THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGER SUPPORT, WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND TALENT RETENTION IN A SOUTH AFRICAN UTILITY ORGANISATION

by

CHRISTINAH HLMALANE MAPHANGA

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Abstract

Orientation: Skills retention is a critical strategic priority for every organisation. Currently, with the global war on talent, organisations are faced with a mammoth challenge on how to retain critical talent. Manager support and work-life balance enhance talent retention strategies.

Research purpose: The purpose of this study is to determine if manager support and work-life balance can determine the employee’s intention to stay or leave the organisation.

Motivation of the study: Organisations are battling to find factors that contribute to retention of employees. Despite the fact that Human Resource (HR) practitioners are the ones taking care of retention strategies, the needs and factors that cause employees to stay or leave the organisation must be investigated.

Research design and methodology: A quantitative research design with a correlation analysis was chosen for this study. Non-probability purposive sampling was used with \( n = 172 \). A structured questionnaire was then used to collect data, and an analysis was made on the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Main findings: The findings indicate that manager support and work-life balance are predictors of intention to quit, with a 42% variance. The lack of manager support and work-life balance has an impact on the intention to quit. The higher the manager support is perceived, the less the intention to quit – the same holds true for work-life balance.

Practical/managerial implication: The research identified factors that can predict the intention to quit and highlighted insight such as manager support and work-life balance as key issues to consider in increasing retention. Manager support and work-life balance play a pivotal role in employee retention. Furthermore, the research identified HR practitioners as key contributors who take care of these factors in the organisation, yet who also need to be taken care of. The organisation should develop...
retention strategies, which include HR practitioners as employees who take care of other employees in the organisation.

**Contribution and value add:** The research investigated a unique group that is known to provide retention strategies and that advises line managers on HR processes. Focusing attention on HR practitioners as a matter of study will contribute to organisational retention strategies on what causes them to stay with the organisation.
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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGER SUPPORT, WORK-LIFE BALANCE
AND TALENT RETENTION IN A SOUTH AFRICAN UTILITY ORGANISATION

Keywords

Work-life balance, manager support, talent retention and intention to quit.
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1 INTRODUCTION

A large utility organisation in South Africa aspires to become an organisation that is engaged with its employees and encourages a professional and high performance environment. This organisation has been in existence since 1923 and has enhanced its programmes on racial and gender diversity over the years. Whilst diversity enhancement embraces the transformation objectives of South Africa, the organisation faces management complexities and leadership challenges. The primary complexity is about managing a large and diverse group of people, with a myriad of personal and professional needs. The particular utility organisation cannot simply ignore the link between its employees’ personal needs and work productivity, and it needs to develop a viable workplace solution that meets these diverse needs. This is particularly important as the organisation embarks on capital expansion programmes and needs to retain its valued employees and attract scarce skills, with strong support from human resource practitioners who are responsible for allocating these skills.

The utility organisation has about 45 000 employees, with an employee attrition rate of close to 10% over the last 3 years, and about 15% of the employees are aged 55 years and older and will retire in the next five years (Utility organisation Human Resource Sustainability Index, 2013). The 10% attrition rate can be a significant loss over 3 years, especially on the scarce skills labour force.

South Africa faces a national skills shortage (Daniels, 2007). It also possesses fewer skills than are required by the market. Even though the situation has improved in terms of younger people accessing tertiary education, there are still a lot of imbalances, with less technical skills such as engineering (Pauw, Oosthuizen & Van Der Westhuizen, 2006). There are also challenges of migration of workers to other
countries, which are causing major loss of talent, often referred to as the brain drain (Docquier, Lohest & Marfouk, 2007). The utility organisation of South Africa – like any other organisation – is challenged to come up with strategies to alleviate skills shortages. The Department of Basic Education, South Africa, in collaboration with the University of Witwatersrand, is addressing the matter of shortage of skills by enabling talent to reach its highest potential (Motshekga, 2014). The collaboration of these stakeholders offered opportunities for scholarship, which bring hope and change to the South African Society (Motshekga, 2014). Furthermore, the government has improved the Basic Education budget and focused on improving numeracy and literacy in order to address the skills imbalances (Gordhan, 2013). The challenge of skills shortage needs effective human resource practitioners to assist the organisation in establishing effective strategies and to assist the organisation in keeping its own skills in the country and within the utility industry.

The global work environment is also changing due to the increased diversity in age, race and gender in the workforce. In terms of strategies for implementing work-life balance and talent retention, it has become of importance to consider manager support, since relationships also play a critical role in the workplace. Work in the 21st century has become an immense challenge for employers, whilst viewing different generations as being demanding, seeking careers that will suit their lifestyle (PwC Saratoga report, 2012). Available literature has proven that work-life balance is the most influential factor in job satisfaction and employee retention across all age groups (McCrindle, 2007).

Allen (2006, p. 1) “indicated that one of the most critical issues facing the organisation today is how to retain the employees you want to keep”. The motivation for this research is to investigate whether manager support and work-life balance have a relationship with talent retention.
1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Retention is a critical element of an organisation (Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2008). In spite of the global economic crisis that was experienced between 2008 and 2009, there are ongoing challenges associated with attracting the right talent, managing them in an efficient and effective manner, and ensuring business sustainability by retaining them (Tymon, Stumpf & Doh, 2010). South Africa is also amongst the countries which face a great challenge with critical skills (Kerr-Phillips, & Thomas, 2009). In order to retain and attract talent, organisations need to focus their attention on employee value propositions, which increase flexibility for employees as well as attracting diverse talent from the market (D'Amato & Herzfeldt, 2008). To ensure the long-term well-being and success of an organisation, retention needs to be enhanced in all areas of an organisation (Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). The talent management framework that is linked to organisational strategy upholds the vision, missions and objectives of the organisation and enhances the talent solution of the organisation.

Through prioritising employees as valuable assets, organisations can improve their levels of critical talent on retention, thus improving business results over time (Human Capital Management, 2006). To ensure continuity of supply, the utility organisation is challenged in terms of retaining the talent inside and attracting the talent outside the business. The utility organisation supplies energy to South Africa and other Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries. The utility organisation acknowledges that it must acquire and retain the best talent in order to be effective and efficient, and also to be among the top five performing utilities in the world. Over and above its usual efforts to employ, develop and keep its talented people, the utility organisation needs to find ways to effectively manage talent as one of the critical resources required to maintain its business results. With rising demands for talent, is it increasingly becoming a challenge – despite the organisation’s efforts – to supply talent. Talent attraction and retention in all areas of

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the business is becoming increasingly scarce; therefore, it must be managed properly.

Recruiting in today’s economy (locally and globally) presents a series of challenges that organisations must understand and overcome (Cascio & Aguinis, 2005). The most crippling and inevitable challenge is that the utility organisation has an aging workforce and also battles to keep the balance of retention among generational segments. Blass and April (2008) state that a number of “baby boomers” (people born between 1946 and 1964) will soon disappear from the corporate world as many are approaching retirement age, leaving a vacuum of knowledge that has to be supplemented by younger generations that are mostly under-experienced. Serrat (2010) asserts that critical talent is scarce because of 3 trends: retirement of “baby boomers” (people born between 1946 and 1964), widening skills gap, and scale social integration. This poses a high risk to locate replacement of critical scarce skills in the industry. The utility organisation – like any other company – is battling to keep up with retaining talented employees, especially those with critical and scarce skills.

The reason for carrying out this study is to investigate whether manager support and work-life balance can play a role in talent retention at utility organisations. The international trend to work-life balance is a proven key factor in attracting and retaining employees, and at the same time, it enhances employee engagement (Todd, 2004). This is supported by local and international research. Work-life balance is of importance to a large proportion of employees in South Africa. The changing world of work calls for a relook at work principles that were relevant in the past in order to determine whether they meet the 21st century workforce’s unique needs.

Schreuder and Coetzee (2006) assert that the 21st century workplace is increasingly characterised by diverse household arrangements which require flexibility from employers, such as adjusting personnel policies and offering various support
mechanisms to employees, including but not limited to childcare, flexitime, job sharing, part-time work and telecommuting. Organisations want to attract, retain and motivate people with different abilities; hence, there is a need to be flexible and allow special work schedules (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). Consequently, management support is also a critical aspect associated with employee retention.

Tymon et al. (2011) cites that key management practices include personal interest in employees’ career discussions, valuing the input they make, ensuring empowerment and celebrating the milestones achieved. The support and vigorous involvement of line managers are critical for talent management. In addition, attracting talent requires a positive employer brand that is associated with a desirable place to work (Stewart, 2008). Stewart (2008) further cites that what is common in affecting individuals’ experiences of work and service is the kind of relationship employees enjoy with their managers and their work colleagues. Managers are therefore instrumental in creating an employer brand. Literature stated that by prioritising investment in people skills, organisations impend skills retention challenges and become lead industries in the market (Holland, Sheehan & De Cieri, 2007).

Work-life balance strategies focus on workplace solutions that maximise employee productivity while minimising the effects of traffic congestion, pollution and the stress of commuting. Manager support, on the other hand, is regarded as critical towards shaping employees’ attitudes, which, in turn, influence commitment and turnover intentions (Lavoie-Tremblay, Paquet, Marchionni & Drevniok, 2011). Providing options from flexitime to telecommuting, work-life balance strategies will enable employees to customise their work arrangements in order to fit their personal needs and operational requirements more efficiently.
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

A critical issue that organisations are faced with currently is the retention of skilled employees (Allen, 2006). The utility industry, in particular, is also experiencing challenges pertaining to how best to provide the workforce with the critical skills in order to meet the power supply demands of the South African economy. In addition, the industry is further challenged by the ageing workforce that is expected to enlarge the skills vacuum in the near future. The fierce competition in the labour market for critical skills has prompted some organisations to poach skilled employees from other organisations in order to address their talent gaps.

Despite the introduction of talent management practices such as work-life balance and manager support, there is still a gap of empirical studies conducted within the South African work context on how these management practices relate to talent retention. To this end, this research project focuses on answering a critical question: What is the relationship between manager support, work-life balance, and talent retention amongst employees in the utility organisation? The proposed study thus intends to investigate this relationship among employees of a South African utility organisation.

1.3 PURPOSE STATEMENT

The study was conducted to establish whether there is a relationship between manager support, work-life balance and talent retention among employees of a South African utility organisation. It is evident from the literature study that although work-life balance was widely researched in South Africa, it was mainly qualitative and the models used were not South African-based but rather internationally based (Jacobs, Mostert & Pienaar, 2008).
This study investigated three concepts, namely manager support, work-life balance and talent retention in a utility organisation, which is a first of its kind in the South African context.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESIS

1.4.1 The research objectives

- To determine the perceptions of manager support from a sample of employees in a South African (SA) utility organisation.
- To determine the perceptions of work-life balance from a sample of employees in an SA organisation.
- To determine the intention to quit from a sample of employees in an SA utility organisation.
- To determine whether the participants’ perceptions of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit differ according to demographic variables.
- To determine whether there is a relationship between manager support, work-life balance and the intention to quit in a sample of employees from an SA utility organisation.
- To determine whether work-life balance and manager support are significant predictors of intention to quit.
- To offer recommendations in terms of talent retention within the SA utility industry.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been formulated for the study:
• H1: There is a positive relationship between work-life balance and manager support amongst employees of a South African utility organisation.

• H2: There is a negative relationship between work-life balance and intention to quit.

• H3: There is a negative relationship between manager support and intention to quit.

This study was conducted by means of utilising a survey whereby questions were posed with regards to establishment of potential relationships amongst manager support, work-life balance practices and options that can result in employees’ retention and intention to stay with the organisation.

1.5 ACADEMIC VALUE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE PROPOSED STUDY

Studies have been conducted internationally regarding manager support, work-life balance and talent retention. There was no evidence found on related studies conducted in the South African milieu. The study will contribute to the utility organisation by delivering results to enhance talent retention strategies and enhance the leadership framework programme by learning from the views of employees on issues that they regard as important with regard to manager quality. This is a vital study as companies are trying to engage to find out what should be done in order to retain skills and talent in workplaces. This study will add value in addressing daily practical workplace issues of retaining talent by investigating the relationship between manager support, work-life balance and talent retention. Academically, the study will contribute effectively to the field of Human Resources and Industrial Psychology.
1.6 DELIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

1.6.1 Delimitations

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2011), delimitations involve understanding what the researcher intends to do and precisely what the researcher does not intend to do. What the researcher is not going to do is stated as the delimitations. The researcher aims to investigate the association between manager support, work-life balance and talent retention. The study was limited to Human Resources within the Strategic and Service Function and the Gauteng region. The research will describe the relationship amongst the three concepts: manager support, work-life balance and talent retention. The study will also focus on determining the nature of relationships amongst the variables but not to establish causal factors.

1.6.2 Assumptions

An assumption is what is judged to be true in the research study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2011). The study assumes the following:

- Employees should know some form of “work-life balance” options available.
- Work-life balance stands as a recognisable programme within the organisation.
- Employees value relationships in terms of manager support.
- Manager engagement in terms of career development, performance management, trust, respect, work flexibility and work-life balance is associated with manager support.
• There is supposed to be a form of engagement taking place between employees and managers.
• Employees who are afforded work-life balance-oriented incentives regard this as a form of manager support.
• A quantitative approach is relevant for the study.

1.7 DESCRIPTION OF INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN

“Strategies of inquiry are types of qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods, or models that provide specific direction for procedures in research design” (Creswell, 2009, p. 11). Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) delineate research design as a way of directing academics to amass, analyse, and construe the research pragmatic point. A research design is an adequate measurement to examine a particular hypothesis under certain circumstances (Creswell, 2009).

The type of research strategy chosen regulates the research design. The quantitative research approach was the most appropriate method for this study. The main intention of quantitative research is to establish the extent to which findings from a sample can be generalised to a population (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2008). According to Mouton and Marais (cited in De Vos, 1995), a quantitative method is an approach used in the social sciences; it is a formalised approach, with an explicitly controlled methodology, and it is relatively close to the physical science. According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), quantitative research has strengths that must be acknowledged, including testing hypotheses that are constructed before the data is collected; the findings can be generalised; it provides accurate numerical data; and the research findings are relatively independent of the researcher. Its weaknesses are that the researchers’ theories that are used may not reflect local constituencies’ understanding (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The non-experimental design quantitative research is a suitable type to distinguish this study. Based on the above, the non-experimental
research design is best suited for the study because the survey questionnaire is used, and it is quantitative in nature. Surveys are used in a quantitative study (Terre Blanche et al., 2008). Non-experimental design is used to ascertain current research factors and categorise interactions amongst specific constructs (De Vos, 1998). In this study, the relationship amongst these three constructs is investigated: manager support, work-life balance and talent retention.

1.8 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHODS

1.8.1 Target population

Target population is explained as the total number of people or objects to which the researcher will generalise the deduction (Hill, Knox, Thompson, Williams & Hess, 2005). For this study, the target population consists of all the Human Resources Department employees in the utility organisation (Gauteng Region and the Strategic and Services Function). The population includes all the Human Resources Department practitioners in the different human resource management functionaries (such as talent and skills, employee relations, wellness, organisational effectiveness, remuneration and benefits, training, human resource management business partners, learning and development) and administrators in this area. Managers and employees in supervisory roles were excluded.

All employees in this study are from the following task grades: T06-T08 – classified as administration staff; T09-T13 – this level includes assistant officers and officers; P11-P13 – this level is classified as professional staff identified as officers and advisors. Further, other employees are from the following task grades: P14-P16 – classified as professionals on the level of senior advisors; S14-S16 – classified as specialists in the level of senior advisors; G14-G16 – specified as generalists in the level of senior advisors; S17-S18 – classified as specialists in the level of chief advisors; and P17-P18 – classified as professionals in the level of chief advisors.
1.9 DATA COLLECTION

Data in quantitative research is expressed in terms of numbers. The primary tool of data collection for this study was a questionnaire together with the primary data. An investigation was launched to determine whether there were any existing questionnaires to be utilised for the purposes of this research. To this end, the following questionnaires were detected in measuring the human resource management constructs at hand: manager support, work-life balance, manager support and talent retention. These questionnaires were collated into one comprehensive questionnaire in order to measure these constructs. That being the case, participants were only requested to complete one questionnaire that consisted of human resource management section (which are work-life balance, manager support and talent retention) measuring the human resource management constructs.

1.10 DEFINING THE KEY CONCEPTS

1.10.1 Work-life balance

There are many views of what work-life balance refers to. Some hold, “the term ‘balance’ suggests that work is not integral to life, and implies a simple trade-off between the two spheres” (Gregory & Milner, 2009, p. 1). According to Singh and Khanna (2011), work-life balance refers to the aspiration on the part of both employees and employers to strike a balance between work and personal commitments.

Conrad (1990, p. 1) defines balancing work and life as the successful planning and coordination of career, family, recreation, studies, hobbies and other commitments that promote a sense of self-actualisation in one’s life. Defining work-life balance in
terms of understanding time, understanding choice, and understanding purpose is essential to understanding life (Clawson, 2006).

1.10.2 Manager support

Manager support, in this study, refers to managers’ demeanours, which constitutes upholding respect, encourage career growth and provide recognition. It thus makes individuals aware of their contributions and performance to the business and builds positive attitudes amongst the utility organisation employees, with an intention of minimising any potential intentions to leave the organisation.

1.10.3 Support

Support can be defined both from the employee and manager support perspective as follows: support includes a variety of behaviours which managers can portray to their subordinates (Yan-Zhang, Tsui, Jiwen-Song, Chaoping & Liangding, 2008). The support referred to includes valuing employees’ well-being; taking their contributions and needs into consideration; supporting employees’ career development; giving encouragement, assistance and advice; and backing them up when needed (Yan-Zhang et al., 2008).

1.10.4 Workplace social support

Workplace social support is defined as the value attached by employees to the support (being cared for in terms of well-being) received from their supervisors or organisation (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner & Hammer, 2012).
1.10.5 Talent

To manage and retain talent, the utility organisation’s understanding of the meaning of talent has to be brought into perspective. Born and Heers (2009, p. 6) provide a broader definition of talent as follows: “Talent in organisation is people and all their abilities and skills, it also includes the ability to learn and grow”. Michaels, Handfield-Jones and Axelrod (2001) urge employers to treasure their talent and not to allow this valuable resource to deteriorate over time. Cappelli (2008) supports the above definitions and states that the goal of talent is a more general and important task for helping the organisation achieve its overall objectives.

1.10.6 Talent retention

Talent retention refers to an organisation’s ability to curb the attrition rate (McKinsey & Company, 2001). Bernthal and Wellins (2001) cite that the opposite of retention is turnover and both should be understood alike in order to scrutinise retention prospects. Döckel and Coetzee (2006) describe retention as an effort by management to maximise employee’s intents to leave the organisation.

1.11 CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter 1 introduces the background to the research, objectives, the problem statement and hypotheses. Also included in this chapter are the importance and benefits of the study and an outline of subsequent chapters.

Chapter 2 outlines an extensive theoretical framework. The key concepts of work-life balance, manager support and talent retention were discussed.
Chapter 3 indicates the empirical research in detail, the description of the sample, sampling method, research design, the research process, data collection method, and reliability analyses. The research approach was for purposes of addressing the objectives of the study and the hypotheses adequately.

Chapter 4 presents the results of statistical measures and a discussion of the study. The results of the statistics, inferential statistics, the post hoc test correlation analysis and regression analysis are presented.

Chapter 5 offers conclusions and recommendations based on the findings and limitations of the study.

The abbreviations used in the study are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Abbreviations in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TM</td>
<td>Talent Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WLB</td>
<td>Work-life Balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR</td>
<td>Human resource</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.12 SUMMARY

The chapter presented the context and motivation for the research, objectives, hypotheses, assumptions, the research design, methodological approach and the chapter layout of the study.

Human assets are vital for the success of any organisation. The organisation has the challenge of keeping and retaining talented employees through different strategies. There is a wide range of reasons for employees leaving organisations, which could include better salaries, leaving an obnoxious supervisor, retrenchment and other
factors. Organisations face the challenge of how they can retain and keep valued employees; hence, it is vital to investigate if the relationship between manager support and work-life balance can predict retention.

The chapter that follows will consider literature relevant to this study.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter gave a background to the study. Chapter 2 addresses factors that are perceived to form part of manager support, an undertaking which enhances talent retention. It starts by discussing the concept of manager support in the workplace. The concepts described within manager support include the theoretical framework of manager support, the role of managers in performance management, career development and opportunities, training and development, recognition and feedback from the manager, and compensation and rewards. Additionally, this chapter addresses the concept of work-life balance and talent retention. In conclusion, potential relationships as a result of manager support and the issues of work-life balance and talent retention are investigated.

The literature review also explains work-life balance as a part of policy awareness, and examines its contribution to retaining talented employees.

2.1 UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT OF MANAGER SUPPORT

The construct of manager support is based on the concept of social support, and workplace social support in particular. Manager support is one of the essential people-oriented behaviours which effective leaders need to engage in. Manager support could not be explained without establishing a vision regarding what managers are expected to do in the workplace. Effective managers ideally draw plans, design organisational structures and monitor outcomes against set plans (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003). The extent to which these activities are managed well influences perceived levels of manager support. Management matters
are closer to people issues; hence, their focus consists of implementing the vision and strategy provided by leaders, coordinating and staffing the organisation, and handling day-to-day problems that concern employees. These prospects are influenced by how managers provide support to the organisation (Robbins et al., 2003).

2.2 SUPPORT

Support can be defined both from the employee and managerial perspectives. It includes a variety of behaviours that the manager can portray to their subordinates, such as valuing employees’ well-being; taking their contribution and needs into consideration; supporting employees’ career development; giving encouragement, assistance and advice; and backing them when needed. This could also include supporting people in difficult situations (Yan-Zhang et al., 2008).

Support includes co-workers and supervisors helping with accomplishing tasks, providing guidance or advice and giving access to information in order to enhance productivity (Chiaburu, Van Dam & Hutchis, 2010).

2.2.1 Social Support

The literature confirmed that social support has an enormous influence in curbing the rate at which employees quit organisations (Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008). Supervisors who are supportive of their subordinates contribute to favourable outcomes for both the organisation and employees, which leads to reduced work stress and enhanced performance levels (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). To reinforce the above, Lee (2003) stated that social support was related to stress and the employee’s intention to quit. The literature review affirms that social support can
also come from different people, including supervisors, colleagues, family and friends (Kossek et al., 2012).

Social support can be viewed from different perspectives. Views regarding the concept of social support are complex, and the literature suggests that the concept still needs to be investigated (Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008). This is confirmed thus: “Despite the growing importance of understanding workplace social support, linkages to work-family conflict due to the rising pressures, research has not yet fully clarified, (a) what type of social support (general work or family specific), either from supervisory or organisational sources is mostly related to work-family conflict and (b) the process by which this type of support relates to work-family conflict.” (Kossek et al., 2012, p. 2).

Social support constitutes contentment experienced by an individual upon realising that he or she is being appreciated and cherished. Social support is seen as part of a social system that requires shared commitment (Kossek et al., 2012).

2.2.2 Workplace social support

Support is also tied to workplace support, which includes manager support. Workplace social support is defined as the value attached by employees to the support (being cared for in terms of well-being) received from their supervisors or organisation (Kossek et al., 2012). Workplace social support is recommended to protect employees from the effects of or exposure to unavoidable worksite stress (Heaney, 1991).
2.2.3 Manager support

Manager support, in this study, refers to managers’ demeanour, which constitutes upholding respect and encouraging career growth and recognition, making individuals aware of their contribution and performance to the business, and building positive attitudes amongst the organisational employees, with an aim of minimising the intention to leave the organisation.

Farren and Kaye (1998) stated that management support is the ability of managers to support the growth of their subordinates and teams. Managers are also seen as crucial to the quality of employees’ work experience, and they create the employer’s brand. Leadership is critical to employees’ development because as a manager, when one instructs, questions, allows, punishes, ignores, recognises, rewards and promotes his/her subordinates, this can either reduce the organisation to mediocrity or lead the organisation to earn respect and prosperity (Ozcelik, Langton & Aldrich, 2008).

In conclusion, manager support is a concept that has been researched mostly in the context of supervisory support. As the study focused on manager support in the form of needs, relationships between managers and employees and the hygiene factors, theories of motivation (Maslow’s hierarchy of needs), and the social exchange were perceived as applicable to the study. The first step in understanding the impact of turnover is to understand why manager support and work-life balance positively influence employee perception to stay with the organisation. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs focused on the basic needs that employees aspire to have fulfilled by their managers. Drawing from the social exchange theory, understanding behaviour within the workplace generates high-quality relationships between employees and managers. These workplace behaviours include the respect and support that managers give to their subordinates. In turn, managers expect productivity and
respect from their subordinates as a form of exchange. The broader theoretical perspective of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and social exchange theory is explained.

2.2.4 Theoretical framework of manager support

The social exchange theory and Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory have been used to draw attention to the needs of employees and the support that they expect from the organisation, which, in turn, could enhance retention in the workplace. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory has five basic identified needs that an individual needs to satisfy in life (Ramlall, 2004). Figure 1 depicts these identified needs. These needs are unlimited and as individuals attain basic needs, they tend to aspire to achieve higher categories of needs with an ultimate objective of realising their self-actualisation needs (Benson & Dundis, 2003).

There are five goals that are aimed at satisfying elementary needs, which are physiological, security, affection, esteem and self-actualisation (Benson & Dundis, 2003). There are a number of circumstances or conditions that encourage employees of the organisation to strive to accomplish their goals; these are the factors through which basic fulfilment is derived (Ramlall, 2004).
The social exchange theory provided the frame of reference regarding relationships within the workplace (Wayne, Shore & Linden, 1997). The theory explains the relationship between the manager and employee as a part of social exchange and the provision of equitable resources, and once the resources become unequitable, the situation is viewed by employees as the deprivation of needs (Berkowitz, 1965). The social exchange theory is linked to one of the motivational theories (Maslow’s hierarchy) to explain relationships, needs and support expected from a manager by their employees. In this regard, the social exchange theory asserts that the manager will provide support in terms of workplace needs as stated in Maslow’s theory and employees will deliver the expected output.

The theories of social exchange and Maslow’s hierarchy of needs as applied to this study emphasised the view that employees’ relations are nurtured by creating a conducive working environment and ensuring that there is an equitable allocation of
resources to their subordinates. Manager-employee working relationships, as a part of social exchange theory, and the provision of basic needs as stated by Maslow’s theory, could impact both negatively and positively on retention and the intention to stay with the organisation. The theories provided some valuable perspectives for managers and organisational leaders with regard to retention (Ramlall, 2004). Unfulfilled needs exacerbate work-life stress and in return also fuel the decision to quit an organisation (Gregory & Milner, 2009). Cohen and Keren (2008) added that when employees perceive the expected inducements to be fair to their skills and abilities, they reciprocate high levels of organisational commitment with their intent to remain at that organisation (Hughes & Rog, 2008).

Despite the needs mentioned by Maslow’s hierarchy, the social exchange theory asserted that managers and subordinates form and uphold interpersonal relationships involving the reciprocation of valued resources (Ladebo, 2005). Furthermore, Ladebo (2005) asserted that managers are considered as the representatives of organisations and are responsible for assisting the organisation in achieving its goals, as they have regular contact with subordinates. Consequently, employees develop “interchange” relationships with their superiors based on the needs they have (Wayne et al., 2007).

Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) stated that the motivational theory literature distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic substantial work circumstances. The substantial work circumstances that are intrinsic include aspects such as proficiencies, use of abilities, and interpersonal relationships, whereas the extrinsic include issues such as remuneration, aids and work relationships with co-workers, managers and nobles (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). The study undertaken included both the intrinsic and extrinsic substantial work circumstances, which, in turn, contribute to talent retention. In addition, it is stated that manager support can be explained within the context of employee needs (which includes work-life balance practices), motivation, and relationships, hence the inclusion of the social exchange
theory, which deals with manager-employee relationships in the workplace. It is the manager’s obligation to inspire his or her employees (Management Today, 2009).

The manager is responsible for unleashing employee potential by motivating them (Amar, 2002). This can be done through coaching, mentoring, training and providing support and assistance. It is vital for the manager to understand the needs of employees and to assist them to meet some of these needs (Management Today, 2009). The theory of motivation is used in this study based on the perspective that one aspect of the support perceived by employees is the motivation they receive from their managers in order to meet certain needs which involve their work and personal lives. Employees who feel their needs are taken care of by their managers will be motivated to stay (Bolino & Turnley, 2003). The effect of this process is, however, moderated by aspects such as job level and manager support (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). Interestingly, the literature confirms that younger employees generally have an increased intention to quit (Coetzee & Gunz, 2012).

Employees relate their needs at the workplace to their basic needs, which are psychological, safety, security, and esteem needs. Providing the psychological, security, esteem, and safety needs affects the employees’ relations with their organisation; if these are met, it satisfies the employees’ material needs (Bauman & Skitka, 2012).

Material needs are specified as hygiene factors in Motivator-Hygiene. The following variables were identified as motivational factors which employees aspire to: achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, increased challenge and growth, whilst the following variables were identified as hygiene-dissatisfying experiences: co-worker relations, supervisory styles and salaries (Ramlall, 2004). The Herzberg theory argued that eliminating the causes of dissatisfaction would not result in a state of satisfaction, and rather a neutral state; satisfaction would occur only as a result of motivation (Miner, 2005). Satisfying employees’ needs for security,
safety, belonging, and meaningful existence could enhance retention and show managers’ contributions in a positive light (Bauman & Skitka, 2012). Many motivational theories state that employees aspire to achieve social approval, which could include appreciation and recognition by their managers, more than material concerns (Bauman & Skitka, 2012).

Managers have to be aware of emerging needs of employees, and therefore find ways to inspire them by designing relevant programmes aimed at addressing those needs (Ramlall, 2004). Organisations are also encouraged to implement support programmes, which could include work-life balance programmes and engagement sessions, in an effort to understand the employees’ needs, and avert unwanted stressful events (Benson & Dundis, 2003). In organisations, managers have the responsibility to create a conducive environment to enable employees to develop to their fullest potential (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). This should be done to eliminate employee frustration and increase performance, job satisfaction and involvement in the organisation (Benson & Dundis, 2003). Bolino and Turnley (2003) stated that social capital elicits high commitment from employees in the organisation.

In Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, Benson and Dundis (2003) associated self-esteem with performance appraisals, which is linked to incentives, rewards and recognition, which together enhance the individual’s confidence and commitment. Benson and Dundis (2003) also highlighted the issue of training as imperative for self-actualisation, as it increases one’s potential to learn new things and increase confidence.

The social exchange theory and Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory explained how managers support their subordinates to meet their needs at the workplace. Uhl-bien and Maslyn (2003) stated that the higher the qualities of exchange relationships were perceived to be by employees, the higher the perceived organisational support. Managers have the duty to assist the individual employees to meet their needs in the
workplace. The fulfilled needs play a part in the growth and development of employees, which may have a positive or a negative impact on the intention to stay or leave the organisation. Employees have expectations from their managers to meet their needs at the workplace. Employees’ perceptions of manager support are discussed below.

2.3 PERCEIVED MANAGER SUPPORT

Managers are the strength of every organisation, big or small (Gilley & Gilley, 2007). Each day, a manager gets up in the morning and chooses whether or not to be a better manager, which could decrease or increase his or her subordinates’ performance (Lynn, 2005). Managers who support their employees make sure that they receive proper training, relevant work assignments, and proper development and coaching. These kinds of managers follow the careers of the employees who report to them; they ensure that they retain their valuable employees and enhance organisational effectiveness. Gilley and Gilley (2007) asserted that employees’ actions, decisions, resources and energies should be guided and directed by managers in order to contribute effectively to the goals of the organisation.

Employees and managers have mutual responsibilities with regard to performance management; such responsibilities involve performance improvement, quality productivity and execution (Pfeffer, 1995). To confirm the above statement, the following quote was obtained from Freemantle (1989, p. 32): “The Superboss cares for his people, tries hard to help them with their problems, furthermore shows that he cares, shows he’s interested in their success, concerned about their failures, he takes care about their training, development and career progress and he carefully gives advice and counsel when it’s needed”. In addition to the above, Taylor (2010) attributed employees’ decisions to leave their organisation to their manager’s attitudes towards them; even though such employees may be satisfied with what the
organisation offers, they will eventually leave due to not seeing eye to eye with their manager.

According to Lewis (1996), the role of the manager is critical and is a huge contributing factor in the growth and development of the employee. Lewis (1996) added that a manager’s duty is to grow employees and act as a mentor in the process of employee development. Furthermore, it is also claimed that the main reason why individuals leave a company is due to their relationship with their supervisor. This statement is supported by Brannick (2001), who indicated that talented employees usually quit the manager, not the organisation. Berger and Berger (2011) also stated that attracting, retaining and motivating the greatest employees have become a key responsibility for each leader and manager.

Supervisors could exercise their ability to spend time with employees daily to their advantage by building work-based interpersonal relationships and showing support (Maertz Jr Griffeth, Campbell & Allen, 2007). Maertz Jr et al. (2007) added that having been given this support and such benefits, the resulting work-life balance will elicit trust and enhance productivity. In support of this, the Gallup research recognised managers as key people in fostering engagement (Markos, Pradesh & Sridevi, 2010). The working relationship of the manager to the subordinate is an essential tool in employee engagement (Management Today, 2008). Paille, Grima, and Bernardeau (2013) affirmed that supervisors have an obligation to not only represent the company, but also to compensate for any company shortcomings in keeping employees motivated and willing to stay with an organisation. The social exchange theory envisaged that such a management style will decrease passive employee behaviour.

The manager is also in a position to address other challenges that are imperative for employment engagement. These management issues include providing employees with meaningful work, development opportunities and work-life balance challenges
(Minty, 2007). By providing consistent support, the supervisor may surpass the organisation as a source of support. In terms of manager support, there are roles and actions that managers have to play and show, including the role that the manager displays in the performance management process. The supportive manager enhances an employee's performance and guides the process (Dransfield, 2000). Management experts stated that organisations that manage individuals in the right manner will outclass other organisations in terms of profitability by 30% to 40% (Branham, 2001). Branham (2001) asserted that it becomes even more demoralising if one works for a manager who has little interest or skill in managing people. In an organisation, one instinctively feels the negative impact that such a manager can have on employees' morale and productivity.

It is worth noting that working relationships are paramount amongst employers and employees, and if they are not nurtured, they could impact negatively on productivity (Uhl-bien & Maslyn, 2003). In essence, employees have expectations about the support that a manager will provide at the workplace. Understanding those expectations and effecting support can assist in forming effective relationships. The support that managers give relates to the daily roles which they are executing to assist the organisation in meeting its job outputs. A manager's role includes motivating and guiding subordinates (Mukherjee & Malhotra, 2006); hence, it is crucial to explain exactly what the manager's role is in the work organisation.

The manager's role is explained in the organisational setting, and an outline of the expectations of the manager's role is discussed on the basis of the literature review.

2.3.1 The role of the manager

According to Jones and George (2008), a manager's role includes planning, organising, leading and controlling. Jones and George (2008) added that a manager's role is to assist the organisation in using its resources in the best way in
order to achieve organisational goals. Organising entails coordinating individual and team efforts in carrying out established tasks, including system configurations to ensure that synergy is achieved in realising the organisation’s objectives (Dixon, 2003).

Managers need to possess additional skills beyond intellectual and operational skills; this positions them to better respond to the job demands of managerial functions (Northouse, 2007). With that said, irrespective of one's core business, such core leadership skills would span across functions. The literature confirms that leaders who understand both the complexities of their business and the basic needs of their people consistently outperform their competitors (Burke & Cooper, 2009).

According to Management Today (2009), the responsibility of the manager is to motivate his/her employees; therefore, the manager must know his/her employees’ needs and help them to satisfy some of these needs. The manager can do this by managing employees well, being a good coach and mentor, and giving support, assistance and training (Management Today, 2009). A manager is entrusted with the responsibility of supervising and encouraging personnel by motivating them in order to unleash their potential (Jones & George, 2008).

Managers’ responsibilities include but are not limited to the following:

- explaining an individual’s duties and responsibilities
- agreeing on expectations
- setting priorities among different responsibilities
- clarifying the roles and procedures to be followed
- confirming the understanding and agreement about work responsibilities (Yukl, 2004)
Furthermore, Armstrong (2010) stated that line managers tend to have employees reporting to them who do not themselves have any management or supervisory responsibility and are responsible for the day-to-day running of work but not for strategic issues. The role of such managers typically includes the following activities:

- ensuring that human assets are managed effectively
- providing the know-how on operational issues
- coordinating work plans and resource allocations
- checking and evaluating work procedures
- ensuring that product or service excellence is achieved
- assessing performance operations and other management activities such as coaching, development, performance appraisal and being a vital link between teams and senior managers.

The above activities indicate that the role of the manager is critical to the organisation, as it contributes to organisational goals through directing and leading employees to achieve those objectives. Mintzberg (2000) maintained that managers are vital to the organisation; their role is considered to be like that of conductors, who the choir is dependent on to be lead and directed.

In addition to the above roles, the manager has a role in performance management, career development, career opportunities, recognition and giving feedback to employees about their performance and future support to work-life balance practices. The contributions and behaviours of such managers are likely to make employees want to stay with the organisation. The next paragraph discusses the role of the manager in the performance management system and highlights the important facts regarding manager support.
2.3.2 Managers as performance coaches

Performance management is a vital tool for accomplishing organisational objectives. It is defined as a structure for managing individual and team performance through an agreement or contract (Williams, 2002). One of the managers’ roles in supporting an employee’s performance is to provide individualised feedback that is expected to guide and provide insights for improving work performance (Heslin, Vandewalle & Latham, 2006). In essence, this requires a manager to coach the employee. Coaching is a large part of the role of an effective manager, and this is what is meant by referring to the manager as a coach (Minty, 2007). In effect, it includes day-to-day management practices and people development.

According to Gilley and Gilley (2007, p. 21), “the performance coaching process is based on the synergistic relationship between managers (performance coaches) and their employees, and is premeditated to improve performance, enhance self-esteem and increase productivity”. In the process of being coaches, managers outline expectations in terms of a performance contract. This process assists in creating a constructive plan on the “what” and the “how” of performance in the workplace. The process can be outlined in the form of a performance contract. Williams (2002) stated that a performance contract is a tool that is used to spell out expectations from an employee in carrying out his/her job; in return, it outlines the support and/or enablers that should be provided to employees.

Williams (2002) further contended that if performance management is to support the employees’ roles, it should cover the following:

- Business role – this ensures that the job description reflects the business objectives.
- Performance planning – targets are set by joint agreement between the employee and the appraising manager.
• Performance development – defines the skills, knowledge and experience needed and the plans for the required training.

• Performance measurement – evaluates performance against targets.

Providing enabling discussions between managers and employees on performance management challenges empowers employees to take responsibility for their own performance. Freemantle (1989) stated that performance feedback is crucial to performance improvement, since without it, performance deterioration is inevitable. The interaction between the manager and the employee supports the individual’s performance functioning and creates the platform for development, which will enhance organisational efficiency. Gilley and Gilley (2007) emphasised the role of managers as performance coaches as per Table 2.
Table 2: Managers as Performance Coaches; Roles and Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roles</th>
<th>Responsibilities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trainer</td>
<td>Enables learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Augments resilience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career advisor</td>
<td>Executes career analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contribution to career planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Improves career opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategist</td>
<td>Foresees the future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Champions change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Solves problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance appraiser</td>
<td>Created goals and standards</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assessed performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Affords feedback</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conducts cause analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creates growth and development plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advances performance</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, Swanson (2009) and Mujtaba and Shuaib (2010) outlined the following as key in performance management:

- The practice of performance management is a participative management process.
- It is about setting and achieving organisational objectives.
- Obliges managers and employees to communicate about performance and give feedback for improvement.
- Serves as a method for making sure that the individual’s and the organisation’s objectives are in line with one another.
- Performance management serves as a coordination tool for evaluating and rewarding performance.
It is a method of focusing on the long-term as well as the short-term effects of an individual’s work performance.

It is a continuous process of giving employees feedback about how well they are doing their work.

It is a tool to be used for identifying employees who need further training for promotion or correction.

It is a method used to accomplish other structures, such as production, safety, quality and compensation.

The following integral components are seen as components which increase performance for employees (Heslin et al., 2006):

- **Leading** – managers should lead performance expectations, deal with development prospects, and address shortcomings in the form of consultation and a solution-focused approach in order to achieve the aspired goals.

- **Facilitation** – explore career growth and advancement and pave ways to address such requests and aspirations and aim for optimal performance.

- **Motivation** – challenge the employees to comprehend and develop their potential.

A mature relationship between the manager and the employee is required in order to ensure engagement. This kind of engagement in performance requires managerial support and contributes to flourishing relationships. The above table indicates the importance of manager support and effective performance management of employees for the organisation’s survival. This process of performance management and the involvement of the manager create a platform for the discussion of the employee’s career development. Freemantle (1994) affirmed the above statement by stating that feedback is crucial; without feedback, people start making assumptions about what is expected of them in terms of performance. In a survey conducted on the efficiency of coaching, it was found that the bulk of companies (87% of
respondents) believed that coaching by managers was an effective development tool (Minty, 2007). The next section provides insight into the role of the manager in career development.

2.3.3 Manager support in career development

Career development is an intentional effort implemented by management that is directed at the development and enhancement of the skill of the employees (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Career development can be used as an important instrument of intensifying the confidence of employees in using their skills and knowledge. It could also serve as an important link to retaining valued employees so that they can stay with the organisation (Foong-ming, 2008). Jiang and Klein (2000) stated that managers can help employees to develop their careers and assist the organisation to retain valued employees. Jiang and Klein (2000) also asserted that manager support in career development has a substantial influence on their subordinates’ career gratification and turnover.

“Legislation such as the Employment Equity Act, 1998 (Act 55 of 1998) and the Skills Development Act, 1998 (Act 97 of 1998), as well as the shortages of skilled employees and competitive pressures on the organisation, have combined to stimulate South African companies into establishing career support activities that address career development and growth needs of the employees” (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007, p. 7). Career development constitutes the extent of the opportunities the organisation offers, the individual’s willingness to take those opportunities and the support the manager introduces into achieving such development goals. The statement above is supported by Jiang and Klein (2000), who stated that supervisors who keep employees informed about organisational career opportunities and take time to learn about their employees’ career goals can reduce staff turnover and improve performance. Employees who are willing to
develop their careers often rely on their managers to do so, either in the form of applying for a promotion or in moving on.

Career development can take many forms other than moving to the next rank; however, this could include moving within the same level in different fields (Nankivell & Shoolbred, 1997). The literature also indicates that the most important factors causing employees to leave the organisation include a lack of opportunities for development and growth (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee & Graske, 2001).

This shows that a manager leads an employee’s career development and contributes to the intent to stay, irrespective of the individual’s responsibility. The super boss never holds his person down; he/she always encourages them to develop, and he/she is also honest enough to ask questions bluntly of those who have unrealistic career aspirations (Freemantle, 1989).

Branham (2001) stated that the literature has revealed that great-people managers act as catalysts that focus on doing the following activities:

- They select for talent, not just experience, intellect and determination.
- They set expectations and define the right outcome, not the right steps.
- They motivate and focus on strengths, not weaknesses.
- They provide their subordinates with development opportunities and help them find the right fit, not merely providing the next rung on the ladder.

Career development entails an ongoing enhancement of individual skills, which can be seen through progression through various stages of competency that an individual develops (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007). Many (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007; Lockwood, 2007; Tymon, Stumpf & Smith, 2011) support the foregoing statement by stating that the development of employees happens
through work exposure opportunities and allocated mentors for developmental coaching.

Employees should be on-boarded in a manner which maximises future retention, and then throughout their time with the organisation, provision should be made consistently for aspects such as performance management, succession planning, training and development to grow talent for success. The process influences the decision to stay or leave, and it includes undertaking challenging work, being offered good work-based support, and experiencing personal growth (Mitchell et al., 2001).

In addition to the above, many organisations currently offer a wide range of support tools for developing a career, such as:

- Giving employees opportunities to do different tasks, including rotating in various department.
- Partaking in opportunities which involve observing individuals on the job, known as job shadowing.
- Secondments, as part of learning, and venturing into other career avenues need to be explored.
- Having career development discussions as a standard advance on career goals.
- Being appraised to assess performance for potential interventions and growth (Nankivell & Shoolbred, 1997).

As mentioned above, managers help employees recognise multiple options for career steps; they serve as mentors, and this encourages the employees to stay. Employees are investors in their companies and expect a return on their investment; without it, they will leave (Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 2000). The management of identified talent in the workplace by line managers should be approached with sensitivity. Employees should not expect managers to always be the initiators. Blass
(2007) argued that the relationship needs to be a reciprocal one, where both parties benefit from the interaction of discussing work performance. The social exchange theory validates the exchange between employees and managers as mutual.

2.3.3.1 Training and development

Training can be a tool to enhance the skills gaps in the “war for talent” countrywide. By training and developing employees, organisations ensure that they have the required skills to fill critical positions. Furthermore, ensuring that a robust training management tracking system linked to the talent management system is available to manage and track all aspects of several and concurrent leadership development programmes is the only way to ensure a consistent experience, as employees rise through the ranks of the organisation over time (Berger & Berger, 2011). Training that is job-specific is necessary for talent to develop. Training and development have a crucial contribution to the business; they contribute to the necessary competencies and enhance the status of the business (Kalamas & Kalamas, 2004).

In contrast, development has a longer-term focus on educating employees. In addition to training, it enriches employees as individuals in such a way that they can apply the skills and competencies they have gained elsewhere. Coaching and mentoring are also essential parts of development, as young talent needs to be safeguarded to ensure that talent is coaxed towards development and growth (Quatro, Walman & Galvin, 2007). A managerial career can be advanced through offering training opportunities to employees. Such training opportunities will encourage employees to stay within the organisation (Akrivos, Ladkin & Reklitis, 2007).
2.3.3.2 The value of feedback on career decisions

Performance feedback is viewed as vital for employees to make important career decisions (London, 2003). Providing coaching and support involves giving feedback and guidance. Assisting and supporting employees’ work performance entails managers imparting individual, constructive criticism and an understanding meant to steer and encourage progression in the employee’s work performance (Heslin et al., 2006). Feedback to employees should be frequent and objective and based on the employees’ performance. If constructive feedback is not given, motivated performers could lose direction (McCauley & Wakefield, 2006). However, so-called “negative feedback” should also be given in a constructive manner, in such way that it aims at enhancing performance and not at destroying self-esteem.

Feedback provides many positives for employees. London (2003) listed the following as imperatives to feedback:

- Feedback helps employees to receive continual guidance.
- Positive feedback builds employees’ self-esteem and makes employees see themselves as part of the organisation.
- Feedback enhances performance challenges and creates career motivation.
- Managers should learn to give constructive feedback to avoid unnecessary conflicts.

An employee will consider manager support to be in existence if feedback is provided on opportunities for career advancement. Lack of feedback on employee performance and career opportunities can cause employees to feel like their careers have stagnated and decide to leave. In contrast, McCauley and Wakefield (2006) stated that through management development initiatives, managers can learn to identify behaviour, provide constructive feedback and offer guidance on development and goal-setting.
2.4 UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT OF WORK-LIFE BALANCE

The concept of work-life balance has been a matter of importance for those who want to balance their careers, families and also participate in other activities that individuals may aspire to undertaking in fulfilment of their lives (Gregory & Milner, 2009). Conflicting interests in life have brought about a major challenge, called work-life balance, which nowadays is seen as a topic of interest in the workplace. Lockwood (2003) further stated that the issue of work-life balance has been in existence since the 1930s, and Kellogg’s was one of the first companies to explore the concept. It is mentioned that the concept of work-life balance was first developed in the USA and other developed countries (De Cieri, Bardoel & Shea, 2006). One way of selling the idea to organisations is based on employee retention, improving productivity and minimising absenteeism (De Cieri et al., 2006).

According to Guest (2002), work-life balance has different meanings for different people. Guest (2002) asserted that the term “work-life balance” has to be defined in the form of work, which means the paid job, and life, which means the personal activities the individual, is committed to outside work. Furthermore, work-life balance can be divided into sub-components: remunerated tasks, non-remunerated tasks and self-moments (Vlems, 2005). In contrast to the above, Osif (2009) stated that work is more than a paycheque, it is about understanding how the mismatch in the workplace can influence the environment and create a better life and result in having more productive employees.

If organisations realise that people are their greatest assets, they will also commit to peoples’ health and their leading a balanced life in the long-term. Balancing work and personal life is viewed as a state of equilibrium, where individuals strike a balance between work and life (Lockwood, 2003). Many individuals have been struggling to balance work and life; hence, studies were instituted to investigate this
concept and its meaning. Work-life balance has increasingly been an issue of concern with more women entering the workforce, growing numbers of older workers, finding the balance between work and family life, and the competing struggles for talent in the workforce (Vlems, 2005). Work-life balance is applicable across the gender spectrum based on a need for balance in life. Balance is a matter of personal priorities and differs according to the individual.

According to Clawson (2006), when individuals have a purpose, they will be determined to reach a balance. This comes about by achieving a mid-point where individuals feel spiritually, emotionally and socially content about themselves and who they are. The work-life balance should be understood in terms of distinct phases in life, prioritising needs and having a determined “drive”.

The section that follows outlines the definitions of the types of work-life balance, trends and expectations of work-life balance, as well as employees’ and employers’ expectations.

2.4.1 Definition of work-life balance

There are many views of what work-life balance refers to. “For some, the term ‘balance’ suggests that work is not integral to life and implies a simple trade-off between the two spheres” (Gregory & Milner, 2009, p. 1). “It encourages quick-fix solutions that do not address fundamental inequalities, and that therefore shift responsibility for balancing work and home life onto individuals” (Gregory & Milner, 2009, p. 1).

According to Singh and Khanna (2011), work-life balance refers to the aspiration, on the part of both employees and employers, to strike a balance between work and personal commitments. On the other hand, Conrad (1990) defined balancing work
and life as the successful planning and coordination of career, family, recreation, studies, hobbies and other commitments that promote a sense of self-actualisation in one’s life. Perhaps achieving balance starts with balancing the prioritisation of individuals’ needs with those of business and reviewing the prioritised goals based on joint decision-making. Thoughtful determination is the key element in defining the work-life balance (Kinjerski & Skrypnek, 2004).

Work-life balance refers to the opportunity given to individuals regardless of their age or gender to combine work and household responsibilities (Wheatley, 2012). Work-life balance is aimed at affording an inclusive range of choices so that people can have more control and the liberty to choose that which they believe best for themselves, within the limitations of the organisation (Glynn, Steinberg & McCartney, 2002).

### 2.4.2 Types of work-life balance

Downes and Koekemoer (2011) indicated that although work-life practices vary considerably, mostly work-life practices fall into five categories. These categories include flexible work schedules, flexiplace or telecommuting, job sharing, part-time flexiplace and sabbatical or career breaks.

- **Flexible work schedules**: altering the starting of work and the finishing time. According to Downes and Koekemoer (2011), flexitime assists employees to cope with work and family responsibilities.
- **Flexiplace or telecommuting**: this includes working in a convenient place or the nearest office to the employee (rather than distant company offices), or at home.
- **Job sharing**: this involves task sharing between two employees or more.
- **Part-time flexiplace**: this includes working part-time and using a different location than where one is stationed as a convenient place that is closer to home.
The focus has been on implementing flexitime, more than any other type of work-life balance (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).

2.5.3 Theoretical model of work-life balance

According to Jacobs et al. (2008), there are major limitations on the work-life balance models in South Africa; hence, international models’ measuring instruments are applied. South Africa has different and unique dimensions that include a multicultural work environment (Jacobs et al., 2008). South Africa is also known to be lagging behind in terms of the implementation of work-life balance practices (Human Capital Management, 2006).

The model stated that a line manager’s awareness of different policies which are in existence for balancing work and family, and the operational arrangement in the organisation, is an imperative determinant of the intentions and behaviours towards work-life balance policies (McCarthy, Darcy & Grady, 2010). McCarthy et al. (2010) emphasised the significance of the work-life balance in enhancing the performance of employees. Based on the model developed by McCarthy et al. (2010, p. 55), the following propositions are made:

i. “Proposition 1 – Line manager awareness of work-life balance (WLB) policies and programmes will affect their WLB intentions and behaviours.”

ii. “Proposition 2 – Line management WLB intentions and behaviour are affected by their personal experience and utilisation of such programmes.”

iii. “Proposition 3 – Line managers WLB instrumentality (impact) perceptions will affect their WLB intentions and behaviour.”
Prior exposure of line managers to work-life balance influences their approach toward work-life programmes. The experience could either have a positive or negative effect towards implementing such programmes.

The model of work-life balance is outlined in Figure 2. The model gives a structure of work-life balance, which is influenced by a manager’s attitude towards the implementation of work-life balance in the organisation.
Managers are inclined to accede to programmes promoting work-life balance in the event that there is a demand from employees (McCarthy et al., 2010). This model explains the line manager’s attitude towards work-life balance and the intention to support them based on that attitude. The attitude of those managers determines their willingness to implement work-life balance.
2.4.3 Work-life balance trends and expectations

Every job-seeker expects to maintain work-life balance in today’s work environment (Bird, 2006). Life in the 21st century is progressively multifaceted, with people juggling multiple roles; therefore, employees only stay in a job that can offer flexibility (Singh & Khanna, 2011). Wheatley (2012) stated that work-life balance and enhancing flexibility at work have lately been seen as pivotal factors in engagements relating to working conditions.

The aim of flexible work practices is to allow employees to work in a pattern that mutually suits them and the needs of the business. A reconsideration of several work-life balance practices will assist organisations in attracting and keeping both men and women in their workforce (Vlems, 2005). In order to ensure a more balanced lifestyle, managers require flexibility and understanding. It is imperative to remember that if flexible working practices are to be a success, there must be flexibility from the managers and the employees. Employees must understand that business needs may occasionally prevent them from being able to work precisely as they would prefer. McDonald, Pini, and Bradley (2007) affirmed that the organisational environment is created by managers as gatekeepers in giving employees the opportunity to attain or not attain work-life balance. The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) established that above 94% of individuals felt that work-life balance is a drive that creates fulfilment. The literature confirms that even if generational groups differ according to work values, they share common interests when it comes to work-life balance and the relationship with their supervisors (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008).

- Younger workers: this group values work-life balance; they rated work-life balance as the second most important kind of reward they want to receive from the organisation (Aguire, Hewlet & Post, 2009).
Older workers: the literature confirmed that providing flexible work practices provides the organisation with the opportunity to retain older workers for longer and benefits them in terms of transferring knowledge (Vickerstaff, 2006).

Older employees, known as those individuals born between 1946 and 1961 – and including a number of younger workers – have grander prospects and are optimistic about work-life philosophy (Bird, 2006). What matters the most to these employees is being able to strike an equation between work and home life, which can compel them to decide to quit their jobs (Bird, 2006). Adams (2007) also supported the statement by Bird. Adams (2007) stated that manager support is imperatively equal to organisational achievement and individual fulfilment, given that more activities usually done by HR personnel, such as employee selection, assessment, development and retention, are generally placed as priorities of supervisors and line managers.

In the present economic climate, employees of all ages are more empowered to seek work-life balance (McCrindle research, 2007). “A particular demographic challenge comes from Generation Y people – whose outlook has been shaped by, among other things, the internet, information overload, and overzealous parents” (Guthridge, Komm & Lawson, 2008, p. 51). Born and Hern (2009) posited that this generation of young employees is more individualistic and demanding than older employees as they are born with advanced technology around them. Human resource professionals indicate that the ultimatum of these workers is flexibility, having enticing work assignments, being at liberty to decide as professionals, being remunerated highly, and attaining a balance between work and personal commitments (McKinsey & Company, 2000).

The use of organisational work-life programmes has been shown to have a number of substantial and widely-cited benefits both for individuals and on an organisational
level (McDonald et al., 2007). The report of the Department of Trade and Industry (2003) further stated that employers who provide flexible benefits curb their hiring costs; decrease sick absenteeism numbers and provide assurance and confidence to their employees, including putting their employees first in effectively operating within the changing circumstances of the world. Botha, Bussin, and De Swardt (2011) supported the above statement by mentioning that the quest to win the “war of talent” has extended to employer brand issues reckoned to be associated with preservation of talent. This approach has allowed employers to consider what is widely appealing in their experiences of alternative working schedules, and in principle, devise some means to have procedures for dealing with requests at hand.

It is evident that a certain maturity level is needed to implement work-life balance strategies. Managers and employees should have the same understanding of supporting work-life balance positive policies. Senior management should lead by example in order to ensure that work-life balance becomes effective and provides assistance for managers or employees who seek to balance “work and personal life”. To introduce work-life balance policies is not sufficient enough to claim the success of the implementation of the programme. For work-life balance policies to be successfully implemented, buy-in of all the stakeholders within the organisation is required (Drew & Murtagh, 2005).

The trends and expectations as discussed bring to the fore the benefits that work-life balance policies can offer in the work setting. The section below provides insight into practices available for work-life balance.

### 2.4.4 Work-life balance practices

Balancing a corporation’s need for flexibility with employee demands for respect and fair treatment is becoming increasingly difficult, and the effective management of
human resource practices has become critical in addressing these concerns (Downes & Koekemoer, 2011).

Work-life balance practices in the workplace are therefore those practices that intentionally or otherwise increase the flexibility and autonomy of workers in negotiating their time and presence in the workplace. On the other hand, work-life balance policies exist where those practices are intentionally designed and implemented. In a recent survey conducted by Deloitte, it showed that 1,396 out of 2,000 human resource practitioners from over 60 different countries discussed recruiting and found retaining talent to be a serious human resource issue (Hughes & Rog, 2008).

Effective employee retention is critical to the long-term well-being and success of an organisation. It enhances all areas of an organisation’s talent solution through its alignment to the talent management framework, and therefore the business objectives and organisational vision. By prioritising investments in people, retention will improve overall business results in the long-term and help build a clear message internally and externally – that of being a desirable employer.

Policies are critical in implementing such a work-life balance. Below is a discussion of some possible policies.

2.4.5 Work-life balance policies

A work-life balance can offer employees the choice of a variety of scheduling options that differ from regular office hours while still maintaining the same level of output. The arrangements made for work-life balance practices could be full-time or part-time. Such arrangements can be tailored to both the needs of the organisation and the employee. Literature argues that with proper planning, flexibility can benefit both
the employer and the employee (Maxwell, 2005). Maxwell (2005) further postulated that flexitime is a fundamental base of work-life balance.

Work-life balance policies can be used for retention of staff in many ways; this could include the employer supporting the employees, which include but not limited to childbirth, studies, and life events such as divorce, and additionally using these policies as a key recruitment strategy enhancement, and for talent retention. Maxwell (2005) stated that work-life balance policies are created for a purpose, which is to enable a balance of work and life interests of employees. South Africans have not yet reached the concept of having their own work-life balance models (Mageni & Slabbert, 2005). Other countries have already adopted work-life balance policies as far back as two decades ago. While South Africa wanted to follow a similar approach, the policies remain impractical to implement (Mageni & Slabbert, 2005). Mageni and Slabbert (2005) further asserted that South African employers are of the view that involving themselves in employees’ work and family life is not their responsibility. It is even further mentioned that though work-life balance policies are appreciated by many global companies, there is still resistance noted with some employers in the process (Lewis, Gambles & Rapoport, 2007). South Africa also lags behind in implementing work-life balance practices (Human Capital Management, 2006).

Workplace flexibility has caused a huge impact on employees, such that it has become a point of decision for a potential job incumbent determining whether to join an organisation or not (Richman et al., 2008). Richman et al. (2008) further stated that workplace flexibility also contributes to job satisfaction and the company’s retention strategy. To achieve organisational objectives, the attraction, motivation and retention of employees are used as strategic initiatives, as it has been proven that they increase job satisfaction as well as improve efficiency and effectiveness (Richard et al., 2008).
Companies which care about the families of their employees and which have policies to that effect stand a better chance of retaining their employees (Allen, 2001). Employees become committed to their work if they realise that their employers have some regard for their families (Lewis, 1997). This also ensures productivity in that the employees work more efficiently and effectively. Talented people need to work for supreme organisations that enable them to accomplish their personal lifestyle and career goals equally (Kossek & Lee, 2008). Usually, employees whose line managers are more understanding of their work-life balance needs tend to be more satisfied with their jobs, experience a reduced amount of work-personal life conflict, and their intentions to quit will be lower (McCarthy et al., 2010).

Todd (2004) highlighted that work-life balance can be developed as a policy and a practice issue, and it has its standard, as indicated below.

- **Commitment** – employers need to commit the organisation to a systematic approach governed by clear policies of work-life balance.
- **Systems/planning** – business plans, project plans and training plans should have systems in place for work-life balance implementation.
- **Action/implementation** – a clear and organised plan to position work-life balance should exist.
- **Review and assessment** – efficient tools to review and assess the effect that the programme might have on the organisation should be present.

In some instances, flexible work arrangements are informally agreed upon with managers; though policies exist, most employees are unaware of the procedures for their application (Sanichar, 2004).

### 2.4.6 Benefits of work-life balance

Work-life balance is still considered to be a soft human resources matter (Doherty, 2004). In contrast, Downes and Koekemoer (2011) stated that work-life balance is a
strategic business imperative. Corporate cultures that encourage or enforce hours of work, managers who have little interest in employees' well-being and welfare, and high work volumes create a work-life conflict for employees (Todd, 2004). Organisations which implement work-life balance programmes have a better chance of retaining their employees. Best-practice research indicates multiple benefits for implementing work-life balance strategies. Lockwood (2003) and Yasbek (2004) presented the following benefits to a good work-life balance:

- enhanced corporate image
- enhanced productivity
- decreased absenteeism and illness rate
- reduced stress and enhanced job satisfaction
- improved employees' morale and job satisfaction
- improved balance of work and family life
- decreased employee costs and healthcare costs associated with stress
- improved recruitment and increased retention

Downes and Koekemoer (2011) affirmed that a good work-life balance boosts recruitment and retention, curbs absenteeism and also plays a part in enhancing general well-being, including having happier customers, as they are being served by energised employees. One can improve on his/her ability of work-life balance by reviewing priorities in terms of work and personal lifestyle and making a joint decision with the employer based on a plan and reaching commitment to maintain a balance (Kelly & Kalev, 2006). Treating employees as adults who are balancing their commitments with their family or personal relationships shows commitment from employers (Adams, 2007). Various stakeholders have the responsibility to take into account the implementation of a work-life balance.
2.4.7 Roles and responsibilities in work-life balance

According to Singh and Khanna (2011), there are several stakeholders that play a part in the work-life balance; these include the individual, senior managers, line managers, human resource managers and unions. In these collaborative efforts, each stakeholder has a role to play, as stated by Singh and Khanna (2011, p. 117) below.

Employee

- Elects the job relating to his/her fit in the organisation.
- Takes accountability for delivering their own assignments as agreed with their managers.
- Identifies individual needs and potential solutions.

To employees, work-life balance means having a life separate from work and gaining the support to create a balance from managers, colleagues and the organisation (Sanichar, 2004).

HR Manager

- “Cultivates a work-life balance plan that meets the needs of both employees and the organisation”.
- “Makes sure that work-life balance is entrenched in all HR policies”.
- “Assists individual managers to improve work-life balance in the organisation and finds solutions to employees’ work-life balance needs”.
- “Provides training for managers on work-life balance principles and practices” (Sing & Khanna, 2011, p. 117).
Senior Manager

- Creates an environment that will allow employees to access work-life balance benefits. Makes the environment conducive for the implementation of work-life balance.
- Leads by example in ensuring that work-life balance exists.
- Sets work-life balance prospects for managers so that they find elucidations to employees’ work-life balance concerns (Sing & Khanna, 2011).

Sanichar (2004 p. 32) postulated that “work-life balance to an employer means creating a more flexible, supportive work environment, so that employees will be able to focus on their jobs, it means making the organisational culture more supportive by adding programmes to meet the needs of life events, making sure policies give employees as much control as possible over their lives, and using flexible work practices as a strategy to meet the dual agenda of employees’ needs as well as the company’s needs”. Managers may formally or informally implement work-life balance flexible policies and practices, and grow good publicity initially (Kossek & Lee, 2008).

Line Manager

- Advocates for work-life balance activities to happen in the organisation.
- Is exemplary in implementing work-life balance.
- Addresses the issues of work-life balance individually and fairly, and addresses upcoming challenges consultatively (Sing & Khanna, 2011).

The role of a manager is pivotal in work-life balance; for example, managers can make work-life balance possible in the complete absence of organisational policies (Glynn et al., 2002). In highly competitive markets, organisations that need to attract and retain valued employees need to increase their awareness and action with regard to human resource policies and practices that address work-life balance (De
Cieri, Holmes, Abbott & Pettit, 2005). The manager who has good management and people skills is likely to manage work-life balance effectively with his/her subordinates (Glynn et al., 2002).

2.5 TALENT MANAGEMENT AND TALENT RETENTION IN THE WORKPLACE

“The concept of talent management was derived from World War II, however its strategic importance has been realised when McKinsey consultants group claimed the human resource as “war for talent” in the late 1990s.” (Bano, Khan, Rehman & Humayoun, 2011, p. 5). McKinsey and Company (2001) indicated that this “war of talent” was triggered by the recognition that talent deficiency was gradually becoming one of human resource management’s greatest fears. In contrast to the above, Michaels, Handfield-Jones, and Axelrod (2001) stated that talent management started in 1980. Despite the above contradiction, talent management is deemed to be a new concept in human resource management. Armstrong (2006) indicated that there is negligible divergence in the concept of talent management; several approaches enclosed in talent management are attraction, retention, motivation and engagement, development and succession planning. The approaches are packaged collectively to produce a single component that could be a mode to progress and effect synchronised approaches, which can aid the organisation in retaining talented individuals in the organisation.

It is imperative to outline the concepts of talent and talent management before talent retention can be defined. The concepts are defined according to the literature study. There is still a lot of uncertainty about this concept, and this uncertainty is brought about by the fact that the concept is viewed as new in the field of human resource management (Lawler, 2008).
2.5.1 Talent

Companies must nurture talent. This involves what the employees are capable of doing (Lawler, 2008). Lawler (2008) further asserted that employees must be given an opportunity to grow their skills and use their experience, knowledge and intelligence for the benefit of the company. These must not be undermined and, by so doing, employees will remain committed to their work, which will result in employee retention. In addition to the above, there must be a culture of talent-growing for the organisation to keep up with demands of the market (Michaels et al., 2001). Talent management is defined below.

2.5.2 Talent management

The term “talent management” has had conflicting meanings; in fact, these conflicting meanings have led to other terms that were equivalent to it, such as “talent strategy”, “succession management” and “human resource planning” (Michaels et al., 2001). Despite this inauspicious start, distinct strains were uncovered in talent management – the first defines talent management as a “collection of typical human resource practise, functions, activities, or specialised areas such as recruiting, selection, development and career succession management” (Lewis & Heckman, 2006, p. 140). Talent management has been defined as a deliberate and continuous process which envisions ascertaining, evaluating, growing and retaining talent for business opportunities (ADP, 2010).

“Broadly defined, talent management encompasses the instrumentation of unifying strategies or processes in order to enhance the output of a workplace by developing amelioratory systems and processes for attracting, developing, retaining and utilising required skills and abilities of the workforce and their aptitude matched with current and upcoming business needs” (Bano et al., 2011, p. 5). Talent management is
about maximising performance and releasing employees’ abilities in all levels of the organisation despite their job grade (Ashton & Morton, 2005).

Michaels et al. (2001) argued that prestigious talent makes employers more well-known and desired compared to others who do not have robust talent in strategic positions, which results in a vast improvement in performance. This aspect contributes to the retention of talent in the organisation. The talent management process creates strategies that determine how talent can be developed and retained. The focus of the study is on talent retention in relation to “manager support” and “work-life balance”. The definition of talent retention is discussed below.

2.5.3 Talent retention

“The literature pertaining to the retention of employees has over the last years focused on traditional causes such as the lack of job satisfaction and organisational commitment” (Deery, 2008, p. 800). The world of work has evolved and gravitated more towards the human side of the employer-employee relationship. The inclination in organisations to make their employees gratified is evolving, by recognising several additional factors and roles in workers’ existence, other than the hours they spend in the office. It becomes an employer’s battle to attract and retain employees if human activities are comprised, causing job dissatisfaction and the desire to leave the organisation (Deery, 2008). Contemporary organisational systems are progressing towards a more humanistic approach in relating with their employees in order to make them content with their work. Organisations that demonstrate that they understand and care about their employees strive to be the best and improve their retention strategies in this ever-changing world of technological upheaval and adjustment. They constantly thrive for quality customer satisfaction and want to respond as spontaneously as possible to services (Berger & Berger, 2011). As a result, when employees are satisfied with their jobs, fundamental aspects of the organisation are contributed to.
Talent retention refers to an organisation’s ability to curb the attrition rate (McKinsey & Company, 2001). Bernthal and Wellins (2001) cited that the opposite of retention is turnover and both should be understood alike in order to scrutinise retention prospects. Döckel and Coetzee (2006) described retention as an effort by management to minimize an employee’s intentions to leave the organisation.

Talent consists of those individuals who are effective, demonstrate high potential and render short- and long-term assignments to contribute to the success of the organisation (Steward, 2008).

2.6 TALENT RETENTION MODEL

Oehley and Theron (2010) contributed a structural model which confirmed the significant link between the exogenous latent variable, which is the Talent Management mind set, and the endogenous latent variable, which refers to attracting and recruiting talent, upholding relationships, providing stimulating work, compensating fairly, and competently managing work-life balance. Oehley and Theron (2010) further stated that organisations that need to attract and retain talent should have a talent management strategy in place.

The model in Figure 3 is used for talent retention, with the adjustment made to employee retention factors.
The conclusion reached by this model is that managers who have a talent management mind-set are capable managers. These managers are competent at maintaining good relations with their subordinates and know how to hire and retain...
their employees and get the best out of them by providing fulfilling work assignments and enabling them to have a balance in terms of work and life interests. Caring for employees, and considering how they strive at work and then continue to live in their personal lives, will benefit both the employer and the employee, including improving how well they can relate to each other.

2.7 FACTORS OF RETENTION: INTENTION TO STAY OR LEAVE

Employees can leave the organisation for different reasons; it can be due to change in job, deciding to study, retirement, family reasons or a conflicting relationship with the employer (Maertz Jr et al., 2007). Allen (2006) contended that managing voluntary turnover in organisations requires an in-depth understanding of why employees leave or stay with the organisation, and this should be done continuously. A thorough analysis of why people stay or leave is imperative for the organisation. The literature has proven that there are factors that are considered to be retention factors from different organisations. Jiang and Klein (2000, p. 223) stated, “retention is based on the concept of reciprocity; if the environment is made conducive for the employees, they are likely to deliver and stay with the organisation”.

Human Capital Management (2006, p. 14) posited that “many companies readily pay lip-service to the idea that “our people are our greatest asset”. There are significant financial impacts on the organisation in losing any of its critical employees (Ramlall, 2004). However, it has now become critical that employers really begin to value their most talented people highly enough to ensure that they keep them.

Even when unemployment is on the rise, organisations are mainly concerned about retaining their best employees (Ramlall, 2004). Attracting and retaining employees that are highly knowledgeable in a labour market that has skills and talent shortages has become important (Human Capital Management, 2006). In the world of work, in which work has moved to technologically sophisticated systems, the nature of work
has been redefined. These sophisticated systems require more knowledgeable people (Horwitz, Heng & Quazi, 2003).

“A study by Women in Cable and Telecommunications Foundation found that companies which invested heavily in work-life balance had much higher retention and lower turnover than the norm” (Clutterbuck, 2003, p. 25). In contrast, Deery (2008) stated that strategies to lessen work and life tensions have been introduced into a number of organisations, but increased efforts in managing these initiatives to ensure an efficient balance is still required.

Cascio and Aguinis (2005) stated that people leave organisations for different reasons. Some of the reasons could be voluntary or involuntary, but organisational processes relevant to involuntary termination are communication, participation, control, planning and support. Singh and Khanna (2011) stated that employee retention is about taking actions to encourage employees to be with the organisation for the maximum possible period. Singh and Khanna (2011) posited that in reality, research has proven that there is no dearth of opportunities for such talented people – many organisations are looking for such employees. Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2000) stated that managers have a critical role in retention strategies; they do that well by customising their retention remedies to each employee. All they need do is to ask “what will keep you in this organisation”. Such managers keep arm in arm with employees and constantly support their growth and development in order to enhance retention.

Retention of employees has been the subject of research since the 1950s, with March and Simon’s 1958 theory of organisational equilibrium, which suggested that employees stay in organisations that balance incentives with an environment that ensures employees can grow and contribute positively (Maertz Jr et al., 2007). Dockel, Basson, and Coetzee (2006) affirmed that a balance between pay, development, growth, and relationship with superiors remain the cornerstone of any retention strategy and that no single factor is responsible for retention of staff. In
addition to the foregoing, PwC Saratoga report (2012) includes four employee value propositions to be considered indispensable in determining whether the employee will stay or leave the organisation.

Employee value propositions could include:

- employee compensation, as part of remuneration and benefits (for example, pay and benefits);
- career advancement in the form of training;
- the environment at work; and
- work-life balance – considering options of flexibilities to accommodate work and an individual’s personal life.

Glen (2006) and Vermeulen (2008) suggested that to attract skills in the era of shortage, the following should be enhanced:

- how employees are remunerated
- fulfilling jobs
- workplace relationships are paramount to ensure harmonious relations
- provide adequate prospects for training and individual growth
- individualised career plans
- offer options to work in a way that will fit into business needs and also provide time to personal responsibilities
- culture fit

In addition to the above, Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2000) stated that common attributes which make employees want to stay with a company include the following:

- allow people to grow and enhance their talent
• offer challenging projects
• give tasks that will stimulate employees’ thinking and contribution
• work with great people and be part of the team
• give recognition for work done
• offer options for work schedules in the form of flexible work practices
• give reasonable remuneration and benefits

Every company needs to comprehend why its high performers are leaving; the common practice of tracking involuntary against voluntary attrition is not good enough (Chambers, Foulon, Handfield-Jones, Hankin & Michaels, 2007). It is assumed that high performers are the ones who are mostly leaving the organisation for better opportunities elsewhere. McKinsey and Company (2000) affirmed that creating a strong employee value proposition as an organisation could help retain valued employees; arguments from different authors on what can motivate employees to stay or leave organisations have similarities. It has become vital for organisations to retain their talented employees (Singh & Khanna, 2011). In contrast with the above, Bano et al. (2011) concluded that even if employers could prefer to retain their crucial employees, there are those employees who will still part ways with the organisation. Braham (2001) stated that how managers behave towards their subordinates has a considerable impact on retention of employees. Braham (2001) further asserted that having a manager with non-managerial skills makes one intuitively understand the negative impact that managers can have on employees’ morale and productivity. Taylor (2010) stated that there are certain factors that are articulated by people who decide to leave the company due to concerns about their line managers.

Taylor (2010, p. 358) stated that such risk factors include the following:

• Supervisors who fail to attend to critical issues of employees and prefer to ignore such issues.
• Supervisors who act autocratically to their subordinates; they always impose on issues and fail to engage with their subordinates.

• Supervisors, who abuse their positions, threaten employees and treat them in a rude manner, making sarcastic remarks without even apologising.

• Supervisors who show undue favouritism to some staff.

• Supervisors who fail to appreciate their subordinates’ efforts; this can result in employees deciding to leave and is a common factor in many organisations.

• Supervisors who are very self-centred; a common situation in which career-minded supervisors give an appearance of running their domain in their own interest rather than for the good of their teams or even of customers.

Managing or supervising is like parenting and is not something that comes naturally to everyone (Taylor, 2010).

Both factors, as stated by different authors, are acknowledged in terms of intention to leave or stay in the organisation, which is known as talent retention. The researcher agrees that the mentioned factors could pull or push people to stay with the organisation, and some may decide to leave even if the mentioned factors are enhanced. On the other hand, the researcher is of the opinion that something needs to be done to keep the valued employees – it can be a considerable number that leave, and if nothing is done the impact can be significant.

2.9 THEORETICAL RELATIONSHIP OF MANAGER SUPPORT, WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND TALENT RETENTION

The retention prospects of employees in South African utility organisation, in terms of work-life balance and manager support, will follow the process of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs provides managers and leaders with
insight into what motivates employees at the workplace, as employees are individuals with needs to be met (Ramlall, 2004). As already alluded to, Maslow’s theory is based on five basic needs, which are physiological, safety, love, esteem and self-actualisation. Prior research found that the need for affiliation is a fundamental human motivator (Lee, 2003). Lee (2003) further stated that there are different levels of affiliation; this study focuses on social affiliation, which concerns the relationship between social support and intention to leave. The examples listed in Table 3 as stated by Ramlall (2004) are adapted from Champagne and McAfee.

Table 3: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Need</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Physiological | Food facilities such as a canteen or food stalls that provide food at a cost for employees  
                  | Water fountains                                                           |
| Safety    | Monetary benefits: constant income earnings                                
<pre><code>              | Retirement benefits                                                       |
              | Providing and subsiding medical aid benefits and having other health insurances benefits to the effect of ensuring employees’ safety |
              | “Psychological”: Direct employees on what is expected of them, in the form of creating clear job descriptions |
              | Circumvent radical changes                                                 |
              | Providing wellness interventions and address work challenges for employees |
              | “Physical”: The working environment                                        |
              | Afford breaks within periods of work                                        |
              | Have facilities that cater for appropriate ventilation and warn of health hazards |
              | Ensure that noise levels are kept at a minimum to reduce issues of induced hearing losses amongst the employees |
</code></pre>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Need</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>Foster social interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foster team work and good interpersonal relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encourage outside work social clubs, such as Friday drinks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have periodic monetary and non-monetary rewards for employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Take the contributions of employees into consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esteem</td>
<td>Craft and give challenging assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have a practice of giving praises and reward performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Share responsibilities and tasks amongst employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide development opportunities such as training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ensure involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-actualisation</td>
<td>Tailor training needs to individual development plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create challenging work assignments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Promote innovative ideas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By virtue of the manager’s role, the implementation of work-life balance lies in their hands. Managers are in a position to actively encourage or discourage employees to maintain a balance between work and non-work responsibilities (McDonald et al., 2007). Line managers are influential in creating an employer brand (Stewart, 2008). Stewart (2008) further pointed out that attracting and retaining talent requires a positive employer brand which is associated with being a desirable place to work; however, what is common in affecting an individual’s experience of work and employment is the kind of relationship employees enjoy with their line manager and direct work colleagues. Managers are perfectly positioned to communicate the direction of the organisation to employees and to convey the career interest of employees to the larger organisation (Farren & Kaye, 1998). Farren and Kaye (1998) postulated that managers who have close relationships with employees allow employment in the wider organisation to happen. This includes characteristics of managerial support that affect career progress (Farren & Kaye, 1998). Berliner
(1979) stated that to move relationships to a personal basis, employees expected the following from their bosses:

- back the decisions they make
- tell employees what is expected of them in their work
- be interested in their employees as people, making them feel they belong
- provide good leadership and guidance
- give constructive criticism of them
- pass along the information both up and down

Krishnan and Sethuramasibbiah (2011) stated that managers shape employees’ engagement by increasing employees’ discretionary exertion and intention to stay. In this perspective, it is vital that good managers should

- intensify the good, and sieve the bad;
- attach the employees to organisational success;
- infuse a performance culture;
- ensure each employee connects with talented co-workers;
- exhibit a credible commitment to each employee’s development;
- give fair feedback on performance inputs and outputs;
- emphasise employee strengths in performance reviews and acknowledge improvement areas;
- make expectations accurate and known;
- leverage employee fit; and
- ensure that guidance is given in resolving day-to-day challenges.
2.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided insight into the currently available literature regarding manager support, work-life balance and talent retention. The concept of “manager support” primarily stressed the importance of good working relations between managers and employees, and also how such relations benefit the organisation and its individuals in terms of retention. In the context of human resource practices, work-life balance – working relations between managers and employees – have an impact on how effectively talent can be retained. However, the management of talent in organisations is not a matter of choice, but rather a necessity for organisations to not only survive, but to thrive in the modern business world, which has become the fuel for “the war for talent”.

The next chapter will consider the research design and methodology employed in this study.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

3 INTRODUCTION

The research is guided by the methodology or the paradigm chosen for the study. Creswell (2009) states that a methodology is a research plan which determines the outcome of research based on choice – it can either be experimental research, survey research, ethnography or other type of design.

The previous chapter outlined literature related to manager support, work-life balance and talent retention. This chapter focuses on the research approach used in the study. The purpose of this chapter was to outline the research design, paradigm, procedure, sample, data gathering and data analysis techniques and procedures. The chapter ends by explaining ethical procedures followed in the study.

3.1 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

According to Creswell (2009), hypotheses are predictions that the researcher holds about the relationships amongst variables and are typically used in experiments where researchers compare groups. Both research questions and hypotheses provide the researcher with the kind of data that must be collected, and hypotheses are crucial for experimental research use (Leedy & Ormrod, 2011).

The research objectives were created and based on those relevant hypotheses that were formulated and tested. The following 3 hypotheses were formulated to address the objectives of the study:
Hypothesis 1
There is a positive relationship between work-life balance and manager support amongst employees of the South African Utility Organisation.

Hypothesis 2
There is a negative relationship between work-life balance and intention to quit.

Hypothesis 3
There is a negative relationship between manager support and intention to quit.

The hypotheses created guide the paradigm chosen in this study.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The research models distinguish designs as qualitative, quantitative or a mixed method (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). “The paradigm influences the way knowledge is studied and interpreted; it is the choice of paradigm that sets down the intent, motivation and expectation for the research” (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006, p. 1). “The term ‘paradigm’ is defined as a loose collection of logically related assumptions concepts, or proposition that orients thinking and research” (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998, p. 22). It contains basic suppositions, the significant questions to be solved, problems to be answered, research procedures defined, and illustrations of a good research methodology (Neuman, 2011).

The research approach in this study will follow the positivism approach. Positivist aims to test a theory or describe an experience through observation and
measurement in order to predict and control forces that surround people (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Positivism scientists prefer explicit quantitative data and the use of experiments, surveys and statistics (Neuman, 2011).

Quantitative research is based on positivist thinking, which adopts that there are social facts with an objective veracity apart from the philosophies of an individualist (Neuman, 2011). “Positivist approach involves the manipulation of theoretical proposition using the rules of formal logic and the rules of hypothetic-deductive logic so that the theoretical propositions satisfy the requirements of falsifiability” (Lee, 1991, p. 343). In addition to the above, Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) state that though a positivist approach is predominantly used in quantitative approach, it can also be used in qualitative research. “Positivist social research is an organised method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observation of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity” (Neuman, 2011, p. 95).

Positivists approach used the following data tools, which are experiments, quasi-experiments, test and scale (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). The positivist approach was used due to the fact that the study adopted a quantitative approach to data collection and the use of statistical analyses.

3.3 DESCRIPTION OF INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN

“Strategies of inquiry are types of qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods, or models that provide specific direction for procedures in research design” (Creswell, 2009, p. 11). Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) delineate research design as a way of directing academics to amass, analyse and construe the research pragmatic point. A research design is an adequate measurement to examine a particular hypothesis under certain circumstances (Creswell, 2009).
The type of research strategy chosen regulates the research design. The quantitative research approach is the most appropriate method for this study. The basic aim of quantitative research is to describe and explain an object, phenomena or situation and to generalise findings from a sample to the rest of the population (Terre Blanche et al., 2008). According to Mouton and Marais (as cited in De Vos, 1995, p. 59), “a quantitative approach is an approach used in the social sciences and highly formalised, more explicitly controlled in terms of the methods, is relatively close to the physical sciences.” According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), quantitative research has strengths that must be acknowledged; these are testing hypotheses that are constructed before the data is collected; the findings can be generalised; providing accurate numerical data; the research findings are relatively independent of the researcher; and in addition, its weaknesses are that the researcher’s theories that are used may not reflect local constituencies or understanding.

The non-experimental design quantitative research is a suitable type to distinguish this study. Based on the above, the study suits the non-experimental research design because a survey questionnaire is used and it is quantitative in nature. Scientists use the non-experimental design to classify current aspects and the associations amongst constructs (De Vos, 1998). In this study, the relationships amongst these 3 constructs were investigated (manager support, work-life balance and talent retention).

The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is a relationship between these variables (“manager support”, “work-life balance” and “talent retention”) through correlation. To establish the relationship, data collected was correlated with regard to these variables through utilising the SPPS statistical programme. A correlation study focuses on the degree to which differences in one variable are associated to differences in one or more variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2011). Furthermore, correlational design falls under the designs known as non-experimental
research designs. According to Terre Blanche et al. (2008), the key aim in correlational research is to investigate relations between variables if the independent variable (predictor) has a correlation to the dependent variable (outcome). The regression analysis was also done. There are two types of regression: simple regression and multiple regression analysis. In this study, the multiple regression analysis was done. Multiple regression refers to an extension of simple regression whereby the effect of correlations is predicated by two or more variables (Field, 2009).

3.4 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHODS

3.4.1 Target population

Target population is explained as the total number of people or objects to which the researcher will generalise the deduction (Hill et al., 2005). For this study, the target population consists of all Human Resources Department employees in the utility (Gauteng region and strategic services function). The population includes all the Human Resources Department practitioners in the different human resource management functionaries (such as talent and skills, employee relations, wellness, organisational effectiveness, remuneration and benefits, training, human resource management business partners, learning and development) and administrators in this area. Managers and employees in supervisory roles were excluded.

All the employees in this study are from the following task grades: T6-T08 – classified as administration staff; T09-T13 – this level includes assistant officers and officers; P11-P13 – this level is classified as professional staff identified as officers and advisors; P14-P16 – classified as professionals that are on the level of senior advisors; S14-S16 – classified as specialists in the level of senior advisors; G14-G16 – specified as generalists in the level of senior advisors; S17-S18 – classified as a
specialist in the level of chief advisor; and P17-P18 – classified as professionals in the level of chief advisors.

3.4.2 Unit of Analysis

According to Maree (2007), the component upon which measurements are made are called unit of analysis. In every quantitative research done, data has to be collected from sampling units; this can refer to businesses, households and/or people. For the purpose of this research project, people were used as “unit of analysis” (Maree, 2007). The “unit of analysis” for this study is an employee in the utility organisation’s Human Resources Department (in the Gauteng region and strategic services function) and not in a managerial or supervisory role.

3.4.3 Sampling method

Sampling is the act of drawing a sample from a population. According to Maree (2007), there are two main methods of sampling – these are known as probability and non-probability sampling. Maree (2007) further asserts that probability sampling is characterised by randomisation and non-probability is not. There are four types of non-probability sampling techniques; these are snow ball, convenience sampling, quota sampling and purposive sampling. A purposive sampling is used in this study. The sample will include employees, which include human resource officers, human resource management senior advisors, chief advisors and human resource practitioners in all functionaries of human resource management, including administrators in this area.

The purposive sampling method was chosen based entirely on the judgement of the researcher. Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) state that purposive or judgemental sampling uses targeted cases that will support the research questions
and address the research objectives. In addition, Maree (2007) states that this method of sampling is used where the sampling is done with a specific purpose in mind. The purpose of this study was to obtain the views of only human resource practitioners in different functionaries, and this was based on the fact that human resource practitioners are taking care of people issues, which is called human resource practices and include some of the relations between the managers and the employees, work-life balance practices and talent retention processes. Based on this, the intent was to see how human resource practitioners in different functionaries perceive their manager’s support and work-life balance.

### 3.4.4 Sample size

The initial targeted sample for this study was 250 employees, but as a result of an organisational restructuring process, the sample size changed to 172 employees. The sample included grade T6 employees to P18 employees. The participants were HR practitioners and administrators who are not managing any employees. The sample was distributed as follows.

Table 4: Age Distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>19 - 25</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26 - 35</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36 - 45</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46 - 55</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>56 - 65</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 indicates that employees were evenly spread between and across age categories, with 28% being 26-35 years old; 32% was 36-45 years old; and 21% was 46-55 years old. Of the total sample, only 5% was 19-25 years old, and 13% was 56-65 years old. This represents the working class category.

Table 5: Gender Distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>75.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>96.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 represents the sample’s gender distribution. It is evident that the majority of the respondents were female (73%). Males comprised 23% of the sample.

Table 6: Marital status of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unmarried</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>98.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 indicates that respondents were evenly divided between the categories of married and unmarried; a total of 51% was reported as being married.
Table 7: Race distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>79.7</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>80.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>93.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian or Asian</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 indicates that 80% of the respondents were African; 13% were white, and the rest were either coloured or Indian. The above reflects the demographics of the South African population, with Africans being more in terms of the population, followed by whites, and then coloureds and Indians being the minority.
Table 8: Qualifications category of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Honours</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>170</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>172</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 indicates that almost all of the respondents had tertiary education; 33% reported having completed a degree; and 22% had completed a diploma. On the other hand, 18% had honours and 9% had a master’s degree, while only 6% of the sample had no tertiary education, having only completed matric.
Table 9: Levels of jobs according to task grade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task grade</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T6 - T8</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>18.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P11 - P13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P14 - P18</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T9 - T13</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>85.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S14 - S16</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>87.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G14 - G16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>97.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S17 - S18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>98.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P17 - 18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 indicates that most of the respondents fell within task grades T09-T13, with 32%; P14 and P16, with 27%; and T6-T8, with 18%; and the other task grades are represented at the lowest percentage, which is between 10% and less.
Table 10: Number of years in the company

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years in company</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Valid Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Less than 6 months</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 months - 2 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 - 5 years</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 - 10 years</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 - 20 years</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21 - 30 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31 - 40 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>172</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 indicates that most of the employees who answered the questionnaire have been working at the utility company for 3-20 years. Only 8% of the employees had worked there for two years or less and 15% had worked there for more than 21 years.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION

Data in quantitative research is expressed in terms of numbers. The data used for the purpose of this study was mostly the primary data and the questionnaire distributed to the respondents.
3.5.1 Measuring instruments

A questionnaire was used in this study. An investigation was launched to determine whether there were any existing questionnaires to be utilised for the purposes of this research. To this end, the following questionnaires that measured the human resource management constructs at hand were detected, namely manager support, work-life balance and talent retention. These questionnaires were collated into one comprehensive questionnaire in order to measure these constructs. Therefore, participants were only requested to complete one questionnaire that consists of human resource management sections, measuring the human resource management constructs.

3.5.2 Pretesting of the instrument

A pilot test was done to determine if the respondents will be able to understand the questionnaire and answer it in a similar manner. To determine these, five employees were chosen from Human Resource Management Department to participate in the pilot study. All the questionnaires were returned, and it was proven that employees did not have any challenges in understanding the items within the questionnaire. The pilot aimed at detecting deficiencies on the tool and addressing them accordingly for the intended study (De Vos, 1998).

3.5.3 The questionnaire

The questionnaire used consisted of four sections: section A was the biographical section; section B related to manager support; section C focused on work-life balance questions; and section D focused on the intention to quit items.
3.5.3.1 Section A: The biographical information

Based on the study, the following biographical information was requested:

- Age (18 or Younger, 19-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55, 56-65, 66-75, 76 and older)
- Gender (Male or Female)
- Marital Status (Married or Unmarried)
- Race (African, Coloured, White, Indian or Asian)
- Highest qualification (Matric, Certificate, Diploma, Degree, Honours, Masters, Doctorate or Other Specify)
- Task grade (T6-T08, T09-T13, P11-P13, P14-P16, S14-S16, G14-G16, S17-S18 or P17-P18)
- Number of years in the company (Less than 6 months, 6 months to 2 years, 3-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-20 years, 21-30 years, 31-40 years, 41 years and more)
- Position in the Company

3.5.3.2 Section B: “Work-life balance” items

The “work-life balance” items were developed by Fathaniy (2011). The section consists of four items measuring the construct work-life balance. For this study, adjustments were made by including an additional six items. These additional six items were drawn from the article by Casper and Buffard (2004) as well as Ryan and Kossek (2008), which indicated typical work-life balance practices that organisations can offer to employees. The rationale behind adding these six items in this study was an attempt to obtain a comprehensive view of work-life balance practices offered by organisations. Overall, the ten items of the “work-life balance”
questionnaire were measured on a Likert-type scale with one indicating strongly disagree and five indicating strongly agree.

a. Rationale
The work-life balance section was compiled to measure employees’ perceptions of work-life balance in the utility company.

b. Administration of the Instrument
The work-life balance section was a self-report measure. For this study, it was given to the participating employees of the utility organisation to obtain an indication of their perceptions of “work-life balance”.

c. Scoring and Interpretation
A score of below 3 represents the negative perceptions of work-life balance, and a score above 3 indicates positive perceptions of work-life balance, while a score of 3 indicates that the respondent was unsure whether the statement was true or not.

d. Reliability of the questionnaire
A reliability analysis was performed on the work-life balance questionnaire. The Cronbach’s alpha is presented in Table 11 and reflects .884. According to Vale, Silcock, and Rawles (1997, p. 572), “for comparing groups, a Cronbach alpha of 0.7 to 0.8 is regarded as satisfactory, and for clinical application, much higher values are needed”. Gliem and Gliem (2003, p. 87) stated that, “Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1; however, it is actually no lower limit to the coefficient, the closer Cronbach’s alpha coefficients to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of items in the scale”. George and Mallery (2003) provide the following rules about the “Cronbach alpha”: above 9 is Excellent; above 8 is Good; above 7 is Acceptable; and above 6 to 5 is Poor and Unacceptable. Gliem and Gliem (2003, p. 87) asserted that, “it should also be noted that while a high value of Cronbach’s
alpha indicates good internal consistency, it does not mean that the scale is undimensional”. This Cronbach alpha is consistent with the previous finding by Fathaniy (2011), who found a Cronbach alpha of 0.728 using only four items.

Table 11: The work-life balance Cronbach’s alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work-life Balance</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.884</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5.3.3 Section C: Manager Support

The manager support questionnaire was developed by Connolly and Connolly (2005). The same questionnaire with adjustments was used by Tanton (2007). Manager support was measured against a 31-item analysis on the 5-point Likert scale.

a. Rationale

The manager support questionnaire was developed to measure the employee’s perception on the support they receive from their managers on the Likert scale of 1-5.

b. Administration of the questionnaire

The manager support questionnaire is a self-report measure. For this study, it was given to the participating employees of the utility organisation to obtain an indication of their perceptions of manager support as part of the larger questionnaire compiled.

c. Scoring and interpretation

A score below 3 represents the negative perceptions of manager support, and a score above 3 indicates positive perceptions of manager support, while a score of 3 indicates that the respondent was unsure whether the statement was true or not.
d. Reliability

Reliability refers to whether the tool can be construed consistently across different circumstances (Field, 2009). A reliability analysis was performed on the manager support questionnaire. The Cronbach’s alpha is presented in Table 12 and reflects .98. The Cronbach’s alpha was not calculated in the previous study.

Table 12: The manager support Cronbach’s alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manager Support</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5.3.4 Section D: Intention to Quit

The intention quit scale is measured against 14 items, and one was eliminated due to technical construction of the question. To measure talent retention, a turnover intention questionnaire was used. The turnover intention questionnaire is adapted from Roodt (2005). The questionnaire was also used in studies by Martin and Roodt (2008).

a. Rationale

The questionnaire was developed to measure an employee’s turnover intention.

b. Administration of the questionnaire

The manager support questionnaire is a self-report measure. For this study, it was given to the participating employees of the utility organisation to obtain an indication of their perceptions of manager support.
c. Scoring and Interpretation

A score below 3 represents low intentions to quit, and a score above 3 indicates high intentions to quit, while a score of 3 indicates that the respondent was unsure whether the statement was true or not.

d. Reliability of the questionnaire

Reliability refers to whether the instrument can be interpreted consistently across different situations (Field, 2009, p. 14). A reliability analysis was carried out on the intention to quit scale. The Cronbach’s alpha is presented in Table 13 and reflects .88. According to Vale et al. (1997, p. 572), for comparing groups, “a Cronbach alpha of 0.7 to 0.8 is regarded as satisfactory, and for clinical application, much higher values are needed”. On the other hand, according to Martin (2007, p. 99), the reliability of this questionnaire is relatively unknown. Martin (2007) further asserts that Jacobs (2005) reported a 0.913 “Cronbach’s alpha coefficient” in this type of questionnaire. The study of Martin (2007) reported a 0.895 Cronbach’s alpha on the 13-item analysis; this is inconsistent with this research, with a Cronbach’s alpha of .88.
Table 13: The intention to quit Cronbach’s alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Quit</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

A letter of request was written to the General Manager: Human Resource Management within the utility organisation, followed by a personal appointment. The General Manager within Human Resource Management was provided with an outline of the study and its benefit to the organisation. The support of the study by the General Manager: Human Resource Management was granted and supported.

These procedures formed part of the research:

- The questionnaire was used to collect data and it was distributed both in the form of a hardcopy and an electronic copy. The questionnaire included a consent form in order for participants to consent to participate in the study. This form is included as Appendix B in this material.

- Participation was voluntary.

- The Human Resource Shared Services Department provided a list of employees in the Human Resources Department.

- The respondent completed the electronic questionnaire that was sent and returned by email, and the paper-based questionnaire was handed back to the researcher.

- It was distributed to 412 employees, and 172 employees responded.

- The questionnaires completed were anonymous in order to maintain confidentiality.
3.7 STATISTICAL DATA ANALYSIS

Various statistical procedures outlined in this study are discussed below. The procedures were selected to suit the study in question. The explanation of the statistical data was subjected to the points that are discussed below.

a. Descriptives

The following descriptive statistics were considered to investigate the normality of the 3 variables – Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis for each questionnaire. According to Field (2009, p. 788), “Kolmogorov-Smirnov test whether a distribution of scores are significantly different from the normal distribution, a significant value indicates a deviation from normality”.

b. Correlations

To address the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable, a correlation analysis was done. Because two variables exhibited non-normality and the data is at an ordinal level, the non-parametric alternative for correlation was chosen: Spearman’s rho. “Spearman’s coefficient correlation is a standardised measure of the strength of relationship between two variables that does not rely on the assumptions of the parametric test” (Field, 2009, p. 794).

Spearman’s rho was computed to assess the relationships between

- work-life balance and manager support;
- work-life balance and intention to quit; and
- manager support and intention to quit.
3.8 RESEARCH ETHICS

Ethical acceptability is a primary issue in any research study that involves disclosure of information of a client system. Ethics are taken into consideration in this research project. It was imperative that participants do not feel violated by participating in this study. To this end, ethical considerations were taken into account for the purpose of this research project.

Ethics refer to the “appropriateness of your behaviour in relation to the rights of those, who become the subject of your work or affected by it” (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 184).

Key ethical issues are considered through the various phases of research, which are discussed below.

3.8.1 Privacy of possible and actual participants

The researchers ensured that the privacy of those participating was not violated. The respondents participated voluntarily in the study and had the right to withdraw from the process. The respondents were informed of their rights to participate or not to participate in the study.

3.8.2 Consent and possible deception of participants

A consent form was signed to ensure that the respondents agreed to participate in the study. There were no incentives for the participants to participate in the study; all participants completed the questionnaire voluntarily.
3.8.3 Maintenance of confidentiality and anonymity of data provided by participants

All information collected was treated with confidential. Employees were not forced to disclose their names in the research questionnaire. It was crucial that the researcher remained as objective as possible to avoid having an influence on the research process (Terre Blanche et al., 2008).

3.8.4 Plagiarism

All sources quoted in the study were mentioned accordingly in order to avoid plagiarism issues, and where a direct quote was made, it was quoted as such.

3.8.5 Falsifying data

No data was falsified or fabricated to suit the study. Research should circumvent and minimise harms and wrongs (Saunders et al., 2009.) Participants were asked to sign a consent form, which included the purpose of the study, their role in the study, their right to withdraw from the study as well as a confidentiality clause.

3.9 CONCLUSION

The chapter outlined the detailed research approach used in the study. The data was interpreted and analysed using the SPSS programme. The sampling strategy was provided, followed by explaining and detailing of the research instrument, research procedure, statistical analysis and research ethics.

The subsequent chapter will address in detail the results, analyses, and interpretation of the study.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter outlined the methodological approach and the process used in the study. This chapter focuses on describing and interpreting the results obtained from the statistical procedures explained in Chapter 3. The chapter will address descriptive statistics and discuss the results concerning the correlations between the constructs and regression analysis. The main research objective of the study was to determine the relationships among manager support, work-life balance and talent retention (measured with the intention to quit scale) within the utility organisation.

The research hypotheses discussed next were formulated.

Hypothesis 1
There is a positive relationship between work-life balance and manager support amongst employees of the South African Utility Organisation.

Hypothesis 2
There is a negative relationship between work-life balance and intention to quit.

Hypothesis 3
There is a negative relationship between manager support and intention to quit.
4.1 DEMOGRAPHICS

The demographics were discussed in the previous chapter. The study involved males and females of different races, qualifications and different task grades. The study consisted of 172 employees, 28% of these being 26-35 years old; 32% were 36-45 years old; and 21% were 46-55 years old. Of the total sample, only 5% were 19-25 years old, and 13% were 56-65 years old. The participants fall within task grade T09-T13 at 32%; P14 and P16 at 27%, and T6-T8 at 18%, and the other task grades are represented at the lowest percentage, which is between 10% and less.

Out of the 172 participants, 80% of them were African; 13% were white, and the rest were either coloured or Indian. The majority of the respondents (73%) were female. Males comprised 23% of the sample, and this was evenly divided between the categories of married and unmarried, a total of 51% reported as being married.

From the 172 participants, almost all of them had a tertiary education; 33% reported having completed an undergraduate degree; 22% had completed a diploma; 18% had an honours degree; 9% had a master's degree; and 6% of the sample had no tertiary education, having only completed matric. Most of the participants have been working at the utility company for 3-20 years. Only 8% had worked there for two years or less, and 15% had worked there for more than 21 years.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics refers to “the branch of statistics in which the emphasis is on summarisation and description of data that have been collected” (Weiers. 2008, p. 4). The descriptive for this study includes the population description. The data analysis begins with the normality testing, kurtosis, skewness, mean, and standard variance of the sample.
4.2.1 Normality Statistics

The data for this research did not meet all the assumptions for parametric statistics. The assumptions of a normal distribution of data were also not met; hence, non-parametric statistics tests were used in this research, in addition to parametric tests.

The following descriptive statistics were conducted to investigate the normality of the 3 variables: work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit. Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov means, standard deviations, and skewness and kurtosis for each questionnaire were used. According to Field (2009, p. 788), “Kolmogorov-Smirnov is a test whether a distribution of scores is significantly different from the normal distribution, a significant value indicates a deviation from normality”. “Shapiro-Wilk test is a test of whether a distribution of scores is significantly different from normal distribution; a significant value indicated deviation from normality” (Field, 2009, p. 793).

To further investigate the normality of the data, the Shapiro Wilkins and Kolmogorov-Simon were conducted. It was found that manager support and intention to quit had non-normal distributions, except for work-life balance.
Table 14: Normality testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>“Kolmogorov-Smirnov”</th>
<th>“Shapiro-Wilk”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work-life balance Ave. Score</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager Support Ave. Score</td>
<td>.076</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Quit Ave. Score</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 14 indicates that manager support and intention to quit had non-normal distributions; only work-life balance exhibited normal distribution, hence the decision to use the non-parametric test. It should be noted that the test for normality is highly sensitive to small deviations from normality (Field, 2009).

4.3 DESCRIPTIVES FOR WORK-LIFE BALANCE, MANAGER SUPPORT AND INTENTION TO QUIT

Table 15: The kurtosis, skewness, means and standard variance of the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N=172 Work-life Balance Ave. Score</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.202</td>
<td>0.736</td>
<td>-0.121</td>
<td>-0.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.270</td>
<td>0.964</td>
<td>-0.451</td>
<td>-0.489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Quit Ave. Score</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>2.915</td>
<td>0.921</td>
<td>0.038</td>
<td>-0.862</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 15 shows that the participants scored an average of $M = 3.20$ ($SD = 0.74$) on the “work-life balance questionnaire”.

In terms of manager support perceptions, the participants' mean score was $M = 3.27$ ($SD = 0.96$). On the measure of the intention to quit, the participants' mean score was $M = 2.91$ ($SD = 0.92$).

In summary, the results in Table 15 indicate that respondents' perceptions of work-life balance and manager support, and their intentions to quit are rather inconclusive.

4.4 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

Non-parametric tests were conducted because the data could not meet the requirements of the parametric test. Non-parametric tests are sometimes called free assumptions tests because they make fewer assumptions (Field, 2009). To identify the differences between demographic variables and the manager and work-life balance, the independent samples test, Mann-Whitney test and Kruskal-Wallis test were used. “The Mann-Whitney test” (the non-parametric test is equivalent to $t$-test) (Field, 2009) is the test that looks for the difference between two independent samples. Kruskal-Wallis test is also recommended if the data does not meet the assumption of normality (Field, 2009). Kruskal-Wallis test (non-parametric equivalent to Anova) is a test of whether more than two independent groups differ (Field, 2009).
4.4.1 Dimension 1 Gender: The Mann-Whitney test

Table 16: Test Statistics Mann-Whitney test gender vs. Work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Significance</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Average Scores are the same across categories of Gender</td>
<td>Independent – Samples Median test</td>
<td>.279</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The medians of Manager Support Average Score are the same across categories</td>
<td>Independent – Samples Median test</td>
<td>.204</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The medians of Intention to Quit Average Score are the same across categories of Gender</td>
<td>.721</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The significance level is .05

Table 16 indicates that there were no gender differences in terms of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit. This is supported by the findings of Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, and Weitzman (2001), who found that gender was not significantly correlated to work and personal interest. The study indicated that females and males reported comparable altitudes of “work-life balance”. The findings of this study are also supported by Mor Barrack, Nissly, and Levin (2013), who asserted that biographical characteristics are not correlated to intention to quit.

The findings of this study are in contrast to the findings of Batt and Valcour (2001), who discovered that there are significant differences between gender and issues of work-life conflict and balance. This shows the inconsistencies in terms of reporting under this dimension. This inconsistency could be a result of how work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit are viewed from different perspectives.
terms of this study, the result could be that there are as many women in the workforce as men, and they do not view any issues of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit differently.

### 4.4.2 Dimension: Age

Table 17: Kruskal-Wallis tests for Age vs. Work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 The median of Work-life balance Ave. Score</td>
<td>Independent Sample Median Test</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The median of Manager Support Ave. Score is the same across categories of Age</td>
<td>Independent Sample Median Test</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The medians of Intention to Quit Ave. Score are the same across the categories of Age</td>
<td>Independent Sample Median Test</td>
<td>.894</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The significance level is .05

Table 17 indicates that there is only one variable that shows a statistically significant difference, and that variable was manager support vs. age categories. Other variables, which are “work-life balance” and “intention to quit”, did not show any statistical difference. The results of this study are in contrast to the previous findings of Hayes et al. (2006), who discovered that younger employees had higher intentions to leave than older employees who were over 50 years of age. The results of Hayes et al. (2006) are also attested by practical evidence of South African researchers (Kgomo & Swarts, 2010) who found that the younger employees and middle-aged employees are more likely to quit the organisation, leaving a huge skills vacuum in the organisation.
Despite the findings of this study, literature argues that generations have different outlooks in terms of schedule of work and work-life practices which need to be observed (Klun, 2008). Therefore, it is possible that employees from different age groups also differ in their experiences of work-life balance (Steyl & Koekemoer, 2011).

Table 18: Duncan and Scheffe post hoc test on Age vs. Manager support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Duncan^a,b</th>
<th>Scheffe^a,b</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>56 - 65 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2.6100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 - 55 years</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>3.1955</td>
<td>3.1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 - 45 years</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.4094</td>
<td>3.4094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 - 35 years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3.4131</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.


b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.
Table 19: The Games-Howell multiple comparison tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Games-Howell</th>
<th>26 - 35 years</th>
<th>36 - 45 years</th>
<th>0.0037</th>
<th>0.1794</th>
<th>1.0000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46 - 55 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.2176</td>
<td>0.2028</td>
<td>0.7070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>56 - 65 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.80309*</td>
<td>0.2467</td>
<td>0.0120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 - 45 years</td>
<td>26 - 35 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.0037</td>
<td>0.1794</td>
<td>1.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46 - 55 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.2139</td>
<td>0.1960</td>
<td>0.6960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>56 - 65 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.79941*</td>
<td>0.2412</td>
<td>0.0110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 - 55 years</td>
<td>26 - 35 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.2176</td>
<td>0.2028</td>
<td>0.7070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36 - 45 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.2139</td>
<td>0.1960</td>
<td>0.6960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>56 - 65 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.5855</td>
<td>0.2591</td>
<td>0.1240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 - 65 years</td>
<td>26 - 35 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.80309*</td>
<td>0.2467</td>
<td>0.0120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36 - 45 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.79941*</td>
<td>0.2412</td>
<td>0.0110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46 - 55 years</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.5855</td>
<td>0.2591</td>
<td>0.1240</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 18 and 19 indicate that there is no difference between the age of 26-35, 36-45 and 46-55 on how they perceived manager support. These groups are, however, different from the age of 56-65 in how they perceived manager support. This means that the oldest group perceives manager support to be low. The results could be due to the restructuring which is taking place in the organisation, and the older group feels more neglected than the other age groups.

Field (2009) recommends that the Games-Howell procedure be used with any other test that is selected for use. This is useful when there are uncertainties of whether the population variances are equivalent (Field, 2009).
4.4.3 Dimension: Race

Table 20: Kruskal-Wallis tests for race vs. Work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 The medians of Work-life balance Ave. Score are the same across categories of Race</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median Test</td>
<td>.810</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The medians of Manager Support Ave. Score are the same across categories of Race</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median Test</td>
<td>.818</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The medians of Intention to Quit Ave. Score are the same across categories of Race</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median Test</td>
<td>.247</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20 indicates that participants’ scores on work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit did not differ significantly in terms of race. This means that there are no differences in perceptions in terms of manager support, work-life balance and intention to quit. These results are in line with the study of Jha (2001), who found that there was no correlation between work-life balance, manager support and ethnicity. In contrast to this study, Mostert and Oldfiel (2009) found that there is a significant difference between work-life balance, ethnicity, and language, and recommend that further research be done on work-life balance differences on different socio-demographic variables.
4.4.4 Dimension: Highest Qualification

Table 21: Kruskal-Wallis test for highest qualification vs. Work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The medians of Work-life balance Ave. Score are the same across categories of Highest qualification</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median Test</td>
<td>.856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The medians of Manager Support Ave. Score are the same across categories of Highest qualification</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median Test</td>
<td>.924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The medians of Intention to Quit Ave. Score are the same across categories of Highest qualifications</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median Test</td>
<td>.675</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21 indicates that participants’ scores on work-life balance; manager support and intention to quit do not differ in terms of qualifications. Their perceptions are not statistically and significantly different in terms of highest qualification.

The study of Jha (2001) found that there was no correlation between work-life balance, manager support and highest qualification. In contrast, Hayes et al. (2006) believe that educational level has an impact on turnover intentions. Hayes et al. (2006) assert that employees with highest qualifications are more likely to look for other opportunities outside the organisation.
Furthermore, Martin (2007) indicates that employees with highest academic qualifications had less commitment to the organisation, which could result in turnover intentions. Mostert and Oldfield (2009) found that research pertaining to socio-demographic differences and work-life interactions is limited and inconclusive in South Africa. These socio-demographic variables included age, gender, marital status, educational qualification, ethnicity, and parental status. Mostert (2005) and Van Tonder (2005) (as cited in Mostert & Oldfield, 2009) also differed with this study and found that there are significant differences between educational groups: individuals with diplomas experienced higher negative work-life balance practices than individuals with a grade 10 or 11 qualification. Moreover, a study by Jacobs (2005) found a difference in the mean score between different educational qualifications and turnover intentions.

The findings of this study might mean that employees do not attach any meaning to support from the supervisors or managers or work-life balance and intention to quit to their qualification. In contrast to what other studies found, it could be that employees with the highest qualifications may have better opportunities to look for jobs outside the organisation if they experience an enabling environment in terms of work-life balance and manager support.
4.4.5 Dimension: Task Grade

Table 22: Kruskal-Wallis for highest qualification vs. Work-life balance and manager support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 The medians of work-life balance Ave. Score is the same across categories of Task Grade</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median Test</td>
<td>.308</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The medians of manager support Ave. Score is the same across the categories of Task Grade</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median Test</td>
<td>.502</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The medians of intention to Quit Ave. Score are the same across categories of Task Grade</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median Test</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The significance level is 0.05.

Table 22 indicates that participants’ scores on work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit do not differ in terms of the task grade. The results of this study could be due to continuous changes that are happening in the organisation, and employees on whatever level of the job end up viewing work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit in a similar way.

The study of Jha (2001) found that there was no statistical difference in work-life balance and manager support in terms hierarchical position.
### 4.4.6 Dimension: Number of years in the Company

Table 23: Non-parametric test for number of years in the company vs. Work-life balance and manager support: Kruskal-Wallis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 The medians of Work-life Ave. Score is the same across categories of Number of years in the company</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median Test</td>
<td>.359</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The medians of manager support are the same across categories of Number of years in the company</td>
<td>Independent Sample Median Test</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The medians of intention to quit are the same across categories of Number of years in the company</td>
<td>Independent Samples Median test</td>
<td>.951</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 23 indicates that the number of years in the company did not have a statistically significant difference from work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit. This means that the participants did not differ in perceptions with regard to work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit relating to task grade. The results could be due to the fact that employees who participated in the study had similar views with regard to manager support, work-life balance and intention to quit.

The finding of this study is in contrast with the finding of Batt and Valcour (2001), who found that tenure is significantly negatively correlated to turnover. Over and above that, Davidson, Folcarell, Crawford, Dupra, and Clifford (1997) found that employees who had fewer years of experience in the job expressed a high intention...
to quit, whereas employees with more years of job experience had a lower intention to quit. The literature also confirms that the younger age group has higher intentions to quit (Coetzee & Gunz, 2012). The effect of this process is, however, moderated by aspects such as job level and manager support (Beauregard & Henry, 2009).

4.4.7 Correlations

Correlation coefficients were computed to determine the relationship between work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit. Correlation refers to a degree of strength on the relationship between two variables (Field, 2009). The negative correlation is symbolised by a value of -1.00, where 0.00 indicates no correlation and +1.00 describes the perfect positive correlation (Field, 2009). Because two variables exhibited non-normality and the data is on ordinal level, the non-parametric alternative for correlation was chosen: Spearman's rho.

The 3 hypotheses formulated for this study were tested using Spearman rho to determine the relationship among the 3 constructs (work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit).
Table 24: Correlations of 3 constructs: work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specman’s rho</th>
<th>Work-life Balance Ave. Score</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>Work-life Balance Ave. Score</th>
<th>Manager Support Ave. Score</th>
<th>Intention to Quit Ave. Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.660**</td>
<td>-.482**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager Support Ave. Score</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.660**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-.615**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Quit Ave. Score</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-.482**</td>
<td>-.615**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 24 presents the results of the correlation analyses on the 3 constructs.

**Hypothesis 1:** There is a positive relationship between work-life balance and manager support amongst employees of the South African Utility Organisation.

According to Table 24, there is a significantly positive relationship between work-life balance and manager support: $r_s = .66$, $n = 172$, $p < 0.01$. There is a significant positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance; when respondents report higher manager support, they also tend to report experiencing
more work-life balance. There is a positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance; when respondents report higher manager support, they also tend to report experiencing more work-life balance. In terms of the findings, the hypothesis is accepted.

The results of this study are in line with those of Maxwell (2005), who stated that the principal finding in the study is that managers evidently contribute to work-life policies and that managers play a pivotal role in translating policies into practice and ensure proper implementation of work-life balance. Darcy, McCarthy, Hill, and Grady (2012) state that manager support has been found to be significantly correlated with work-life balance. Darcy et al. (2012) further conclude that research has clearly stated that the significance of managerial support positively impacts on work-life balance. One of the reasons for this finding can be that employees value work-life balance and require the assistance of their managers to achieve that. The hypothesis is accepted.

These results are ascertained by Martins and Coetzee (2007), who state that managers in South Africa are facing daunting challenges; managers need to pay attention in reconciling the needs of the organisation and those of employees. Martins and Coetzee (2007) determined that South African managers need to implement human resource strategies and management practices that do not only focus on organisational performance but also satisfy quality of work-life for employees.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is a negative relationship between work-life balance and intention to quit.

According to Table 24, there was a significant relationship between work-life balance and intention to quit: $r_s = -0.48$, $n = 172$, $p < 0.01$. The results imply that participants who perceived higher work-life balance opportunities have less intention to leave the
organisation. The results are supported by the findings of Samuel and Chipunza (2013) and Noor (2011), who found that work-life balance satisfaction negatively correlates with the intention to leave. The findings support the literature available, namely that work-life balance will, in turn, minimise the intention to quit. In contrast to the findings of this study, Muhammed (2010) and Fathaniy (2011) discovered no relationship between work-life balance, supervisory support and turnover intentions.

Based on this study, the hypothesis is accepted; there is a negative relationship between work-life balance and intention to quit. The results imply that participants who received high opportunities on work-life balance have less intentions to leave the organisation. The statement is supported by Chiu (1999), Thompson, Beauvais, and lyness (1999), and Wood and De Menezes (2008) (as cited in Beauregard & Henry, 2009), who found that work-life balance has been related to increased affective commitment and decreased turnover intentions. Furthermore, Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, and Brennan (2008) state that organisation that are compassionate in helping their employees have supportive work-life policies which significantly increase the likelihood of the expected retention. Karatepe and Uludag (2007) also state that work-life balance issues have an influence on employee intentions to quit the organisation.

This finding in this hypothesis gives the impression that providing work-life balance practices has good rewards in terms of turnover intention. Despite these results, however, there might be other factors which compel participants to leave the organisations, and these can be minimised by providing work-life balance practices (Kawakami et al., 2000). The study of Hayes et al. (2006) found that management styles and work-life balance practices, which include better schedules of work, have a significant effect on turnover intentions. These results only show the relationship but do not validate the impact that work-life balance has on the intention to quit.
Hypothesis 3: There is a negative relationship between manager support and intention to quit.

There was a significant relationship between manager support and intention to quit: \( r_s = -.62, n = 172, p < 0.01 \). Manager support is significantly correlated to intention to quit. The results show that employees who perceive manager support to be high are less likely to leave the organisation.

The negative correlation specifies that a relationship exists between manager support and intention to quit. The higher the manager support is perceived, the less the intention to quit. The study by Fathaniy (2011) found significant results between the supervisory support and the intention to stay, which shows an inconsistency with this study. In contrast to the above, Kalliath and Beck (2001) and Malik, Bashir, Khan, and Malik (2013) affirm that supervisory support directly or indirectly reduces turnover intentions. Furthermore, Jha (2001) states that social support, which includes manager support, was found to play a pivotal role in mitigating the intention to quit. Gentry, Kuhnert, Mondore, and Page (2007) conclude that employees will stay with the organisation if they perceive the availability of supervisory support. To add to the above, Rothmann (2007) states that supervisor support is negatively correlated to turnover intentions.

In contrast, Lambert (2000) posits that it is not only the “work-life benefits per se” that promote organisational support but the ultimate relationship that employees have with their supervisors. Lambert (2000) further cites that employees’ perceptions of supervisory support are likely to be correlated to organisational support. It is reasonable enough to suggest that manager support in the organisation can minimise the intention to quit based on the findings of this study. The hypothesis tested is accepted and is supported by previous research.
4.5 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis refers to “fitting an equation of data in order to describe the relationship between variables” (Weiers, 2008, p. 4). Regression analysis is constituted by simple regression and multiple regressions. In this study, multiple regressions are used. Multiple regression refers to an extension of simple regression whereby the effect of correlations is predicated by two or more variables (Field, 2009). Multiple regression analysis is conducted to predict intention to quit in the organisation.

4.5.1 Multiple regressions on work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit

Table 25: Model of summary on manager support and work-life balance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.651&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.424</td>
<td>.418</td>
<td>.70247</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Manager Support Ave. Score, Work-life Balance Ave. Score

Table 26: Anova test on Intention to quit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30.748</td>
<td>62.310</td>
<td>.000&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>.493</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>171</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit Ave. Score

b. Predictors: (Constant), Manager Support Ave. Score, Work-life Balance Ave. Score
Table 27: Multiple regression on work-life balance and manager support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>5.209</td>
<td>.241</td>
<td>21.584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Work-life Balance Ave. Score</td>
<td>-.200</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>-.160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manager Support Ave. Score</td>
<td>-.506</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td>-.530</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit Ave. Score

Table 27 indicates that work-life balance and manager support explain 42% of the variance in intention to quit. Work-life balance and manager support are good predictors of intention to quit as explained at a 42.4% variance.

These findings support previous reviews by Richman et al. (2008), who found that work-life balance practices are perceived to be best predictors of employee turnover intention. This study corresponds with the study of Ahmad and Omar (2010), who found that supportive work environment and supportive working culture in the form of work-life balance practices predict the turnover intention. Further, Kahumuza and Schlechter (2008) state that in terms of relative importance, perceived supervisory support made the strongest contribution to intention to quit.

Accordingly, Casper and Buffardi (2004) affirm that in order to enhance work-life benefits, retention strategies should ensure that the organisational culture, which include manager support, are actually supportive to avoid violations of the psychological contract. The statement by Casper and Buffardi (2004) supports the findings of this study, which state that work-life balance and manager support predict intention to quit. In support of hypotheses 2 and 3, results indicate that work-life balance and manager support are significant negative predictors of intention to quit.
The statement supports the assertion that when employees experience higher work-life balance, employees have low intentions to quit. This finding suggests that employees’ perceptions of “work-life balance” and manager support have significant influences on their intention to quit.

The current study implies that if employees have good relations the managers and perceive their managers to be supportive in promoting work-life balance, such practices can decrease the intention to quit. In fact, it is worth concluding that work-life balance and manager support predict the turnover intention.

Based on the South African context, the Human Capital Management (2006) states that South Africa is far behind in implementing work-life balance practices compared to other countries. The backlog is shown by the results of a study done at the North-West University.

4.6 INTEGRATION OF RESULTS

The study was about work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit. Descriptive statistics and descriptions of the sample were done to explain the relationships among variables. The results did not indicate whether the perception of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit had a low or high mean.

The results of the descriptive statistics exhibited that the sample contained a non-normal distribution. The kurtosis and skewness ranged far from zero. The mean differed and presented inconclusive results. Furthermore, a normality testing was done (to test the normality of the data). The test revealed that the data on manager support and intention to quit were non-normal, hence the use of the non-parametric test.
The inferential statistics were tested among biographical variables, work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit. The biographical dimensions, gender, age, race, highest qualification, task grade and number of years in the company did not have any significant difference from work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit, except for manager support and the age dimension. The oldest group, aged from 56-65 years, perceived manager support as low according to the post hoc test done.

The correlations were done to investigate the relationship between work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit. Based on the results of this study and using p<.05 as the criterion for accepting or rejecting the null hypotheses, the decisions concerning the research hypotheses are stated in Table 28.

Table 28: Summary of hypotheses tested

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1: There is a positive relationship between work-life balance and manager support amongst employees of South African Utility Organisation</td>
<td>The hypothesis is accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: There is a negative relationship between work-life balance and intention to quit</td>
<td>The hypothesis is accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: There is a negative relationship between manager support and intention to quit</td>
<td>The hypothesis is accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regard to the first hypothesis, the results showed that work-life balance and manager support are significantly and positively correlated to intention to quit. The results of this study concur with those of Maxwell (2005), who found that managers evidently contribute to work-life policies and that managers play a crucial role in translating policies into practice and ensuring proper implementation of work-
life balance. Darcy et al. (2012) ascertain that manager support was found to be significantly correlated with work-life balance.

The overall results of hypotheses 2 and 3 showed that the participants’ perceptions of work-life balance and manager support are significantly and negatively correlated to intention to quit. This finding confirms research done by Noor (2011) and Samuel and Chipunza (2013) who found that work-life balance satisfaction is negatively correlated with the intention to quit. Gentry, Kuhnert, Mondore, and Page (2007) conclude that employees will stay with the organisation if they perceive the availability of supervisory support. To add to the above, Rothmann (2007) states that supervisor support is negatively correlated to turnover intentions.

Literature suggests that high levels of perceived supervisory support have benefits for work-life practices (Allen, 2006). The literature also proposes that work-life benefits are likely to lead to high performance and lower turnover intentions (Kossek, Lautsch & Eaton, 2006).

Given these results, the more the employees perceive high work-life practices and manager support, the more likely that intention to quit will decrease. Literature also states that manager support is ranked the second-highest factor in terms of contributing to turnover intentions (Kahumuza & Schlechter, 2008).

Regression analysis was done to predict the intention to quit. The regression analysis showed that work-life balance and manager support are good predictors of intention to quit as explained at a 42.4% variance.

The intention to quit has serious implications for the business of the utility company, and investigating factors that lead to quitting can assist the organisation on minimising that. In this study, it was found that perceived manager support and work-
life practices are directly linked to intention to quit. While the intention was not to formally test the mediating effects of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit, it is intriguing to note that the results differ. Work-life balance and manager support had a negative correlation with the intention to quit, while manager support had a positive correlation to work-life balance.

4.7 CONCLUSION

The results of numerous statistical procedures were discussed in this chapter. The results of the descriptive statistics, inferential statistics and correlation analysis were provided.

The results of the descriptive statistics showed that the sample consisted of non-normal distribution. The kurtosis and skewness ranged far from zero. The mean differed and presented inconclusive results.

The inferential statistics presented the difference amongst biographical data, work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit. The results of this study show that manager support and age had a significant difference.

From the analysis made, it was found that there is a strong and positive correlation between work-life balance and manager support. Intention to quit has a strong and negative correlation with work-life balance. The intention to quit has a strong and negative relationship with manager support.

Therefore, employees who report experiencing more work-life balance and manager support are less likely to report an intention to quit. To determine how the independent variable predicts intention to quit, a “multiple regression analysis” was performed. The results of the regression analysis revealed that work-life balance and
manager support have a 42% variance to intention to quit. That being so, the results show that work-life balance and manager support is predictors of intention of quit.

In conclusion, work-life balance and manager support are important issues in the South African Utility Organisation, given the extent of reliance on energy around South Africa and the accelerated timelines to meet the population’s demands. As such, human resource practitioners are faced with constraints to assist the utility organisation to achieve its demands. These practitioners will indeed need work-life balance and manager support, according to the findings. To deal with the intention to quit in the utility organisation, it is essential to understand how work-life balance and manager support fit into employees’ needs. Beyond understanding the issue of work-life balance and manager support, there must be practical steps to implement the practice.

The next chapter will discuss recommendations and limitations of the study.
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

5 INTRODUCTION

The penultimate chapter reported the findings of the research conducted. The results covered descriptives, normality testing, inferential statistics and correlation analysis. This chapter focuses on summarising and providing insight into the results of statistical analysis, addresses limitations and recommendations of the study.

The following objectives were achieved in the various chapters of this research study:

Chapter 1 provided an introduction and background to the research. The objectives and hypotheses were discussed in the study. The chapter addressed the introduction, problem statement, research objectives, the importance and benefits of the study, and outline of the chapters presented.

Chapter 2 outlined an extensive theoretical framework. The key concepts of work-life balance, manager support and talent retention were discussed.

Chapter 3 indicated the empirical research in detail, the description of the sample, sampling method, research design, and the research process, i.e. data collection method and reliability analyses. The research approach’s intent was to be able to address the objectives of the study and the hypotheses adequately.
Chapter 4 presented the results of statistical measures and the discussion of the study. The results of the descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, the post hoc test correlation analysis and regression analysis were done. The findings resulted in accepting or rejecting the hypotheses of the study. The findings suggested that work-life balance, manager support and talent retention measured by the intention to quit scale have a negative correlation. This implies that the higher work-life balance and manager support are perceived, the lower the intention to quit. Furthermore, there was a positive correlation between work-life balance and manager support. If manager support is perceived to be high, work-life balance possibilities also increase. The chapter also indicates how the objectives and findings from the study were met. The findings are supported by the literature review.

Chapter 5 offered conclusions and recommendations based on the findings and limitations of the study.

5.1 CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE LITERATURE REVIEW AND EMPIRICAL STUDY

5.1.1 Conclusions relating to the literature review

The literature review elaborated on the association of work-life balance, manager support and talent retention measured using the intention to quit scale. It was evident that employees who perceive work-life balance and manager support to be important and favourable are less likely to quit. It is therefore imperative to consider both employees and organisational needs when designing organisational retention strategies.
5.1.1.1  Process followed in meeting the research objectives

The first objective was to conceptualise work-life balance, manager support and talent retention from a theoretical perspective. The following points came out:

- Work-life balance, for the purpose of this study, refers to the opportunity given to individuals regardless of their age or gender in order to combine work and household responsibilities (Wheatley, 2012).

- From the literature review, it was conclusively proven, “managers are the backbone of every organisation, large or small” (Gilley & Gilley, 2007, p. 01). Manager support, in this study, refers to managers’ demeanours, which uphold respect, encourage career growth, provide recognition, make individuals aware of their contributions and performance to the business and build positive attitudes amongst the utility organisation employees with an intention of minimising any potential intentions to leave the organisation.

- Talent retention is the ability of the organisation to keep the skill they have in the organisation.

- Richman, Civian, Shannon Hill, and Brenman (2008) indicate that providing work-life balance leads to longer tenure in the organisation. Accordingly, manager support also contributes to turnover intentions. From a theoretical perspective, it has been proven that employees perceive work and a life-friendly environment as important. The literature review indicates that there is a major limitation to work-life balance research in South Africa; hence, international model measuring instruments are applied in South Africa (Jacobs et al., 2008). South Africa has diverse and unique dimensions which contain a multicultural work environment (Mageni & Slabbert, 2005). Therefore, there is a need to conceptualise these models to fit the South African multicultural society.

- Deery (2008) points out the importance of work-life balance in the organisation, and this includes enhanced productivity, improved recruitment...
and retention. The literature indicates that offering work-life balance practices gives the employer a competitive advantage over others.

- Managers are inclined to accede to the programmes for work-life balance in the event that there is a demand from the employees regarding such programmes (McCarthy et al., 2010). Karatepe and Uludag (2007) also state that work-life balance issues have an influence on employee intentions to quit the organisation. Lambert (2000) posits that it is not only the work-life benefits per se that promotes organisational support, but the ultimate relationship that employees have with their supervisors.

These conclusions provide highlights in terms of the literature review. The conclusions with regard to the empirical study follow.

5.1.2 Conclusions relating to empirical study

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between work-life balance, manager support and talent retention measures using the intention to quit scale. The research objectives were set as specified below.

- To determine the perceptions of manager support in a sample of employees from a South African utility organisation.
- To determine the perceptions of work-life balance in a sample of employees from a South African utility organisation.
- To determine the intention to quit in a sample of employees from a South African utility organisation.
- To determine whether the participants' perceptions of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit differ according to demographic variables.
• To determine whether there is a relationship between manager support, work-life balance and the intention to quit in a sample of employees from a South African utility organisation.

• To determine whether work-life balance and manager support are significant predictors of intention to quit.

• To offer recommendations in terms of talent retention within the South African utility industry.

The following 3 hypotheses were addressed simultaneously:

• To determine the perceptions of manager support in a sample of employees from a South African utility organisation.

• To determine the perceptions of work-life balance in a sample of employees from a South African utility organisation.

• To determine the intention to quit in a sample of employees from a South African utility organisation.

The following conclusions were drawn based on the mean score of the participants. The results appeared to be inconclusive, which means the participant perceptions in terms of manager support, work-life balance and intention to quit did not indicate high or low scores. This could be due to the number of employees that participated in the study or the employees not providing a true perception in terms of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit.

The fourth objective was to determine whether there is a relationship between manager support, work-life balance and the intention to quit in a sample of employees from a South African utility organisation.
The findings of the study reveal that when work-life balance increases, then intention to quit decreases. Also, when manager support increases, the intention to quit also decreases. As such, hypotheses 2 and 3 are accepted. Allen, Brynant, and Vardaman (2008) highlight that employee-manager relationships should not be underestimated as they are pivotal in preserving talent and driving meaningful business decisions. “A study by Women in Cable and Telecommunications Foundation, found that companies which invested heavily in work-life balance, had much higher retention and lower turnover than the norm” (Clutterbuck, 2003, p. 25).

The fifth objective was to determine whether the participants’ perceptions of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit differ according to demographic variables.

The results of the study presented the conclusion that there was no statistically significant difference found in terms of the demographic variables – age, gender, race, task grade, and highest qualification – to work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit, except between manager support and age. The oldest group was found to have perceived manager support as low. This could be due to the restructuring that is happening in the organisation, which makes the oldest employees feel that they are not supported by their managers or supervisors.

The sixth objective was to determine whether work-life balance and manager support are significant predictors of intention to quit.

The findings explain the intention to quit at a 42% variance. The results present that work-life balance and manager support are predictors of intention to quit. Allen (2006) asserts that to manage voluntary turnover, organisations require an in-depth understanding of why employees leave or stay, and this should be done continuously.
5.1.3 Conclusions relating to hypotheses

The following 3 hypotheses were formulated to address the objectives of the study:

**Hypothesis 1**
There is a positive relationship between work-life balance and manager support amongst employees of South African Utility Organisation.

Work-life balance and manager support both increase at the same time, which shows a positive correlation. Therefore, H1 is accepted.

Thus, if employees perceive the availability of work-life balance and manager support to be high, their intent to leave becomes low. Peters, Bhagat, and O’Connor (1981) stated that employees who experienced supervisory support have a reduced intention to quit.

**Hypothesis 2**
There is a negative relationship between work-life balance and intention to quit.

It was evident, based on the results, that work-life balance practices do reduce the intention to quit. Beauregard and Henry (2009) highlight that during the recruitment process, employees might associate the availability of work-life balance practices with a supportive work-environment, which includes fair treatment, understanding supervision, and adequate provision of resources. The provision of work-life balance has an impact on employees choosing the organisation they want to work for. Offering work-life balance might not only be the solution to talent retention because there are other moderating factors that can also play a part. This highlights the need for investigating the broader employee value proposition. Richman et al. (2008) posited that providing work-life balance leads to longer tenure in the organisation.
Hypothesis 3

There is a negative relationship between manager support and intention to quit.

The negative relationship was evident in this study in that the higher the manager support, the less the intention to quit, and the less the manager support, the higher the likelihood to quit the organisation.

Regarding the hypothesis, it can be concluded that work-life balance and manager support significantly predict the intention to quit. Furthermore, employees from the oldest groups differ significantly to the other age groups in terms of how they perceive manager support. The empirical study generated statistically significant evidence to support the stated hypotheses.

5.2 CONTRIBUTION TO THE FIELD OF HUMAN RESOURCE, INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The findings of this study contributed towards literature and empirical evidence in the field of Human Resources, especially in terms of work-life balance practices. The literature provided a broad overview and conceptualisation of the variables researched, namely manager support, work-life balance and talent retention. The study further reviewed literature and made possible statistical relationships between the constructs of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit. The reference to the relationship between the variables of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit was also linked to biographical dimensions.

Conclusions drawn from the literature review indicate that the models used for work-life balance are adopted internationally and are not South African-based. Industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners should consider developing theoretical models for the South African context and not the ones emulated from first-world countries. Previous research yielded inconsistent results
regarding work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit in terms of biographical dimensions. It has been noted that further research is needed on comparing the impact of biographical dimensions against work-life balance. The findings of this study provide a contribution to the limited existing body of literature.

The reliability of the instrument, i.e. the Cronbach alpha, regarding manager support, work-life balance and intention to quit was assessed. The Cronbach alpha was used to determine the internal consistency. The conclusions drawn in this study show that the instrument used displayed acceptable levels of internal consistency or reliability, and it can be recommended for further use in the field of human resource and industrial psychology.

The results of the study provided insight on the relationship between manager support, work-life balance and talent retention measure on the intention to quit scale. The result further indicates that the higher the work-life balance and manager support, the less the intention to quit the organisation. The organisation can, therefore, focus on strategies that enhance employee retention and minimise turnover intentions. The study highlights the differences between biographical dimensions, work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit.

The findings are relevant for the South African multicultural society and can contribute towards generating relevant strategies and models suitable for the Human Resources fraternity.

5.3 LIMITATIONS OF RESEARCH

This study has provided valuable insights into the concepts of manager support, work-life balance and intention to quit in a South African utility organisation. To this
end, limitations should be taken into cognisance to ensure future improvements.

Some of the limitations of this study are as follows:

- It was found that the literature was mostly based on international research, with limited research findings based on the South African context. In South Africa, work-life balance is well researched, mostly qualitative studies – which also had limitations to substantiate this study.

- The targeted response was at least a minimum of 250; however, only 172 responses were received.

- A limited sample of the organisation was used in this study; therefore, it is important to be cautious in making generalisations of findings in other companies or related government-owned entities without further empirical research tests.

- Furthermore, given the correlation nature of the research design, the study did not establish causation between variables; the observed relationship was rather interpreted than established.

- There are limited studies in terms of empirical research determining the relationships between the 3 variables in all work-related contexts, which resulted in focusing on each variable separately to provide literature review evidence.

Regardless of the limitations, the findings of this study are considered influential in expanding the knowledge that focuses on enhancing retention strategies in South African organisations.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

In terms of recommendations for theory, South Africa has a challenge when it comes to having its own models for implementing work-life balance practices. It is recommended that industrial psychologists and human resource practitioners research and establish South African-based models.
It is important to ensure that the organisation does not lose its core critical skills. The loss of important critical skills affects the organisation adversely, which implies that turnover does create a vacuum in the organisation. To address turnover intentions, several factors can be considered, including work-life balance and manager support. In this study, it has already been proven that work-life balance and manager support can reduce turnover intentions. It is important to also investigate further which factors are of importance under work-life balance practices and also investigate the item scale questionnaire, which could highlight the most preferred support the employees expect from the supervisor or manager, be it in the form of career development, recognition, feedback, rewards or respect. The imbalance detected could have a huge implication for the organisation in terms of a high rate of turnover, increased absenteeism, low morale, loyalty problems and job dissatisfaction. Addressing these imbalances in the form of work-life balance could potentially reduce these employee-related challenges.

The results seemed to demonstrate that support is the most crucial consideration for managers to observe. Managers need to focus on creating a compelling environment for employees to enhance retention. Further research could focus on extending surveys in broader companies to substantiate the research already done, including considering using both quantitative and qualitative methods/research to draw out key themes in terms of manager support, as this has shown limited considerations in terms of investigating this qualitatively.

5.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the conclusions drawn from the study and its possible limitations based on the empirical search and literature review. Recommendations were made for further possible research and specific models of work-life balance in the South African context as well as retention strategies. These conclusions were
based on the relationship between the 3 constructs of work-life balance, manager support and intention to quit.

This study contributed to a better understanding of how a South African utility organisation’s employees experienced the interaction between work-life balance, manager support and their intention to quit. The South African Utility Organisation employees value work-life balance and manager support, which calls for more research in the area. With the correctional nature of this study, the insight in understanding the relationship between the variables of work-life balance and manager support was gained.
6. LIST OF REFERENCES


Fathaniy, A. (2011). *The role of hr practices, supervisory support and work-life balance policies on employee intention to stay: A study in oil and gas company.*


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APPENDICES
**Appendix A: Data collection instrument (-s)**

**Questionnaire**

Please complete this survey by circling your choice, or fill the numbers in the space provided. 

For office use only

### A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION/ BIOGRAPHICAL

1. Age in years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18 or younger</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 – 25</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 – 35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 – 45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 – 55</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 – 65</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66 – 75</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76 and older</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Marital status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unmarried</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Race

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian or Asian</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. What is your highest qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honours</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Specify</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Task grade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T6-T08</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P11-P13</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P14-P16</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T09-T13</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>S14-S16</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>G14-G16</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S17-S18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P17-P18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Number of Years in the company

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Less than 6 months</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>6 months – 2 years</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3-5 years</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 years and more</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Position

Position in the organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B: Please circle the number that best reflects your choice</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>YES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Do you have Work-life policies in your organisation?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Have you seen or been given a copy of this organisation work-life policies?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The use of Work-life balance policies will influence my intention to stay</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B: Work-life balance Practices</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have access to work-life practices arrangements</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Requests to change working patterns are received positively by my employers  
3. Management are committed to helping me as an employee achieve a good work-life balance  
4. I am happy with working arrangements I have  
5. I am encouraged to use work-life balance policies  
6. In my organisation employees can combine career and family life  
7. My employer is doing enough to enable people to pursue education and training opportunities  
8. In our organisation management apply the work-life balance policies consistently  
9. The organisation makes it easy to use work-life balance policies  
10. The use of work-life balance policies will influence my intention to stay

You are requested to cross (x) or circle the number of your choice which most accurately fits the extent to which you evaluate your manager support. After you have read each question, please decide the degree to which your answer accurately describes your own situations, using the following scale:

C. Manager Support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My manager:</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Takes a supportive role in my professional growth and development</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Provides me with opportunities to develop and apply the skills I need to enhance my career</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Helps me to create a clearly defined career path</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Provides on the job coaching to help improve my performance</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Keeps me informed about issues affecting my work</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Really listens to me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>can be disagreed with on work related issues without fear of reprisal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Provides challenging job assignments for me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Utilises my strengths and talent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Provide opportunities for me to contribute and make a difference</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Gives me freedom to work in my own creative way</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>backs me when necessary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Includes me in decisions and actions that have an impact on my work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Encourage me to be innovative and take initiative in my work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Takes my suggestion seriously to improve things</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Helps me overcome barriers to getting the job done</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Sets clear goals for me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Ensures that I have resources I need to do my job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Gives me adequate feedback on the work I do</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Assess my work against identified goal and objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Represent my interest and concerns in higher management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Creates a comfortable and caring working environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Develops ways to make work and the workplace more enjoyable and fulfilling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Allows me to balance work priorities with my personal life so that neither is neglected</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Provide useful feedback on my job performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Recognise or rewards me for the value I add</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Uses innovation and personalised ways to reward and recognise me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Encourages opportunities to work in teams</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Can be counted on to keep his or her promises</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Respects me as a professional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Creates an open, trusting and respectful relationship with me</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The following questionnaire measure your intentions to quit questions

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>D:</strong> You are requested to cross ( x) or circle the number of your choice which most accurately fits the extent of your answer</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. How often have you considered leaving your current job?</td>
<td>never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. How frequently do you scan newspapers for the job opportunities?</td>
<td>never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To what extent is your current job not addressing your important personal needs?</td>
<td>To no extent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. How often are opportunities to achieve your most important goals at work jeopardised?</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. How often are your most important personal values at work compromised?</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. How frequently are you daydreaming about a different job that will suit your personal needs?</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. What is the probability that you will leave your job, if you get another suitable job?</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. How frequently do you look forward to another day at work?</td>
<td>Always</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. How often do you think about starting your own business?</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Scale</td>
<td>Options</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10. How often do only family responsibilities preventing you from quitting?</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. How often do only vested personal interest (pension fund, unemployment fund, etc.) prevent you to leave?</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. How frequently are you emotionally agitated when arriving home after work?</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. How often is your current job affecting your personal well-being?</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. How often do the troubles associated with relocating, prevent you from quitting?</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Thank you very much for your time and for participating in this survey!
Appendix B: Informed consent form

Informed consent for participation in an academic research study

Dept. of Human Resources Management

TITLE OF THE STUDY THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MANAGER SUPPORT, WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND TALENT RETENTION IN A SOUTH AFRICAN UTILITY ORGANISATION

Research conducted by:

Ms CH Maphanga (96088037)
Cell: 082 847 7618

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Christinah Hlamalane Maphanga, a Masters student from the Department of Human Resources Management at the University of Pretoria.

The purpose of the study is to determine whether there is a relationship between manager support, work-life balance and talent retention among employees of SA utility.

Please note the following:
Quantitative data collection method is used in this study.

The survey questionnaire is the tool used to collect data in this study.

This study involves an anonymous survey. Your name will not appear on the questionnaire and the answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential. You cannot be identified in person based on the answers you give.

Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.

Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than 30 minutes of your time. The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.

Please contact my supervisor, Mr MA Themba at ma.themba@up.ac.za if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understand the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

_________________________________________  __________________________
Respondent’s signature                  Date
Appendix C: Letter of request to do research

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

Mr B Bulunga
Group Executive Human Resource
Eskom Holdings Soc Ltd
PO BOX 1091
Johannesburg
2000

Our ref. Ms CH Maphanga 2012-11-20

Head of Department: Prof. K Stanz
Supervisor: MR MA THEMBA
012 420 4021
E-mail: MA.Themba@up.ac.za

To the Group Executive Director Human Resources Management

REQUEST TO DO RESEARCH BY AN INDUSTRIAL / HUMAN RESOURCE
MANAGEMENT MASTERS STUDENT AT ESKOM HOLDINGS

I hereby request that Eskom Human Resource Management Department grant MS CH MAPHANGA the opportunity to do research in pursuing her final year masters studies (Dissertation, year 2013). The research topic is titled: The relationship between manager support, work-life balance and talent retention in a South African utility organisation. The research will be done under the supervision of Mr MA Themba from the Department of Human Resource Management, University of Pretoria and Dr Marzanne De Klerk as an internal mentor.

Approval granted will be a great pleasure. Thanking you in anticipation

Yours faithfully

Prof. Karel Stanz: Head of Department: Human Resource Management
Supervisor: Mr MA THEMBA
Appendix D: Approval letter for doing research

Mr. M.A Themba \ Prof. K Stanz

Date:
18 January 2013

Enquiries:
M. Makwela
Tel +27 11 800 6950

Dear Mr. M.A Themba/ Prof. K Stanz

APPROVAL TO DO RESEARCH IN THE AREA OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT TOPIC

Ms Christianah Maphanga is granted an opportunity to do research at Eskom Holdings SOC Ltd on the topic title the relationship between manager support, work life balance and talent retention in a South African utility Organisation.

Kind regards,

Matome Makwela
General Manager Centre of Excellence

Babhalazi Bulunga
Group Executive Human Resources

Head office Human Resources
Megawatt Park Maxwell Drive Sunninghill Sandton
PO Box 1091 Johannesburg 2000
Tel +27 11 800 6950 Fax +27 800 2944 www.eskom.co.za

Eskom Holdings SOC Limited Reg No 2003/016623/06

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