

Global Journal of Management and Business Research: A Administration and Management

Volume 20 Issue 10 Version 1.0 Year 2020

Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal

Publisher: Global Journals

Online ISSN: 2249-4588 & Print ISSN: 0975-5853

Improving Performance of Public Universities in Ghana Through Talent Management: Does Leadership Support Matter?

By Lawrence Yaw Kusi, Alexander Opoku-Danso & Ebenezer Afum

University of Cape Coast Ghana

Abstract- Purpose: The study sought to examine the effect of talent management practices on the organizational performance of public universities in Ghana. It then assessed the mediating role of leadership support in that context.

Design/methodology/approach: The study adopted an explanatory design. It quantitatively approached the measurement and testing of the proposed hypotheses. Through the drop-and-pick method, primary data were collected with the structured questionnaires. The population included permanent lecturers in the University of Cape Coast, and through simple random sampling technique, 430 lecturers were selected and surveyed. The study recorded a 100% response rate. Reflective structural modeling was applied to testing the hypotheses with the SMART pls application.

Keywords: talent management, leadership support, lecturers, organizational performance, public universities.

GJMBR-A Classification: JEL Code: M10



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



© 2020. Lawrence Yaw Kusi, Alexander Opoku-Danso & Ebenezer Afum. This is a research/review paper, distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 3.0 Unported License http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/3.0/), permitting all non-commercial use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Improving Performance of Public Universities in Ghana Through Talent Management: Does Leadership Support Matter?

Lawrence Yaw Kusi^a, Alexander Opoku-Danso^a & Ebenezer Afum^a

Abstract- Purpose: The study sought to examine the effect of talent management practices on the organizational performance of public universities in Ghana. It then assessed the mediating role of leadership support in that context.

Design/methodology/approach: The study adopted an explanatory design. It quantitatively approached the measurement and testing of the proposed hypotheses. Through the drop-and-pick method, primary data were collected with the structured questionnaires. The population included permanent lecturers in the University of Cape Coast, and through simple random sampling technique, 430 lecturers were selected and surveyed. The study recorded a 100% response rate. Reflective structural modeling was applied to testing the hypotheses with the SMART pls application.

Findings: Talent management (talent attraction practices), talent development, talent engagement practices, and talent retention practices) accounted for substantial variance in organizational performance. Talent engagement practices, talent development practices, talent attraction practices, and talent retention practices prove to be significant positive predictors of improved organizational performance. The mediation analysis shows leadership support improves variance in organizational performance for the majority of the components of talent management practices except for talent engagement practices.

Practical implications: To improve the performance of public universities, management of these universities must effectively devise and implement talent management programs (with much emphasis on talent attraction strategies, talent development strategies, talent engagement strategies and talent retention strategies) that are specifically tailored to the exact needs of public universities by providing appropriate resources, and creating enabling environment that could enhance the talent management implementation process across all colleges and units within public universities.

Originality/value: The study makes contributions to the literature by filling the research gaps proposed by several prior empirical studies and then offers a theoretical framework of the relationship among talent management, leadership support, and organizational performance in the context of

Author α: Department of Marketing and Supply Chain Management College of Humanities and Legal Studies University of Cape Coast. e-mail: lawrence.kusi@ucc.edu.gh

Author σ : School of Medical Sciences College of Health and Allied Sciences University of Cape Coast.

e-mail: alexander.opokudanso@ucc.edu.gh

Author p: Transportation Engineering College Dalian Maritime University, China. e-mail: ebenezerafum@gmail.com

public organization in the higher education sector in the African context.

Keywords: talent management, leadership support, lecturers, organizational performance, public universities.

. Introduction

alent management [TM] is among the top priority areas in developed economies such as the UK, USA, China, France, and Austria (Egerová, 2013). In 1997, McKinsey brought the focal view of "war for talent" forward and then prompted the success of some companies while managing their teams' enormous assets. Consequently, the expression of TM attracted much attention in both the theoretical and practical practices (Scullion & Collings, 2011) for its inherent pursuit of life-long learning owing to the shifts for lifelong employment and job security globally (Latukha, Selivanovskikh & Maclennan, 2019). TM encompasses the process of identifying, recruiting, developing, retaining, and deploying high potential individuals at the workplace (Wellins, Smith & Erker, 2009)to the most strategic organizational goals (Scullion & Collings, 2011).

TM affects the organizational performance of higher education institutions (Dahshan, Keshk & Dorgham, 2018; Eghbal, Hoveida, Seyadat, Samavatyan & Yarmohammadian, 2017) but there are limited studies in Ghana except few that linked TK to staff retention (Kwegyir-Aggrey, 2016). Performance has been the most important issue for profit and non-profit organizations. Researchers have different beliefs and thoughts about OP, but it remains a controversial issue (Barney, 2001). Non-profit organizations view their performance in terms of how they meet their missions and goals. Performance refers to the degree of achievement of the mission at work place that builds up an employee job. Researchers mostly use performance to express the range of measurements of transactional efficiency and input and output efficiency (Stannack, 1996).

TM is increasingly becoming a priority for companies and CEOs have new, more strategic expectations of their HR leadership (Betchoo, 2014). The strong involvement of senior corporate leaders in scouting, attracting, and retaining talents (Moser, Dawson & West, 2019) can promote positive work

attitudes (Chukwusa, 2019) and elicit supportive corporate behavior (Veronesi, Kirpatrick & Altanlar, 2015). Leadership is special force for success in a fastpaced, dynamic environment for all forms of organizations. Particularly, knowledge-oriented leadership promotes the acquisition of knowledge from external resources and rewards its sharing and application which, can enhance research collaboration. and academic progression. There is a strong internal drive, not just within HR, but also within the entire organisation to bring current talent to the next level of leadership. Thus, talent management will fail if it is viewed purely as an HR initiative and therefore requires the support of senior management teams (Preece & Iles, 2008). The resolve lies within the remits of internal transformation, driving competitiveness, and the organization's achievement towards its strategy and goals (Betchoo, 2014). Mohammed, Hafeez-Baig, and Gururaian (2018) hint in academic institutions, high-level leadership provides talented individuals with sufficient opportunities regarding functional planning programs. Therefore, leaders in public universities are to demonstrate strong leadership support to guide the implementation of TM programs to promote improved organizational performance.

The challenge with Africa is that over the years, the continent has suffered brain drain, as talented employees seek greener pastures in Europe and America. Knott (2016) equally argues that TM in Africa is huge challenge due to inadequate compensation by companies, and the commonness of uncompetitive work environments that negatively impact employee performance and desire to remain with the company. Global studies reveal shortages of talent in underperforming business entities (Parry, Stavrou-Costea & Morley, 2011). Talent needs of Africa have evolved, resulting in noticeable voids with businesses being unable to fill their employment vacancies with the appropriate talent. Firms in Africa do not effectively develop and maintain the unique talents of their workforce even, when their potentials are recognized (Chukwusa, 2019). Studies in TM seem to have focused on other continents at the neglect of Africa (Anlesinya, Amponsah-Tawiah & Dartey-Baah, 2019), which makes it impossible to apply the strategies of these studies in a country context (Gallardo-Gallardo, developing Thunnissen & Scullion, 2019). Furthermore, African firms that practice TM usually face organizational and macrolevel challenges (Anlesinya, Amponsah-Tawiah & Dartey-Baah, 2019). Talent retention is one of the problems facing businesses today (Vaiman, Collings & Schullion, 2017); hence the existence of numerous TM questions puzzling HR practitioners (Gallardo-Gallardo, Thunnissen & Scullion, 2019).

The keen focus on TM in large MNC organizations (Collings, Mellahi, & Cascio, 2019; Thunnissen & Gallardo-Gallardo, 2017) raises guestions

about whether current assumptions in the TM literature related to this specific context help us to understand and explain the TM issues in other settings such as public sector organizations, SMEs, and organizations based in emerging market context (Gallardo-Gallardo, Thunnissen & Scullion, 2020).To date, most TM researches target large, private-sector, and multinational corporations, and scholars often apply the findings of these researches to all other organizations without contemplating whether it is feasible (Meyers, van Woerkom, Paauwe & Dries, 2019). Besides, little comparative research has examined the extent to which TM can be applied across national boundaries in such contexts (Boussebaa & Morgan, 2008). Khoreva and Kostanek (2019) also found that most TM studies targeted HR practitioners who may have a different interpretation than any other groups in firms, hence the decision to survey lecturers as beneficiaries of TM programs in public universities.

TM studies lag when it comes to offering visions and directions to organizations (Cascio & Boudreau, 2016). Again, studies on TM have neglected contextual factors and their respective roles (Thunnissen & Gallardo-Gallardo, 2019) hence this study treated leadership role as a mediating factor. It is envisioned that active, proactive and strategic approach to leading TM process can accelerate the impact of TM on OP of public universities (Paisey & Paisey, 2018) in Ghana. Public universities in Ghana churned out, "Chew! Pour! Pass! And Forget!" philosophy (Quansah & Asamoah, 2019) thereby questioning the integrity professionalism of lecturers who teach these students. To Muyia, Wekullo and Nafukho, (2018), students in Africa are ill-prepared and talented people migrate to developed countries, thereby deepening developmental challenges of the continent. Higher education institutions are facing some difficulties and challenges in attracting qualified staff, particularly in the areas of safety and security, workloads and conflicting opinions (Mohammed, Hafeez-Baig & Gururajan, 2018).

There is no clear conception of TM and how it impacts on OP (Mensah, 2015), in practical terms (Mensah & Bawole, 2017). Organizations implementing TM may not understand the mechanism through which TM improves employee performance and how this translates into OP (Mensah, 2015). The construct "talent" and "talent management" lack theoretical vigour and standardized definition (Ansar & Baloch, 2018; Damarasri & Ahman, 2020) hence the existence of inconclusive debate among scholars. TM usually focuses on the differential treatment of highperforming/high potential employees by organizations who are considered as key professionals either at present or in the future (Mensah & Bawole, 2017; Collings & Mellahi, 2009) which defies the position that all individuals have talents that must be uncovered and identified for purposeful strategic organizational actions

to be taken (Eghbal et al., 20107). Firms are quick to recognize the importance of TM. However, they fail to manage it effectively (Vaiman, Scullion & Collings,

Higher education institutions are based sturdily on the attraction of experienced staff to fill crucial positions (Mohammed, Hafeez-Baig & Gururajan, 2018).

Public universities are noted for employing professionals. This is because these professionals play strategic roles in these institutions of higher learning (Gallardo-Gallardo, Thunnissen & Scullion, 2019). Universities and higher education centres play active role in achieving nations goals; hence, the higher premium put on these institutions to create and educate specialized workforce required by nations (Eghbal et al., 2017). It becomes imperative for these institutions to rely on the most strategic asset-human capital (Cappelli, 2008) and, for that matter, lecturers-to improve their productivity. For instance, Zainab (2000) advises research performance strengthens society's confidence in universities, build a solid and appealing corporate image in the lenses of the society, and lends synergetic effects to the development of science and knowledge creation. Furthermore Zheng and Liu, (2020) clarify evaluation of high-level talents contributes to the output of high-quality scientific research results and promotes disciplines to develop further. Higher educational institutions such as universities of late do not only give input into innovation. Still, they are also embedded in it (Etzkowitz, 2014) by taking advantage of an innovations, philosophies, strategies, and techniques that are being used in private and public commercial sectors to create strategic knowledge for strategic purposes (Boroujerdi, Hasani & Delshab, 2020). This study technically supports the Sustainable Development Goals [SDGs] championed by the United Nations (2015) based on the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. According to Nwila and Turay (2018), the discipline and practice of TM have the potential to contribute to at least 3 of the 17 sustainable goals, namely:

- Goal 8-decent work and economic growth
- 2. Goal 1-No poverty
- 3. Goal 17-Partnership for the goals

This study would be useful in providing insights into the aspects of TM practices and leadership support among public universities that contribute significantly to improvement in these public universities and further provide a framework for carving strategic TM programs tailored to the exact needs of public universities in Ghana and beyond. Several stakeholders may, therefore, be informed scientifically as to what policy direction they must pursue to justify investments in TM programs in public universities. It is against these backgrounds that the study was carried out to assess the impact of TM practices on the performance of the University of Cape Coast after controlling for the mediating effect of leadership support.

LITERATURE REVIEW II.

This section provides information relating to the theoretical perspective that delineates the proposed framework of the study. It then seeks to explain in detail the concepts otherwise construct upon which the theoretical relationship is anchored. Again, the critical empirical review is carried out which then leads to the development of the testable hypotheses. The conceptual framework delineating such relationship is also presented.

III. TALENT-BASED THEORY

Talent-Based Theory postulates talent is a crucial resource for providing sustainable competitive advantage, which warrants the stance that decisionmaking should primarily focus on talent and competitive capabilities derived from talents (Roberts as cited in Moturi, 2013). Thus, an organization must evolve through talent integration approaches (Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018). The theory further posits talent resides in and with individual persons. Therefore, firms merely integrate the individually owned talent by providing structural arrangements of co-ordination and cooperation of the specialized talent workers (Sunanda, 2018). Organizations rely on their structural capacities to create talents, store talent and deploy such talents for their benefits (Sunanda, 2018; Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018). Talent in this sense is operationalized something that fits well certain organizational expectations and not something regarded as above average (Sunanda, 2018). Talent is therefore recognized as means to sustaining competitive advantage because it is crucial corporate resource that supports effective execution of organizational strategies.

The "talent-based view of the firm" emphasizes the requirement of the organization to develop and increase the talent and learning capabilities of the employees through talent acquisition and talent sharing and transfer, to achieve competitive advantage. With this view, talent is regarded as valuable, rare, imitable, non-substitutable, which jointly organizations to achieve and sustain competitive advantage (Wandia, 2013). Empirically, this theory is applied to examine the impact of talent management on OP (Sunanda, 2018; Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018) and competitive advantage (Rabbi, Ahad, Kousar, & Ali, 2015). The study, therefore, conceptualizes lecturers as talents that are valuable, rare, imitable, and nonsubstitutable whose contributions collectively positions universities for the attainment of corporate goals, especially improved organizational performance.

WHAT THEN IS TALENT? IV.

Talent is generally synonym for people and is often narrowly defined in economic terms, such as

human capital, assets, or market value (Brown & Tannock, 2009). Talent in a general sense refers to people who contribute to the achievement of firm performance or may also well refer to the performance of such individuals (Tansley, Kirk & Tietze, 2013; Lewis & Heckman, 2006). Talent is exclusive to a few highperforming individuals or aguality that all employees possess to some extent and that can be developed and managed through general strategies (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Lewis & Heckman, 2006). Some talent may be dynamic or related to generic meta-competence, such as managerial or interpersonal competence. Others hold that the opinion that talent may be related to hard technical or operational competence that is associated with a specific job, organization, or type of industry or associated with the nature of the work (Tansley et al., 2013).

Talent Management [TM]

Talent management [TM] is the process of recruiting, managing, assessing, developing, and maintaining an organization's most crucial resourcepeople (Gupta, Gulati, Chauhan & Khatri, 2010). TM is a dominant constituent of corporate human resource strategies and has of late gained increasing interest in the area of HRM/HRD research (Burbach & Royle, 2010; Capelli, 2008). TM is not a new concept, but TM research is scarce (Burbach & Royle, 2010; Collings & Mellahi, 2009). The growing focus on talent has spread from knowledge-intensive organizations to broader segments in the labor market. Since 1997, when the consultancy firm McKinsey recommended that the global war for talent is becoming a dire driving force in corporate competitiveness and performance, the notion of talent management has become increasingly prevalent (Mellahi & Collings, 2010). There are several different perspectives on TM from the corporate point of view. The first perspective of TM is related with the shift from the department-specific focus of HRM activities to an organization-wide engagement at all levels in terms of attracting, recruiting, retaining, and developing talent. The second perspective on TM is associated with a concentration on talent pools and processes that secure the supply of employees in different parts of an organization about specific jobs and tasks (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). This perspective is related to human resource planning or workforce planning and development (Jackson & Schuler, 1990; Rothwell, 2010). The focus of this notion of TM is on the expectancy of future organizational employee or staffing needs, career advancement, and internal workforce matters (Schwever, 2010).

The third perspective holds TM is universal and is not associated with specific positions or organizations (Becker & Huselid, 2006; Tarique & Schuler, 2010). Thus, talent is predominantly concomitant with persons who demonstrate high potential or high performance

and are sought, recruited, and a focus on elitism rather than egalitarianism. The second stance of the third perspective of TM is that universal talent is "undifferentiated good," thus proposing that talent TM must cover of all employees, who are to be managed and guided to achieve high-performance levels by the human resource function in an organization (Buckingham & Vosburgh, 2001; Walker & Larocco, 2002). Some authors have attempted to take a extensive approach, which integrates various aspects of the perspectives described above. Collings and Mellahi (2009) suggested a fourth perspective. This perspective holds TM is associated with identifying key positions in an organisation contrary to the notion that individuals are central to an organization's sustainable competitive advantage (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005). It is not considered to be desirable but rather is an overinvestment if all the positions in an organization are held by high performers.

b) Contextualizing tm Practices

Although there are several different individual practices that are implemented to executing TM programs (Yener, Gurbuz & Acar, 2017), this study provides an integrated HR management approach focusing on influencing and creating a lasting competitive advantage (Jayaraman, Talib & Khan, 2018). This approach is similar to the approach by Boxal and Purcell (1995). The approach is characterized with well-designed and congruent HR practices (Hosen, Islam, Arshad, Khan & Alam, 2018) which aim at ensuring better organizational effectiveness and performance. Therefore, the study proposes the idea that the implementation of an integrated TM system in public universities in Ghana is to promote the attraction, engagement, development, and retention of talents (Hongal & Kinange, 2020) with the third perspective of the universality of talent in organizations.

Thus, TM process entailing the specific integrated system-wide HR practices include talent attraction or acquisition (Santhoshkumar & Rajasekar, 2012; Petkovic, Dordevic & Vasic, 2013), talent engagement or utilization or deployment (Jauhari, Sehgal & Sehgal, 2013), talent development (Sistonen, 2005; Santhoshkumar & Rajasekar, 2012) and talent retention (Santhoshkumar & Rajasekar, 2012; Petkovic, Dordevic & Vasic, 2013). It must be emphasized that each aspect of the TM process includes multidimensional HR practices and techniques (Yener, Gurbuz & Acar, 2017). These strategies evolved because changing markets reveal a prevailing "one sizes fit all" HR practices are no longer efficacious, hence the need for organizations to develop people strategies for their most core and critical segments that align directly with and supports business strategies (Hongal & Kinange, 2020).

c) Talent Attraction [TA] Practices

Talent attraction [TA] is synonymous with talent acquisition, and it is operationalized as involving all the sub-processes around finding, attracting, and engaging highly talented individuals into an organization (Hongal & Kinange, 2020). Thus, talent attraction deals with the recruitment of employees with special qualifications who are future leaders of the organizations (Wolor, Khairunnisa & Purwana, 2020). It thus includes identifying, attracting, developing, engaging, retaining a qualified workforce. Talent attraction, therefore, is a continuous process which in the long-run, should feature succession management planning. It must provide an avenue for attracting and acquiring potential high-performing candidates (Sivathanu & Pillai, 2019). Talent-oriented firms devised talent acquisition plan which features strategies for developing existing talents inventory, identifying the talent needs of the current industry to support future growth, measuring the gap between the two implementations of specific steps close the talent gap to meet the needs of existing industry and attract new business and identifying barriers to talent retention and implementation of action steps to resolve those obstacles (Hongal & Kinange, 2020).

Every recruit who joins the company should be sufficiently skilled during orientation in order to be well versed with the necessary knowledge and skills to undertake the responsibilities and accomplish organizational objectives. Several studies reveal that when firms reward employees fairly, the workers stay with such employers (Kwenin, Muathe, & Nzulwa, 2013; Terera & Ngirande, 2014), specifically competitive wages and benefits (Phillips & Gully, 2012) as well as monetary pay (Ismail & Zakaria, 2009). Besides, reputation is one of the best recruitment instruments for attracting superior prospective employees to an organisation (Doane, 2009). A company that is wellknown for positive reasons tends to attract prospective candidates. Having a strong reputation can potentially allow reduced recruitment spending and increased retention (Berthon, Ewing, & Hah, 2005). Much effort is required to build a quality reputation. Berthon et al. (2005) maintain that earning a reputation as "Best Employer or Employer of Choice" attracts prospective employees.

d) Talent Engagement [TE] Practices

Talent engagement [TE] is consistently shown as something exchanged by employees who benefit from their organizations through commitment and dedication, advocacy, discretionary effort, using talents to the fullest and being supportive of the organisation's goals, and values. Engaged employees feel a sense of attachment towards their organization, investing themselves not only in their role, but in the organisation. Employee engagement is crucial strategy to the retention of talent (Glen, 2006). To attract people with high potential is not enough; there should be an overall strategy for managing their talents. Deploying employees is a pre-requisite considering in the creation of the right environment or culture for talent to thrive.

In today's business environment, organizations are looking more for a win-win solution that meets their needs and those of their employees. What they increasingly say is that they are looking for is an engaged workforce (CIPD, 2010). As an organization strives to meet its day to day business goals to achieve a competitive advantage, the organization must have employees who are engaged (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). Project assignments, job rotation, and international /national transfer create leaders the prospect to learn by doing-by working on real problems and dilemmas (Golik 2014). Predominantly, Blanco, challenging assignments offer an avenue for on-the-job learning (DeRue & Wellman, 2009). Through TE strategies. employees become emotionally, physically, and cognitively connected to their jobs (Cui, Khan & Tarba, 2018; Golik & Blanco, 2014).

Talents Development [TD] Practices

Talent development [TD] represents significant component of the overall talent management process (Cappelli, 2009). Effective methods for TD are those that are directly linked to the on-the-job or learning at the workplace, mainly involving cross-training and the involvement in projects with the support of managers, coaches or, mentors (Cappelli, 2009). Programs of TD are very closely connected with career planning and succession planning and fundamentally provide talents with opportunities to grow in their current job roles and to move forward to the positions of a higher level. While it is possible for organizations to pursue a strategy that focuses on talent acquisition from the external labor market, such approach is unlikely to be successful in the long term.TD focuses on the planning, selection, and implementation of development strategies for the entire talent pool purposely to ensuring the supply of both current and future talent. TD therefore seeks to meet strategic objectives by aligning developmental activities with organizational talent management processes (Jayaraman, Talib & Khan, 2018).

Companies can adopt several talent development strategies to improve employee competency-skills, attitudes, and knowledge-to create positive performance. Training and development, mentoring, coaching, and succession planning are all tools that makeup talent development (Rawashdeh, 2018). Talent is an ability that can be developed by gaining experience and skills (Borisova, Aleks, Saburova, Belokhvostova & Sokolova, 2017). TD helps firms to develop industry and firm-specific knowledge and skills (Lepak & Snell, 1999) to be competitive. Therefore, organizations are likely to make significant

investments in TD activities, to equip employees to successfully implement business strategies. TD activities are typically undertaken by organizations to ensure that there are zero talent outages, to ensure planned succession rather than replacement, and to enhance the organisations' reputation as a talent magnet (Gandz, 2006).

f) Talents Retention [TR] Practices

Activities ensuring retention and stabilization of talents in the organization are an inseparable part of TM (Horváthová, 2011). Talented individuals should not leave an organization because their departures usually have extraordinary impact on organization's operation, which is irrelevant to their number (Armstrona, 2007). Firms employ TR strategies to make sure talented employees stay and work for the attainment of both personal aspirations and organizational goals. Among the factors influencing TR in the organization, there is the offer of motivating and valued work, ensuring opportunities for education and development. professional advancement, respecting a balance between professional and private life, the offer of a flexible work role, the offer of quality work conditions and equipment, provision of a sense of recognition and respect, the offer of adequate remuneration and recently also gaining grounds for organization's social responsibility approach (Horváthová, 2011).

Effective TM ensures that organizations can successfully acquire and retain essential talent. The second has to do with the extent to which these employees are engaged (Ashur, as cited in Wahba, 2016). The ability to effectively address both issues has become a primary determinant of organizational success, and in some cases, even survival. Hughes and Rog (2008) posited that labor shortages come as a result of an aging workforce, and the growing scarcity of highly skilled workers will establish employee retention as the main TM concern that organizations must confront in the next decade. Hence, recruitment and retention of employees become a critical business issue (Fealey, 2006). Organizations will not be able to maintain a competitive advantage in the marketplace if they fail to focus on their human capital, the asset to their organization. Therefore, increasing and maintaining employee satisfaction is vital. Thus, increasing employee retention which is crucial to an organizations' overall performance (Mc Guire, Bagher, Stewart & Harte, 2010). One strategy to retain talent is through reward management system (Jayaraman, et al., 2018) which consists of policies, practices, processes and procedure (Armstrong, 2001). Predictive analytics can provide early warning signs to HR managers to predict employee attrition (Wilkinson, Podhorska & Siekelova, 2019), which is avoided by early intervention before the resignation of the employees (Sivathanu & Pillai, 2019).

g) Organization Performance (OP)

Organizational Performance [OP] is a multi component concept. It has most of its foundations rooted in both behavioral engagements to an expected outcome (Chan, 2007; Pradhan & Jena, 2017). OP holds a strong position in the management of private and public organizations as well as in the field of organizational research and undeniably the most significant index of organizational success (Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018). OP describes the extent to which the organization can meet the needs of its stakeholders and its own needs for survival (Griffin, 2003). Thus, OP depicts that an organization is achieving its mission and goals. OP as a set of financial and non-financial indicators capable of assessing the degree to which organizational goals and objectives have been accomplished. OP is determined mainly by planning which is an essential activity for meeting service objectives and developing organizational health and growth. Strategic planning for efficient OP is a process that provides an organization with medium to long-term direction. OP involves a construct perspective in which the focus is on the definition of the concept in terms of assessment and conceptualization (Sowa, Selden & Sandfort, 2004).

Daft (2000) states that OP is an effective and efficient manner for an organization's activity to achieve goals by using resources. Therefore, it demands the contextualization of what constitutes OP in this study. Rehman and Iqbal (2020) used indicators such as responsiveness, student satisfaction, graduate productivity, development, scholarly curriculum publications and citations, and research ranking as major indicators of the OP of higher educational institutions. For the most part, other OP measures in included indicators such as competitive advantage, attractive image, winning academic-oriented projects, creation of new programs, enrolment, astute corporate research capacity, a strong sense of global appeal for development partners, institutional affiliation, academic break-through, integration of technology into higher education, corporate visibility, improved propensity graduation of churning out graduates, completing academic programs per scheduled calendar. accreditation of new courses, good financial standing, corporate sponsorship, the opening of new branches, improved service quality delivery, employee attractiveness, attracting talented employees, and so forth. Thus, from the perspective of Sukmayanti and Sintaasih (2018), OP is a process-oriented result referenced and measured within a given defined period given cognizance to set of pre-determined conditions. OP relates to outcomes in respect of targeted a set goals of organizations. Its measurement is, therefore, subjective (Shiba, Nishimoto, Sugimoto & Ishikawa, 2015). The foundation of OP is built on employee

performance because every firm sets objectives and human resources are the primary tool for attaining such goals. The concept of OP comes from the perspective that organisation is voluntary association of productive assets including human, physical, and capital resources for the purpose of achieving a shared purpose (Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018).

h) Leadership Support in TM

TM is increasingly becoming a priority for companies, and CEOs have new, more strategic expectations of their HR leadership (Betchoo, 2014). Leadership is a powerful force for success in a fastpaced, dynamic environment for all forms of organizations. Leadership is form of competency because it is embedded with knowledge, skills, and abilities that enable organizational leaders to motivate and inspire a group of people to act toward achieving a common goal (Albetkova et al., 2019). It is necessary to link leadership to TM, in situations where local managers must improve their leadership abilities and develop the talent that the organization needs. It is not merely learning or getting trained in leadership that matters but, the need to generate talent from effective leadership strategies. The attitude of leaders across the organization about TM causes organization to succeed but not mere HM processes. A leader's attitude reflects the ability to retain and develop talents continuously, with productivity heading to the organization's vision (Ananthan, Manaf, Hidayati & Dewi, 2019). Leadership plays central role in knowledge creation activities such as knowledge sharing (Masa' deh, Obeidat & Tarhini, 2016), and therefore, organizations and their leaders should focus on providing an enabling environment where knowledge management activities, including TM may flourish (Le & Lei, 2018). Knowledge-oriented leadership exhibits active engagement, commitment, and support for learning and facilitates knowledge activities by inspiring their followers to generate, share, and implement novel ideas (Nagshbandi & Jasimuddin, 2018).

Traditional leadership role in improving organizational outcome is well-documented (Rehman & Igbal, 2020). Knowledge-oriented leadership causes improvement in knowledge management capabilities and open innovation outcomes (Nagshbandi & Jasimuddin, 2018). Transformational leadership, which is characterized by idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, show determination to organizational objectives, creates a vision for the future, encourages question assumptions, and focuses on followers' (Bacha, developmental needs 2014; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008). Leadership, therefore, influences individual job performance and organizational learning, which subsequently leads to improved organizational performance (Rehman & Iqbal, 2020; Masa'deh, Obeidat & Tarhini, 2016). Another form of leadership a significant role in organizational effectiveness in sustainable leadership (Lee, 2017). Sustainable leadership prescribes a more humanistic approach to management with much emphasis on the prevention and cultivation of human talent.

Autocratic leaders have little or no role in developing talent in the firm. This is because autocratic leaders make decisions without consulting the group; People in the group may dislike such behavior because such people are not able to contribute ideas in decision making and hence little focus on developing talent (Betchoo, 2014). Democratic leaders, on the other hand are liable for effective leadership through the transmission of values, support, and deserving help to all their employees. Democratic leaders keep listening to their employees, empathize with them, offer the right environment to work and develop talent in the company, and ultimately get the best from managing talent. Leadership is a crucial factor leading to the development of talent (Betchoo, 2014). What it means is leaders should find out environments that are favorable to the development of talent. HR leaders strive to be more than transactional contributors and push for a seat at the executive planning table.HR managers must make system integration based on clean consistent data so as to provide CEOs with thoughtful prioritized talent intelligence. This is because of the elevation of HR role to the strategic managerial level. The study conceives leadership support as having the capacity to enhancing the effect of TM practices on the corporate performance of public universities in Ghana, hence was treated as a mediating variable in the study. The conceptual framework illustrates this conceptual relationship.

Hypotheses Development

Oluwadurotimi and Abosede (2019) examined the effect of TM on employee performance among some selected banks in Nigeria, Ondo State. The targeted banks included Wema Bank, Zenith Bank, Skye Bank, and First Bank Plc. The total population included 406 talented employees from the banks. 201 respondents were selected to participate in the study through the use of the proportional stratified sampling technique. Primary data collection exercise was carried out through administration of structured questionnaires to the respondents. The findings indicated that TM significantly predicted positive variance in employee satisfaction. Among the factors that influenced the implementation of TM practice included culture, the relationship between top management, and employees, salary and promotion. Elsewhere in Australia, Mohammed, Baig, and Gururajan (2019) examined the effect of TM on knowledge creation. The study targeted Austrian higher education and surveyed professional and academic staff who were actively working in both private and public universities. Primary data was collected with the

administration of structured questionnaires. TM had three components, including talent retention, talent development, and talent attraction. Socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization were the sub constructs for knowledge creation. The hypotheses were tested through a regression analysis. The findings indicate talent attraction was a significant positive predictor of knowledge creation among universities. Again, talent development also was a significant positive predictor of knowledge creation. Similarly, it was concluded that talent attraction caused a significant positive variance in the performance of Universities in Austria.

Sivathanu and Pillai (2019) conducted a study that sought to examine the impact of talent management on organizational performance through the application of technology and analytics. The study surveyed HR managers. These managers are experts in talent management and technology applications. The aspect of TM measured included talent development, talent acquisition, and talent retention. The study was guided by the grounded theory, which allowed the researchers to examine the research topic from different view-points and find out the meaning of the underlying beliefs and actions. Primary data processing was done through a two-stage coding through the Nvivo 8.0 software. One hundred twenty-two interviews were subsequently carried out. The study proved that technology usage in talent management contributes to talent analytics and strategic HR management. Talent analytics and strategic HR management cause improvement in a building high-performing talent pool, which then cause improvement in organizational performance.

A study by Anlesinya, Amponsah Tawiah, and Dartey-Baah (2019) sought to examine "TM research in Africa: towards the multilevel model and research agenda." The researchers carried out a systematic literature review approach as the main approach of the study. Data search was done in six databases, including Emerald Insight, Taylor and Francis Online, Wiley & Son Online Library, Sage, Science Direct, and Google Scholar on empirical studies between 2008 and May2019. Based on the recommendation by Gallardo-Gallardo and Thunnissen (2016), the study followed the search for keywords. Only papers published in international peer-reviewed journals, written in English, have available authorship (Boselie et al., 2005; Gallardo-Gallardo & Thunnissen, 2016), and full-text article available (Knipschild, 1995) were included in the systematic literature review. Although 69 articles were retrieved, 41 were retained for further analysis. The results proved that TM in Africa was very low. More than half of the published papers were from South Africa. Only four came from Ghana. 43.90% of the studies focused on individual-level issues, 39.02% organizational level analysis, 12.20% macro-level analysis, and 4.88% on multilevel analysis. Quantitative

approach (76.32% as against conceptual papers) topped in terms of empirical studies (18.42%). Most of the articles were dominated by positivism philosophy owing to the less concentration of qualitative studies. The outcome of TM at the firm-level indicated that TM has the potential to attract the best talent, reposition firms strategically in the environment, eliminate waste, and improve firm-level quality performance. Again, regarding the challenges associated with TM in Africa, included limited leadership mindset for TM, lack of professional talent officers, unsupportive cultural factors, the problem of ill-prepared graduates and immigration of talented young Africans.

Rawashdeh (2018) studied the impact of TM strategies on the performance of Jordanian Commercial Banks. Components of TM practices measured included talent attraction practices, talent development practices, and talent retention practices. Structured questionnaires were used to collect the primary data. One hundred and one respondents (line managers and HR managers) were selected and surveyed through the random sampling technique. The multiple regression analysis revealed that TM accounted for a statistically significant substantial variance in OP ($R^2=0.740$; p=0.0001: p<0.05). Talent attraction (Beta=0.340; p=0.002: p < 0.05), talent development (Beta=0.320; p = 0.320; p < 0.050.05) and talent retention (Beta = 0.402; p = 0.006: p <0.05) were significant positive predictors of bank performance. Elsewhere in Kenya, Rukunga and Nzulwa (2018) conducted an empirical study that examined the role of TM strategies on OP, by surveying 279 management staff of three telecommunication firms in Kenya. On measuring TM, the study measured dimensions of TM including talent attraction strategy, talent retention strategy, learning and development strategy, and career management strategy. Semistructured questionnaires were self-administered to collect the primary data. The regression results proved that TM accounted for a statistically significant positive variance (68.4%) in OP. All the sub-constructs of TM were significant positive predictors of OP; for talent attraction strategy (Beta = 0.782; p = 0.003: p < 0.05), talent retention strategy (Beta=0.701; p=0.030; p < 0.05), learning and development strategy (Beta=0.599; p=0.006: p < 0.05) and career development strategy (Beta=0.813; p=0.0001: p < 0.05).

Maurya and Agarwal (2018) conducted an empirical study that sought to assess the effect of organizational TM on perceived employer branding. The study population included public sector mining employees in India. The study used a structured questionnaire for the collection of the primary data. Some of the questionnaires were mailed electronically to the respondents while some of the questionnaires were also sent to the respondents via the postal system. The sample included HR executives in various departments such as HR, Mining, Electrical, Mechanical, and

Finance. Three hundred fifteen respondents were contacted and issued with the questionnaires, but only 232 respondents returned their questionnaires. A 5-point Likert scale (1-strongly disagree; 5-Strongly agree) was employed for the measurement of the opinions of the respondents concerning the items in the sub-scales. The study adopted the 43-item scale developed by Oehley (2007) to measure TM. Employer branding was adapted from Berthon, Ewing, and Hah (2005). The study used the Pearson-product moment correlation, and standard multiple regression to analyse the hypotheses of the study. There was a statistically significant positive correlation but between and employer branding. organizational TM The regression results indicated that among the eight organizational dimensions of TM, the most parsimonious set of predictors that were most effective in predicting the employer branding included the rewards and remunerates fairly (regression weight 0.621), manages work-life balance (regression weight 0.404) and attracts and recruits talent (regression weight 0.349). The following hypotheses were formulated based on the above submissions:

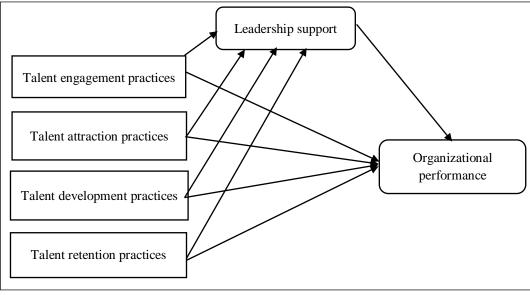
- H₁: Talent attraction is a significant positive predictor of organizational performance
- H₂: Talent engagement is a significant positive predictor of organizational performance
- H₂: Talent development is a significant positive predictor of organizational performance
- Talent retention is a significant positive predictor of organizational performance

Rehman and Iqbal (2020) examined the effect of knowledge-oriented leadership and knowledge management innovation on the organizational performance in higher education. The study targeted 21 public and private sector universities in Pakistan. The target respondents included faculty members such as professors, associate professors, assistant professors, and lecturers. Convenience sampling was employed to select 422 and surveyed through questionnaire administration. The study recorded 79.15% response rate. The study proves knowledge-oriented leadership significantly predicts improvement in organizational performance. Knowledge-oriented leadership knowledge management processes collectively accounted for 89% variance in innovation in higher education. Elsewhere in Thailand, Sattayaraksa and Boon-itt, (2018) examined the role of ECO transformational leadership and organizational factors on product innovation performance. Through a quantitative study, 269 CEOs of manufacturing companies were surveyed through a mail survey. A twostep structural equation modelingwas configured to test the formulated hypotheses. The results indicate that CEO transformational leadership indirectly affects

product innovation performance through an innovation culture, organizational learning, and the new product development (NPD) process. CEO transformational leadership had a strong effect on innovation culture and organizational learning. Organizational learning was strongly associated with the NPD process, which significantly leads to product innovation performance. Riquelme, Rios and Gadallah, (2019) also examined the effect of servant leadership on an organization's servingdriven capabilities in a Kuwaiti bank environment. A cross-sectional survey was adopted as the main design of the study. Structured questionnaires were issued to managers and staff of the targeted firms for the collection of the primary data. The study used the LISREL 8.8 software to analyse the primary data. The study proves servant-leadership is a significant positive effect on serving-driven capability in the banking industry. Similarly, servant-leadership significantly positive variance in employee identification as well as customer-service behavior. Hendriks, Burger, Rijsenbilt, Pleeging, and Commandeur (2020), in their empirical study, also found virtuous leadership have a significant impact on employee well-being dimensions such as work-related wellbeing, job satisfaction affect, and work engagement which ultimately induce improved organizational performance. The overall impulse from the review is that for organizations to succeed in their policy implementation, such as talent management, active support of leadership must be sought after. Based on the above assertions, the study hypothesizes that:

- H_5 : Leadership support positively and significantly mediates talent engagement-organizational the performance predictive relationship
- Leadership support positively and significantly mediates the talent attraction-organizational performance predictive relationship
- H_7 : Leadership support positively and significantly the talent development-organizational mediates performance predictive relationship
- $H_{\rm g}$: Leadership support positively and significantly mediates the talent retention-organizational performance predictive relationship

Conceptual Model



Source: Author's Construction (2020)

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

k) Methods

The research method provided the blueprint for the conduct of this study (Sileyew, 2019). Through explanatory research design (Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018) we examined how changes in TM strategies affect changes in the performance of University of Cape Coast, after controlling for the possible mediating effect of leadership support for TM programs in the university (Coy, 2019). The variables were numerically measured, and this justified the quantitative approach to analyzing and testing hypotheses formulated in this study (Schutt, 2018). Structured questionnaires were employed for the collection of the primary empirical data (Sileyew, 2019), which ultimately made statistical analysis easy (Coy, 2019). Hypotheses were tested which either led to confirmation or rejection of a theory (Zyphur & Pierides, 2019).

Lecturers in public universities in Ghana constitute the target population. However, this was delimited to lecturers in the University of Cape Coast. The university was established in October1962 as a University College and placed in a special relationship with the University of Ghana, Legon. On October 1, 1971, the college attained a full and independent status of a University (Act 390; PNDC Law 278). As of 2018, the university is structured under five colleges with different academic programs including regular programs, sandwiches, and distance learning at various levels. A total of 761 permanent lecturers constitute the target population. Therefore, non-academic staff, as well as temporary lecturers, were excluded from the study. Through a simple random sampling technique, 430 lecturers were selected and surveyed. Random numbers were generated through a computer program [Random Number Generator] and then assigned to the list of lecturers, which then directed the random selection of the respondents.

The use of structured questionnaires provided easy access to controlled data that made data coding, data processing, and analysis easier when appropriate statistical techniques are employed (Nyarku, Kusi, Domfeh, Ofori, Koomson & Owusu, 2018). Drop-andpick method of data collection was carried out for the primary data collection between November 2019, and February 2020. At the end of the primary data collection exercises, we achieved 100% response rate. The sex distribution of the respondents shows that most of the respondents were male, representing 60%. However, an equally sizable number of the respondents (40%) were female, signifying that although the workforce structure on gender may seem a bit dominated by males, females, are also represented. The results relating to the target respondents revealed 56.5% were lecturers, followed by 29.3% assistant lecturers and14.2% senior lecturers. The respondents see themselves as talents that must be explored and exploited for the benefit of the university. Most of the respondents rated TM practices of the university as being excellent, representing 32.3%. Very few of the respondents rated the talent management initiatives of the university as being poor (8.8%) and fair (17.2%). The length of service among the respondents showed that relatively, the respondents had working experience as lecturers between 5-10 years (25.1%) and above 20 years

(23.5%), respectively. Very few had working experience between 11-15 years (12.8%) and less than five years (17.2%) in that manner.

Measurement

The study adapteds cales for TM from some empirically validated scales (Mahfoozi, Salajegheh, Ghorbani & Sheikhi, 2018; Pandita & Ray, 2018; Faroog, Othmam, Nordin & Ibrahim, 2016). TM had four subconstructs. Talent attraction practices (6-items); Talent engagement practices (7-items); Talent development practices (8-items); Talent retention practices (8-items). Respondents were asked to indicate their level of perceived effectiveness of the implementation of TM practices in the university on a 5-point Likert scale (1-Not at all effective-5-Very effective). We adapted the OPscale from some previous empirically validated scale (Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018). Also, other OP indicators were identified through the extensive literature review carried out in this study. OP was measured on a 5-point Likert scale. Thus, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on the extent to which they agree or otherwise of how performance of University of Cape Coast improves because of effective implementation of TM practices (1-Not at all in agreement-5-To a very great extent in agreement).

The study therefore used recognized 13-items to measure OP in higher education industrial context (universities) in Ghana. Measures of leadership support [LS] were derived from the extant literature. A 5-point Likert scale was used to LS. The LS scale had six items; respondents were asked to indicate the extent of agreement or otherwise on leadership support in TM program in the university (1-Not at all in agreement-5-To a very great extent in agreement).

m) Model Configuration

SMART PLS 3.2.8 was used for data processing. Statistical Package for Socia Sciences (Version 25.0) was however used for coding and data entry (data preparation). The prepared data file was converted into a useable format "comma-delimited" before the final file was imported into the SMART PLS application (Kumar & Kumar Baradiya, 2019; Lew, Lau & Leow, 2019) for the data analysis. The use of SMART PLS application for this type of analysis is recognized in structural modelling studies (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson 2018), particularly for estimating the hypothesized model (Ahrholdt, Gudergan, & Ringle 2019). The SMART pls software is robust because it models both factors and composite structures (Schberth, Henseler & Dijkstra, 2018). This software also supports prediction-oriented PLS-SEM analyses (Sharma, Shmueli, Sarstedt, Danks, & Ray 2019). The set-up of the PLS tool for the configuration of the model was as follows.

The Consistent Algorithm and Consistent Bootstrapping with 5000 maximum iterations was used

for the processing of the specified models (Nikitina, Paidi & Furuoka, 2019). Case wise, deletion was configured for missing values (Shmueli, Sarstedt, Hair, Cheah, Ting, Vaithilingam & Ringle, 2019) although there were no missing values in the data. The model was configured reflectively with a 95% confidence interval with a corresponding 5% level of significance. A onetailed test of hypotheses was configured in this regard because of the directional nature of the hypotheses. The decision to retain or delete an indicator in the measurement model was guided by the rule of thumb; all indicators with outer loadings less than 0.7 (not statistically significant) must be eliminated to improve the measurement model. Several runs of consistent algorithms and a run of consistent bootstrapping were carried out to arrived at the final model. The choice of SMART pls 3.2.8 for the modeling is currently known as the best appropriate method for multivariate analysis (Hussain, Fangwei, Siddiqi, Ali & Shabbir, 2018).

The measurement of the model began with a measurement model and ends with a structural model since PLS-SEM validates measurement models before structural models (Ringle, Sarstedt, Mitchell & Gudergan, 2020; Hair, Risher, Sarstedt & Ringle, 2019). In validating the measurement model, reliability of the scale was measured with the rho A (≥ 0.7). The study also computed Cronbach's Alpha (≥0.7) and Composite Reliability (≥ 0.7) and reported same. To ensure content validity, a constant review of literature in line with main constructs was carried out. This exercise informed the inclusion of the items for measuring each construct of interest. Average Variance Extracted (≥ 0.5) was used to measure convergent validity. Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (<1) was used to measure discriminant validity. Evaluation of the Inner Structural Model involved examining the Outer loadings, path estimates (Unstandardized β value) and T-statistics value, Effect size (f²), the Predictive relevance of the model (Q²) and Coefficient of determination (R2). Outer loadings can also be considered a form of item reliability coefficients for the reflective model (Garson, 2016; Henseler, Rimgle & Sarstedt, 2012). Hair et al. (2016) disclose the outer loadings are single regression results with an indicator in the measurement model, as independent variable. Measurement loadings are standardized path weights that connect the factors to the indicator variables and range from 0 to 1. Loadings should be significant (Garson, 2016). By convention, for a well-fitting reflective model, path loadings should be above 0.70 (Ringle, 2006: Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2012). However, indicators with not less than 0.5 loadings are maintained. Items with a threshold less than 0.7 are retained because their deletion could not improve CA and CR (Hair et al., 2014). In general, the larger the loadings, the robust and more reliable the measurement model.

Path estimates otherwise coefficients denote the expected variation in the endogenous latent construct for a unit variation in the exogenous latent construct (Schberth, Henseler & Dijkstra, 2018). Technically, higher values of path estimate the stronger the effect of the exogenous latent construct on the endogenous latent construct (Hussain et al., 2018). Tstatistics was used to verify the significance of path estimates. The f² was used to measure the effect size of the path estimates. The f² measures the degree of the effect of each exogenous latent contrust on the endogenous latent construct (Ahrholdt, Gudergan, & Ringle 2019). f² values > 0.35 are considered strong effect, f² value > 0.15 is considered moderate effect whilst f² value > 0.02 is considered weak effect (Hussain, et al., 2018). Q2 test measures predictive relevance of endogenous factors in the predictive models (Ghulami, Hamid & Zakaria, 2014). In the words of Vinzi, Trinchera & Amato, 2010), the Q² represents how well-observed values are reconstructed by the model, given its parameter estimates. The approach followed in the test was the blind-folding procedure, which epitomizes a synthesis of function fitting and cross-validation. To have predictive relevance, the constructs in the structural model should have Q2 value greater than zero. The coefficient of determination measures the overall effect size and variance explained in the endogenous constructs for the structural model and thus measures the predictive accuracy (Hussain et al., 2018). The R² measures the coefficient of determination. Hair et al. (2014) proposed that R² value of 0.75 is substantial, R² value of 0.5 is moderate while R² value of 0.26 is weak. The findings were presented in Tables and Figures.

Common Method Bias

A common method bias (for the entire dataset) was assessed through the Haman's Single Factor

approach through a dimension reduction technique (Principal factoring axis) in SPSS (version 25.0). It was discovered that the single accounted for 31.754%, which is far less than 50% of the loading percentage of variance hence the conclusion that there is no threat of common method bias for the primary data collected for the analysis in respect of the specific research objectives.

RESULTS

a) Model Configuration Indexes

The hypotheses formulated were tested reflectively through SMART pls configuration. Consistent PLS Algorithm and Consistent Bootstrapping were dully marshaled for the analysis after the model specification with these setting up features: Test type=1-tailed; significance level=0.05; the maximum number of iterations=5000. The measurement model was first examined and then, after that, the structural model. Once the measurement model is accurately measured, the structural model together with the significance level is then computed accordingly. Thus, confirming the twostep procedure as recommended by Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics (2009).

b) Measurement Model

The study sought to assess the predictive capacity of TM practices to causing a change, if any, in OP in the University of Cape Coast in Ghana, in a single reflectively specified model. The model was reflectively specified and assessed based on recognized procedures for the assessment of reflective models. The measurement model includes the validation of the reliability and validity of the scales and data.

Table 1: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	Rho_A	Composite Reliability	AVE
Organizational performance	0.906	0.909	0.923	0.572
Talent attraction	0.737	0.743	0.850	0.654
Talent development	0.792	0.796	0.856	0.544
Talent engagement	0.692	0.701	0.830	0.620
Talent retention	0.761	0.771	0.849	0.585

Source: Field Survey, (2020)

Cronbach's Alpha value (Table 1) indicated that the internal consistency was reliable because the CA value for most of the items exceeded the minimum 0.7 cut-off point (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016) except talent engagement. The facts are as follows: OP (CA=0.906);Talent attraction (CA=0.737); Talent development (CA=0.792); Talent engagement (CA = 0.692)and Talent retention (CA=0.761).

Composite reliability is a preferred alternative to Cronbach's Alpha to test convergent validity in reflective model because Cronbach's Alpha may either overestimate or under-estimate scale reliability (Henseler, Rongle & Sarstedt, 2012). All the constructs were reliable (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019; Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015) because the constructs had composite relability scores higher than 0.7 (Garson, 2016; Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014). These are the facts: OP (CR=0.923); Talent attraction (CR=0.850); Talent developement (CR=0.856): Talent engagement (CR=0.830) and Talent retention (CR=0.849). Even though the the values of the composite reliability are somehow very high, this may signal some design problem; the indicators were, however, representative of the desired constructs and simply correlated highly and therefore acceptable (Garson, 2016).

The Cronbach's Alpha and the composite reliability refer to sum scores, not composite scores (Henseler, 2017). The rho A is the most important PLS reliability measure (Dijkstra & Henseler 2015), which is currently the only consistent reliability measure of PLS

construct scores (Henseler, 2017). From the findings, all the constructs had a rho A scores higher than 0.7. The AVE was used to measure convergent validity. Convergent valaidity measures the level of correlation of multiple indicators of the same construct that are in agreement (Ab Hamid, Sami & Sidek, 2017). AVE values must be or exceed 0.5 before they can adequately measure convergent validity (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015). Close observation for the AVEs for the constructs, therefore proves that they accurately measured the convergent validity. Thus, these confirm the claim: OP (AVE=0.572); Talent attraction (AVE=0.654); Talent development (AVE=0.544);Talent engagement (AVE=0.620); and Talent retention (AVE=0.585).

Construct Validity

Table 2: Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio

	Organizational performance	Talent attraction	Talent development	Talent engagement
Talent attraction	0.863			
Talent development	0.914	0.944		
Talent engagement	0.863	0.995	0.976	
Talent retention	0.898	0.896	0.926	0.938

Source: Field Survey, (2020)

Heterotrait-Montrait [HTMT] is better measure discriminant validity in the reflective model than Fornell-Larcker Criterion and Factor Loadings (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015). In a well-fitted model, the HTMT ratio should be below 0.9 in reflective constructs to accurately measure discriminant validity (Henseler, Ringle & Sarsstedt, 2015; Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015). This suggestion is a more conservative approach. Gaskin, Godfreyand Vance (2018), however provide; a score less than oneis acceptable measure of discriminant validity. The findings in Table 2show the constructs measured discriminant validity.

Collinearity Statistics

Table 3: Outer Model (VIF)

Name	Label	VIF
At2	Attractive working conditions and fair wages	1.426
At4	Strong social networking in the organizational context	1.437
At6	Good communication climate	1.535
Ef1	Improved competitive edge	1.939
Ef2	Winning of economically viable academic-oriented projects,	2.026
Ef3	Quality service delivery	2.840
Ef4	Research ranking	2.416
Ef5	Outstanding institutional affiliation	2.712
Ef6	Improved enrollment	1.919
Ef7	Development of accredited new educational programmes,	2.595
Ef8	Astute academic research capacity	2.346
Ef9	Scholarly publications and citations	2.140
Td3	Career management	1.626
Td4	Competence training and development	1.657
Td5	Special in-service training for talents	1.722
Td7	Training in international operations	1.548
Td8	Short term international assignments	1.756

Te1	Distribution of tasks based on skills and competencies	1.250
Te2	Preceding training needs with skill-gap analysis	1.424
Te4	Practice of skills mapping to improve recruitment and selection	1.443
Tr1	Succession planning	1.399
Tr4	Showering top performers with opportunities	1.406
Tr5	Incentivized working conditions	1.547
Tr6	Competitive compensation package	1.920

Since reflective models are prone to biases and errors (Afum, Sun & Kuis, 2019), it becomes critical to examine the test of collinearity statistics and report same (Hair et al., 2016) as a means to detecting common method bias (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019). Common method bias was masured with the VIF values as has been confirmed in reflective models (Kock, 2015). Generally, as a rule of thumb, VIF needs to have a score of 5 or lower to avoid multicollinearity problem (Kock & Lynn, 2012; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle & Mena, 2012) in situations where algorithms incorporate measurement error especially for factor-based PLS-SEM algorithms (Kock, 2015). The VIF scores for the outer model, therefore demonstrate there is no common method bias forall the constucts.

Table 4: Inner VIF

Organizational perform	
Talent attraction	2.587
Talent development	2.977
Talent engagement	2.624
Talent retention	2.412

Source: Field Survey, (2020)

Since reflective models are prone to biases and errors (Afum, Sun & Kuis, 2019), it becomes critical to examine the test of collinearity statistics and report same (Hairet al., 2016) as a means to detcting common method bias (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019). This was masured with the VIF values as has been confirmed in reflective models (Kock, 2015). Generally, as a rule of thumb, VIF need to have a score of 5 or lower to avoid muticollinearity problem (Kock & Lynn, 2012; Hair et al., 2012) in situations where algorithms incorporate measurement error especially for factor-based PLS SEM algorithms (Kock, 2015). The VIF scores (Table 4) for the inner model therefore portray there is no commom method bias for all the constructs.

c) Structural Model (Hypotheses Testing)

Table 5: Factor Loadings

	Loadings	T Statistics	P Values
At2 <- Talent attraction	0.821	73.710	0.000
At4 <- Talent attraction	0.777	47.626	0.000
At6 <- Talent attraction	0.828	69.027	0.000
Ef1 <- Organizational performance	0.704	46.954	0.000
Ef2 <- Organizational performance	0.736	46.202	0.000
Ef3 <- Organizational performance	0.788	62.082	0.000
Ef4 <- Organizational performance	0.749	50.395	0.000
Ef5 <- Organizational performance	0.823	79.656	0.000
Ef6 <- Organizational performance	0.711	42.414	0.000
Ef7 <- Organizational performance	0.778	54.072	0.000
Ef8 <- Organizational performance	0.786	69.901	0.000
Ef9 <- Organizational performance	0.726	37.640	0.000
Td3 <- Talent development	0.744	45.492	0.000
Td4 <- Talent development	0.745	52.606	0.000
Td5 <- Talent development	0.741	44.041	0.000
Td7 <- Talent development	0.735	41.008	0.000
Td8 <- Talent development	0.723	45.844	0.000
Te1 <- Talent engagement	0.722	33.497	0.000

Te2 <- Talent engagement	0.822	60.987	0.000
Te4 <- Talent engagement	0.813	58.491	0.000
Tr1 <- Talent retention	0.735	36.668	0.000
Tr4 <- Talent retention	0.706	35.582	0.000
Tr5 <- Talent retention	0.754	48.999	0.000
Tr6 <- Talent retention	0.856	102.202	0.000

The outer loadings of the indicators of each of the constructs considered in the model are presented Table 5Results relating to the factor loadings indicate all the indicators had loading more than 0.7 which shows that they strongly measured the constructs they purported to measure, especially as attested by their

respective p-value. The p-values indicate the level of significant predictions of the indicators to accurately measuring the respective constructs. The outer loadings were all statistically significant because they had p<0.05. Thus, in all instances, a T-Statistics for the indicators were more than 1.96.

Table 6: Path Coefficients, Effect Size, and Predictive Relevance

	Beta	F-square	Q-square	T Statistics	P Values
Talent attraction -> Organizational performance	0.186	0.046	0.0117	6.097	0.000
Talent development - > Organizational performance	0.381	0.169	0.0467	12.408	0.000
Talent engagement - > Organizational performance	0.073	0.007	1.6694	2.005	0.046
Talent retention -> Organizational performance	0.303	0.132	0.0351	8.865	0.000

Source: Field Survey, (2020)

The predictive results (Table 6) indicate TA is a significant positive predictor of OP (Beta=0.186; t=6.097; p=0.000: p<0.05). It makes sense to quantify how substantial the significant effects are, which can be done by assessing their effect size f^2 (Henseler, 2017). Effect size values above 0.35, 0.15, and 0.02 are strong, moderate, and weak (Cohen 1988). The effect size shows that talent attraction causes a weak, statistically significant positive variance in OP (f^2 =0.215). The predictive relevance score shows TA has a small predictive relevance (Q²=0.0117). This finding confirms the proposition of H₁.

Similarly, the study proved that indicate TD made a statistically significant positive contribution to causing the positive variance in performance of the University of Cape Coast (Beta=0.381; t=12.408; p=0.0001: p<0.05). In this sense, a unit increase in scores for TD causes 0.381 significant improvement in the performance of the Cape Coast University. On the other hand, it can be inferred that a unit fall in scores for TD causes 0.381 significant reduction in the performance of the University of Cape Coast. The effect size shows that TD causes a moderate statistically significant positive variance in performance of University of Cape Coast (f^2 =0.169). The predictive relevance score shows talent development has a small predictive relevance ($Q^2=0.0467$).

TE made a statistically significant positive contribution to causing the positive variance in the performance of the University of Cape Coast (Beta=0.073; t=2.005; p=0.046: p<0.05). Thus, a unit increase in scores for TE causes 0.073 significant improvement in the performance of the Cape Coast University. On the contrary, a unit fall in scores for TE causes 0.073 significant reduction in the performance of the University of Cape Coast. The effect size shows that TE causes a weak statistically significant positive variance in the performance of the University of Cape Coast (f^2 =0.007). The predictive relevance score shows TE has a medium predictive relevance in the model $(Q^2 = 1.6694)$.

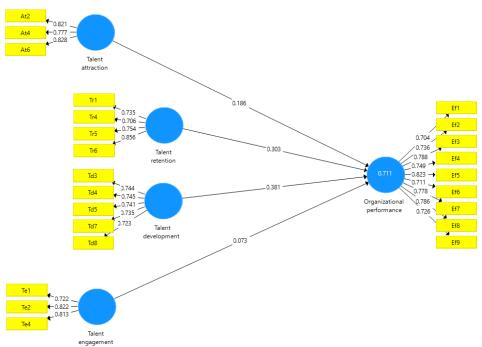
Moreover, TR made a statistically significant positive contribution to causing the positive variance in the performance of the University of Cape Coast (Beta=0.303; t=8.865; p=0.0001: p<0.05). Thus, a unit increase in scores for TR causes 0.303 significant improvement in the performance of the Cape Coast University. On the other hand, a unit fall in scores for TR causes 0.303 significant reduction in the performance of the University of Cape Coast. The effect size shows that TR causes a weak statistically significant positive variance in the performance of the University of Cape Coast (f^2 =0.132). The predictive relevance score shows TR has a small predictive relevance in the model $(Q^2=0.0351)$.

Table 7: Coefficient of Determination

·	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Organizational Performance	0.711	0.710

The predictive capacity of the model shows TM practices as measured by talent attraction, talent retention, talent development, and talent engagement collectively account for a substantial (71.1%)

improvement in OP (R²=0.711) when the effect of other factor accounting for the change in OP is statistically controlled for in the analysis.



Source: Field Survey, (2020)

MEDIATION ANALYSIS VI.

a) Measurement Model

Table 8: Construct Reliability and Validity

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Leadership support	0.831	0.831	0.887	0.663
Organizational performance	0.906	0.910	0.923	0.573
Talent attraction	0.737	0.742	0.850	0.655
Talent development	0.792	0.795	0.856	0.544
Talent engagement	0.692	0.699	0.830	0.619
Talent retention	0.761	0.775	0.848	0.584

Source: Field Survey, (2020)

A close observation of the Cronbach' Alpha value (Table 8) indicated that the internal consistency was reliable because the CA value for most of the itemsexceeded the minimum 0.7 cut-off point (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016) except talent engagement. The facts are as follows: Leadership support (CA=0.831); OP (CA=0.906); Talent attraction (CA=0.737); Talent development (CA=0.792);Talent engagement (CA = 0.692)and Talent retention (CA=0.761).According to Henseler, Rongle and Sarstedt, (2012), composite relaibility is considered a preferred alternative to Cronbach's Alpha to test convergent validity in the reflective model because Cronbach's Alpha may either over-estimate or under-estimate scale reliability. Close observation also shows that all the constructs were reliable (Afum, Sun & Kusi, 2019; Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015) because the constructs had composite reliability scores higher than 0.7 (Garson, 2016; Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014). These are the facts: Leadership support (CR=0.887): OP (CR=0.923): Talent attraction (CR=0.850); Talent developement (CR=0.856); Talent engagement (CR=0.830) and Talent retention (CR=0.849). Although the values of the

composite reliability somehow are very high, this may signal some design problem; the indicators were representative of the desired constructs and simply correlated highly, hence acceptable (Garson, 2016).

From the findings except for talent engagement, all the remaining constructs had rho A scores higher than 0.7. Close observation for the AVEs for the constructs, therefore, proves that they accurately measured the convergent validity. Thus, these confirm the claim: Leadership support (AVE=0.663); OP (AVE=0.573); Talent attraction (AVE=0.655); Talent development (AVE = 0.544); Talent engagement (AVE=0.619); and Talent retention (AVE=0.584).

Table 9: Discriminant Validity

	Leadership support	Organizational Performance	Talent attraction	Talent development	Talent engagement
Organizational Performance	0.930				
Talent attraction	0.855	0.863			
Talent development	0.877	0.914	0.944		
Talent engagement	0.776	0.863	0.995	0.976	
Talent retention	0.976	0.898	0.896	0.926	0.938

Source: Field Survey, (2020)

The findings in Table 9 show discriminant validity was accurately measured for the paired constructs in the measurement model.

Collinearity Statistics (VIF)

Table 10: Outer VIF values

Name	Label	VIF
At2	Attractive working conditions and fair wages	1.426
At4	Strong social networking in the organizational context	1.437
At6	Good communication climate	1.535
Ef1	Improved competitive edge	1.939
Ef2	Winning of economically viable academic-oriented projects,	2.026
Ef3	Quality service delivery	2.840
Ef4	Research ranking	2.416
Ef5	Outstanding institutional affiliation	2.712
Ef6	Improved enrollment	1.919
Ef7	Development of accredited new educational programmes,	2.595
Ef8	Astute academic research capacity	2.346
Ef9	Scholarly publications and citations	2.140
Ls1	Strong leadership support for talent management	1.998
Ls5	Alignment of talent management to corporate strategy	1.896
Ls6	Leaders are change agents who develop others who align with them and become the next generation of talents	1.886
Ls7	Genuine leadership interest in fostering corporate learning and development of talents	1.845
Td3	Career management	1.626
Td4	Competence training and development	1.657
Td5	Special in-service training for talents	1.722
Td7	Training in international operations	1.548

Td8	Short term international assignments	1.756
Te1	Distribution of tasks based on skills and competencies	1.250
Te2	Preceding training needs with skill-gap analysis	1.424
Te4	Practice of skills mapping to improve recruitment and selection	1.443
Tr1	Succession planning	1.399
Tr4	Showering top performers with opportunities	1.406
Tr5	Incentivized working conditions	1.547
Tr6	Competitive compensation package	1.920

From the VIF scores (Table 10), one can conlcude there is no commom method bias for all the constructs.

Table 11: Inner VIF values

	Leadership support	Organizational performance
Leadership support		3.137
Talent attraction	2.613	2.719
Talent development	2.953	3.216
Talent engagement	2.631	2.662
Talent retention	2.393	3.244

Source: Field Survey, (2020)

The VIF scores (Table 11) for the inner model, therefore demonstrate there is no common method bias for all the constucts.

b) Structural Model (Hypotheses Testing)

Table 12: Outer Loadings

74575 72. Guid	Table 12. Outer Loadings		
	Loadings	T Statistics	P Values
At2 <- Talent attraction	0.817	71.558	0.000
At4 <- Talent attraction	0.779	49.662	0.000
At6 <- Talent attraction	0.830	72.074	0.000
Ef1 <- Organizational performance	0.700	44.093	0.000
Ef2 <- Organizational performance	0.738	47.525	0.000
Ef3 <- Organizational performance	0.786	61.473	0.000
Ef4 <- Organizational performance	0.750	50.850	0.000
Ef5 <- Organizational performance	0.825	85.344	0.000
Ef6 <- Organizational performance	0.708	41.880	0.000
Ef7 <- Organizational performance	0.781	56.714	0.000
Ef8 <- Organizational performance	0.785	66.479	0.000
Ef9 <- Organizational performance	0.729	41.977	0.000
Ls1 <- Leadership support	0.824	69.000	0.000
Ls5 <- Leadership support	0.810	68.006	0.000
Ls6 <- Leadership support	0.810	71.157	0.000
Ls7 <- Leadership support	0.812	67.573	0.000
Td3 <- Talent development	0.736	45.106	0.000
Td4 <- Talent development	0.752	52.248	0.000
Td5 <- Talent development	0.732	43.705	0.000
Td7 <- Talent development	0.740	46.191	0.000
Td8 <- Talent development	0.727	45.940	0.000
Te1 <- Talent engagement	0.736	35.110	0.000
Te2 <- Talent engagement	0.825	64.216	0.000

Te4 <- Talent engagement	0.798	50.110	0.000
Tr1 <- Talent retention	0.733	34.490	0.000
Tr4 <- Talent retention	0.689	30.853	0.000
Tr5 <- Talent retention	0.770	58.404	0.000
Tr6 <- Talent retention	0.857	108.430	0.000

Results relating to the factor loadings indicate all the indicators had loading more than 0.7, which shows that they sturdily measured the constructs they purported to measure, especially as attested by their respective p-value. The p-values indicate the level of

significant predictions of the indicators to accurately measuring the separate constructs. The outer loadings were all statistically significant because they had p<0.05. Thus, in all occurrences, a T-Statistics for the indicators were larger than 1.96.

Table 13: Specific Indirect Effect

	Beta	T Statistics	P Values
Talent attraction -> Leadership support - > Organizational performance	0.076	4.381	0.000
Talent development -> Leadership support - >Organizational performance	0.120	7.092	0.000
Talent engagement -> Leadership support - >Organizational performance	-0.041	2.008	0.045
Talent retention -> Leadership support - >Organizational performance	0.216	7.640	0.000

Source: Field Survey, (2020)

The mediation analysis (Table 13) shows that LS, in all cases mediated the impact of the individual components of TM strategies on OP. For the specific instances, the study proved that LS mediated positively and significantly the predictive relationship between TA and OP (Beta=0.076; t=4.381; p=0.0001: p<0.05); positively mediated positively and significantly the

predictive between TD and OP (Beta=0.120; t=7.092; p < 0.05); mediated p=0.0001: positively significantly the predictive between TR and (Beta=0.216; t=7.640; p=0.0001: p<0.05) and then mediated negatively and significantly the predictive between TE and OP (Beta=-0.041; t=2.008; p=0.045: p < 0.05).

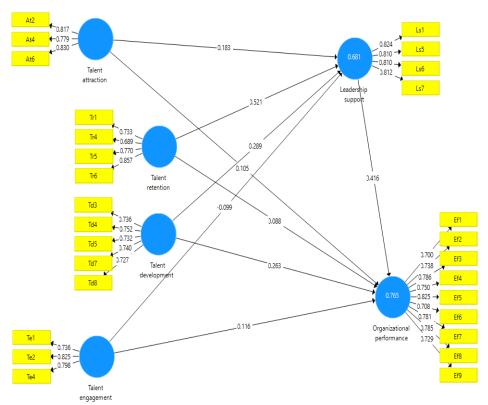
Table 14: Coefficient of Determination

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Leadership support	0.681	0.680
Organizational performance	0.765	0.763

Source: Field Survey, (2020)

The predictive capacity of the model (Table 14) shows TM practices (As measured by TA, TR, TD, and TE) and LS collectively account for a substantial (76.5%) improvement in OP (R²=0.765) when the effect of other factor accounting for the change in OP is statistically controlled for in the model. Aspects of University of Cape Coast's performance improved as a result of implementation of the TM include competitive edge, winning of economically viable academic-oriented projects, research ranking, scholarly publications and citations, quality service delivery, development of accredited new educational programs, outstanding institutional affiliation, astute academic research capacity, and improved enrollment. A close observation of the R² behavior showed there was an improvement in the level of variance in OP from 71.1% to 76.5% owing to the inclusion of LS in promoting talent management

implementation. This improvement in OP signifies the need for corporate leaders in public universities to spearhead and support TM programs in public universities in Ghana.



Source: Field Survey, (2020)

Table 15: Summary of Hypotheses Results

No	Hypotheses	Decision
H ₁	Talent attraction is significant positive predictor of organizational performance	Supported
H ₂	Talent engagement is significant positive predictor of organizational performance	Supported
H ₃	Talent development is significant positive predictor of organizational performance	Supported
H ₄	Talent retention is significant positive predictor of organizational performance	Supported
H ₅	Leadership support positively and significantly mediates the talent engagement-organizational performance predictive relationship	Not supported
H ₆	Leadership support positively and significantly mediates the talent attraction-organizational performance predictive relationship	Supported
H ₇	Leadership support positively and significantly mediates the talent development-organizational performance predictive relationship	Supported
H ₈	Leadership support positively and significantly mediates the talent retention-organizational performance predictive relationship	Supported

VII. DISCUSSION

The direct model (without the inclusion of LS) results showed that TA proves to be a significant predictor of OP. This finding supports the conclusions held in some previous empirical studies that found TA strategies as a significant predictor of OP (Rawashdeh, 2018; Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018; bin Magbool, Amran, Nejati, & Jayaraman, 2016). Among the TA practices that cause improvement in OP in public universities included promoting attractive working conditions and fair wages to talented employees. Management of Cape Coast University must, therefore, continue implementing these TA practices would collectively enhance the performance of the University. TD practices such as career management for employees, implementation of competence training and development, organization of in-service training for talents, training of lecturers in international operations as well as involving lecturers in short term international assignments. Conditions affecting these variables should be improved significantly by the leadership of the University, and this will produce desired organizational performance. These findings support the collective conclusion held in some previous empirical studies that found TD strategies as a significant predictor of OP (Sivathanu & Pillai, 2019; Rawashdeh, 2018; Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018). It is managerially prudent for management of public universities to rely on TE practices and ensure their effective implementation. Special emphasis should be placed on the distribution of tasks based on skills and competencies of lecturers, proceeding training needs with a skill gap analysis as well as practicing skills mapping to improve recruitment and selection of lecturers in public universities. Thus, TE strategies proved to be a significant positive predictor of OP and therefore confirms the positions of some previous empirical studies (Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018).

Again, from the findings, a particular insight worthy of mentioning is the issue of how TR causes improvement in OP of public universities thereby supporting the collective conclusion held in some previous empirical studies that found TD strategies as significant predictor of OP (Sivathanu & Pillai, 2019; Rawashdeh, 2018; Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018) and contradicting the finding of Doane, (2009). Particular TR practices that improve the OP of public universities include succession planning, showering top performers with opportunities, creating incentivized working conditions, and payment of competitive compensation packages to lecturers. Aspects of University of Cape Coast's performance improved as a result of the implementation of TM include improved competitive edge, winning of economically viable academic-oriented projects, research ranking, scholarly publications and citations, quality service delivery, development of accredited new educational programs, outstanding institutional affiliation, astute academic research capacity, and upgraded enrollment. Thus, this confirms the position held in some previous empirical studies that found TM as a significant predictor of OP (Oluwadurotimi & Abosede, 2019; Rawashdeh, 2018; Rukunga & Nzulwa, 2018; Maurya & Agarwal, 2018; Sivathanu & Pillai, 2019).

The mediation results (with LS) prove that although TM strategies cause substantial improvement in the performance of university of the Cape Coast, such impact is however enhanced if leaders in the university spearhead and provide appropriate leadership support regarding the formulation and implementation of TM programs (Rehman & Iqbal, 2020). This confirms the assertion heldby previous empirical studies that leadership support is highly instrumental in securing the successful implementation of TM programs (Rehman & Iqbal, 2020; Chukwusa, 2019; Moser, Dawson & West,

2018; Sattayaraksa & Boon-itt, 2018). Therefore, ineffective corporate leadership would hamper the successful and efficient implementation of TM programs (Aboyassin & Abood, 2013). Predominantly, the study proves leadership support helps to better explain the impact of TA on OP, the effect of TD on OP, and the impact of TR on OP. On the other hand, the study proves leadership support, however, proved not to be efficacious in improving positively the effect of TE practices on OP. It rather reduced significantly the effect of TE practices on the performance of the University of Cape Coast. Inherently, Management of the University should relook at TE practices at particularly issues affecting the measures of TE in higher educational context to improve these factors to produce desirable OP. Thus, leadership support in promoting TE to effectively improve organizational performance rather proves to be counter-productive. Generally, the mediating role of LS contradicts the claims responsible leadership is not a significant mediator inclusive/exclusive TM-organizational downsizing (Mousa & Ayoubi, 2019) and, on the contrary, holds the view TM will fail if it is viewed purely as an HR initiative (Preece & Iles, 2008).

a) Theoretical, Practical and Policy implications

The findings of this study shed light on several unresolved issues in TM-leadership-OP literature. First. the findings have fulfilled the gap exposed by Anlesinya, Amposah Tawiah, and Dartey-Baah (2019) that studies in Africa regarding TM and OP have neglected the leadership mindset and that most of such studies also were not conducted in Ghana, only four were conducted in the Ghanaian context. Besides, the proposition that organizations in Ghana and the other parts of Africa do not effectively develop and maintain the unique talents of their workforce even when their potentials are recognized (Chukwusa, 2019) has been disproved by the findings of this study. This study emphatically shows public universities actively implement TM strategies as part of their humanistic managerial functions to ensure of corporate attainment goals including improvement in OP. As part of reducing the literature gaps, the study once again narrowed its scope to a public organization to provide grounds to challenge the assertion that the more focus on TM in large MNC organizations (Collings, Mellahi, & Cascio, 2019; Thunnissen & Gallardo-Gallardo, 2017) raises guestions about whether current assumptions in the TM literature related to this specific context help us to understand and explain the TM issues in other settings such as public sector organizations, SMEs, and organizations based in emerging market context (Gallardo-Gallardo, Thunnissen & Scullion, 2019).

Secondly, the study highlights the significant role of leadership support in the quest to fostering effective TM implementation to improve OP. It, therefore,

provides the framework that explains the mechanism between TM, OP, and leadership support. Theoretically, the test of hypotheses relating to the nature of the relationship between the independent variable (TM practices), dependent variable (OP) and the intervening or mediating variable (LS) has provided empirical evidence that better explains the nature of mechanism that explains behavior in the proposed framework thereby justifying the proposition championed by the Talent-Based Theory that talent is a crucial resource for providing sustainable competitive advantage which warrants the stance that decision-making should primarily focus on talent and competitive capabilities derived from talents (Roberts, as cited in Gallardo-Gallardo, Thunnissen & Scullion, 2020).

Besides the theoretical contributions, the findings of this study offer important practical managerial implications. First, to improve the performance of public universities, management of these universities must effectively devise and implement TM programs and specifically tailor such programs to the exact needs of public universities (contextualized) by providing appropriate resources and creating enabling environment that enhance the TM implementation process across all colleges and units within public universities. Special priority should be placed on TE practices because the direct effect proved to have the strongest predictive accuracy. However, the remaining components of TM (TD, TR, and TA) had weak predictive relevance. With this notwithstanding, all the various sub-constructs individually significantly cause positive improvement in OP of public universities. Therefore, it is managerially prudent for management of public universities to integrate these TM practices, given their significant factor loading, in the TM program, and implement same to ensure significant yet substantial improvement in OP.

Secondly, the study proves leadership support is key to better explaining the impact of TM strategies (on paper) otherwise practices (when implemented) on OP in public universities in Ghana. Management of public universities must provide, therefore, commitment resources to developing corporate leaders to create talent-oriented leaders to spearhead TM programs in public universities. HR experts in public universities could be a reliable pool to target. Thus, emphasizing on OP must integrate LS aspects into the TM programs. However, much must be done by leaders in terms of TE because this aspect rather interacted with LS negatively, which significantly reduced the combined effect on OP.

For policy purposes, the study proposes that all public universities in Ghana must formulate TM policy and integrate the same into their traditional HR functions to make it mandatory for these institutions to implement TM to improve OP. Such a policy should not discriminate against any category of the workforce in these public universities because the talent is found in

everyone in organizations. Besides, leadership training programs in public universities should champion TM orientation to build talent-mindset among corporate leaders in these public universities in Ghana and beyond.

VIII. Limitations and Future Research

The study targeted only lecturers in public universities and again targeted only those in the University of Cape Coast, hence limiting the generalizability of the findings to cover all universities (with the inclusion of private universities) in Ghana. Again, the model failed to relate how the predictors of the endogenous latent constructs relates with the predictors of the latent exogenous latent construct configured in the reflective model.

The study may not cover all factors associated with OP, and therefore, future studies may expand the current theoretical framework by integrating additional mediating or moderating variables into the analysis. Secondly, the study could be extended to SMEs in Ghana to close the gap of emphasis on large MN companies.

References Références Referencias

- Aboyassin, N. A. and Abood, N., 2013. The effect of ineffective leadership on individual and organizational performance in Jordanian institutions. Competitiveness Review: An International Business Journal incorporating Journal of Global Competitiveness, 23(1), pp.68-84.
- Abutabenjeh, S. and Jaradat, R., 2018. Clarification of research design, research methods, and research methodology: A guide for public administration researchers and practitioners. Teaching Public Administration, 36(3), pp.237-258.
- 3. Afum, E., Sun, B. Z. and Kusi, C. L. Y., 2019. Reverse Logistics, Stakeholder Influence and Supply Chain Performance in Ghanaian Manufacturing Sector. *Journal of Supply Chain Management Systems*, 8(3).
- 4. Ahrholdt, D. C., Gudergan, S. P. and Ringle, C. M., 2019. Enhancing loyalty: When improving consumer satisfaction and delight matters. *Journal of business research*, 94, pp.18-27.
- Albetkova, A., Chaignat, E., Gasquet, P., Heilmann, M., Isadore, J., Jasir, A., Martin, B. and Wilcke, B., 2019. A Competency Framework for Developing Global Laboratory Leaders. Frontiers in public health, 7.
- 6. Ananthan, S. S., Manaf, H. A., Hidayati, M. and Dewi, D. S. K., 2019. The development of talent management in Malaysian public sector: a comprehensive review. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 17(2), p.242.
- 7. Anlesinya, A., Dartey-Baah, K. and Amponsah-Tawiah, K., 2019. A review of empirical research on

- global talent management. FIIB Business Review, 8(2), pp.147-160.
- 8. Ansar, N. and Baloch, A., 2018. Talent and Talent Management: Definition and Issues. IBT Journal of Business Studies (JBS), 14(2).
- 9. Armstrong, M. and Murlis, H., 2007. Reward management: A handbook of remuneration strategy and practice. Kogan Page Publishers.
- 10. Bacha, E., 2014. The relationship between transformational leadership, task performance and characteristics. Journal of Management Development.
- 11. Barney, J. B., 2001. Resource-based theories of competitive advantage: A ten-year retrospective on resource-based view. Journal management, 27(6), pp.643-650.
- 12. Becker, B. E. and Huselid, M. A., 2006. Strategic human resources management: where do we go from here?. Journal of management, 32(6), pp.898-
- 13. Berthon, P., Ewing, M. and Hah, L. L., 2005. Captivating company: dimensions of attractiveness in employer branding. International journal of advertising, 24(2), pp.151-172.
- 14. Betchoo, N. K., 2014. The need for effective leadership in talent management in Mauritius. International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences, (27), pp.39-48.
- 15. bin Magbool, M. A. H., Amran, A., Nejati, M. and Jayaraman, K., 2016. Corporate sustainable practices business and talent attraction. Sustainability Accounting, Management and Policy Journal.
- 16. Borisova, O. N., Aleks, A., Saburova, L. N., Belokhvostova, N. V. and Sokolova, A. P., 2017. Talent management as an essential element in a corporate personnel development Academy of strategic management journal.
- 17. Boselie, P., Dietz, G. and Boon, C., 2005. Commonalities and contradictions in HRM and resource performance research. Human management journal, 15(3), pp.67-94.
- 18. Boudreau, J. W. and Ramstad, P. M., 2005. Talentship, talent segmentation, and sustainability: A new HR decision science paradigm for a new strategy definition. Human Resource Management: Published in Cooperation with the School of Business Administration, The University of Michigan and in alliance with the Society of Human Resources Management, 44(2), pp.129-136.
- 19. Boussebaa, M. and Morgan, G., 2008. Managing talent across national borders: the challenges faced by an international retail group. Critical perspectives on international business.
- 20. Brown, P. and Tannock, S., 2009. Education, meritocracy and the global war for talent. Journal of Education Policy, 24(4), pp.377-392.

- 21. Buckingham, M. and Vosburgh, R. M., 2001. The 21st century human resources function: It's the talent, stupid!. Human Resource Planning, 24(4).
- 22. Burbach, R. and Royle, T., 2010. Talent on demand?: Talent management in the German and Irish subsidiaries of a US multinational corporation. Personnel Review, 39(4), pp.414-431.
- 23. Cappelli, P., 2009. What's old is new again: managerial" talent" in an historical context. Research personnel and human resources management, 28, p.179.
- 24. Cascio, W. F. and Boudreau, J. W., 2016. The search for global competence: From international HR to talent management. Journal of World Business, 51(1), pp.103-114.
- 25. Chukwusa, J., 2018. Autocratic Leadership Style: Obstacle to Success in Academic Libraries. Library Philosophy and Practice, p.1.
- 26. CIPD, M., 2010. Employer Branding and Total Reward.
- 27. Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences, 2nd ed. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- 28. Collings, D. G. and Mellahi, K., 2009. Strategic talent management: A review and research agenda. Human resource management review, 19(4), pp.304-313. Cappelli, P., 2008. Talent management for the
 - twenty-first century. Harvard business review, 86(3), p.74.
- 29. Collings, D. G. and Mellahi, K., 2009. Strategic talent management: review and research agenda. Human resource management review, 19(4), pp.304-313.
- 30. Collings, D. G., Mellahi, K. and Cascio, W. F., 2019. Global talent management and performance in multinational enterprises: A multilevel perspective. Journal of management, 45(2), pp.540-566.
- 31. Coy, M. J., 2019. Research methodologies: Increasing understanding of the world. International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications, 9, pp.71-77.
- 32. Cui, W., Khan, Z. and Tarba, S. Y., 2018. Strategic talent management service **SMEs** in China. Thunderbird International **Business** Review, 60(1), pp.9-20.
- 33. Daft, R. L., 2000. Organization theory and design. South.
- 34. Dahshan, M., Keshk, L. and Dorgham, L. S., 2018. Talent Management and Its Effect on Organization Performance among Nurses at Shebin El-Kom Hospitals. International Journal of Nursing, 5(2), pp.108-123.
- 35. Damarasri, B. N. and Ahman, E., 2020. Talent management and work motivation to improve performance of employees. Dinasti International Journal of Education Management and Social Science, 1(4), pp.490-498.

- 36. DeRue, D. S. and Wellman, N., 2009. Developing leaders via experience: the role of developmental challenge, learning orientation, and feedback availability. Journal of applied psychology, 94(4),
- 37. Dijkstra, T. K. and Henseler, J., 2015. Consistent partial least squares path modeling. MIS quarterly, 39(2).
- 38. Doane. G., 2009. Evaluating effectiveness employee attraction strategies.
- 39. Doane, G., 2009. Evaluating effectiveness employee attraction strategies.
- 40. Egerová, D., 2013. Integrated talent management-A challenge or necessity for present management. Problems of Management in the 21st Century. 6. pp.4-6.
- 41. Eghbal, F., Hoveida, R., Seyadat, S. A. S., Samavatyan, H. and Yarmohammadian, M. H., 2017. The effect of talent management process on the research performance of faculty members with the mediating role of organizational justice. Форсайт, 11(2 (eng)).
- 42. Etzkowitz, H., 2014. The entrepreneurial university wave: from ivory tower to global economic engine. Industry and Higher education, 28(4), pp. 223-232.
- 43. Fegley, S., 2006. 2006 talent management: survey report. Society for Human Resource Management.
- 44. Gallardo Gallardo, E. and Thunnissen, M., 2016. Standing on the shoulders of giants? A critical review of empirical talent management research. Employee Relations, 38(1), pp. 31-56.
- 45. Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Thunnissen, M. and Scullion, H., 2020. Talent management: context matters.
- 46. Gandz, J., 2006. Talent development: the architecture of a talent pipeline that works. Ivey Business Journal, 70(3), pp.1-4.
- 47. Garavan, T. N., Carbery, R., Rock, A., Nilsson, S. and Ellström, P. E., 2012. Employability and talent management: **HRD** challenges for practices. European Journal of Training and Development.
- 48. Garson, G. D., 2016. Partial least squares: Regression and structural equation models. Asheboro, Statistical Associates NC: Publishers.
- 49. Gaskin, J., Godfrey, S. and Vance, A., 2018. Successful system use: It's not just who you are, but what you do. AIS Transactions on Human-Computer Interaction, 10(2), pp. 57-81.
- 50. Ghulami, H. R., Ab Hamid, M. R. and Zakaria, R., 2014. Partial least squares modelling of attitudes of students towards learning statistics. Journal of Quality Measurement and Analysis, 10(1), pp. 1-16.
- 51. Glen, C., 2006. Key skills retention and motivation: the war for talent still rages and retention is the high ground. Industrial and commercial training.

- 52. Golik, M. N. and Blanco, M. R., 2014. Talent identification and development tools. Management Research: The Journal of the Iberoamerican Academy of Management.
- 53. Griffin, M., 2003. Organizational performance model. as quoted in T Ramayah, N Samat and MC Lo (2011), "Market Orientation, Service Quality and Organizational Performance in Service Organizations in Malaysia", Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration, 3(1), pp. 8-27.
- 54. Hair Jr, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. and Sarstedt, M., 2016. A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). Sage publications.
- 55. Hair Jr, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Hopkins, L. and Kuppelwieser, V.G., 2014. Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). European business review.
- 56. Hair Jr, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Matthews, L. M. and Ringle, C.M., 2016. Identifying and treating unobserved heterogeneity with FIMIX-PLS: part Imethod. European Business Review.
- 57. Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. and Anderson, R.E., 2018. Multivariate data analysis. Cengage.
- 58. Hair, J. F., Risher, J. J., Sarstedt, M. and Ringle, C.M., 2019. When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM. European Business Review.
- 59. Hair, J. F., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M. and Mena, J. A., 2012. An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research. Journal of the academy of marketing science, 40(3), pp. 414 -433.
- 60. Hendriks, M., Burger, M., Rijsenbilt, A., Pleeging, E. and Commandeur, H., 2020. Virtuous leadership: a source employee well-being trust. Management Research Review.
- 61. Henseler, J., 2017. Partial least squares path modeling. In Advanced methods for modeling markets (pp. 361-381). Springer, Cham.
- 62. Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M. and Sarstedt, M., 2012. Using partial least squares path modeling in advertising research: basic concepts and recent issues. In Handbook of research on international advertising. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- 63. Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M. and Sarstedt, M., 2015. A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. Journal of the academy of marketing science, 43(1), pp. 115-135.
- 64. Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M. and Sinkovics, R. R., 2009. The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. In New challenges to international marketing. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- 65. Hongal, P. and Kinange, U., 2020. A Study on Talent Management and its Impact on Organization Performance-An Empirical Review. International Journal of Engineering and Management Research, 10.

- 66. Horváthová, P., 2011. *Talent management*. Wolters Kluwer Českárepublika.
- 67. Hosen, S., Islam, M. A., Arshad, M. M., Khan, A. M. and Alam, M. K., 2018. Talent management: An escalating strategic focus in Bangladeshi banking industry. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 8(1), pp. 156-166.
- 68. Hughes, J. C. and Rog, E., 2008. Talent management: A strategy for improving employee recruitment, retention and engagement within hospitality organizations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(7), pp. 743-757.
- 69. Huselid, M. A., Becker, B. E. and Beatty, R. W., 2005. *The workforce scorecard: Managing human capital to execute strategy.* Harvard Business Review Press.
- 70. Hussain, S., Fangwei, Z., Siddiqi, A. F., Ali, Z. and Shabbir, M.S., 2018. Structural equation model for evaluating factors affecting quality of social infrastructure projects. *Sustainability*, 10(5), p.1415.
- 71. Ismail, A. and Zakaria, N., 2009. Relationship between interactional justice and pay for performance as an antecedent of job satisfaction: An empirical study in Malaysia. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 4(3), pp.190-199.
- 72. Jackson, S. E. and Schuler, R. S., 1990. Human resource planning: Challenges for industrial/organizational psychologists. *American psychologist*, 45(2), p. 223.
- 73. Jauhari, V., Sehgal, R. and Sehgal, P., 2013. Talent management and employee engagement: Insights from Infotech Enterprises Ltd. *Journal of Services Research*, 13(1).
- 74. Jayaraman, S., Talib, P. and Khan, A. F., 2018. Integrated Talent Management Scale: Construction and Initial Validation. SAGE Open, 8(3), p.2158244018780965.
- 75. Khatri, P., Gupta, S., Gulati, K. and Chauhan, S., 2010. Talent management in HR. *Journal of management and strategy*, 1(1), p.39.
- 76. Khoreva, V. and Kostanek, E., 2019. Evolving talent management patterns and challenges in Russia and Kazakhstan. *Baltic Journal of Management*.
- 77. Knipschild, P., 1995. Some examples of systematic reviews. *Systematic reviews*, pp.9-16.
- 78. Knott, E., 2016. The effect of talent management practices on employee performance among real estate companies in Kenya: A case of suraya property group limited (Doctoral dissertation, United States International University-Africa).
- 79. Kock, N. and Lynn, G., 2012. Lateral collinearity and misleading results in variance-based SEM: An illustration and recommendations. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems*, 13(7).

- 80. Kock, N., 2015. Common method bias in PLS-SEM: A full collinearity assessment approach. *International Journal of e-Collaboration (ijec)*, 11(4), pp.1-10.
- 81. Kumar, P. and Kumar Baradiya, V., 2019. Construction Risk Assessment through Partial Least Square Technique. *Available at SSRN 3353125*.
- 82. Kwegyir-Aggrey, P., 2016. Assessment of Staff Retention in Private Universities in Ghana: A Study of the Perez University College, Winneba. *Journal of Education and e-Learning Research*, 3(4), pp.130-137
- 83. Kwenin, D. O., Muathe, S. and Nzulwa, R., 2013. The influence of employee rewards, human resource policies and job satisfaction on the retention of employees in Vodafone Ghana Limited. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(12), pp.13-20.
- 84. Latukha, M., Selivanovskikh, L. and Maclennan, M. L., 2019. Exploring the Context-Specific Talent Management Practices and Their Link to FIRMS' Absorptive Capacity in Emerging Markets: Brazil vs Russia. International Business in a VUCA World: The Changing Role of States and Firms (Progress in International Business Research, Vol. 14), Emerald Publishing Limited, pp.419-433.
- 85. Le, P. B., & Lei, H. (2018). The mediating role of trust in stimulating the relationship between transformational leadership and knowledge sharing processes. *Journal of Knowledge Management*.
- 86. Lee, H.W., 2017. Sustainable leadership: an empirical investigation of its effect on organizational effectiveness. *International Journal of Organization Theory & Behavior (PrAcademics Press)*, 20(4).
- 87. Lepak, D. P. and Snell, S. A., 1999. The human resource architecture: Toward a theory of human capital allocation and development. *Academy of management review*, 24(1), pp.31-48.
- 88. Lew, S. L., Lau, S. H. and Leow, M. C., 2019. Usability factors predicting continuance of intention to use cloud e-learning application. *Heliyon*, 5(6), p.e01788.
- 89. Lewis, R. E. and Heckman, R.J., 2006. Talent management: A critical review. *Human resource management review*, 16(2), pp.139-154.
- 90. Limsila, K. and Ogunlana, S. O., 2008. Performance and leadership outcome correlates of leadership styles and subordinate commitment. *Engineering, construction and architectural management*.
- 91. Mahfoozi, A., Salajegheh, S., Ghorbani, M. and Sheikhi, A., 2018. Developing a talent management model using government evidence from a large-sized city, Iran. *Cogent Business & Management*, 5(1), p. 1449290.
- 92. Masa'deh, R., Almajali, D., Obeidat, B. Y., Aqqad, N. and Tarhini, A., 2016. The Role of Knowledge Management Infrastructure in Enhancing Job

- Satisfaction. *International* Journal of Public Administration, 39(14), pp.14-34.
- 93. Maurya, K. K. and Agarwal, M., 2018. Organisational talent management and perceived employer branding. International Journal of Organizational Analysis.
- 94. McGuire, D., Bagher, M., Stewart, J. and Harte, V., 2010. The implications of talent management for diversity training: an exploratory study. Journal of European Industrial Training.
- 95. Mellahi, K. and Collings, D. G., 2010. The barriers to effective global talent management: The example of corporate élites in MNEs. Journal of World Business, 45(2), pp.143-149.
- 96. Mensah, J. K. and Bawole, J. N., 2017. Person-job fit matters in parastatal institutions: Testing the mediating effect of person-job fit in the relationship between talent management and employee outcomes. International Review of Administrative Sciences, p.0020852317704501.
- 97. Mensah, J. K., 2015. A "coalesced framework" of talent management and employee performance. International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management.
- 98. Meyers, M. C., van Woerkom, M., Paauwe, J. and Dries, N., 2020. HR managers' talent philosophies: prevalence and relationships with perceived talent management practices. The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 31(4), pp.562-588.
- 99. Miiro, F., Othman, A., Nordinc, M.S. and Ibrahim, M.B., 2016. A measurement model of talent management practices among university staff in central region of Uganda.
- 100. Miiro, F., Othman, A., Nordinc, M. S. and Ibrahim, M. B., 2016. A measurement model of talent management practices among university staff in central region of Uganda.
- 101. Mohammed, A. A., Hafeez-Baig, A. and Gururajan, R., 2018. Talent management as a core source of innovation and social development in higher education. Talent Management as a Core Source of Innovation and Social Development in Higher Education, pp.1-31.
- 102. Moser, K. S., Dawson, J. F. and West, M. A., 2019. Antecedents of team innovation in health care teams. Creativity and Innovation Management, 28(1), pp.72-81.
- 103. Moturi, K. A., 2013. Talent management as a source of competitive advantage for Kenya Data Networks Ltd (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi,).
- 104. Mousa. Μ. and Ayoubi, R. M.. Inclusive/exclusive talent management, responsible leadership and organizational downsizing. Journal of Management Development.
- 105. Muyia, M. H., Wekullo, C. S. and Nafukho, F. M., 2018. Talent development in emerging economies

- through learning and development capacity building. Advances in Developing Human Resources, 20(4), pp.498-516.
- 106. Nagshbandi, M. M. and Jasimuddin, S. M., 2018. Knowledge-oriented leadership innovation: Role of knowledge management capability in France-based multinationals. International Business Review, 27(3), pp.701-713.
- 107. Nikitina, L., Paidi, R. and Furuoka, F., 2019. Using bootstrapped quantile regression analysis for small sample research in applied linguistics: Some methodological considerations. PloS one, 14(1).
- 108. Nyarku, K. M., Kusi, L. Y., Domfeh, H. A., Ofori, H., Koomson, I. and Owusu, J.A., 2018. Moderating the Service Quality-Customer Loyalty Relation through Customer Satisfaction, Gender and Banking Status: Evidence from Mobile Money Users in University Of Cape Coast, Ghana. International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 8(6).
- 109 Oehley, A. M., 2007. The development and evaluation of a partial talent management competency model (Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch).
- 110. Paisey, C. and Paisey, N. J., 2018. Talent management in academia: the effect of discipline and context on recruitment. Studies in Higher Education, 43(7), pp.1196-1214.
- 111. Pandita, D. and Ray, S., 2018. Talent management and employee engagement-a meta-analysis of their impact on talent retention. Industrial Commercial Training.
- 112. Parry, E., Stavrou-Costea, E. and Morley, M. J., 2011. The Cranet international research network on human resource management in retrospect and prospect. Human Resource Management Review, 21(1), pp.1-4.
- 113. Petkovic, M. I., Dordevic, G. T. and Vasic, B. V., 2013. BER performance of IM/DD FSO system with OOK over gamma-gamma atmospheric turbulence channel with pointing errors in. In Proc. 11th International Conference **Applied** Electromagnetics-? EC.
- 114. Phillips, J. and Gully, S. M., 2012. Organizational Culture and Organizational Change. Organizational behavior: Tools for success.
- 115. Pradhan, R. K. and Jena, L. K., 2017. Employee performance at workplace: Conceptual model and empirical validation. Business Perspectives and Research, 5(1), pp.69-85.
- 116. Preece, D. and Iles, P., 2008, December. Leadership and leadership development in context: Expressing and addressing executive uncertainties. In 7th International Conference on Studying Leadership

- 117. Quansah, F. and Asamoah, D., 2019. Chew! Pour! Pass! and Forget!. *Social Science and Humanities Journal*, pp.901-909.
- 118. Rabbi, F., Ahad, N., Kousar, T. and Ali, T., 2015. Talent management as a source of competitive advantage. *Journal of Asian business strategy*, 5(9), p.208.
- 119. Rawashdeh, A., 2018. The impact of green human resource management on organizational environmental performance in Jordanian health service organizations. *Management Science Letters*, 8(10), pp.1049-1058.
- 120. Rawashdeh, A. M., 2018. The Impact of Talent Management Strategies on Bank Performance in Jordanian Commercial Banks. *Modern Applied Science*, 12(12).
- 121 Rehman, U. U. and Iqbal, A., 2020. Nexus of knowledge-oriented leadership, knowledge management, innovation and organizational performance in higher education. *Business Process Management Journal*.
- 122. Ringle, C. M., 2006. Segmentation for path models and unobserved heterogeneity: The finite mixture partial least squares approach. *University of Hamburg research paper on marketing and retailing*, (35).
- 123. Ringle, C. M., Wende, S. and Becker, J. M., 2015. SmartPLS 3. SmartPLS GmbH, Boenningstedt. *J. of Serv. Sci. and Managm*, 10(3).
- 124. Ringle, C. M., Wende, S. and Becker, J. M., 2015. SmartPLS 3.2. 7. SmartPLS GmbH: Bönningstedt, Germany.
- 125. Riquelme, H. E., Rios, R. E., & Gadallah, A. S. (2019). The influence of servant leadership on an organization's serving-driven capabilities in a Kuwaiti bank environment. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*.
- 126. Rothwell, W., 2010. Effective succession planning: Ensuring leadership continuity and building talent from within. Amacom.
- 127. Rukunga, Y. M. and Nzulwa, J., 2018. The role of talent management strategies on organizational performance: A case of telecommunication firms in Kenya. *International Academic Journal of Human* Resource and Business Administration, 3 (3), pp. 263-288.
- 128. Santhoshkumar, R. and Rajasekar, N., 2012. Talent Measure Sculpt for Effective Talent Management: A Practical Revise. *IUP Journal of Management Research*, 11(1).
- 129 Sattayaraksa, T. and Boon-itt, S., 2018. The roles of CEO transformational leadership and organizational Factors on product innovation performance. European Journal of Innovation Management.
- 130. Schuberth, F., Henseler, J. and Dijkstra, T. K., 2018. Partial least squares path modeling using ordinal

- categorical indicators. *Quality & Quantity*, 52(1), pp.9-35.
- 131. Schuberth, F., Henseler, J. and Dijkstra, T. K., 2018. Partial least squares path modeling using ordinal categorical indicators. *Quality & Quantity*, 52(1), pp.9-35.
- 132. Schutt, R. K., 2018. Investigating the social world: The process and practice of research. Sage publications.
- 133. Schweyer, A., 2010. Talent management systems: Best practices in technology solutions for recruitment, retention and workforce planning. John Wiley & Sons.
- 134. Scullion, H. and Collings, D. G., 2011. Global talent management: Introduction. In *Global talent management* (pp. 19-32). Routledge.
- 135. Sharma, P. N., Shmueli, G., Sarstedt, M., Danks, N. and Ray, S., 2019. Prediction-oriented model selection in partial least squares path modeling. *Decision Sciences*.
- 136. Shiba, K., Nishimoto, M., Sugimoto, M. and Ishikawa, Y., 2015. The association between meditation practice and job performance: A cross-sectional study. *PloS one*, *10*(5).
- 137. Shmueli, G., Sarstedt, M., Hair, J. F., Cheah, J. H., Ting, H., Vaithilingam, S. and Ringle, C.M., 2019. Predictive model assessment in PLS-SEM: guidelines for using PLSpredict. European Journal of Marketing.
- 138. Sileyew, K. J., 2019. Research Design and Methodology. In *Text Mining-Analysis, Programming and Application*. Intech Open.
- 139. Sistonen, S., 2005. Talent management. New York, NY: Deloitte & Touche Ov, 12.
- 140. Sivathanu, B. and Pillai, R., 2019. Leveraging Technology for Talent Management: Foresight for Organizational Performance. *International Journal of Sociotechnology and Knowledge Development (IJSKD)*, 11(2), pp.16-30.
- 141. Sowa, J. E., Selden, S. C. and Sandfort, J.R., 2004. No longer unmeasurable? A multidimensional integrated model of nonprofit organizational effectiveness. *Nonprofit and voluntary sector quarterly*, 33(4), pp.711-728.
- 142. Stannack, P., 1996. Perspectives on employee performance. *Management research news*.
- 143. Sukmayanti, N. K. and Sintaasih, D. K., 2018. The Effect of Perceived Organizational Support and Psychological Empowerment on Job Performance with Organizational Citizenship Behavior as Mediation.
- 144. Sunanda, K., 2018. Driving talent management practices to organization performance-HCL Technologies. Asian Journal of Research in Business Economics and Management, 8(7), pp.16-28.

- 145. Tansley, C., Kirk, S. and Tietze, S., 2013. The currency of talent management—A reply to "talent management and the relevance of context: Towards approach". Human Resource pluralistic Management Review, 23(4), pp.337-340.
- 146. Tarique, I. and Schuler, R. S., 2010. Global talent management: Literature review, integrative framework. and suggestions further research. Journal of world business, 45(2), pp.122-
- 147. Terera, S. R. and Ngirande, H., 2014. The impact of training on employee job satisfaction and retention among administrative staff members: A case of a selected tertiary institution. Journal of social sciences, 39(1), pp.43-50.
- 148. Thunnissen. M. and Gallardo-Gallardo, E., 2017. Talent management in practice: An integrated and dynamic approach. Emerald Group Publishing. Vaiman, V., Collings, D. G. and Scullion, H., 2017. Contextualising talent management. Journal Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance.
- 149. Veronesi, G., Kirkpatrick, I. and Altanlar, A., 2015. Clinical leadership and the changing governance of public hospitals: implications for patient experience. Public Administration, 93(4), pp.1031-1048.
- 150. Vinzi, V. E., Trinchera, L. and Amato, S., 2010. PLS path modeling: from foundations to recent developments and open issues for model assessment and improvement. In Handbook of partial least squares (pp. 47-82). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.
- 151. Wahba, M., 2016. The effect of leadership style on talent management practices comparative study between public and private sector Egypt. International Journal of African and Asian Studies, 19(1), pp.5-16.
- 152. Walker, J. W. and La Rocco, J. M., 2002. Talent pools: The best and the rest. (Perspectives). Human Resource Planning, 25(3), pp.12-15.
- 153. Wandia, S.M., 2013. Talent management as a source of competitive advantage: a case study of symphony (K) Itd (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nairobi).
- 154. Wellins, R. S., Smith, A. B. and Erker, S., 2009. Nine practices for effective talent management. Development dimensions international pp.1-14.
- 155. Wilkinson, W., Podhorska, I. and Siekelova, A., 2019. Does the Growth of Artificial Intelligence and Automation Shape Talent Attraction Retention?. Psycho sociological Issues in Human Resource Management, 7(1), pp.30-35.
- 156. Wolor, C. W., Khairunnisa, H. and Purwana, D., Implementation Talent Management to Improve

- Organization's Performance In Indonesia To Fight Industrial Revolution 4.0.
- 157. Yener, M. I., Gurbuz, F. G. and Acar, P., 2017. and Validation of a Talent Development Management Measurement Instrument. Journal of Business Economics and Finance, 6(3), pp.233-245.
- 158. Zainab, A. N., 2000. Publication productivity, focus on institutional, collaborative and communicational correlates: A review of literature. Malaysian Journal of Library & Information Science, 5(1), pp.53-94.
- 159. Zheng, Y. and Liu, S., 2020. Bibliometric analysis for talent identification by the subject-author-citation three-dimensional evaluation model in the discipline of physical education. Library Hi Tech.
- 160. Zyphur, M. J. and Pierides, D. C., 2019. Making quantitative research work: From positivist dogma to actual social scientific inquiry. Journal of Business Ethics, pp.1-14.