgraduate or undergraduate research the student is designated the PI. For research undertaken by staff inclusive of postdoctoral researchers and research assistants the staff member conducting the research is designated the PI.)*

Title *Mrs* Forename *Eman* Surname *AbouabidAlla*

Post Postgraduate Researcher

School / Faculty Liverpool Business School / Faculty of Arts, Professional & Social Sciences

Email e.a.abouabidalla@2016.ljmu.ac.uk Telephone 0044755 055 0026

Relevant experience / Qualifications

Experiences

Training Officer and Office Manager, Western Region Municipality, UAE	November, 2007 – August 2011.
Assistant School Principal, Al Tumooh Private School, UAE	August, 2007 – October 2007.
Training Officer, Abu Dhabi National Oil Company for Distribution, UAE	June, 2000 – April, 2007.

Qualifications:

Type of Qualification	Subject	Dates	Place of Study	Grade
Master Degree	Master in Human Resource Management	2011-2013	Liverpool John Moores University, UK	Distinction
Higher Diploma	Computer Studies	2000-2001	Liverpool John Moores University, UAE	A
Diploma	Computer Studies	1998-2000	Liverpool John Moores University, UAE	A

- Attained the highest mean in the history of the Masters Program of Human Resource Management at Liverpool John Moores University (2011-2012)
- Awarded the Tutor Award from the CIPD and Liverpool John Moores University (2013)

A3. Co-applicants *(including student supervisors)*

Co-applicant 1 / Academic Supervisor 1 *(where the application is being submitted by a student, either undergraduate or postgraduate, details of their main dissertation supervisor must be included. The form must be submitted with a letter or email from their named supervisor indicating that they have read the application and are willing to supervisor the student undertaking the proposed study – **STUDENT APPLICATIONS WILL NOT BE REVIEWED UNTIL NOTIFICATION OF REVIEW BY THE NAMED SUPERVISOR IS RECEIVED***

Title *Dr.* Forename *Patricia* Surname *Harrison*

Post Senior Lecturer and Supervisor

Department / School / Faculty Liverpool Business School / Faculty of Arts Professional and Social Studies

Email P.A.Harrison@ljmu.ac.uk Telephone 01512313458

Relevant experience / Qualifications

Senior Lecturer and Supervisor, LJMU
Currently supervising 2 PGRs / PhD, MA. HRM, FHEA, MCIPD

Co-applicant 2 / Academic Supervisor 2

Title *Dr.* Forename Bob Surname Mclelland

Post Reader in Educational Technology and Head of Public Service Management Research Group at Liverpool Business School

Department / School / Faculty Liverpool Business School / Faculty of Arts Professional and Social Studies

Email B.McClelland@ljmu.ac.uk Telephone 0151 231 3420

Relevant experience / Qualifications

Reader in Educational Technology,
Head of Public Service Management Research Group at Liverpool Business School,
Chair of Research Forum, REF coordinator at Liverpool Business School. Currently supervising 21 PGRs. Previously successfully supervised 28 PGRs / PhD, DMS, MSc, BSc.

Co-applicant 3 / Academic Supervisor 3

Title	*Dr.*	Forename	Scott	Surname	Foster

Post: Senior Lecturer

Department / School / Faculty: Liverpool Business School / Faculty of Arts Professional and Social Studies

Email: S.Foster@ljmu.ac.uk Telephone: 0151 231 3420

Relevant experience / Qualifications

Senior Lecturer and Programme Leader
Currently supervising 12 PGRs. Previously successfully supervised 1 PGR / PhD, MRes, MBA, AAT

SECTION B – PROJECT DETAILS

B1. Proposed Date for Commencement of Participant Recruitment *(Please enter the date when you propose to start recruiting participants – note that no recruitment can take place without full, unconditional ethical approval)*

Start Date: 26th. December, 2016

B2. Scientific Justification. State the background and why this is an important area for research *(Note this must be completed in language comprehensible to a lay person. Do not simply refer to the protocol. Maximum length – 1 side of A4)*

- **Research Background**

Talent Management (TM) is a relatively new management concept within human resources management (HRM). TM is a set of practices comprised in HRM (Chuai *et al*., 2010). TM has gained popularity and attention from both academics and business world; however, gaps remain for further theoretical and empirical study, particularly in the region of Middle East. The 'War for Talent' emerged in 1990s had led to wide debate, among scholars and HR practitioners and had influenced organisations to adopt TM strategies (Bobby *et. al*., 2014). Studies have been extensively done on TM in western contexts, but they are still undeveloped and ambiguous in this field (Collings and Scullion, 2012). Likewise, research on TM in the context of the UAE is scarce; therefore, studies conducted on the Gulf Cooperation Countries (GCC) region have been cited in this investigation as GCC countries are linked geographically, historically, culturally, religiously, ethnically and economically (GCC, 2016). Initial research in the area of TM (Chambers *et al*., 1998) up to Staunton (2014) supports the directional aims of this research. This anticipated study is attempting to investigate, evaluate and identify the various forces of TM lagging against the recommended HR practices.

Implementing TM is associated with developing talents, retaining high potential, sustaining the flow of leaders and responding to organisational competencies in defining gaps in core skills. Moreover, TM is a key determinant for achieving the strategic objectives, financial success and the competitive advantage within the organisation (Berger and Berger, 2011; CIPD, 2015). However, Hofmann (2010) and Hall *et al*. (2012) studies had revealed that TM was unsuccessful in attracting and retaining talents. Furthermore, the abovementioned studies had asserted that TM was challenging in the region of Middle East, despite the fact that the GCC context had been perceived a fertilised environment for talents' retention (Gulf Talent, 2012). Talents' flow is challenging due to globalisation, demographics, the need for competencies and high demand for skilled workers; in addition to the external attractions such as incentives in private versus public sectors (Schuler and Tarique, 2009; Demirbag *et al*., 2016).

Thunnissen *et al.* (2013) advocate the need for a tailored approach of TM, which best meets a range of variable contexts and organisations (a pluralistic TM). Nevertheless, since the emergence and implementation of TM concept, administering TM had remained corporate across all governmental establishment across public sector in the UAE. In turn, this might reflect the fundamentals of TM at ADG, which will be examined in this study.

- **Statement of the Problem**

ADG Departments adopt the key components of TM i.e. resourcing/talent attracting strategies, leadership development program (LDP), performance management system (PMS) and retention strategies (RS). Therefore, the said approaches may proof TM existence in UAE public establishments. The need for an effective TM strategy at ADG stems from ADG's initiatives, which promotes nationalisation scheme 'Emiratisation' to develop its non-energy businesses (Budhwar and Mellahi, 2007; Al-Waqfi and Frstenlechner, 2010; Khan, 2011; Naif *et al*., 2013; GLMM, 2015). Moreover, TM focuses on improving competencies and leads to high-performance as suggested by Cheese *et al*., (2008) and Aykir *et al*. (2012). Therefore, ADG is encouraged to evaluate and revise its TM programs, as it is keen on equipping its elite cohort with the necessary managerial skills. ADG has recently formed the Human Resources Authority (HRA), an independent entity, to set plans for resourcing, leadership development, nationalization and talents' retention (Aladela, 2009; ADG, 2016). HRA administers PMS which is a corporate initiative across the ADG federal ministries and establishments to enhance workforce capabilities, track and achieve high governmental performance (FAHR, 2016a).

Yet, there is knowledge drain at the ADG, due to lack of appropriate TM culture to address the need to develop and retain talent to face future challenges (Al Ariss and Sidani, 2014). Moreover, there is no evaluation of whether ADG has enough talent to achieve the government 2021 vision. Furthermore, there is inadequate staff training for leadership positions. In addition, there is no audit about which specific job positions does ADG have talent gaps or weaknesses? Although there are some TM initiatives in UAE public sector, but there is little evidence of their harmonisation and progress, as claimed by Al Ariss and Sidani (2014), Bobby *et al*. (2014) and the FAHR (2016a).

There are challenges to develop and retain talented leaders such as the heterogeneity in the population, which is a critical issue in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). The variance of demographic capabilities between nationals and non-nationals, and the shortage in leadership workforce segment and skills, form resistance for attracting and retaining national talents. This is, in addition to issues relevant to the management style (Collings and Scullion, 2011; Al Ariss and Sidani, 2014), as well as turnover intentions (Singh and Sharma, 2015). The population pf UAE represents 1,084,764 locals compared to 8,492,236 non-locals (BQMagazine, 2015). The aforementioned circumstances had underpinned ADG departments' stance to cling to the existing leaders, while they are struggling in procuring more workforce of the similar characteristics. This perhaps shows the severe shortage of managerial capabilities in developing economies such as the case in the UAE (Palframan, 2008; Weir, 2008; Abdullah *et al*., 2010; Bobby *et. al*., 2014), against energy growth and expansion, plus the need for extra workforce (Hofmann, 2010). In turn, the demography, competences and management approach constitute high priority for investing in TM programs at Abu Dhabi Government Departments (Branham, 2005; Brewster *et al*., 2005).

Meanwhile, Al Ariss and Sidani (2014) claim the key determinants that frustrate the recommended implementation of TM at ADG. Examples are the culture of the local management in the UAE, the 'sheikhocracy', a synonym of the leadership style in assorted countries in the region, and the local legislations and polices. Subsequently, TM is a core area in the context of the UAE, simply as its rapidly expanding economy is highly demanding on the human resources and competences of non-locals with lower expectations from locals (Singh *et al*., 2012; Bobby *et. al*., 2014; ibid).

B3. Give a summary of the purpose, design and methodology of the planned research
(Note this must be completed in language comprehensible to a lay person. Do not simply refer to the protocol. Maximum length – 1 side of A4)

Aim of the investigation:

This study aims at critically investigating the talent management leadership programs (TMLP) of Abu Dhabi Government (ADG). It will examine the effectiveness of implementing a long-term talent management strategy to achieve high performance of the goals that are set out in the latest United Arab Emirates (UAE) Vision for 2021. This study will aim to assess the current talent management initiatives in place at Abu Dhabi affiliated departments, in order to measure their success rate, making a judgement about the current talent program practices and its implications on leaders' performance. The purpose of evaluating the TMLP in terms of the purpose, processes and outcomes is to determine whether the objectives of the program have been achieved, and identify the anticipated challenges and the potential barriers that impede talent management from functioning successfully. This study will also attempt to develop talent management strategy for Abu Dhabi Government to deliver high performance in line with the UAE vision to continuous improvement across all the UAE governmental sectors.

Objectives of the proposed investigation:

As the ultimate goal of this study is to attempt to develop an adequate talent management strategy for Abu Dhabi Government, therefore, the research will have the following objectives:

1. To critically review the literature about theories, concepts and models related to talents definition and talent management (TM) in theory and practice.
2. To identify the adopted TM strategies by Abu Dhabi Government by exploring talents' perspectives.
3. To assess the effectiveness of talent management programs on the performance of talents at Abu Dhabi Government departments.
4. To identify the limitations of talent management leadership programs (TMLP) or the main barriers of implementing Talent Management at Abu Dhabi Government departments.
5. To suggest recommendations based on the findings of this study and propose a long-term talent management strategy at 64 departments under Abu Dhabi Government i.e. education, health, service sector etc.

Research Methodology

This research will adopt a post-positivist philosophical stance and its associated deductive and inductive approaches to evaluate the current practices and attitudes associated with TM at ADG and propose TM strategy to address the research objectives (Creswell, 2003; Kumar, 2011). Meanwhile, this study is exploratory in its nature because it evaluates the effectiveness of TM programs through exploring the attitudes of ADG and their practices for the implementation of TM programs (Collis and Hussey, 2009). Therefore, it utilises deductivism which can be achieved using a survey strategy to fulfil this aim; which is also a popular instrument used in the public sector (Yin, 1975). Further, in compliance with the research aim, an executive report for ADG is intended to be formulated from empirical pointing to necessity for a quantitative study results.

Nevertheless, in order to obtain deeper understanding of Talent Management Leadership at ADG, strengthen the credibility of findings and increase the validity and reliability of this study (Patton, 2002), the research follows the mixed-method research choice (Quinlan, 2011). It implies conducting qualitative secondary research to gain more insights concerning talents' experience and their perceptions towards TM strategies i.e. LDP, PMS and RS (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). It is also planned that semi-structured-interviews will be included to triangulate with the quantitative primary research - Survey (Silverman; 2000; Punch, 2005; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). This will allow the researcher to address reasons behind TM evaluation (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998; Crishna,2006; Kumar, 2011), and, therefore, provide answers to the research question on the problems and challenges hindering the implementation of Talent Management in the ADG. Moreover, this research chooses cross sectional time horizons to examine a large sample simultaneously (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

Research Design

Quantitative Approach

The questionnaire design has been adopted from the literature, Singh and Sharma (2015) study, aimed to identify TM strategies adopted by selected organisations in service sector in the UAE. In addition to the CIPD Annual Survey Report (2015) which addressed staff retention methods; and the work of Heinen and O'Neill (2004), Scheweyer (2004), Morton and Ashton (2005), Bhatnagar (2007), Benest (2008), Collings and Mellahi (2009), Iles *et al*. (2010), Wellins *et al*. (n.d.) and Rigg and Stewart (2011) for leadership telent and development. Evaluation of ADG performance appraisal system had been adapted from Armstrong (2009). The construct of turnover intentions has been adopted from Angle and Perry (1981), Ashill *et al*. (2008), Bluedorn (1982), Cammann *et al*. (1979), Chen *et al*. (1998). Evaluation of TM has been adopted from Al Ariss and Sidani (2014). The questionnaire will go through several stages: planning, design and pilot testing. Questions has been determined along with establishing a key linkage with the research aims in order to fulfil its objectives to identify TM strategies adapted by ADG, and explore perceptions and perspectives of executives regarding TM. After performing Cronbach Alpha test, questions which would cause inconsistency will be detected and dropped by the researcher. Moreover, the nature of questions vary between nominal and interval scale to capture respondents' profile and measure data by a set of managerial questions. Therefore, questions are grouped in three sections to answer research questions:

- Obtain demographic data;
- Identification of TM strategy at ADG. Long-term strategies determinants (planning, resourcing, LDP, Performance Management System and Retention Strategy) and short term strategies (incentives);
- Evaluation of performance management system from talents' perspectives;
- Evaluation of leadership development program from talents' perspectives;
- Evaluation of TM from executives' perspectives, in line with ADG objectives;
- Talents' performance self evaluation;
- Turnover intentions.

A pilot study will be conducted, where questionnaire will be sent via email to thirty executives (who are the talents and leaders of ADG) in multiple establishments, in order to get their feedback on the length and clarity of the questionnaire. The questionnaire will be designed using SurveyMonkey.com tool, which will publish the survey and generate a hyperlink. The participants will be granted online access to the questionnaire throughout circulating the hyperlink, from which they can retrieve the questionnaire online. Answers will be automatically saved into the application as records and the researcher can monitor and view entries online.

The collected questionnaires will be coded and entered into the SPSS 21 to conduct the required procedures and tests (T-test, Anova and Factor Analysis), in order to generate the results (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Factor Analysis tests will be performed to test the set theories and hypotheses which may yield an explanatory model of LDP, PMS and RS. Therefore, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), will be undertaken to test multiple theoretical models to inform and confirm TM strategy (Hoyle, 2012). The researcher will test hypotheses for scale data surrounding attitudes, perceptions, effectiveness of LDP, PMS and RS for demographics (t-test and Anova), as well as a variety of multivariable methods. This will enable identification of trends and determine the answers relevant to the research questions (Blumberg et al., 2011).

Qualitative Approach

Research questions have been elaborated consisting of close-ended, open-ended questions, and emerged from the literature, in order to obtain the research objective on evaluating the effectiveness of TM programs at ADG. The questions have been adopted from Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) and Singh and Sharma (2015). Various themes have been introduced by the researcher, in addition to extra emerging themes that are expected during the interviews. Probe questions have been appended to the main interview themes to probe further, if the conversation has terminated. Therefore, the researcher will follow up the questions based on the interviewee's answers to elicit more details and obtain greater understanding of the problem. HR professionals from the HRA, in addition to HR Managers from various ADG departments, will take part in the interviews, to understand TM strategy and gauge the effectives of TM programs. It is planned to pilot the interviews to gain comments and refocus interview questions. The interviews shall be conducted remotely via Skype, with the support of a qualified administrator from the Human Resources Authority to facilitate the interviews, arrange the venue for the interview and set up the audio-visual equipment i.e. laptop, speakers and LCD screen etc. Taking into consideration the involvement of various interviewees; the place will be determined by the Human Resources Authority, in coordination with ADG departments. A consideration in this research that in effect the researcher will in large extend taking in an insider researcher and this will be a consideration in the research outcome (Trowler, 2012).

Taking into consideration the unique characteristics of the population in the qualitative part of the study, pre-planned strategies have been identified by the researcher to minimise the indirect identification of interviewees. The strategies are also outlined in the participant information sheet, to convey the message to participants. The researcher's knowledge of the environment, the context and the cultural framework of the research, will be employed in debriefing to minimise the potential negative implication on participants. Therefore, a consideration in the transcription process involves maintaining the content, whilst using language by the researcher to focus on process improvement not on individuals, in order to ensure logic and reasoning, as possible. Moreover, to avoid breaching the confidentiality, transcribing the interviews will be solely the function of the researcher. Furthermore, the researcher will use pseudonyms in the writing up. Interviews will be analysed through Nvivo software for emerging themes. SPSS results will be read in light of the interviews' analysis and the knowledge acquired from the secondary research (Johnson and Gill, 2010). Triangulation of all results will enable development of a long term TM strategy.

B4. State the principal research question

To what extent does Talent Management permeate government departments in Abu Dhabi (UAE)?

B5a. Give details of the proposed intervention(s) or procedure(s) and the groups of people involved (*including psychological or physical interventions, interviews, observations or questionnaires*)

Procedure or Intervention	Participants	Number of participants	No. of procedures per participant	Avg. Time to complete
Questionnaire	UAE national leaders (General Manager, Executive Directors and Division Managers) from Abu Dhabi Government establishments in the United Arab Emirates.	250	1	20-30 minutes
Interview	HR Managers and HR Professionals from the Human Resources Authority and Abu Dhabi Government establishments.	10	1	30-45 minutes

To include additional interventions place your mouse cursor in the last cell of the final column and press the tab button on your keyboard. A new row will be created for the above table.

B5b. Where questionnaires are to be used have these previously been validated?

☑ **Yes** ☐ **No** ☐ **Not Applicable**

If yes, state by whom and when. If no, you ***must*** *append copies of the proposed questionnaire (s) to this application.*

Construct	Adapted/Adopted from
Talent Management Planning	Test instruments introduced
Talent Management Resourcing	
Retention Strategies	Benest (2008), Bhatnagar (2007), CIPD Annual Survey Report (2015), Collings and Mellahi (2009), Heinen and O'Neill (2004), Iles *et al.* (2010), Morton and Ashton (2005), Rigg and Stewart (2011), Scheweyer (2004), Singh and Sharma (2015), Wellins *et al.* (n.d.).
Leadership Talent Training and Development (LDP)	Adopted from Rigg and Steward (2011:250)
Evaluation of ADG Performance Appraisal System (ADAA)	Adopted from Armstrong (2009:311)
Talent's Performance Self Evaluation	Adapted from (Federal Authority for Human Resources, 2016) Employee Performance System for the Employees of Federal Government (https://www.fahr.gov.ae/portal/en/نظام-إدارة-الأداء-لموظفي-الحكومة-الاتحادية.aspx)
Evaluation of TM at ADG	Al Ariss and Sidani (2014)
Turnover Intention	Angle and Perry (1981), Ashill *et al.* (2008), Bluedorn (1982), Cammann *et al.* (1979), Chen *et al.* (1998).

B5c. Where interviews or focus groups (structured or semi-structured) are proposed you must append an outline of the questions you are going to ask your participants. Please confirm that you have attached an outline of your interview / focus group questions.

☑ **Yes** ☐ **Not Applicable**

B6. How will the findings of the research be disseminated?*(e.g. thesis, dissertation, peer-reviewed articles, conference presentations, reports)*

The findings of the research will be disseminated in a thesis, peer-reviewed articles and conference presentations.

SECTION C – THE PARTICIPANTS

C1. How will the participants been selected, approached and recruited? If participants are to be approached by letter/email please append a copy of the letter/email. Please include details on how much time participants will have to decide if they want to take part. *(where different groups of participants have been identified in section B5a above provide details on how each group will be selected, approached and recruited.)*

The population of this research is the leaders from Abu Dhabi government (General Managers, Executive Directors and Division Managers, comprising 640). The criteria for selecting participants to randomly select participants: Managerial level, UAE-local, service length at public sector ≥ 3 years, to assure they have been processed through TM pipeline. The Human Resources Authority (HRA) will circulate the hyperlink of the online published survey, along with the participant information sheet. The participants work in 64 departments, and their participation will help identify the adopted TM strategies by Abu Dhabi Government. In addition to assessing the effectiveness of talent management programs on the performance of talents at Abu Dhabi Government departments.

Moreover, interviews will be conducted with executives and HR Division Managers at Abu Dhabi Government and the Human Resources Authority. The semi-structured-interviews will be employed to validate questionnaire findings and provide explanations to enable deeper understanding of the issues. Participant information sheet and consent forms for both questionnaire and interviews have been appended to this application.

The participant information sheet will be circulated in advance, by the Human Resources Authority via participant's email. Participants will then be given 10 days to read the participant sheet carefully and confirm their participation. The interview time will be set according to interviewees' schedule (within working times). The researcher will conduct the interviews remotely via Skype and the location will be one of seminar/study rooms at Aldham Robarts Learning Resource Centre. The interviewees will be in HRA Head Quarters and/or the various ADG affiliated departments (Skype is available in the organisation). The location in the Abu Dhabi will depend on the participants' place of work, (any of the 64 establishments). Therefore, the venue will be determined by the Human Resources Authority, in coordination with ADG departments.

C2. How was the number of participants decided? *(e.g. was a sample size calculation performed)*

Quantitative

Yamane's (1967:886) formula has been applied to calculate the minimum-sample-size (250 participants) where (N) is the population and (e) is the margin error $(0.05)^2$:

$$\text{Sample Size } (n) = \frac{N}{1 + N\,(e)^2} = \frac{640}{1 + 640\,(0.05)^2} = \frac{640}{2.55} = 250$$

In order to build trust relationship with participants of this study, and get the most representative sample from research population (Saunders *et al.*, 2009), the researcher will follow the systematic random sampling (population/sample size) (640/250=2.5); by picking each 3rd. name order after an initial random sample from the list, to ensure that each person gets the probability to be selected at least once (Bernard, 2000:150). The sample will be inclusive; it will involve talents and their leaders from different ADG establishments (Lyon *et al.*, 2012). The sample members in this study incorporates minor variation in the educational attainment (PhD., MA. and BSc.), which would introduce uncertainty. However, deviation in age, gender and seniority is limited, which secures trust. The representative sample will be [approximating to the proportions in the population] General Managers (10%), Executive Directors (30%) and Division Managers (60%).

Qualitative

It is planned to conduct 10 semi-structured-interviews. Number of participants to be interviewed will be 3 of each 3 seniority areas (General Managers, Executive Director and Division Manager). Therefore, it is intended to interview 3 General Managers, 3 Executive Directors, 3 Division Managers and 1 contingency for one of those listed above.

C3a. Will any of the participants come from any of the following groups? (Please tick all that apply)
Please note that the Mental Capacity Act 2005 requires that all research involving participation of any adult who lacks the capacity to consent through learning difficulties, brain injury or mental health problems be reviewed by an ethics committee operating under the National Research Ethics Service (NRES). For further information please see
http://www.ljmu.ac.uk/RGSO/101579.htm

No	Children under 16
No	Adults with learning disabilities
No	Adults with mental illness (if yes please specify type of illness below)
No	Drug / Substance users
No	Young offenders
No	Those with a dependant relationship with the investigator *e.g. your employees or students*
No	Other vulnerable groups please specify

Justify their inclusion

NA

C3b. If you are proposing to undertake a research study involving interaction with children or vulnerable adults do you have current, valid clearance from the UK Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS)?

☐ **Yes** ☐ **No** ☑ **Not Applicable**

C4a. What are the inclusion criteria? *(Please include information on how you will ensure that your participants will be informed of your inclusion criteria and how you will ensure that any specific inclusion criteria are met)*

- The inclusion criteria for this study is limited to leaders from the following list of Abu Dhabi government departments (General Managers, Executive Director and Division Manager):
  1. Abu Dhabi Airports
  2. Abu Dhabi Education Council,
  3. Abu Dhabi Farmers Services Centre
  4. Abu Dhabi Food Control Authority
  5. Abu Dhabi Health Services Company,
  6. Abu Dhabi General Services;
  7. Abu Dhabi Fund for Development,
  8. Abu Dhabi Housing Authority,
  9. Abu Dhabi Accountability Authority,
  10. Abu Dhabi Chamber of Commerce & Industry
  11. Abu Dhabi Council for Economic Development
  12. Abu Dhabi Judicial Department,
  13. Abu Dhabi Media,
  14. Abu Dhabi National Exhibitions Company,
  15. Abu Dhabi National Oil Company,
  16. Abu Dhabi Ports Company,
  17. Abu Dhabi Quality and Conformity Council,
  18. Abu Dhabi Sewerage Services Company,
  19. Supreme Petroleum Council
  20. Technology Development Committee,
  21. The Centre for Regulation of Transport by Hire Cars,
  22. The Center of Waste Management – Abu Dhabi
  23. Abu Dhabi Sports Council,
  24. Abu Dhabi Systems & Information Centre,
  25. Abu Dhabi Tourism and Culture Authority,
  26. Abu Dhabi Urban Planning Council,
  27. Abu Dhabi Water & Electricity Authority,
  28. Crown Prince Court,
  29. Daman Health Services
  30. Department of Economic Development,
  31. Department of Finance,
  32. Department of Municipal Affairs,
  33. DMA-Al Ain City Municipality,
  34. DMA-Municipality of Abu Dhabi City,
  35. Department of Transport,
  36. Emirates Palace
  37. General Holding Corporation
  38. Human Resources Authority,
  39. Khalifa Fund for Enterprise Development,
  40. Khalifa Bin Zayed Al Nahyan Foundation
  41. Royal Jet
  42. Monitoring and Control Center,
  43. Mubadala Development Company,
  44. National Consultative Council,
  45. Tourism Development & Investment Company,
  46. Western Region Development Council,
  47. Emirates Foundation for Youth Development,
  48. Emirates Nuclear Energy, Corporation,
  49. Environment Agency - Abu Dhabi,
  50. Ettihad Airways
  51. Executive Affairs Authority,
  52. Family Development Foundation,
  53. General Directorate of Abu Dhabi Police,
  54. Health Authority - Abu Dhabi
  55. Media Zone Authority
  56. National Rehabilitation Center
  57. Regulation and Supervision Bureau
  58. Ruler's Representative Court - Eastern Region
  59. Social Care & Minors Affairs Foundation
  60. Systems and information Centre
  61. Statistics Centre - Abu Dhabi
  62. Zayed Higher Organization for Humanitarian
  63. Care and Special Needs
  64. Zones Corp

- The criteria for selecting participants are those of managerial level, UAE nationals, service length at Abu Dhabi establishments is ≥ 3 years, to assure they have been processed through talent management programs. The inclusion criteria will be included in the invitation page, along with the participant information sheet, which will be circulated through the HRA. Moreover, the inclusion criteria will be circulated as part of the online published survey (suverymonkey.com), which will be displayed before the participant has embarked filling in the survey.

- Interviews will be targeting HR managers from the HRA and the various ADG establishments, who have spent at least 3 years to ensure that they have the knowledge and experience of talent management system at ADG.

C4b. What are the exclusion criteria? *(Please include information on how you will ensure that your participants will be informed of your exclusion criteria and how you will ensure that any specific exclusion criteria are met)*

- New leaders who have spent less than 3 years at ADG departments will be excluded from participation in the study.
- Leaders from the other federal departments will be excluded from participation in the study because talent management programs are active in 64 departments only.
- New HR Managers who have joint ADG from different sectors will be excluded from the semi-structured-interviews.
- The exclusion criteria will be included in the participant information sheet to ensure that participants will be informed.

C5. Will any payments/rewards or out of pocket expenses be made to participants?

☐ **Yes** ☑ **No**

If yes what or how much?

13

SECTION D – CONSENT

D1. Will informed consent be obtained from (please tick all that apply)

- [x] **The research participants?**
- [ ] **The research participants' carers or guardians?**
- [x] **Gatekeepers to the research participants?** *(i.e. school authorities, treatment service providers)*

D2. Will a signed record of consent be obtained? *Please note that where the study involves the administration of a questionnaire or survey a signed record of consent is not required for completion of the questionnaire as long as it is made clear in the information sheet that completion of the questionnaire is voluntary. Under these circumstances return of the completed questionnaire is taken as implied consent.*

If implied consent is to be assumed by return of questionnaires, the following statement (or similar) must be used:

"I have read the information sheet provided and I am happy to participate. I understand that by completing and returning this questionnaire I am consenting to be part of this research study and for my data to be used as described in the information sheet provided"

Participation in any other interventions within the same study e.g. interviews, focus groups must be supported by obtaining appropriate written consent.

[ ] **Yes** [ ] **No** [✓] **Implied consent for questionnaire** [ ] **Verbal consent**

Where the study involves the use of more than one intervention for example interviews and a questionnaire please the space below to detail the method of consent to be used for each intervention eg
Questionnaire – implied consent
Interview – written consent
Telephone interview – verbal consent

Questionnaire – implied consent
Semi-Structured-Interview - written consent

PLEASE APPEND COPIES OF ANY PROPOSED CONSENT FORMS TO THIS APPLICATION

D3. All participants must be provided with written information detailing the purpose, procedures, risks and benefits of participating. An approved template for the participant information sheet can be found at http://ljmu.ac.uk/RGSO/93717.htm. Please check the box below to confirm that a participant information sheet has been appended to this application. [✓]

APPLICATIONS SUBMITTED WITHOUT A PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET WILL NOT BE REVIEWED.

D4a. Will participants be able to withhold consent (refuse to take part)?

[✓] **Yes** [ ] **No**

If no please explain why not

D4b. Will participants be able to withdraw from the study whilst it is ongoing (after they have consented to take part)?

[✓] **Yes** [ ] **No**

If no please explain why not

D4c. Will participants be able to withdraw from the study after data collection has ended (will it be possible to identify and remove an individual's data once it has been collected or has been collected anonymously)?

☐ **Yes** ☑ **No**

Taking part in the questionnaire will be completed anonymously. Therefore, once participants have completed the questionnaire they will not be able to withdraw from the study because the researcher will not be able to identify their participation and remove the supplied data.

THE ABILITY OF PARTICIPANTS TO REFUSE TO TAKE PART OR TO WITHDRAW FROM A STUDY MUST BE MADE CLEAR IN THE WRITTEN INFORMATION PROVIDED TO PARTICIPANTS

SECTION E - RISKS AND BENEFITS

E1. Where will the intervention(s) take place? *Please note that where research is to be conducted in participants' homes or other non-public places applicants must be aware of appropriate lone working policies / practices and complete a full risk assessment.*
Applicants should also be aware of potential embarrassment or distress for participants in asking them to discuss personal or sensitive topics in public places.

✓	**LJMU premises**		**NHS or other external organisations**		**Public places**	✓	**Participants' place of work (ADG premises in the United Arab Emirates)**

N.B. As stated above, the interviews will be conducted via Skype; the researcher will therefore be in LJMU premises, while the participants will be in ADG premises in the United Arab Emirates.

E2. Will individual or group interviews/questionnaires discuss any topics or issues that might be sensitive, embarrassing or upsetting or is it possible that criminal or other disclosures requiring action could take place during the study? (e.g. during interviews or focus groups)

☐ **Yes** ☑ **No** ☐ **Not Applicable**

If yes give details of procedures in place to deal with these issues. Information given to participants should make it clear under what circumstances action may be taken. Where interviews or questionnaires discuss sensitive or distressing topics signposting to relevant support organisations must be included in the associated participant information sheet.

E3. Explain any potential benefits for individual participants of the study. Where there are no benefits to individual participants provide brief details of the potential broader benefits of the study for example to society or to future service users.

There will be no direct benefit for individual participants of this research study. However, the potential broader benefits are to: 1. Enable Abu Dhabi Government to evaluate its talent management programs and the performance of its leaders. 2. Enable Abu Dhabi Government to gauge the effectiveness of its talent management programs. 3. Enable Abu Dhabi Government to identify the limitations of talent management leadership programs (TMLP) or the main barriers of implementing effective talent management programs. 4. Enable Abu Dhabi Government to revise and enhance its talent management strategy from an informed study. 5. Serves to inform and propose a long-term talent management strategy for Abu Dhabi Government.

E4. Describe in detail any potential adverse effects, risks or hazards (mild, moderate, high or severe) of involvement in the research for the RESEARCHERS. *Explain any risk management procedures which will be put in place e.g. lone working procedures, counselling, peer support.*

There will not be any potential adverse effects, risks or hazards of the researcher's involvement in the research.

SECTION F – DATA ACCESS AND STORAGE

F1.Personal Data Management

Will the study involve the collection and storage of personal, identifiable or sensitive information from participants? Please note that signed consent forms constitute personal data. *(e.g. names, addresses, telephone numbers, date of birth, full postcode, medical records, academic records)*

☑ **Yes** ☐ **No**

If yes please provide details of what personal information will be collected and stored

Participants' names on their consent forms, in addition to their names in the interview audio recording.

Applicants should note that personal identifiable information or sensitive information relating to participants ***must not*** *be transferred in or out of the EEA without the explicit consent of participants. Such information must be handled with great care and only used in the way described in the written information you give your participants.*

You ***must*** *store any hard copies of personal date (e.g. printed data sheets, signed consent forms) in locked cupboards or filing cabinets and any electronic data containing personal information* ***must*** *be stored securely on LJMU password protected computers.*
Personal data ***must not*** *be stored on USB drives or other portable media or stored on home or personal computers.*

Where the use of verbatim quotes is proposed in future publications or presentations or it is intended that information is gathered using audio/visual recording devices explicit consent for this must be sought from participants.

F2. Will you share personal, identifiable data with other organisations outside of LJMU or with people outside of your research team? *(e.g. supervisor, co-applicants)*

☐ **Yes** ☑ **No** ☐ **Not Applicable**

If yes please provide further details

F3. For how long will any personal, identifiable data collected during the study be stored?

All electronic primary data, completed questionnaire and interviews recordings will be stored securely on LJMU password protected computers (M: Drive). The collected data will be stored for a maximum duration of 5 years, in order to complete the PhD research and publish the thesis online.

DECLARATION OF THE PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR

- The information in this form is accurate to the best of my knowledge and belief and I take full responsibility for it.
- I undertake to abide by the ethical principles underlying the Declaration of Helsinki and LJMU's REC regulations and guidelines together with the codes of practice laid down by any relevant professional or learned society.
- If the research is approved I undertake to adhere to the approved study procedures and any conditions set out by the REC in giving its favourable opinion.
- I undertake to seek an ethical opinion from LJMU REC before implementing substantial amendments to the approved study plan.
- If, in the course of the administering any approved intervention, there are any serious adverse events, I understand that I am responsible for immediately stopping the intervention and alerting LJMU REC.
- I am aware of my responsibility to comply with the requirements of the law and relevant guidelines relating to security and confidentiality of personal data.
- I understand that any records/data may be subject to inspection for audit purposes if required in the future.
- I understand that personal data about me as a researcher will be held by the University and this will be managed according to the principals of the Data Protection Act.
- I understand that the information contained in this application, any supporting documentation and all correspondence with LJMU REC relating to the application will be subject to the provisions of the Freedom of Information Act. The information may be disclosed in response to requests made under the Act except where statutory exemptions apply.
- I understand that all conditions apply to my co-applicants and other researchers involved in the study and that it is my responsibility that they abide by them.

☑

TICK TO CONFIRM THAT YOU HAVE READ AND AGREE TO THE DECLARATION ABOVE

SUBMITTING YOUR APPLICATION FOR REVIEW

Once you have completed the above application form please submit it electronically to either EthicsPR@ljmu.ac.uk for proportionate review or to researchethics@ljmu.ac.uk for full review by the University REC. If possible please submit your application form and any additional supporting documentation as a single pdf file.

APPLICATIONS MUST BE SUBMITTED VIA AN LJMU EMAIL ACCOUNT AND FOR STUDENT APPLICATIONS SUPPORTED BY AN EMAIL / LETTER FROM THE MAIN SUPERVISOR CONFIRMING THAT THEY HAVE READ AND APPROVED THE STUDY / APPLICATION.

CHECKLIST OF DOCUMENTS SUBMITTED ELECTRONICALLY (Please note that applications submitted without the required supporting documents will not be reviewed).

✓	Ethics Application Form (MANDATORY)
✓	Protocol (MANDATORY) see note below
✓	Email / letter from supervisor
✓	Copies of any recruitment/advertisement material e.g. letters, emails, posters etc.
✓	Participant Information Sheet
	Carer Information Sheet
✓	Gatekeeper Information Sheet
✓	Participant Consent Form
	Carer Consent Form
✓	Gatekeeper Consent Form
	Non-validated questionnaires
✓	List of interview questions
	Risk Assessment Form
✓	Other please specify

Validated questionnaire

Note
A research protocol is a document describing in detail how a research study is to be conducted in practice, including a brief introduction or background to the study, the proposed methodology and a plan for analysing the results. For the purposes of your application for ethical approval it is something which can be presented in a variety of formats dependent on its origin for example:

- *for postgraduate research students it may be the programme of work embedded within their programme registration form (RD9R)*
- *for studies which have obtained external funding it is often the description of what they propose doing which they submitted to the funder*
- *for other students it is the study proposal they have written and had assessed/approved by their supervisor.*

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abdoun, I. (2010) "Talent-management in the Middle-East", Tharawat Magazine, Vol. 6, pp. 44-46,

Abdullah, I., Al-Waqfi, M., Harb, N., Hijazi R. and Zoubeidi, T. (2010) "Labour Policy and Determinants of Employment and Wages in a Developing Economy with Labour shortage", LABOUR, Vol. 24 (2), pp. 163-177.

Abu Dhabi Accountability Authority (ADAA) website (2016) "The UAE Accountability Report (2015)"
Available from: [file:///C:/Users/User/Desktop/Talent%20Mgt/Annual%20Report%202015%20UAE.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. of March, 2016]

Abu Dhabi eGovernment (2016) website "Departments",
Available from:[https://www.abudhabi.ae/portal/public/en/departments?_adf.ctrl-state=6572jc996_4&_afrLoop=3715510102336405#!]
Accessed on: [15th. April, 2016]

Abu Dhabi Government (2016) website "Human Resources Authority",
Available from:
[https://www.abudhabi.ae/portal/public/en/departments/department_detail?docName=ADEGP_DF_446_EN&_adf.ctrl-state=4yo0iq6ng_4&_afrLoop=3751120846464865#!]
Accessed on: [17th. March 2016]

Abu Dhabi Government (ADG) website (2016) "Strategic Plan 2030",
Available
from:[http://www.abudhabi.ae/egovPoolPortal_WAR/appmanager/ADeGP/Citizen?_nfpb=true&_pageLabel=P42001137 91218444260839&lang=en]
Accessed on: [6th. March, 2016]

Adams, M., III, H. and Oglesby, R. (2010) "Business Research Yearbook: Global Business Perspectives", The International Academy of Business Disciplines, Vol. XVII (1),
Available from:[http://blue.utb.edu/lfalk/2010V1BRY.pdf#page=363]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Ali, A. (2008) "Talent Management in Middle-East" In David Collings and Hugh Scullin (eds). Global Talent Management, Rutledge, London.

Aladeli, N. (2009) "How is the state of talent management in Saudi companies?", Alektisadyah Newspapers, Vol. 5670, No. 20, April 2009.

Al Ariss, A and Sidani, Y. (2014) "Institutional and corporate drivers of global talent management: Evidence from the Arab Gulf region" Journal of World Business, Vol. 49, No. 2014, pp. 215-224.
Available from: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2013.11.005]
Accessed on: [09th. March, 2016]

Al-Marzouqi, Y. and Madhavan, P. (2008) "Leadership Excellence Attainment Determinants (LEAD): Structural similarities beyond the cultivated and/or cultural diversities", NHRD Journal, Vol. 2 (1), 46-52.

Al-Shamsi, F., Al-Sheikh, H., Bassioni, Y., and Rutledge, E. (2011) ''Women, labour market nationalization policies and human resource development in the Arab Gulf states'', Human Resource Development International, Vol.14, No. (2), pp. 183–198.

Al-Waqfi, M. and Frstenlechner, I. (2010) "Stereotyping of Citizens in an Expatriate Dominated labour Market: Implications for Workforce Localization", Employee Relations, 32: in press.

Anderson, V. (2004) "Research Methods in Human Resource Management", The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Anderson, V. (2008) "Aligning learning to the needs of the organization", CIPD Fact Sheet, CIPD, London.
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/subjects/lrnanddev/general/alignlearng.htm]
Accessed on: [20th. March, 2016]

Anderson, V. and Turner, S. (2011) "Achieving alignment, shared purpose and agility", CIPD, London.
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/practical-tools/achieving-alignment-shared-purpose-agility.aspx]
Accessed on: [20th. March, 2016]

Aon Hewitt (2011) ''QUDURAT Report'',
Available from: [http://www.aon.com/middle-east/attachments/AH-Qudurat-Report-English.pdf]
Accessed on: [30th. April, 2016]

Arab Development Initiative (ADI) (2016) "The Arab Development Initiative",
Available from:[http://arabdevelopment.com/en/content/in_news]
Accessed on: [10th. March 2016]

Armstrong, M. (2006) "Performance Management: Key Strategies and Practical Guidelines", 3rd. Ed., Kogan Page, London and Philadelphia.

Armstrong, M. (2008) “Strategic Human Resource Management: A Guide to Action”, 4th. Ed., Kogan Page, London and Philadelphia.

Armstrong, M. (2009) “Armstrong’s Handbook of Performance Management: An Evidence-Based Guide to Delivering High-performance”, 4th. Ed., Kogan Page, London and Philadelphia.

Armstrong, M. (2010) “Armstrong's Handbook of Reward Management Practice: Improving Performance through Reward”, 3rd. Ed., Kogan Page, London-Philadelphia-Daryaganj.

Armstrong, M. (2012) “Armstrong's Handbook of Reward Management Practice: Improving Performance through Reward”, 4th. Ed., Kogan Page, London.

Armstrong, K. and Ward, A. (2005) “What Makes for Effective Performance Management?”, The Work of Foundation, London.

Armstrong, M. and Baron, A. (2004) “Managing Performance: Action and Impact”, CIPD, London.

Armstrong, M. and Baron, A. (2005) “Managing Performance: performance management in action”, 1st. Ed., CIPD, London.

Axelrod, B., Handfield-Jones, H. and Michaels, E. (2001) “The War for Talent”, McKinsey & Co., USA.

Aykir, A., Vardarlier, P., and Vural, Y. (2012) “The Effects of Using Talent-management With Performance Evaluation System Over Employee Commitment”, Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, Vol. 58 (2012), pp. 340-349.
Benest, F. (2008) “Retaining and Gowing Talent: Strategies to Create Organisaional "Stickiness"”. PM Magazine , 90 (9), 1-8.

Bernard, H. (2000) “Social Research Methods”, Sage Publications, London.
Beardwell, J., Gold, J., Holden, R., Iles, P. and Stewart, J. (2010) “Human Resource Development: Theory & Practice”, Palgrave Macmillan, England.

Berg, B. and Lune, H. (2011) “Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences”, 8th. Ed., Prentice Hall, London.

Berger, D. and Berger, L. (2011) “The Talent Management Handbook: Creating a Sustainable Competitive Advantage by Selecting, Developing, and Promoting the Best People”, 2nd. Ed., McGraw-Hill Professional, USA.

Berry, L., Parasuraman, A. and Zeithaml, V. (1994) “Alternative Scales for Measuring Service Quality: A Comparative Assessment Based on Psychometric and Diagnostic Criteria”, Journal of retailing, Vol. 70 (3), pp. 201-230,

Becker, B., and Gerhart, B. (1996) "The impact of human resource management on organizational performance: Progress and prospects", Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 39, No. (4), pp. 779–801.
Becker, B. E., and Huselid, M. A. (2006) “Strategic human resource management: Where do we go from here?", Journal of Management, Vol. 32, pp. 898–925.
Bersin, J. (2010) “The Business of Talent Management” In Israelite, L. (ed) Talent Management. Strategies for Success from Six Leading Companies, Danvers, ASTD Press, pp. 15-44.

Bhagat, R. and McQuaid, S. (1982) “Role of Subjective Culture in Organizations: a Review and Directions for Future Research“, Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 67, pp. 653 - 685.

Bhatnagar, J. (2007) "Talent Management Strategy of Employee Engagement in Indian ITES Employees: Key to Retention”. Employee Relations, 29(6), pp. 640-663.

Bjorkman, I., Farndale, E., Morris, S., Paauwe, J., Stahl, G., and Stiles, P. (2007) “Global talent management: How Leading Multinationals Build and Sustain Their Talent Pipeline” Faculty & Research Working Paper, INSEAD Working Paper Series.

Blumberg, B., Cooper, D., and Schindler, P. (2007) “Business Research Methods”, McGraw-Hill, London.

Blumberg, B., Cooper, D., and Schindler, P. (2011) “Business Research Methods”, McGraw-Hill Higher Education, London.

Bobby, M., Mihir, H., Thomas, A., Varghese, A., Vinod, S. (2014) "Talent Management among UAE National Women", Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences (JETEMS), Vol. 5, No. 5, pp. 474-479.

Borman, M. and Motowidlo, S. (1993) “Expanding the Criterion Domain to Include Elements of Contextual Performance” In Schmitt, N., Borman, W. and Associates Personnel Selection in Organisations, Jossy-Bass, San Francisco.

Bouckaert, G., Dooren, W. and Halligan, J., (2010) “Performance Management in the Public Sector”, Routledge, New York, USA.

Boudreau, J. W., and Ramstad, P. M. (2007) "Beyond HR: The new science of human capital. Boston", Harvard Business School Press, MA.

Bougie, R., and Sekaran, U. (2009) “Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach”, 5th. Ed., John Wiley and Sons, London.

Bougie, R. and Sekaran, U. (2010) “Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach”, 5th. Ed., John Wiley and Sons, London.

Branham, L. (2005) “Planning to become an employer of choice”, Journal of Organizational Excellence, 24, 3, pp. 57-68.

Brewster, C., Sparrow, P., Vernon, G. and Houldsworth E. (2011), "International Human Resource Management", 3rd. Ed., CIPD, London.

Bryman, A. (2012) "Social Research Methods", 4th. Ed., Oxford University Press, UK.

Bryman, A. (2016) "Social Research Methods", 5th. Ed., Oxford University Press, UK.

Bryman, A. and Bell E. (2007) "Business Research Methods", 2nd. Ed., Oxford University Press Inc., New York.

Bryman, A. and Bell E. (2011) "Business Research Methods", 3rd. Ed., Oxford University Press Inc., New York.

Budhwar, P. and Mellahi, K. (2007) "Human Resource Management in the Middle-East", International Journal of Human Resource Management, Vol. 18 (1), pp. 2-10,
Available from:[http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/09585190601068227]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

BQMagazine (2015) "UAE´s population – by nationality", BQMagazine, April 2015,
Available from:[http://www.bq-magazine.com/economy/socioeconomics/2015/04/uae-population-by-nationality]
Accessed on: [16th. March, 2016]

Caldwell, A. and Lestie, L. (2010) "Qualitative Reading Inventory", 5th. Ed., Allyn & Bacon, USA.

Campbell, D. (1977) "On The Nature of Organisational Effectiveness" in Goodman, P. and Pennings, J. (eds) New Perspectives on Organisational Effectiveness, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Campbell, J., McCloy, R., Oppler, S. and Sager, C. (1993) "A Theory of Performance" In Schmit, N., Borman, W. and Associates Personnel Selection in Organisations, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Caplan, J. (2010) "The Value of Talent: Promoting Talent Management Across the Organization", Kogan Page, London.

Caplan, J. (2011) "The Value of Talent: Promoting Talent Management Across the Organization", Kogan Page, London.

Cappelli, P. (2008) "Talent Management for the Twenty-First Century", Harvard Business Review, Vol. March, pp. 74-81.

Centre of Excellence website (CE) (2010)"Overview: Program Overview",
Available from:[http://sharing.ecouncil.ae/coe/adGLeadership/overview/Overview.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Chaisson, J., and Schweyer, A. (2004) "Global talent management: Fostering global workforce practices that are scalable, sustainable and ethical. 8 Principles & 7 Field Lessons for Success in Global Talent Management", Human Capital Institute Position Paper.

Cheese, P., Craig, E. and Thomas, R. (2008) "The Talent Powered Organisations: Strategies for Globalisation, Talent Management and High-performance", Kogan Page Limited, UK and USA.

Chambers, G., Foulon, M., Handfield-Jones, H., Hankin, S. and Michaels-III, E. (1998) "The War for Talent", The McKinsey Quarterly, Vol. 3, pp. 44-57.

Child, D. (2006) "The Essentials of Factor Analysis", 3rd. Ed., Continuum, London.

Chuai, X., Iles, P., and Preece, D. (2010) "Talent management as a management fashion in HRD: towards a research agenda", Human Resource Development International, Vol. 13 (2),
Available from:[http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/13678861003703666?journalCode=rhrd20]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Collings, G. and Mellahi, K. (2009) "Strategic talent management: A review and research agenda", Human Resource Management Review", Vol. 19, pp. 304–313

CIPD Change Agenda (2006) "The value of learning: A new model of value and evaluation", CIPD, London.

CIPD (2007) "Talent Management-Understanding the Dimensions", CIPD, London.

CIPD (2009) "Talent-management: Factsheet", CIPD, London.

CIPD Annual Survey Report (2010) "Learning and Talent Development",
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/binaries/5215_Learning_talent_development_survey_report.pdf]
Accessed on: [17th. March, 2016]

CIPD Annual Survey Report (2015) "Resourcing and Talent Planning",
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/binaries/resourcing-talent-planning_2015.pdf]
Accessed on: [14th. March, 2016]

CIPD Change Agenda (2006) "The value of learning: A new model of value and evaluation", CIPD, London.
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/NR/rdonlyres/94842E50-F775-4154-975F-8D4BE72846C7/0/valoflearnnwmodvalca.pdf]
Accessed on: [20th. March, 2016]

CIPD Factsheet (2016) "Succession Planning: Resource Summary",
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/factsheets/succession-planning.aspx]
Accessed on: [21th. March, 2016]

CIPD Middle East website (2015a) "New Human Resources Authority for Abu Dhabi",
Available from: [http://www.cipd.ae/people-management-magazine/hr-news-opinion/new-hr-authority-abu-dhabi]
Accessed on: [17th. March, 2016]

CIPD Middle East website (2015b) "Ambitious millennials choose UAE as top country to work",
Available from: [http://www.cipd.ae/people-management-magazine/hr-news-opinion/millennials-choose-uae]
Accessed on: [23th. April, 2016]

CIPD Survey Report (2005) "Performance Management",
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/binaries/perfmansr0905.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

CIPD-Survey-Report (2009) "The War on Talent? Talent management under threat in uncertain times-Part 1",
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/NR/rdonlyres/DFC760F8-F37C-4548-9470-5154073FE4EC/0/warontalent.pdf]
Accessed on: [31st. March, 2016]

CIPD (2009) "Talent Management: Factsheet", CIPD, London.

CIPD (2014) "Talent Management", CIPD, London.
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-topics/talent-management.aspx]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

CIPD Annual Survey Report (2009) "Learning and Development", CIPD, London.,
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/binaries/Learnanddevsur2009.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

CIPD Annual Survey Report (2011) "Learning and Talent Development", CIPD, London,
Available from: [http://www.cipd.co.uk/binaries/5455%20Learning%20and%20Talent%20Development%202011.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Cohen, L., Manion, L., and Morrison, K. (2007) "Research methods in education", 6th. Ed., Routledge, London.

Collings, D.G. and Mellahi, K. (2009) "Strategic Talent Management: A review and research agenda", Human Resource Management Review, Vol. 19 (4), pp. 304–313
Accessed on: [13th. March, 2016]

Collings, D., and Mellahi, K. (2010) "The Barriers to Effective Global Talent: The Example of Corporate Elites in MNEs", Journal of World Business, Vol. 45, pp. 143-149.

Collings, D. and Scullion, H. (2010) "Global Talent Management", Journal of World Business, Vol. 45, pp. 105–108,
Available from: [http://ac.els-cdn.com/S1090951609000728/1-s2.0-S1090951609000728-main.pdf?_tid=2d9200bf37e6d6f56758ae88769977ed&acdnat=1334528274_de31e3fc53b8b531faff99f33b64a08b]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Collings, D. and Scullion, H. (2012) "Global Talent Management", 1st. Ed., Routledge, UK.

Collis, J. and Hussey, R. (2009) "Business Research: a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students", 3rd. Ed. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cooper, R., and Schindler, P. (2006) "Business Research Method", 9th. Ed., McGraw-Hill Irwin, Boston.

Creswell, J (2003) "Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches", 2nd. Ed., Thousand Oaks, CA.

Creswell, W. and Clark, V. (2010) "Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research", 2nd. Ed., Sage Publications Inc., London.

Creswell, J. and Miller, D. (2000) "Determining Validity in Qualitative Inquiry", Theory into Practice, Vol. 39 (3), pp. 124-131.

Crishna, B. (2006) "Participatory evaluation (II) – Translating Concepts of Reliability and Validity in Fieldwork", Blackwell Publishing Limited, Vol. (3), pp. 224–229.

Cronback, L. (1951) "Coefficient Alpha and the Internal Structure of Tests", Psychometrika, Vol. 16 (3),
Available from: [http://psych.colorado.edu/~carey/Courses/PSYC5112/Readings/alpha_Cronbach.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Dawson, C. (2009) "Introduction to Research Methods: A Practical Guide for Anyone Undertaking a Research Project", 4th. Ed., How To Books Ltd.

Deery, M. and Jago, L. (2015) "Revisiting talent management, work-life balance and retention strategies", International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Vol. 27, No. 3, pp. 453 - 472.

Demirbag, M., Glaister, A. and Tatoglu, E. (2016) "Talent management motives and practices in an emerging market: A comparison between MNEs and local firms", Journal of World Business, Vol. 51, No. 2016, pp. 278–293

DeNisi, A., Hitt, M., and Jackson, S. (2003) "Managing Knowledge for Sustained Competitive Advantage", Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y. (1998) "The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues", Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.

Department of Municipal Affairs (DMA, 2014) "Department of Municipal Affairs: Overview"
Available from: [http://dma.abudhabi.ae/en/]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Dietz, M., Orr, G., and Xing, J. (2008) "How Chinese Companies Can Succeed Abroad", McKinsey Quarterly, Vol. May.
DiMaggio, P. and Powell, W. (1983) ''the iron cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields'' American Sociological Review, Vol. 48, No. (2), pp. 147–160.

Dowell, B. and Silzer, B. (2010) "The Professional Practice Series: Strategy-Driven Talent Management: A Leadership Imperative", 1st. Ed., A Wiley Imprint, San Francisco, USA.

Earley, P. (1997) "Face, Harmony and Social Structure: An Analysis of Organisational Behavior Across Cultures", Oxford University Press, New York.

Easterby-Smith. M., Thorpe, R. and Andy Lowe, P. (2008) ''Management Research: Theory and Practice'', 3rd. Ed., Sage Publication Ltd., London.
Edhlund, B. (2011) "NVivo 9 Essentials", Lulu Publishing, USA.

Fathi, M. (2012) "Discover the talent of staff and energies, success skills for human development", 28 June 2012.

Faust, C. (2008) "State of the global talent nation report 2008. Organizations Struggle to Ready Workforces to Meet Growth Demands",
Available from: [http://www.softscape.com]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Federal Authority for Government HRs website (FAHR) (2016a) "Employee Performance Management System"
Available from: [https://www.fahr.gov.ae/Portal/en/legislations-and-guides/systems/performance-management-system-for-the-employees-of-federal-government.aspx]
Accessed on: [01st. March, 2016]

Federal Authority for Government HRs website (FAHR) (2016b) "Federal Authority for Government Human Resources: Employee Performance Management System"
Available from: [https://www.fahr.gov.ae/Portal/Userfiles/Assets/Documents/50c11796.pdf]
Accessed on: [01st. March, 2016]

Fegley, S. (2006) "SHRM 2006 strategic HR management survey report", Society for Human Resource Management, VA, Alexandria, USA.
[https://www.shrm.org/Research/SurveyFindings/Documents/2006%20Strategic%20HR%20Management%20Survey%20Report.pdf]
Accessed on: [17th. May, 2016]

Figliolini, A.J., Hofmann, A. and Kanjirath, T. (2008) "Growth in the Middle East and HR capabilities". Dubai: Center for Advancement of Human Resource Studies.

Ford, J., Harding, N. and Stoyanova, D. (2010) "Talent Management and Development: An Overview of Current Theory and Practice", Bradford University School of Management, Vol. September 2010,
Available from: [http://www.brad.ac.uk/acad/management/external/pdf/cme/talent-management-and-development-an-overview-of-current-theory-and-practice.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Foster, C., Harris, L., PStewart, J., Sempik, A., Tansley, C., Turner, and Williams, H. (2007) "Talent Management: Research insight", CIPD, London.

Freeman, H., Patel, D., Ryan, S. and Scott, B. (2000) "The virtual university: the Internet and resource-based learning", Kogan Page Limited, UK.

Gliem, J. and Gliem, R. (2003) "Calculating, Interpreting, and Reporting Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient for Likert-Type Scales",
Available from: [https://scholarworks.iupui.edu/bitstream/handle/1805/344/Gliem%20&%20Gliem.pdf?s..]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Golafshani, N. (2003) "Understanding Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research", The Qualitative Report, Vol. 8 (4), pp. 597-607,
Available from: [http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR8-4/golafshani.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Guba, E. and Lincoln, Y. (1985) "Naturalistic inquiry", Sage Publications, CA, Newbury Park.

Guest, A. (2007) "HRM and Performance: can partnership address the Ethical issues?" In Human Resource Management: Ethics and Employment, Pinnington, A., Macklin, R. and Campbell, T. (eds), Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) (2016) ''Gulf Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf'',
Available from: [http://www.gccegov.org/web/guest/gcc]
Accessed on: [18th. March, 2016]

(GLMM) Gulf Labour Markets and Migration (2015) ''Demography, Migration, and the Labour Market in the UAE'', Explanatory Note, No. 7/2015
Available from: [http://cadmus.eui.eu/bitstream/handle/1814/36375/GLMM_ExpNote_07_2015.pdf?sequence=1]
Accessed on: [20th. March, 2016]

Gulf Talent (2012) "Gulf Compensation Trends 2007",

Available from: [http://www.gulftalent.com/repository/int/Gulf_Compensation_Trends_2007.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Harrison, R. (2005) "Learning and Development", 4th. Ed., CIPD, England.

Harris, L. and Foster, C. (2010) "Aligning Talent Management with Approaches to Equality and diversity: Challenges for UK Public Sector Managers", Vol. 29 (5), pp. 422-435,

Harris, L. and Leopold, J. (2009) "The Strategic Managing of Human Resources", 2nd. Ed., Prentice Hall, London.

Harvey, M. and Kiessling, T. (2006) "The Human Resource Management Issues During an Acquisition: The Target Firm's Top Management Team and Key Managers", International Journal of Human Resource Management, Vol. 17, pp. 1307–1320.

Healey, M. (1991) "Obtaining Information from Businesses", in Healey, M. (ed.), Economic Activity and Land Use, Harlow, Longman, pp. 193-251.

Healey, M. and Rawlinson, M. (1993) "Interviewing Business Owners and Managers: A Review of Methods and Techniques", Geoforum, Vol. 24 (3), pp. 55–339.

Healey, M. and Rawlinson, M. (1994) "Interviewing Techniques in Business and Management Research", in Wass, V. And Wells, P. (eds), Principles and Practice in Business and Management Research, Aldershot, Dartmouth, pp. 26-123.

Heinen, S.J. and O'Neill, C. (2004), "Managing talent to maximize performance", Employment Relations Today, Vol. 31, pp. 2.

Hilal, M. (2012) "Talent management", Improve Performance and Development Publication and Distribution, Cairo.

Hofmann, A. (2010) "Introduction: Talent Management Strategies for Growth: Focus on the Middle-East",
Available from: [http://www.ilr.cornell.edu/cahrs/research/whitepapers/upload/TalentMgmt_IntroMidEast.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Hoyle, R. (2012) "Handbook of Structural Equation Modelling", The Guilford Press, New York, USA.

Huselid, M., Jackson, S. and Schuler, R. (1997) "Technical and strategic human resource management effectiveness determinates of firm performance", Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 40, pp. 171-88.

Huselid, M. A., Beatty, R. W., and Becker, B. E. (2005) " 'A players' or 'A positions'? The strategic logic of workforce management", Harvard Business Review, Vol. December, pp. 110–117

Iles, P., Chuai, X. & Preece, D., (2010) 'Talent Management and HRM in Multinational Companies in Beijing: definitions, differences and drivers". Journal of World Business, 45(2), pp. 179-189.

Ilgen, D. and Schneider, J. (1991) "Performance Measurement: A Multi-Discipline View" In Coo per, C. and Robertson, I. (eds) International Review of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, Wiley, Chichester.

Incomes Data Services (1992) "Performance Management", IDS Study 518, Incomes Data Services, London.

Jankowicz, A. (2005) "Business Research Projects", 4th. Ed., Business Press Thomson Learning, London.

Johnson, B. (1997) "Examining the Validity Structure of Qualitative Research", Education, Vol. 118 (3), pp. 282-292.

Johnson, P., and Gill, J. (2010) "Research Methods for Managers", Sage Publications Ltd, London.

Johnson, S. (1995) "Will our Research Hold up under Scrutiny?", Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, Vol. 32 (3), pp. 3-6.

Johnson, R. and Vogt, W. (2011) "Dictionary of Statistics & Methodology: A Nontechnical Guide for the Social Sciences", 4th. Ed., SAGE, London.

Johnson, M. and Long, T. (2000) "Rigour, Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research", Clinical Effectiveness in Nursing, Vol. 4, pp. 30–37.

Jonker, J. and Pennink, B. (2010) "The Essence of Research Methodology: A Concise Guide for Master and PhD Students in Management Science", Springer.

Joppe, M. (2000) "The Research Process",
Available from: [http://www.htm.uoguelph.ca/MJResearch/ResearchProcess/home.html]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Jonker, J. and Pennink, B. (2010) "The Essence of Research Methodology: A Concise Guide for Master and PhD Students in Management Science", Springer.

Joyce W. and John Slocum W. (2012) "Top management talent, strategic capabilities, and firm performance", Organizational Dynamics, Vol. 41, pp.183-193.

Journal of World Business (JWB) website (2010) "Global Talent Management", Vol. 45, pp. 105–108,
Available from: [http://ac.els-cdn.com/S1090951609000728/1-s2.0-S1090951609000728-main.pdf?_tid=2d9200bf37e6d6f56758ae88769977ed&acdnat=1334528274_de31e3fc53b8b531faff99f33b64a08b]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Kalpan, R. and Norton, D. (1992) “The Balanced Scorecard – Measures that Drive Performance”, Harvard Business Review, Vol. 69 (1), pp. 9-71.

Khan, I. (2011) “Gulf States Struggle to Shift Jobs to Choosy Locals”
Available from: [http://www.arabianbusiness.com/gulf-states-struggle-shift-jobs-choosy-locals-428611.html?tab=Article]
Accessed on: [13th. February, 2016]

Khursani, S.A., Buzuhair, O.S. and Khan, M.R. (2011) "Strategy for rapid transformation of Saudi Arabia by leveraging intellectual capital and knowledge management.", Saudi Aramco Journal of Technology, Winter 2011.

Kirkland, S. (2009) “Creating a Common Language for Building a Successful Talent Management Program: Paving the Path for Succession, and Success, within Your Organization”, Journal of Blood Services Management, Vol. 49, pp. 1498-1501.

Koh, A. (2003) “Global Flows of Foreign Talent: Identity Anxieties in Singapore’s Ethnoscape”, SOJOURN, Vol. 18, pp. 230–256.

Kumar, R. (2011) “Research Methodology: A Step-By-Step Guide for Beginners”, SAGE publications Ltd., London.

Kasi, P. (2009) “Research: What, Why and How? A Treatise from Researchers to Researchers”, AuthorHouse, Bloomington.

KPMG (2008) “Holy Grail or Achievement Quest? International Perspectives on Public Sector Performance Management”, KAPAM, Ottawa.

Lawson, P. (1995) “Performance-management: An overview”, Institute of Personnel Management, London.
Lewis, R. and Heckman, R. (2006) “Talent Management: A critical review”, Human Resource Management Review, Vol. 16, pp. 139–154.

Lockwood, N. (2007) “Leveraging Employee Engagement for Competitive Advantage: HR’s Strategic Role”, Society for Human Resource Management,
Available from: [http://www.shrm.org/Pages/default.aspx]
Accessed on: [11th. March, 2016]

Lings, I. and Lee, N. (2008) “Doing Business Research: A Guide to Theory and Practice”, Sage Publications Ltd, London.

Lyon, F., Mollering, G. and Saunders, M. (2012) “Handbook of Research Methods on Trust”, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, UK.

MacLaren, P. and Catterall, M. (2002) “Analysing qualitative data: Computer software and the market research practitioner”, Qualitative Market Research, Vol. 5, pp. 28-40.

Makram H. and Sparrow R. (2015) "What is the value of talent management? Building value-driven processes within a talent management architecture", Human Resource Management Review, Vol. 25, No. 2015, pp. 249–263.

McCartney, C. (2009) “Fighting Back Through Talent Innovation: Talent Management Under Threat in Uncertain Times”, CIPD, London.

McKinsey and Company (2001) ‘‘The War for Talent: Organisation and Leadership Practice’’, McKinsey and Company Inc., US.

Michaels, E., Handfield-Jones, H. and Axelrod, B. (2001) "The war for talent". Harvard Business School Press, Boston.

Mitchell, J. (2012) “Leadership Development”, Mitchell Leadership Consulting, UK.

Mohrman, A., Resnick-West, S. and Lawler, E. (1989) “Designing Performance Appraisal Systems”, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Morgan, S. and Symon, G. (2004) “Electronic Interviews in Organisational Research”, in Cassell, C. and Symon, G. (eds), Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organisational Research, Sage, London, pp. 23-33.
Morton, L. and Ashton, C. (2005) "Managing talent for competitive advantage: Taking a systemic approach to talent management", Strategic HR Review, Vol. 4, No. 5, pp. 28 - 31.

Naif, F. A., David, B., Abdullah, A. (2013) ‘‘To What Extent Talent Management in Saudi Arabian Banks’’, International Journal of Advances in Management Science, Vol. 2, No. 1.

Najjar, B. (2013) “Foreign labor and identity issues in the Arab Gulf”. Imran, Vol., pp. 3: 1–23.

(NASSP) National Association of Secondary School Principals (1979) “Student Learning Styles - Diagnosing and Prescribing Programs”. NASSP. Reston.

NHS Leadership Academy (2014) "Talent and Talent Management Insights"
Available from: [https://eoeleadership.hee.nhs.uk/sites/default/files/Insight-1-Defining-Talent-and-Talent-Management.pdf]
Accessed on: [13th. March, 2016]

Ntonga, S. (2007) “The Impact of Talent Management on Business Performance”, Research Project, University of Pretoria.

Al Ruwaili, N., Bright, D. and Alhameed, A. (2013) “To What Extent Talent Management in Saudi Arabian Banks”, International Journal of Advances in Management Science, Vol. 2 Issue No. 1.

Palframan, D. (2008) “Compensation & Benefits: a global view”,
Available from: [http://www.conference-board.org/publications/publicationdetail.cfm?publicationid=1416]
Accessed on: [10th. February, 2016]

Patton, M. (2002) “Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods”, 3rd. Ed., Sage Publications Inc., Thousand Oaks, California.

Peters, B. and Pierre, J. (2007) “Handbook of Public Administration”, Concise Paperback Ed., SAGE, London.

Pfeffer, J. (1994) “Competitive Advantage Through People: Unleashing the Power of the Work Force”, 1st. Ed., Harvard Business School, USA.

Popper, K. (1959) “Philosophy of science”, Routledge, UK.

Phillips, J. (2003) “Return on Investment in Training and Performance Improvement Programs: Improving Human Performance Series”, 2nd. Ed., Butterworth Heinemann, London.

Phillips, D. and Nicholas, B. (2000) “Post-posivitism and Education Research”, Lanham and Boulder: Rowmon and Littlefield Publisher.

Punch, K. (2005) “Introduction to social research: quantitative and qualitative approaches”, 2nd Ed., Sage, Thousand Oaks, California.

Quinlan, C. (2011) “Business Research Methods”, Cengage Learning EMEA.

Rigg, C. and Stewart, J. (2011) “Learning and Talent-development”, CIPD, London.

Rigg, C. and Trehan, K. (2004) “Reflections on Working with Critical Action Learning”, Action Learning – Research and Practice, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 149-166.

Robson, C. (2002) “Real World Research”, 2nd. Ed., Blackwell, Oxford.

Rowley, C., Warner, M. and Yeung, A. (2008) “Growth and Globalisation: Evolution of Human Resource Practices in Asia”, Human Resource Management, Vol. 47, pp. 1-13.

Robson, C. (1998) “Real World Research”, Blackwell Publishers, Oxford, UK.

Rothwell, W. J. (2010) “Effective Succession Planning: Ensuring Leadership Continuity and Building Talents from Within”, 4th. Ed., American Management Association, USA.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., and Thornhill, A. (2007) “Research Methods for Business Students”, 4th. Ed. Prentice Hall. Harlow.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., and Thornhill, A. (2009) “Research Methods for Business Students”, 5th. Ed. Prentice Hall. Harlow.

Saini, M. and Shlonsky, A. (2012) “Systematic Synthesis of Qualitative Research”, Oxford University Press, Inc., New York, USA.

Scheweyer, A. (2004), “Talent Management System: Best Practices in Technology Solutions for Recruitment, Retention and Workforce Planning”, Wiley, New York, USA.

Schon, D. (1983) “The Reflective Practitioner”, Temple Smith, London.

Schuler R. and Tarique, I. (2009) “Global Talent Management: Literature Review, Integrative Framework, and Suggestions for Further Research”, Journal of World Business, Vol. 45 (2010), pp. 122–133,
Available from: [http://ac.els-cdn.com/S1090951609000807/1-s2.0-S1090951609000807-main.pdf?_tid=590eff96363f90c542a9fab4d16396ad&acdnat=1334453426_6b41beb88878837c334fb300b47bfc05]
Accessed on: [11th. February, 2016]

Schuler, R.S., Jackson, S.E. and Tarique, I. (2011) "Global talent management and global talent challenges: strategic opportunities" Journal of World Business, Vol. 46, pp. 506-516.

Sears, D. (2003) “Successful Talent Strategies”, American Management Association, New York.

Singh, A., and Sharma, J. (2015),"Strategies for talent management: a study of select organizations in the UAE", International Journal of Organizational Analysis, Vol. 23, No. 3, p. 337 - 347.

Silverman, D. (2000) “Doing Qualitative Research: A practical Handbook”, Sage, London.

Singh, A., Jones, D. and Hall, N. (2012) "Talent Management: A research Based Case in the GCC Region", International Journal of Business and Management, Vol.7, No.24.

Smart, B. (1999) "Topgrading: How leading companies win by hiring, coaching, and keeping the best people", Prentice Hall Press, Paramus, NJ.

Staunton, M. (2014) “Implementing talent management in a global services company”, University of Portsmouth, England.

Stewart, J. (2008) “Developing Skills through Talent-management”, SSDA Catalyst, Vol. 6, pp. 1-14

Sonbuchner, G. (2008) “The Learning Styles Handbook for Teachers and Tutors”, ResearcherHouse, Bloomington.
Spitzer, D. (2007) “Transforming Performance Measurement: How to drive Organizational Success with Reliable Verification”, KL@TG Magazine, Vol. Winter, pp. 70-73.
Available from: [http://deanspitzer.com/resources/TPMInterview.pdf]
Accessed on: [29th. March, 2012]

Steers, R. and Sanchez-Runde, C. (2001) “Culture, Motivation and Work Behavior”. In Gannon, M. and Newman, K. (eds) Handbook of Cross-Cultural Management, Towers Perrin, Blackwell, London.

Stenbacka, C. (2001) “Qualitative Research Requires Quality Concepts of its Own”, Management Decision, Vol. 39 (7), pp. 551-555.

Swapna, R. and Raja K.G. (2012) "Business transformation management - the role of talent management with special reference to service sectors." Advances in Management, Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 61-63.

Tansley C. (2011) "What do we mean by the term 'talent' in talent management?", Industrial and Commercial Training, Vol. 43, No. 5, pp. 236-247

Tarique, I. and Schuler, R. (2010) Global talent management: Literature review, integrative framework, and suggestions for further research. Journal of World Business, Vol. 45, No. 2, pp. 122–133.

Taylor, S. (2008) “People Resourcing”, 4th. Ed., CIPD, London.

Taylor, S. (2010) “Resourcing and Talent Management”, 5th. Ed., CIPD, London.

The Saudi Faransi Annual Report (2010) "Annual Report", Saudi Fransi Bank, Riyadh

Thorne, P. and Pellant, A. (2007) “The Essential Guide to Managing Talent”, Kogan Page, London.

Thornton-III, G. and Povah, N. (2011) “Assessment-centres and Global Talent-management”, Gower Publishing Limited, England.

Thunnissen, M., Boselie, P., Fruytier, B. (2013) “Talent Management and the relevance of context: Towards a pluralistic approach”, Human Resource Management Review,
Available from: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2013.05.004]
Accessed on: [6th. March, 2016]

Trowler, P. (2012) “Doing Insider Research in Universities”, Amazon Kindle Edition, Seattle, WA.

UAE Vision 2021 (2016) ‘‘UAE NATIONAL CHARTER 2021’’
Available from: [http://dubai.ae/SiteCollectionDocuments/UAE_Vision_2021_English.pdf]
Accessed on: [19th. April, 2016]

Ulrich, D. and Smallwood, N. (2011) "What is talent", Michigan Ross School of Business, Executive White Paper Series.
Available from: [execed.bus.umich.edu/execdev/dulrich_wp_what_is_talent]
Accessed on: [13th. Mach 2016]

Walters, M. (1995) “The Performance Management Handbook”, CIPD, London.

Weir, T. (2008) “HR Challenges for the Region’s Re Developers”, Dubai Business Review.

Wellins, R. S., Smith, A. B. and Erker, S., (n.d.) Nine Best Practices for Effective Talent Management. Development Diremsions International Inc. pp. 1-14

Williams, R. (2002) “Managing Leaders’ performance: Design and Implementation in Organisations”, Thomson Learning, London.

Joyce, W. F. and Slocum, J. W. (2012) “Top management talent, strategic capabilities, and firm performance”, Organizational Dynamics, Vol. 2012, No. 41, pp. 183 – 193.
Available from: [http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0090261612000332/1-s2.0-S0090261612000332-main.pdf?_tid=bc0b4674-1dd2-11e6-b700-00000aacb35d&acdnat=1463670341_9174f294060936309de910ad3c27dab1]
Accessed on: [17th. May, 2016]

Winter, G. (2000) “A Comparative Discussion of The Notion of Validity in Qualitative and Quantitative Research”, The Qualitative Report, Vol. 4 (3&4).
Available from : [http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR4-3/winter.html]
Accessed on : [20th. February, 2016]

Woodruffe, C. (2000) “Development and Assessment-centres: Identifying and Assessing Competence”, 3rd. Ed., Institute of Personnel and Development, London.

Yamane, T. (1967) “Statistics: An Introductory Analysis”, 2nd. Ed., Harper and Row, New York, USA.

Yin, R. (1975) “Evaluating policy studies by using the case survey methods”, Rand Publications, Santa Monica, USA.

Yin, R. (1992) “A Continuing Debate”, Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, USA, Vol. 2 (3),
Available from: [http://www.jstor.org/stable/1181823]
Accessed on: [30th. Jan., 2016]

Yin, R. (1994) “Case Study Research Design and Method”, Sage Publishing, Beverly Hills, California.

Yin, R. (2003) “Case Study Research: Design and Method”, 3rd. Ed., Sage Publishing, Beverly Hills, California.

Yin, R. (2010) “Qualitative Research from Start to Finish”, 1st. Ed., Guilford Press, London.

Younger , J., Smallwood, N. and Ulrich, D. (2007) “Developing Your Organisation’s Brand as a Talent Developer” Human Resource Planning, Vol. 30 (2), pp. 21-29.

Zhang, S. and Bright, D. (2012) "Talent definition and talent management recognition in Chinese private-owned enterprises." Journal of Chinese Entrepreneurship, Vol. 4.

Research Protocol

RESEARCH PROTOCOL

- RESEARCH METHODS:

- Quantitative Approach

The questionnaire design has been adopted from the literature, Singh and Sharma (2015) study, aimed to identify TM strategies adopted by selected organisations in service sector in the UAE. In addition to the CIPD Annual Survey Report (2015) which addressed staff retention methods; and the work of Heinen and O'Neill (2004), Scheweyer (2004), Morton and Ashton (2005), Bhatnagar (2007), Benest (2008), Collings and Mellahi (2009), Iles *et al*. (2010), Wellins *et al.* (n.d.) and Rigg and Stewart (2011) for leadership talent and development. Evaluation of ADG performance appraisal system had been adapted from Armstrong (2009). The construct of turnover intentions has been adopted from Angle and Perry (1981), Ashill *et al.* (2008), Bluedorn (1982), Cammann *et al*. (1979), Chen *et al*. (1998). Evaluation of TM has been adopted from Al Ariss and Sidani (2014). The questionnaire will go through several stages: planning, design and pilot testing. Questions has been determined along with establishing a key linkage with the research aims in order to fulfil its objectives to identify TM strategies adapted by ADG, and explore perceptions and perspectives of executives regarding TM. After performing Cronbach Alpha test, questions which would cause inconsistency will be detected and dropped by the researcher. Moreover, the nature of questions vary between nominal and interval scale to capture respondents' profile and measure data by a set of managerial questions. Therefore, questions are grouped in three sections to answer research questions:

- Obtain demographic data;
- Identification of TM strategy at ADG. Long-term strategies determinants (planning, resourcing, LDP,
- Performance Management System and Retention Strategy) and short term strategies (incentives);
- Evaluation of performance management system from talents' perspectives;
- Evaluation of leadership development program from talents' perspectives;
- Evaluation of TM from executives' perspectives, in line with ADG objectives;
- Talents' performance self-evaluation;
- Turnover intentions.

A pilot study will be conducted, where questionnaire will be sent via email to thirty executives (who are the talents and leaders of ADG) in multiple establishments, in order to get their feedback on the length and clarity of the questionnaire. The questionnaire will be designed using SurveyMonkey.com tool, which will publish the survey and generate a hyperlink. The participants will be granted online access to the questionnaire throughout circulating the hyperlink, from which they can retrieve the questionnaire online. Answers will be automatically saved into the application as records and the researcher can monitor and view entries online.

The collected questionnaires will be coded and entered into the SPSS 21 to conduct the required procedures and tests (T-test, Anova and Factor Analysis), in order to generate the results (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Factor Analysis tests will be performed to test the set theories and hypotheses which may yield an explanatory model of LDP, PMS and RS. Therefore, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), will be undertaken to test multiple theoretical models to inform and confirm TM strategy (Hoyle, 2012). The researcher will test hypotheses for scale data surrounding attitudes, perceptions, effectiveness of LDP, PMS and RS for demographics (t-test and Anova), as well as a variety of multivariable methods. This will enable identification of trends and determine the answers relevant to the research questions (Blumberg *et al.*, 2011).

- **Qualitative Approach**

Research questions have been elaborated consisting of close-ended, open-ended questions, and emerged from the literature in order to obtain the research objective on evaluating the effectiveness of TM programs at ADG. The questions have been adopted from Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) and Singh and Sharma (2015). Various themes have been introduced by the researcher, in addition to extra emerging themes that are expected during the interviews. Probe questions have been appended to the main interview themes to probe further, if the conversation has terminated. Therefore, the researcher will follow up the questions based on the interviewee's answers to elicit more details and obtain greater understanding of the problem. HR professionals from the HRA, in addition to HR Managers from various ADG departments, will take part in the interviews, to understand TM strategy and gauge the effectives of TM programs. It is planned to pilot the interviews to gain comments and refocus interview questions. The interviews shall be conducted remotely via Skype, with the support of a qualified administrator. Taking into consideration the involvement of various interviewee; the place will be determined by the Human Resources Authority, in coordination with ADG departments.

Interviews will be analysed through Nvivo software for emerging themes. SPSS results will be read in light of the interviews' analysis and the knowledge acquired from the secondary research (Johnson and Gill, 2010). Triangulation of all results will enable development of a long term TM strategy.

SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

The population of this research is the leaders from Abu Dhabi government (General Managers, Executive Director and Division Manager, comprising 640). The criteria for selecting participants are Managerial level, UAE-local, service length at public sector ≥ 2 years to assure being processed through TM pipeline. Yamane's (1967:886) formula has been applied to calculate the minimum-sample-size (250 participants) where (N) is the population and (e) is the margin error $(0.05)^2$:

$$\text{Sample Size (n)} = \frac{N}{1 + N\,(e)^2} = \frac{640}{1 + 640\,(0.05)^2} = \frac{640}{2.55} = 250$$

In order to build trust relationship with participants of this study, and get the most representative sample from research population (Saunders *et al.*, 2009), the researcher will follow the systematic random sampling (population/sample size) (640/250=2.5); by picking each 3rd. name order after an initial random sample from the list, to ensure that each person gets the probability to be selected at least once (Bernard, 2000:150). The sample will be inclusive; it will involve talents and their leaders from different ADG establishments (Lyon *et al*., 2012). The sample members in this study incorporates minor variation in the educational attainment (PhD., MA. and BSc.), which would introduce uncertainty. However, deviation in age, gender and seniority is limited, which secures trust. The representative sample was General Managers (10%), Executive Directors (30%) and Division Managers (60%).

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

"Reliability and validity are tools of an essentially positivist epistemology" (Winter, 2000:7). Reliability is secured through repeatable results by another research of the same methodology (Creswell and Clark, 2010). In order to underpin reliability of questionnaire 'Likert' measurement scale, Cronbach's (1951) alpha test will be conducted via the statistical software package for social sciences (SPSS). This is to make sure that results are reliable and measures are accurate, in terms of desired measured variables. Hence, SPSS output of average correlation lies between values (0) and (1) on the scale, where consistency of data should be ≥0.7 (Gliem and Gliem, 2003).

To illuminate rigorous reliability and validity for participatory methods (interview trustworthiness evaluation), the researcher intends to use triangulation to get diverse evidences (Johnson and Long, 2000). Triangulation is "a *validity procedure for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes*" (Creswell and Miller, 2000:126). To foster triangulation, the researcher will engage several semi-structured-interviews to sharpen the researcher understanding (Johnson,1997). Likewise, 10 participants will be interviewed from various establishments under ADG (Guba and Lincoln, 1985). Besides, the researcher will coordinate repeated observation to enforce reliability via sending the draft analysis for the participants to add more comments giving them additional opportunity and assuring accuracy of the analysis (Joppe, 2000). This would also tackle weaknesses of qualitative methods in measuring human being experience; for instance, respondents are influenced by policies as suggested by Crishna (2006).

Yet, reliability in qualitative methods can be judged upon the quality in terms of *"generating understanding"* (Stenbacka, 2001:551). In turn, the researcher will ensure validity in *"credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability"* in accurate findings which can be produced by another research at different point of time and try to reduce personal values in imposing questions and interpretation of responses (Bryman and Bell, 2011:43). As to interview validity, the researcher is keen to prepare clear, understood and flexible questions, which is a vehicle to maintain effective interaction between both parties and attained through covering all issues from various angles (Healey and Rawlinson, 1994).

Email from DoS

From: Harrison, Patricia
Sent: 20 October 2016 11:31
To: Abouabidalla, Eman
Subject: RE: Ethics Application

Hi Eman

Thanks for the information.

To whom it may concern

As the Director of Studies for the postgraduate researcher Eman AbouabidAlla, I can confirm that I have read the current Ethical Approval application the candidate has prepared and I am happy to supervise the work. Patricia Harrison, PhD., MA. HRM, FHEA, Senior Lecturer and Supervisor, Liverpool Business School Redmonds Building Brownlow Hill, Liverpool, L3 5UG t: 00441512313458 e: P.A.Harrison@ljmu.ac.uk.

Dr. Patricia Harrison, PhD., MA. HRM, FHEA
Senior Lecturer and Supervisor
Liverpool Business School/Liverpool John Moores University
Redmonds Building, Brownlow Hill, Liverpool
United Kingdom L3 5UG
Telephone: 00441512313458
Email: P.A.Harrison@ljmu.ac.uk
website: www.ljmu.ac.uk

Tricia

Patricia Harrison PhD, MA, FHEA, MCIPD
Senior Lecturer, Liverpool Business School
Redmonds Building Brownlow Hill, Liverpool, L3 5UG
t: e: P.A.Harrison@ljmu.ac.uk

Organisation Consent From

هـيـئـة الـمـوارد الـبـشـريـة
HUMAN RESOURCES AUTHORITY

Date: 20.10.2016

Eman AbouabidAlla
Postgraduate Researcher
E.A.Abouabidalla@2016.ljmu.ac.uk
Liverpool John Moores University
Liverpool – United Kingdom

To Whom It May Concern

Subject: **Research Project: Investigating Talent Management Leadership Initiatives at Abu Dhabi Government in Light of The 2021 UAE Vision**

We are interested in taking part in Ms. AbouabidAlla's research project. The proposed questionnaire / interview questions are feasible and meet with our approval. Therefore, we have no objection to grant Eman a permit to approach our leaders and access the Departments of Abu Dhabi Government, to elicit the required information.

We wish Ms. AbouabidAlla all success in her project.

Best wishes,

H.E. Ali Rashed Al Ketbi
Acting Chairman of Abu Dhabi Human Resources Authority

ابـو ظـبـي abudhabi | 800555 abudhabi.ae

Email Requesting Consent from Organisation

RE: استبيان لدراسة مبادرات برامج إدارة تنمية القادة ذوي المواهب لدى الجهات الحكومية

Abouabidalla, Eman

Sent: 05 November 2016 00:34
To: Mohammed Hareb Al Raei AlKetbi [Mohammed.AlKetbi@hra.ae]
Attachments: Gatekeeper Information Sh~1.docx (22 KB) ; Gatekeeper Consent Form.docx (28 KB)

M/s. The Human Resources Authority - Abu Dhabi
The United Arab Emirates

Attention: Mr. Mohammed Al-Ketbi

Dear Mohammed,

Subject: Gatekeeper Information Sheet and Consent Form

This has further to my email dated 28/06/2016 on the above subject. Please note that I am going to carry out a degree study on Investigating Talent Management Initiatives at Abu Dhabi Government in Light of The UAE 2021 Vision. You are being invited to be a gatekeeper for the researcher. Therefore, your esteemed authority and Abu Dhabi Government departments and its affiliated sectors/divisions have been identified as suitable participants in the study. Therefore, a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview outline (draft copy is attached) will be approved by Liverpool John Moores University to be used in the study. Moreover, those questions will be developed through SurveyMonkey survey tool and will be electronically circulated among your General Managers, Executive Directors and Division Managers who are engaged in Talent Management Programs.

There are no risks the researcher is aware of for the gatekeeper of this study. I confirm that all information collected in the study will be used for analysis and will be treated in a high confidentiality. It is your choice to decide whether you take part in this study or not. If you do you will be a part of the study and you will be informed of the results when they are ready. Meanwhile, you can withdraw at any time without giving any reason.

Please read carefully the Gatekeeper Information Sheet and sign and return the attached Gatekeeper Consent Form. Should you have any comments or questions regarding this research, you may contact the researcher.

I hope to gain your approval, which is a significant factor for the success of this study.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

Eman AbouabidAlla, MA. HRM, NHD. CS
Researcher
Liverpool Business School
53 Jermyn Street, Liverpool, Merseyside
L8 2XA, United Kingdom
Mobile: 0044755 055 0026
Email: e.a.abouabidalla@2016.ljmu.ac.uk w: www.ljmu.ac.uk

Gatekeeper Information Sheet and Consent

LIVERPOOL JOHN MOORES UNIVERSITY
GATEKEEPER INFORMATION SHEET

Title of Research Project INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP INITIATIVES AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION

Name of Researcher and School/Faculty:
EMAN ABOUABIDALLA / LIVERPOOL BUSINESS SCHOOL / FACULTY OF ARTS, PROFESSIONAL AND SOCIAL STUDIES

1. **What is the reason for this letter?**
   You have been invited to be the gatekeeper for my research project on Talent Management Leadership Program. Before you decide it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it involves. Please take time to read the following information. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information, please refer to the information participant sheet appended below.
2. **What is the purpose of the study/rationale for the project?**
   This study aims to assess talent management leadership initiatives at Abu Dhabi Government affiliated departments. The purpose of evaluating the TMLP is to determine whether the objectives of the program have been achieved, and identify the anticipated challenges and the potential barriers that impede talent management from functioning successfully. This study will also attempt to develop talent management strategy for Abu Dhabi Government to deliver high performance in line with the UAE vision to continuous improvement across all the UAE governmental sectors.
3. **What we are asking you to do?**
   I am writing to invite you to be the gatekeeper for my research project on the Talent Management Leadership Programs at Abu Dhabi Government affiliated establishments.
4. **Why do we need access to your facilities/staff/students?**
   - If you agree to take part in this research project, the researcher can contact the staff of Abu Dhabi Government (ADG), through the participation of the Human Resources Authority, to collect the required information, which will be used for the academic purpose. The participants will be involved via the online questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire would last maximum 15 minutes. Participants in the questionnaire are the leadership cohort who have worked over 3 years to guarantee that they were engaged in talent management programs.
   - The interview would last approximately 30 minutes. The interviews shall be conducted remotely via Skype, with the support of a qualified administrator from the Human Resources Authority to facilitate the interviews, arrange the venue for the interview and set up the audio-visual equipment i.e. laptop, speakers and LCD screen etc. The interviews will be audio recorded for analysis purpose and stored safely on the university computer drive. The interviewees are HR Division Managers at Human Resources Authority and HR Division Managers at ADG affiliated departments.
     The participation excludes new leaders who have not been involved in the talent management programs.
   - A questionnaire and a semi-structured interview outline approved by Liverpool John Moores University to be used in the study. Moreover, those questions will be administered through SurveyMonkey.com survey tool and will be electronically circulated among your General Managers, Executive Directors and Division Managers, who were engaged in Talent Management Programs
   - The research project will be completed in November 2020.
5. **If you are willing to assist in the study what happens next?**
   Obtaining your consent will allow the researcher to approach your staff to participate in the study via filling in questionnaire and taking part in the interviews. After obtaining the results of the study, the researcher will provide your organization with copy of the research outcome and the recommendations, where appropriate.
6. **How we will use the Information/questionnaire?**
   The information provided from questionnaire and interviews will be used for the academic purpose.
7. **Will the name of my organisation taking part in the study be kept confidential?'**

I confirm that all information collected in the study will be used for analysis and will be treated in a high confidentiality. Your participation in the questionnaire will always be anonymous; however, your participation in the interviews will remain confidential. Therefore, personal information such as participant's name and his/her date of birth is not required to be declared in the questionnaire. Moreover, all data will be kept strictly confidential and will be safely stored on the researcher computer at LJMU. Data is protected with a unique user name and password that are set by the researcher only. Information will not be disclosed to anyone except the researcher and the director of studies. After the study has been undertaken, the data will not be accessible and the researcher will seek a ban and will not publish the study trough LJMU online E-thesis. However, the findings of the research could be disseminated in journal articles or external presentations. Therefore, the researcher will use pseudonyms in the writing up. Moreover, the name of the organisation will be kept anonymous in order to protect the identities of individuals and the organisation.

8. What will taking part involve? What should I do now?

Please sign and return the attached **Gatekeeper Consent Form.**

Should you have any comments or questions regarding this research, you may contact the researcher:

Eman AbouabidAlla, MA. HRM, HND, ND CS
Liverpool Business School/Liverpool John Moores University
53 Jermyn Street, Liverpool, Merseyside
United Kingdom L8 2XA
Mobile: 0044755 055 0026
Email: e.a.abouabidalla@2016.ljmu.ac.uk
website: www.ljmu.ac.uk

This study has received ethical approval from LJMU's Research Ethics Committee.

Researcher Details
Eman AbouabidAlla, MA. HRM, HND, ND CS
Liverpool Business School/Liverpool John Moores University
53 Jermyn Street, Liverpool, Merseyside
United Kingdom L8 2XA
Mobile: 0044755 055 0026
Email: e.a.abouabidalla@2016.ljmu.ac.uk
website: www.ljmu.ac.uk

Contact Details of Academic Supervisor
Dr. Patricia Harrison, PhD., MA. HRM, FHEA
Liverpool Business School/Liverpool John Moores University
Redmonds Building, Brownlow Hill, Liverpool
United Kingdom L3 5UG
Telephone: 00441512313458
Email: P.A.Harrison@ljmu.ac.uk
website: www.ljmu.ac.uk

If you have any concerns regarding your involvement in this research, please discuss these with the researcher in the first instance. If you wish to make a complaint, please contact researchethics@ljmu.ac.uk and your communication will be re-directed to an independent person as appropriate.

LIVERPOOL JOHN MOORES UNIVERSITY
GATEKEEPER CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP INITIATIVES AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION

Name of Researcher:
EMAN ABOUABIDALLA / LIVERPOOL BUSINESS SCHOOL / FACULTY OF ARTS, PROFESSIONAL AND SOCIAL STUDIES

Please tick to confirm your understanding of the study and that you are happy for your organisation to take part and your facilities to be used to host parts of the project.

My research project is aimed to evaluate talent management leadership initiatives at Abu Dhabi Government (ADG) affiliated departments. Therefore, your consent will allow leaders at ADG establishments to take part in the questionnaire and interviews. This will help the researcher to evaluate the TMLP, identify the anticipated forces that obstacle the implementation of an effective talent management.

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information provided for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. ☐
2. I have the authority to communicate with staff and circulate the questionnaire to participants. ☐
3. I understand that participation of our organisation in the research is voluntary and that they are free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason and that this will not affect legal rights. ☐
4. I understand that any personal information collected during the study will be anonymised and remain confidential. ☐
5. I agree for our organisation and students/members to take part in the above study. ☐
5. I agree to conform to the data protection act ☐

Name of Gatekeeper: M/s Human Resources Authority		Date:	Signature:
Name of Researcher: Eman AbouabidAlla		Date:	Signature:

Participant Information Sheet (Questionnaire & Interview)

LIVERPOOL JOHN MOORES UNIVERSITY
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Title of Research Project INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP INITIATIVES AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION

Name of Researcher and School/Faculty
EMAN ABOUABIDALLA / LIVERPOOL BUSINESS SCHOOL / FACULTY OF ARTS, PROFESSIONAL AND SOCIAL STUDIES

I am currently a full time PhD student in the Business School at the Liverpool John Moores University. My research project is aimed to evaluate talent management leadership initiatives at Abu Dhabi Government (ADG) affiliated departments. The purpose of evaluating the TMLP is to determine whether the objectives of the program have been achieved, and identify the anticipated challenges and the potential barriers that impede talent management from functioning successfully. This study will also attempt to develop talent management strategy for Abu Dhabi Government to deliver high performance in line with the UAE vision to continuous improvement across all the UAE governmental sectors.

You have been invited to participate because you are a leader in ADG and have been on the Talent Management Leadership Program. Before you decide it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it involves. Please take time to read the following information. Ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide if you want to take part or not.

1. What is the purpose of the study?

This study aims to assess talent management leadership initiatives at Abu Dhabi Government affiliated departments. The purpose of evaluating the TMLP is to determine whether the objectives of the program have been achieved, and identify the anticipated challenges and the potential barriers that impede talent management from functioning successfully. This study will also attempt to develop talent management strategy for Abu Dhabi Government to deliver high performance in line with the UAE vision to continuous improvement across all the UAE governmental sectors.

2. Do I have to take part?

No. Your participation, to help the researcher to understand TMLP at Abu Dhabi Government, is voluntary. It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do you will be given this information sheet and kindly asked to return a signed consent form. You are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

3. What are the inclusion criteria?

The inclusion criteria for this study are limited to leaders from the attached list of Abu Dhabi government departments (General Managers, Executive Directors and Division Managers). With service length at Abu Dhabi establishments is ≥ 3 years, to assure they have been processed through talent management programs.
Interviews will be targeting HR managers from the HRA and the various ADG establishments, who have spent at least 3 years to ensure that they have the knowledge and experience of talent management leadership programs at Abu Dhabi Government.

4. What are the exclusion criteria?

- New leaders who have spent less than 3 years at ADG departments will be excluded from participation in the study.
- Leaders from the other federal departments will be excluded from participation in the study because talent management programs are active in 64 departments only.
- New HR Managers who have joint ADG from different sectors (i.e. private, other establishments where TMLP were not activated yet) will be excluded from the semi-structured-interviews.

5. What will happen to me if I take part?

- If you agree to take part in this research project, you will be involved via the online questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire would last maximum 15 minutes. Participants in the questionnaire are the leadership cohort who have worked over 3 years to guarantee that they were engaged in talent management programs.

- The interview would last approximately 30 minutes. The interviews shall be conducted remotely via Skype, with the support of a qualified administrator from the Human Resources Authority to facilitate the interviews, arrange the venue for the interview and set up the audio-visual equipment i.e. laptop, speakers and LCD screen etc. The interviews will be audio recorded for analysis purpose and stored safely on the university computer drive. The interviewees are HR Managers at Human Resources Authority and HR Managers at ADG affiliated departments.
- The participation excludes new leaders who have not been involved in the talent management programs.
- The research project will be completed in November 2020.
- A questionnaire and a semi-structured interview outline (draft copy is attached) will be approved by Liverpool John Moores University to be used in the study. Moreover, those questions will be developed through SurveyMonkey.com survey tool and will be electronically circulated among your General Managers, Executive Directors and Division Managers, who were engaged in Talent Management Programs.

6. Are there any risks / benefits involved?

It is unlikely that your participation will cause discomforts or inconvenience; However, if it is envisaged or if it is observed that discomfort or inconvenience occurs, the process will be stopped immediately. Also, if at any point the participant feels uncomfortable or that the process is inconvenient, they can withdraw at any point. In order to minimise the risk of indirect identification, a consideration in the transcription process involves maintaining the content, whilst using language by the researcher to focus on process improvement not on individuals, in order to ensure logic and reasoning, as possible. Moreover, the researcher will use pseudonyms in the writing up.

I hope that the ADG departments will benefit from the result of this study (recommendations / long term strategy for talent management leadership program based on Abu Dhabi Government strategy).

7. Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

I confirm that all information collected in the study will be used for analysis and will be treated in the highest confidence. Your participation will remain anonymous. Therefore, personal information such as participant's name and his/her date of birth is not required to be declared. Moreover, to avoid breaching the confidentiality, transcribing the interviews will be solely the function of the researcher. Furthermore, data will be safely stored on the researcher password protected computer at LJMU. Information will not be disclosed to anyone except the researcher and the director of studies. Data is protected with a unique user name and password that are set by the researcher only. After the study has been undertaken, the data and role description will not be accessible and the researcher will seek a ban and will not publish the study trough LJMU online E-thesis. The researcher will use pseudonyms in the final writing up of the work. Moreover, the name of the organisation will remain anonymous in order to further protect individual roles and identities. The data analysis will be used for publication purposes but any detail within the written thesis will be edited for confidentiality before being placed in the public domain.

Please note that this study will be reviewed for ethical approval from the Liverpool John Moores University's Research Ethics Committee. However, it is your choice to decide to participate in this study or not. I hope that the Human Resources Authority and ADG would benefit from the result of this study, as well as Liverpool Business School.

I look forward to receiving your kind approval at your convenience, please. Thank you so much for your cooperation and your assistance in this research project is highly appreciated.

Yours Faithfully,

Researcher Details
Eman AbouabidAlla, MA. HRM, HND, ND CS
Liverpool Business School/Liverpool John Moores University
53 Jermyn Street, Liverpool, Merseyside
United Kingdom L8 2XA
Mobile: 0044755 055 0026
Email: e.a.abouabidalla@2016.ljmu.ac.uk
website: www.ljmu.ac.uk

Contact Details of Academic Supervisor
Dr. Patricia Harrison, PhD., MA. HRM, FHEA
Liverpool Business School/Liverpool John Moores University
Redmonds Building, Brownlow Hill, Liverpool
United Kingdom L3 5UG
Telephone: 00441512313458
Email: P.A.Harrison@ljmu.ac.uk
website: www.ljmu.ac.uk

If you any concerns regarding your involvement in this research, please discuss these with the researcher in the first instance. If you wish to make a complaint, please contact researchethics@ljmu.ac.uk and your communication will be re-directed to an independent person as appropriate.

List of Abu Dhabi Government Departments involved in the Research Project

Title of Research Project INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP INITIATIVES AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION

1. Abu Dhabi Airports
2. Abu Dhabi Education Council,
3. Abu Dhabi Farmers Services Centre
4. Abu Dhabi Food Control Authority
5. Abu Dhabi Health Services Company,
6. Abu Dhabi General Services;
7. Abu Dhabi Fund for Development,
8. Abu Dhabi Housing Authority,
9. Abu Dhabi Accountability Authority,
10. Abu Dhabi Chamber of Commerce & Industry
11. Abu Dhabi Council for Economic Development
12. Abu Dhabi Judicial Department,
13. Abu Dhabi Media,
14. Abu Dhabi National Exhibitions Company,
15. Abu Dhabi National Oil Company,
16. Abu Dhabi Ports Company,
17. Abu Dhabi Quality and Conformity Council,
18. Abu Dhabi Sewerage Services Company,
19. Supreme Petroleum Council
20. Technology Development Committee,
21. The Centre for Regulation of Transport by Hire Cars,
22. The Center of Waste Management – Abu Dhabi
23. Abu Dhabi Sports Council,
24. Abu Dhabi Systems & Information Centre,
25. Abu Dhabi Tourism and Culture Authority,
26. Abu Dhabi Urban Planning Council,
27. Abu Dhabi Water & Electricity Authority,
28. Crown Prince Court,
29. Daman Health Services
30. Department of Economic Development,
31. Department of Finance,
32. Department of Municipal Affairs,
33. DMA-Al Ain City Municipality,
34. DMA-Municipality of Abu Dhabi City,
35. Department of Transport,
36. Emirates Palace
37. General Holding Corporation
38. Human Resources Authority,
39. Khalifa Fund for Enterprise Development,
40. Khalifa Bin Zayed Al Nahyan Foundation
41. Royal Jet
42. Monitoring and Control Center,
43. Mubadala Development Company,
44. National Consultative Council,
45. Tourism Development & Investment Company,
46. Western Region Development Council,
47. Emirates Foundation for Youth Development,
48. Emirates Nuclear Energy, Corporation,
49. Environment Agency - Abu Dhabi,
50. Ettihad Airways
51. Executive Affairs Authority,
52. Family Development Foundation,
53. General Directorate of Abu Dhabi Police,
54. Health Authority - Abu Dhabi
55. Media Zone Authority
56. National Rehabilitation Center
57. Regulation and Supervision Bureau
58. Ruler's Representative Court - Eastern Region
59. Social Care & Minors Affairs Foundation
60. Systems and information Centre
61. Statistics Centre - Abu Dhabi
62. Zayed Higher Organization for Humanitarian
63. Care and Special Needs
64. Zones Corp

CONSENT FORM
(INTERVIEW)

LIVERPOOL JOHN MOORES UNIVERSITY
CONSENT FORM (INTERVIEW)

Title of Research Project:
INVESTIGATING TALENT MANAGEMENT LEADERSHIP INITIATIVES AT ABU DHABI GOVERNMENT IN LIGHT OF THE 2021 UAE VISION

Name of Researchers:
EMAN ABOUABIDALLA / LIVERPOOL BUSINESS SCHOOL

This study aims to assess talent management leadership initiatives at Abu Dhabi Government affiliated departments. The purpose of evaluating the TMLP is to determine whether the objectives of the program have been achieved, and identify the anticipated challenges and the potential barriers that impede talent management from functioning successfully. This study will also attempt to develop talent management strategy for Abu Dhabi Government to deliver high performance in line with the UAE vision to continuous improvement across all the UAE governmental sectors.

Please tick to confirm your understanding of the study and that you are happy to take part in this research project.

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information provided for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. ☐
2. I understand that my participation in the research is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason and that this will not affect legal rights. ☐
3. I understand that any personal information collected during the study will be anonymised and that my participation will remain confidential. ☐
4. I agree to take part in the above study (Interview). ☐
5. I understand that the interview will be audio recorded and I am happy to proceed. ☐

Name: Date: TBC Signature:

Name of Researcher: Eman AbouabidAlla Date: TBC Signature:

49

Questionnaire

LIVERPOOL JOHN MOORES UNIVERSITY

DRAFT

TALENT MANAGEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

PhD. Study: Investigation Talent Management Leadership Initiatives at The Abu Dhabi Government (ADG) In The Light of the 2021 UAE Vision, Researcher: Eman AbouabidAlla

Section A: Participant's Background

This part aims to deal with participants' demographic information to assess the differences between answers and views based on this anonymous information. Please answer all the following questions by ticking one box to allow the assessment of answers and views.

1. What is your position?
   ☐ General Manager ☐ Executive Director ☐ Divisional Manager
2. Are you acting as in addition to your current role?
   ☐ Yes ☐ No
3. What is your age group?
   ☐ 23 - 34 Years ☐ 35 - 44 Years ☐ 45 - 54 Years change to 49
   ☐ 55 - 60 Years ☐ Other, please specify ....
4. What is your gender?
   ☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ Other
5. What is your top qualification?
   ☐ Degree or equivalent ☐ Masters or equivalent ☐ Ph.D. or equivalent ☐ Other
6. In which governmental establishment are you currently working at?
   Please select from the list.
7. How long (tenure) have you been working at ADG establishment?
   ☐ 3 – 6 Years ☐ 7 - 10 Years ☐ 11 - 14 Years ☐ Over 15 Years
8. How long (tenure) have you been working with your current employer?

Literature points out that talent management consists of five key components: Planning, Attracting/Resourcing, Development/Deployment, Performance Management and Retention/Engagement (CIPD, 2007).

Section B: Talent Management Planning at Abu Dhabi Government (ADG)

Please read carefully the following statements and indicate your degree of agreement by selecting one option that best represents your opinion:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't know
1. ADG regularly analyses and evaluates talent needs and requirements.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. ADG leadership has never heard of talent management.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Talent management has a high priority in the overall strategic plan of ADG.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. ADG has a clear talent management strategy.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. ADG has a succession plan for all management positions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't know
6. ADG talent management strategy primarily sources talent from outside AD organisations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. ADG is aiming to develop talent management capabilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Additional Comments:						

Section C: Talent Management Resourcing at ADG

Please indicate by [x], to which extent do you agree / disagree with the following statements in relation to how ADG resources the key employees.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't know
1. A skills audit is regularly conducted at ADG to assess skills gaps.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The recruitment process is clear.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Before a job vacancy is advertised, ADG uses the internal talent pool.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Induction programmes are well structured to help the new employees settle in.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. There is sufficient pool of managerial talent available at ADG to fill vacancies.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. ADG has programs to develop a pool of talent and prepare them to be managers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. ADG recruitment process is successful in selecting the best talent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Additional Comments:						

Section D: Retention Strategies at ADG

Please indicate by [x], to which extent do you agree / disagree that the following statements represent correctly <u>your opinion concerning retention strategies at ADG</u>.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't know
1. ADG improves work conditions and increases organizational identity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. ADG provides extensive trainings and values employees.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. ADG provides onsite opportunities and a global exposure.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. ADG provides clear career path and opportunities to progress.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. ADG provides mentoring and coaching programmes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. ADG provides positive feedback and fair appraisals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. ADG provides strong social security and employee welfare.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. ADG offers salaries that are above the market rate.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. ADG offers performance-driven rewards.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Additional Comments:						

Section E: Leadership Talent Training and Development at ADG

Please indicate by [x], to which extent do you agree / disagree that the following statements describe your evaluation of <u>Leadership Development Program (LDP)</u> at ADG Departments:

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't know
1. LDP helps to identify the strength and weaknesses of talents.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I believe talent pools within a firm provide a reliable source of talent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I believe talent pools make it easier to train and develop desirable skills.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I achieved the intended learning outcomes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I acquired competencies required for my position.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I am ready to do higher grade job / occupy a strategic position / job rotation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I achieved my individual performance objectives.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I have no firm grasp of the area in which I need development.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. LDP investment enabled achievement of ADG strategic objectives.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. The training allowances spent on LDP is sufficient.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Overall, my evaluation of LDP is good.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Additional Comments:

Section F: Evaluation of Performance Appraisal System at ADG

Please indicate by [x], to which extent do you agree / disagree that the following statements describe correctly the Performance Appraisal System (ADAA) at ADG Departments.

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't know
1. ADAA is pay related at ADG.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I received good training in performance appraisal skills.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I had no difficulty in agreeing objectives, performance and development plans.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I am able to monitor performance well, provide feedback and coach.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Performance review meetings are conducted periodically.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I am able to assess performance accurately and fairly.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I believe that performance appraisal enables me to perform my job efficiently.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. PAS aims and objectives are well-communicated and fully understood.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. PAS helps us express the value of employees' contribution.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. The focus of performance management is developmental.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. PAS distracts managers from the core functions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Additional Comments:

Section G: Talent's Performance Self Evaluation

Please indicate by [x], to which extent do you agree / disagree that the following statements describe correctly your performance during the last year.

Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Don't know
1. I made decisions that reflect a clear understanding of what we do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I created short term goals that fit with ADG long term strategy.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I kept people focused on the ADG's key initiatives and priorities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I took responsibility for my own actions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I was a good example of the behaviour I asked for.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I turned new ideas and innovative solutions into new products and/or services.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I created an environment that encourages innovation, risk taking and challenge.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I maintained focus and commitment despite challenges or setbacks.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. I sat high standards of excellence for serving locals and residents.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. I established effective two-way communication with others.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. I provided feedback to employees in a way that facilitates improvement.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. I facilitated teamwork and communication across functions and divisions/sections.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. I provided challenging assignments and opportunities for others to grow.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. I delegated routine / critical tasks or responsibilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. I empowered others with the resources and authority they need to succeed.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Additional Comments:

Section I: Evaluation of Talent Management at ADG

Please indicate by [x], from 1 (weak) to 5 (strong), how would you rate Abu Dhabi Government in terms of its ability to:

Statements	Strong	Moderate Strong	Average	Moderate Weak	Weak
(1) Attract talent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
(2) Retain talent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Section J: Talents' Turnover Forecast at ADG

Please indicate by [x], your intention to continue to work or leave your organisation.

Statement	Yes	No
Would you like to continue working in your organisation or not?	☐	☐

Thank you for your participation

Eman AbouabidAlla

Interview Guide

DRAFT

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

Main Themes:
THEME ONE: Strategy of ADG in Staff Planning
THEME TWO: Developing talent management capabilities
THEME THREE: Talent recruitment
THEME FOUR: Talent development
THEME FIVE: Talent retention

THEME ONE: How does ADG plan for staffing its talented leaders?

- Probe: Can you list the most critical competencies that are essential at ADG?
- Probe: Do HR units within ADG have job analysis process and job needs assessment?

THEME TWO: How does ADG develop talent management capabilities?

- Probe: Explain the meaning of 'talent' term.
- Probe: Does ADG have a clear understanding of Talent Management Leadership definition?
- Probe: Does ADG have talent deficiency?
- Probe: Do you face obstacles in attracting and retaining talents?
- Probe: Does ADG has a clear strategy for administering talents?
- Probe: Explain the criteria for evaluating talents' performance.
- Probe: How to assess the effectiveness and success of TM at ADG?
- Probe: Talk about the greatest challenge hindering ADG to develop an effective TM program today.

THEME THREE: How do you recruit your key employees?

- Probe: Does ADG has clear criteria for talent selection and recruitment?
- Probe: Do you recruit the key employees from within ADG or from outside?
- Probe: Are your leaders appointed based on competencies or merits?

THEME FOUR: How you do develop your talented employees?

- Probe: Does ADG has personal development plans for leaders, with pre-set targets?
- Probe: Can you please explain how you develop your followers.

THEME FIVE: How do you retain your talented staff?

- Probe: What are the factors within the ADG that contribute to leaders' turnover?
- Probe: How important is it for ADG to cling to their key leaders?
- Probe: What actions does ADG take into consideration to retain its key leaders?

Email from DoS on the corrections applied

EMAIL FROM DOS

RE: Application - AbouabidAlla
Harrison, Patricia

You replied on 22/11/2016 17:18.

Sent: 22 November 2016 12:16
To: Abouabidalla, Eman

Hi Eman

I am delighted to confirm that I recommend you submit your ethics. You have received feedback from all three of your supervisors to this work

All the best, Tricia

Appendix 6: Survey Factor Loading

Sr.	Item Label/Path/Construct Name	Factor Loading	Retained	Deleted
1.	LDE4 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Effectiveness	.729	☑	☐
2.	LDE3 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Effectiveness	.758	☑	☐
3.	LDE2 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Effectiveness	.435	☐	☑
4.	LDE1 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Effectiveness	.743	☑	☐
5.	LDE5 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Effectiveness	.701	☑	☐
6.	LDE6 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Effectiveness	.597	☑	☐
7.	LDE7 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Effectiveness	.623	☑	☐
8.	LDE8 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Effectiveness	.621	☑	☐
9.	PA4 <--- Performance_Appraisal	.621	☑	☐
10.	PA3 <--- Performance_Appraisal	.717	☑	☐
11.	PA2 <--- Performance_Appraisal	.504	☑	☐
12.	PA1 <--- Performance_Appraisal	.645	☑	☐
13.	PA5 <--- Performance_Appraisal	.709	☑	☐
14.	PA6 <--- Performance_Appraisal	.456	☐	☑
15.	PA7 <--- Performance_Appraisal	.625	☑	☐
16.	PA8 <--- Performance_Appraisal	.513	☑	☐
17.	PA9 <--- Performance_Appraisal	.847	☑	☐
18.	PA10 <--- Performance_Appraisal	.752	☑	☐
19.	EMP3 <--- Attraction_Retention_Empowering	.837	☑	☐
20.	EMP2 <--- Attraction_Retention_Empowering	.914	☑	☐
21.	EMP1 <--- Attraction_Retention_Empowering	.509	☑	☐
22.	EMP4 <--- Attraction_Retention_Empowering	.585	☑	☐
23.	EMP5 <--- Attraction_Retention_Empowering	.677	☑	☐

Sr.	Item Label/Path/Construct Name	Factor Loading	Retained	Deleted
24.	IR3 <--- Attraction_Retention_Rewards	.707	☑	☐
25.	IR2 <--- Attraction_Retention_Rewards	.916	☑	☐
26.	IR1 <--- Attraction_Retention_Rewards	.880	☑	☐
27.	IR4 <--- Attraction_Retention_Rewards	.736	☑	☐
28.	IR5 <--- Attraction_Retention_Rewards	.117	☐	☑
29.	IR6 <--- Attraction_Retention_Rewards	.596	☑	☐
30.	SL3 <--- Supportive_Leadership	.815	☑	☐
31.	SL2 <--- Supportive_Leadership	.652	☑	☐
32.	SL1 <--- Supportive_Leadership	.859	☑	☐
33.	SL4 <--- Supportive_Leadership	.747	☑	☐
34.	SL5 <--- Supportive_Leadership	.790	☑	☐
35.	IL1 <--- Instrumental_Leadership	.670	☑	☐
36.	IL2 <--- Instrumental_Leadership	.737	☑	☐
37.	IL3 <--- Instrumental_Leadership	.716	☑	☐
38.	IL4 <--- Instrumental_Leadership	.724	☑	☐
39.	TS3 <--- Job_Satisfaction	.837	☑	☐
40.	TS2 <--- Job_Satisfaction	.677	☑	☐
41.	TS1 <--- Job_Satisfaction	.709	☑	☐
42.	TS4 <--- Job_Satisfaction	.748	☑	☐
43.	TS5 <--- Job_Satisfaction	.717	☑	☐
44.	PL2 <--- Participated_Leadership	.785	☑	☐
45.	PL1 <--- Participated_Leadership	.782	☑	☐
46.	PL3 <--- Participated_Leadership	.373	☐	☑

Sr.	Item Label/Path/Construct Name	Factor Loading	Retained	Deleted
47.	PL4 <--- Participated_Leadership	.588	☑	☐
48.	LDP1 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Programme	.520	☑	☐
49.	LDP2 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Programme	.722	☑	☐
50.	LDP3 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Programme	.725	☑	☐
51.	LDP4 <--- Leadership_Devpt_Programme	.813	☑	☐

Table 1 of Appendix 4 – Developed by the researcher

Appendix 7: Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	128	1220.029	862	.000	1.415
Saturated model	990	.000	0		
Independence model	44	6188.608	946	.000	6.542

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.057	.843	.820	.734
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.193	.418	.391	.400

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.803	.784	.933	.925	.932
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI

Default model	.911	.732	.849
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	**NCP**	**LO 90**	**HI 90**
Default model	358.029	269.605	454.470
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	5242.608	4997.224	5494.615

FMIN

Model	**FMIN**	**F0**	**LO 90**	**HI 90**
Default model	4.266	1.252	.943	1.589
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	21.638	18.331	17.473	19.212

RMSEA

Model	**RMSEA**	**LO 90**	**HI 90**	**PCLOSE**
Default model	.038	.033	.043	1.000
Independence model	.139	.136	.143	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	1476.029	1523.830	1944.443	2072.443
Saturated model	1980.000	2349.710	5602.887	6592.887
Independence model	6276.608	6293.040	6437.626	6481.626

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	5.161	4.852	5.498	5.328
Saturated model	6.923	6.923	6.923	8.216
Independence model	21.946	21.088	22.827	22.004

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	219	226
Independence model	48	49